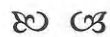


AMERICAN JOURNEYS COLLECTION



A Description of the
New Netherlands

by Adriaen van der Donck

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V.

DESCRIPTION
OF THE
NEW NETHERLANDS,

BY
ADRIAEN VAN der DONCK, J. U. D.

Translated from the original Dutch,

BY
HON. JEREMIAH JOHNSON,
Of Brooklyn, N. Y.

PRELIMINARY NOTICE.

THE following work is the production of a Dutch scholar who in early times joined a colony of his countrymen on the banks of the Hudson. As his little volume has never appeared until now in an English dress, it has been less known and appreciated, probably, by succeeding writers, than its merits deserve. It is, indeed, rather a description of the natural features of the country, for the purpose of commending it to the attention of a Netherland public with a view to promote emigration, than an account of its civil condition, or of what had previously transpired in relation to its affairs. Such as it is, however, it will not be found destitute of interest either to the historical student, or to those descendants of the ancient burghers, who, having lost their ancestral tongue, are only able to converse with their forefathers through the medium of an interpreter.

The author, ADRIAEN VAN der DONCK, enjoys the distinction of having been the first lawyer in the Dutch colony. He was educated at the University of Leyden, and, after pursuing a course of legal study, received the usual degree of *Juris utriusque Doctor*, or as the title-page of his book has it, *Beyder Rechten Doctoer*—Doctor of both laws, that is, the civil and canon. He was subsequently admitted to the practice of an advocate in the supreme court of Holland. His standing and reputation in the Fatherland may be inferred from his having been appointed by the patroon of Rensselaerwyck, who must have known something of his character, to the important office of Sheriff of that colony.

Van der Donck arrived here in a bark of the patroon Killian Van Rensselaer, in the autumn of 1642, and immediately entered upon the discharge of the duties of his office. The colony of Rensselaerwyck, which embraced an extensive territory on either side of the Hudson, was yet in its infancy. Van Rensselaer himself had been only five years in the country; and although a trading-house was established in the same quarter as early as 1614, yet the first successful efforts to plant a colony were not made until 1630, when the patroon through an agent obtained his first title from the Indians, and despatched a body of colonists from Holland under a liberal charter of privileges from the West India Company. He followed them himself in 1637. The seat of the

colony was at Fort Orange, where Albany is now situated, and there our author at first resided.*

A few years after, Van der Donck purchased an estate on the Hudson near the upper extremity of Manhattan Island, about sixteen miles from this city, afterwards known as Yonkers. One of his grants of land at that place was made to him in 1648, under the name of JONKER (pronounced *Yonker*) Van der Donck, and it appears that he was familiarly called *the Yonker*, a common appellation for a gentleman among the Dutch farmers. His land was spoken of, as we find in the Colonial Records, as *the Yonker's land*, and there can be little doubt that the name of the present town of Yonkers was in this way derived from him.† Van der Donck made several purchases from the Indians in that neighborhood, and altogether acquired an extensive tract of land, bounded on the south by the creek *Paprimenin*, to which the Dutch name of *Spyten-duyvel* was afterwards given. On the north was the *Zaeg Kil*, or Saw-Mill creek, at the mouth of which is the present village of Yonkers, or Phillipsburg, where our author erected mills and laid out a plantation. The land and river of Bronck, or *Bronx*, another Dutch planter, bounded the estate on the east. Nearly twenty years after, in 1666, when the New-Netherlands had passed into the hands of the English, this estate was re-granted, or confirmed, to the widow of Van der Donck, who had married a second husband of the name of Oneale.

A controversy arose at that period between the government of the colony and several of the colonists, among whom was our author, which led to a remonstrance, addressed to the States General, against the powers exercised by the West India Company, in which the administrations of Kieft and Stuyvesant were violently assailed. This document, signed by Van der Donck and a few others, was printed in Holland, in 1650, and formed a small quarto volume of about fifty pages, entitled, *Vertoogh van Nieuw Nederlandt, weghens de Ghelegenheydt, Vruchtbaerheydt, en soberen Staet desselfs. In s'Graven Hage, 1650.* (An Exposition of the New Netherlands, in respect to the situation, fertility, and wretched condition of the country. At the Hague, 1650.)‡

* For a clear and comprehensive sketch of the colony and manor of Rensselaerwyck, see the Discourse of D. D. Barnard, on the life and services of the late patroon, STEPHEN VAN RENSSELAER.

† See a Memoir read before this Society, in 1816, by the late Judge Egbert Benson, second edition, page 56. Mr. Moulton, author of a volume relating to the early history of New-York, has furnished the editor with several extracts from the Colonial Records in reference to this matter.

‡ This is the volume referred to by Lambrechtsen, p. 83, which he regrets not having been able to procure. It is also mentioned by Van der Donck in the following work. A copy of it has been recently imported from Holland by H. C. Murphy, Esq., of Brooklyn, which the Editor has had an opportunity of examining. '*Vertoogh*' is sometimes translated *remonstrance*.

Whatever gave rise to this attempt to shake the authority of the West India Company, on the part of Van der Donck and his associates, it proved entirely fruitless in its results, and only served to re-act unfavorably upon the disaffected parties. In consequence of it, he was permitted only a limited access to the records of the colony for the composition of the present work; and on his application to the Directors of the West India Company for leave to pursue the practice of his profession, he was only allowed to give advice, being forbidden to plead, on the novel ground that, "as there was no other lawyer in the colony, there would be no one to oppose him." This was in 1653.*

It does not appear with certainty in what year the first edition of the present work was published; the second, from which the following translation is made, was issued from the press in 1656, under the auspices of Evert Nieuwenhof, a bookseller at Amsterdam. As the privilege, or copyright, bears date May 14th, 1653, it is highly probable that the first edition appeared about that time.

A translation of the work was prepared some years ago by the late Rev. John Bassett, D.D., formerly of Albany, who issued printed proposals to publish it by subscription; but sufficient encouragement not being afforded to induce him to give it to the press, Dr. Bassett offered to dispose of his manuscript to this Society for publication. The subject was referred to a committee, who reported, at the August meeting in 1820, that the expense of printing an edition of one thousand copies would be from *eight hundred to a thousand dollars.*† Nothing further appears to have been done on the subject, although a volume of Collections was published by the Society the ensuing year.

The present translation is from the pen of the Hon. Jeremiah Johnson, late Mayor of Brooklyn, a gentleman who combines with Dutch descent a familiar acquaintance with the language of his colonial ancestors. The translation was made by him several years ago, and the Editor having applied for permission to insert it in the present volume, the request was at once cheerfully acceded to, and a copy subsequently furnished, from which the publication is now made.

EDITOR.

* The answer to this application of Van der Donck is among the Albany Records.

† Minutes of the Society. The memoir on the Mohawk Indians by Rev. J. Megapolensis, jr., was included in the estimate; but that essay is so brief as to occupy only eight or nine pages of Hazard's State Papers, published in 1792.

A
DESCRIPTION
OF THE
NEW NETHERLANDS,
(AS THE SAME ARE AT THE PRESENT TIME;)

COMPREHENDING
THE FRUITFULNESS AND NATURAL ADVANTAGES OF THE COUNTRY,
AND THE DESIRABLE OPPORTUNITIES WHICH IT PRE-
SENTS, WITHIN ITSELF, AND FROM ABROAD, FOR
THE SUBSISTENCE OF MAN; WHICH ARE
NOT SURPASSED ELSEWHERE.

TOGETHER WITH REMARKS ON THE CHARACTER AND PECULIAR
CUSTOMS OF THE SAVAGES, OR NATIVES OF THE LAND;

ALSO,

A PARTICULAR DESCRIPTION OF THE WONDERFUL NATURE
AND HABITS OF THE BEAVER.

WITH

A DIALOGUE BETWEEN A NETHERLAND PATRIOT
AND A NEW NETHERLANDER, ON THE
ADVANTAGES OF THE COUNTRY.

WRITTEN BY

ADRIAEN VAN der DONCK,
Doctor of both Laws, at present in the New Netherlands.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,
THE REGULATIONS OF THE AFFAIRS OF THE COUNTRY, BY THE
COUNCIL OF THE CITY OF AMSTERDAM, &c.

THE SECOND EDITION,
With a Map of the Country.

AT AMSTERDAM, published by Evert Nieuwenhof, Bookseller.
ANNO DOMINI, 1656.

NOTE.

FOLLOWING the title page in the original work there is, in the first place, an extract from the Privilege or Copyright, granted to the Author by the States-General of the United Netherlands for the term of fifteen years, on condition that he obtain a like authority from the Province or Provinces in which the book shall be printed and sold: Dated at the Hague, May 24th, 1653.

Next succeeds a similar license from the States of Holland and West Friesland, in which the book was published: Dated at the Hague, July 21st, 1653.

Lastly, an extract from the Minutes of the Directors of the West India Company, at the Chamber of Amsterdam, February 25th, 1655, setting forth the request of Evert Nieuwenhof, bookseller, for the approbation of the Company in reference to the same work, which was accordingly granted. Certified in the absence of the Advocate, by E. Van Seventer,
1655. EDITOR.

DEDICATION.

To the Illustrious, Most Wise, and Prudent Lords, the Honourable Ruling Burgomasters of the far-famed commercial City of Amsterdam,

JOHN HUYDEKOOPER, Knight, Lord of Maerseveen and Neerdyck, &c.,
CORNELIUS DE GRAEF, Free Lord of South-Poelsbrook,
JOHN vande POL HERMANZ,
HENDRICK DIRCKSZ SPIEGEL:—

MY LORDS,

The glory and renown of this good city of Amsterdam are not only spread throughout the world by reason of the extensive commerce of which it is the seat, but also, in an especial manner, from the fact that a great number of far distant lands have been sought, discovered, and visited by sea from its port. Amongst those by whom such discoveries have been made in this last century, not the least in consideration are the two Companies of the East and West Indies, under whose direction voyages have been performed; and although the West India Company seems to be now in a declining condition, yet that part of North America called New-Netherlands, (of which this book treats,) possesses so great an intrinsic value, that it deserves to be held in high estimation, as well as on account of the extensive trade with it, which is constantly on the increase. For which cause, and especially in view of the good and noble disposition manifested by your Honours, more and more every day, for the support and restoration of the, alas! almost ruined West India Company, I have ventured to dedicate to you, with becoming reverence, this little and inconsiderable treatise, containing a description of that part of the world; trusting that it will not be taken ill of me for so doing, inasmuch as it is a sincere expression of respect from one who is, and ever will be,

My Lords,

Your Lordships' very humble, faithful,
And obedient citizen and servant,

E. NIEUWENHOF.

LIKEWISE TO

Their High Mightinesses, the Lords Proprietors of the West-India Company, at the Council Chambers of Amsterdam.

MY LORDS,—As soon as this History came to hand, I deemed it necessary and proper to print and publish the same, thereby to make known the beauties and advantages of the flourishing Colony of New-Netherlands, which, under your wise and careful direction, is advancing in prosperity, all of which should be publicly known, particularly in Amsterdam. And when your Honours, with great care and vigilance, are providing to increase the power of the Colony by settlers therein, (which in all ages has been considered the firmest bond to secure conquered countries, as well as newly discovered lands,) it therefore appeared proper to make it known to my countrymen, particularly to many of my brave and faithful fellow-citizens, to the end that they may be invited by the pure air and fruitfulness of the New-Netherlands to go thither, where (if they be not fastidious, lazy plodders) they may, with industry and economy, acquire property and gain wealth, and enjoy the fruits of the earth and of their industry, in as healthy a climate as can be found on the surface of the globe.

And inasmuch as your Honourable Company provide for the necessary intercourse with the Colony, supplying the inhabitants and settlers with the articles which are required, and not yet produced therein, and have provided for the establishment of the true Christian religion, and for extending light from the Word of God in the country to those who sit in darkness—all of which is worthy and commendable: Therefore I trust that this notice may not be unacceptable in regard to the work which is now preparing for the press, as the same will be published by a sincere well-wisher of the Company, and of the Chamber over which your Honours do most wisely and carefully preside. With which I remain,

Most honoured Lords, &c.

Your obedient and obligated servant,

EVERT NIEUWENHOF.

TO THE READER.

HONOURED READER,—As I have remarked the great zeal shown by our High and Venerable Lords Burgomasters of this City, together with the Most Worshipful Directors of the West India Company, in respect to the affairs of the New-Netherlands, which their Worships, as Founders and Patroons, for the benefit of the public, have taken much to heart; I also have become inflamed with a like zeal, to republish the Description of those countries, and for the better understanding thereof, have added a small map of the same. Besides the accurate description of the nature and qualities of the soil, it also contains the excellent regulations of their Worships, tending to the special advantage of those who are disposed to emigrate thither; to whom they have granted as much land as each shall be able to improve for pasture or cultivation, under the same restrictions as are imposed on landholders at home. The understanding reader will learn from the articles comprised in these regulations, the sincere desire of their Worships to make a liberal provision for those countries; and thus will be exhibited new proofs of their wisdom.

May you receive my labours with favour. Farewell.

E. NIEUWENHOF.

[The dedication to the Burgomasters, and the address to the Reader, are translated by the Editor, not being included in the translation of Mr. Johnson.]

ON THE PATRONS AND THE HISTORY OF
NEW-NETHERLANDS.

Still Amstel's faithful Burgher-Lords do live,
Who East and West extend their faithful care;
To lands and men good laws they wisely give,
That like the beasts ran wild in open air.
With aged care Holland's gardens still they save—
And in New-Netherlands their men will ne'er be slaves.

Why mourn about Brazil, full of base Portuguese ?
When Van der Donck shows so far much better fare ;
Where wheat fills golden ears, and grapes abound in trees ;
Where fruit and kine are good with little care ;
Men may mourn a loss, when vain would be their voice,
But when their loss brings gain, they also may rejoice.

Then, reader, if you will, go freely there to live,
We name it NETHERLAND, though it excels it far ;
If you dislike the voyage, pray due attention give,
To VAN DER DONCK, his book, which, as a leading star,
Directs toward the land where many people are,
Where lowland Love and Laws all may freely share.

EVERT NIEUWENHOF.

DESCRIPTION, &c.

Where New-Netherlands is situated.

This country is situated in the New American World, beginning north of the Equinoctial Line, 38 deg. and 53 min., extending north-easterly along the sea-coast, to the 42d deg., and is named *New-Netherlands*, by the Netherlanders, for reasons to be related hereafter; lying in the latitude of Sardinia and Corsica, in the Mediterranean Sea, and of Spain and France along the Ocean; the *South River** corresponding exactly with the Flemish Islands, with the rivers of Lisbon, with the south point of the Island of Sardinia, and of the *Punctum Meridionale*† of the Orientals, reckoning an easterly course from the Canary Islands by west, upon the 316th degree, or counting due west 44 degrees from the *Punctum Meridionale*, whereon we hold the Canary Islands, being 660 miles, corresponding with Cape Mesuratta on the Barbary coast in Africa, in the kingdom of Tripoli, and with Cape Spartivento, being the uttermost corner of Italy against the Mediterranean Sea. *New-Netherlands* is a fine, acceptable, healthy, extensive and agreeable country, wherein all people can more easily gain a competent support, than in the Netherlands, or in any other quarter of the globe, which is known to me or which I have visited.

When, and by whom, New-Netherlands was first discovered.

This country was first found and discovered in the year of our Lord 1609; when, at the cost of the incorporated East In-

* The river Delaware.

† The *Punctum Meridionale* of the orientals, is probably the meridian assumed by Ptolemy, which passed through the farthest of the Canary Islands. The Dutch geographers and mariners pitched upon the Peak of Teneriffe for their meridian. See *Chambers*. The Arabian geographers chose to fix their meridian upon the utmost shore of the Western ocean, which was then the most westerly part of the known world, and may be the Oriental Meridian referred to, and adopted by Ptolemy, who flourished 150 years before Christ, and reduced Geography to a regular system. After the fall of the Roman empire, Europe was enveloped in darkness, when the arts and sciences were preserved by the Arabians and the orientals of Asia.—TRANS.

dia Company, a ship named the Half-Moon was fitted out to discover a westerly passage to the kingdom of China. This ship was commanded by Hendrick Hudson, as captain and supercargo, who was an Englishman by birth, and had resided many years in Holland, during which he had been in the employment of the East India Company. This ship sailed from the Canary Islands, steering a course north by west; and after sailing twenty days with good speed, land was discovered, which, by their calculation, lay 320 degrees by west. On approaching the land, and observing the coast and shore convenient, they landed, and examined the country as well as they could at the time, and as opportunity offered; from which they were well satisfied that no Christian people had ever been there before, and that they were the first who by Providence had been guided to the discovery of the country.

Why this country is called New Netherlands.

We have before related, that the Netherlanders, in the year 1609, had first discovered this country, of which they took possession as their own in right of their discovery, and finding the country fruitful and advantageously situated, possessing good and safe havens, rivers, fisheries, and many other worthy appurtenances corresponding with the Netherlands, or in truth excelling the same; for this good reason it was named New Netherlands, being as much as to say, another or a new-found Netherlands. Still the name depended most upon the first discovery, and upon the corresponding temperatures of the climates of the two countries, which to strangers is not so observable. We notice also that the French in the same quarter of the new world, have named their territory Canada or Nova Francia, only because they were the first Europeans who possessed the lands in those parts, for the temperature of the climate is so cold and wintry, that the snow commonly lies on the earth four or five months in succession and from four to five feet deep, which renders it costly to keep domestic animals there; and although this country lies no farther than fifty degrees north, still the air in winter is so fine, clear and sharp there, that when the snow once falls, which it commonly does about the first of December, it does not thaw away except by the power of the sun in April. If a shower of rain happens to fall in winter, (which is seldom,) then it forms a hard crust on the surface of the snow, that renders the travelling difficult for man and beast. The air there is clear and dry, and the snow seldom melts or thaws away suddenly.

The Swedes also have a possession on the south (Delaware)

river, which they name New-Sweden. The climate of this place by no means corresponds with that of Sweden, as it lies in latitude 39 degrees north. But, although they have formed a settlement there, still their title is disputed, for they can show no legal right or claim to their possessions.

The country having been first found or discovered by the Netherlanders, and keeping in view the discovery of the same, it is named the New-Netherlands. That this country was first found or discovered by the Netherlanders, is evident and clear from the fact, that the Indians or natives of the land, many of whom are still living, and with whom I have conversed, declare freely, that before the arrival of the Lowland ship, the Half-Moon, in the year 1609, they (the natives) did not know that there were any other people in the world than those who were like themselves, much less any people who differed so much in appearance from them as we did. Their men on the breasts and about the mouth were bare, and their women like ours, hairy; going unclad and almost naked, particularly in summer, while we are always clothed and covered. When some of them first saw our ship approaching at a distance, they did not know what to think about her, but stood in deep and solemn amazement, wondering whether it were a ghost or apparition, coming down from heaven, or from hell. Others of them supposed her to be a strange fish or sea monster. When they discovered men on board, they supposed them to be more like devils than human beings. Thus they differed about the ship and men. A strange report was also spread about the country concerning our ship and visit, which created great astonishment and surprise amongst the Indians. These things we have frequently heard them declare, which we hold as certain proof that the Netherlanders were the first finders or discoverers and possessors of the New-Netherlands. There are Indians in the country, who remember a hundred years, and if there had been any other people here before us, they would have known something of them, and if they had not seen them themselves, they would have heard an account of them from others. There are persons who believe that the Spaniards have been here many years ago, when they found the climate too cold to their liking, and again left the country; and that the maize or Turkish corn, and beans found among the Indians, were left with them by the Spaniards. This opinion or belief is improbable, as we can discover nothing of the kind from the Indians. They say that their corn and beans were received from the southern Indians, who received their seed from a people who resided still farther south, which may well be true, as the Castilians have long since resided in Florida. The maize may have been among the Indians in the warm climate long ago; however, our Indians say that they did eat roots

and the bark of trees instead of bread, before the introduction of Indian corn or maize.

Of the limits of the New-Netherlands, and how far the same extend.

New-Netherlands is bounded by the ocean or great sea, which separates Europe from America, by New-England and the Fresh (Connecticut) river, in part by the river of Canada, (the St. Lawrence,) and by Virginia. Some persons who are not well informed, name all North-America *Virginia*, because Virginia from her tobacco trade is well known. These circumstances, therefore, will be observed as we progress, as admonitions to the readers. The coast of New-Netherlands extends and stretches mostly north-east and south-west. The sea-shore is mostly formed of pure sand, having a dry beach. On the south side, the country is bounded by Virginia. Those boundaries are not yet well defined, but in the progress of the settlement of the country, the same will be determined without difficulty. On the north-east the New-Netherlands abut upon New-England, where there are differences on the subject of boundaries which we wish were well settled. On the north, the river of Canada stretches a considerable distance, but to the north-west it is still undefined and unknown. Many of our Netherlanders have been far into the country, more than seventy or eighty miles from the river and sea-shore. We also frequently trade with the Indians, who come more than ten and twenty days' journey from the interior, and who have been farther off to catch beavers, and they know of no limits to the country, and when spoken to on the subject, they deem such enquiries to be strange and singular. Therefore we may safely say, that we know not how deep, or how far we extend inland. There are however many signs, which indicate a great extent of country, such as the land winds, which domineer much, with severe cold, the multitudes of beavers, and land animals which are taken, and the great numbers of water-fowl, which fly to and fro, across the country in the spring and fall-seasons. From these circumstances we judge that the land extends several hundred miles into the interior; therefore the extent and greatness of this province are still unknown.

Of the forelands and sea-havens.

The coast of New-Netherlands extends south-west and north-east, as before mentioned, and is mostly clean and sandy, drying naturally; and although the bare, bleak and open sea breaks

on the beach, still there is good anchorage in almost every place, because of the clean, sandy bottom. There seldom are severe gales from the sea, except from the south-east, with the spring tides. When the winds blow from the north-west, which domineer the strongest, then there is an upper or windward shore, with smooth water and little danger. For those reasons, the coast is as convenient to approach at all seasons, as could be desired. The highlands, which are naturally dry, may be seen far at sea, and give timely warning.

The forelands are generally double, and in some places broken into islands, (affording convenient situations for the keeping of stock,) which would lead seamen to suppose, on approaching the shore, that the same were the main land, when the same are islands and forelands, within which lie large meadows, bays, and creeks, affording convenient navigable passages, and communications between places.

It has pleased God to protect against the raging sea those parts of the coast which have no double foreland, with natural barriers of firm, strong, and secure stone foundations, that preserve the coast from the inundations of the mighty ocean, (which are ever to be feared,) where the coast, if not thus protected, might be lessened and destroyed; particularly the nearest sea lands, against which the sea acts with most violence. Nature has secured those positions with firm, high, and accommodated rocky heads and cliffs, which are as perfect formations, as the arts and hands of man, with great expense, could make the same.

There are many and different sea havens in the New-Netherlands, a particular description of which would form a work larger than we design this to be; we will therefore briefly notice this subject, and leave the same for the consideration of mariners and seamen. Beginning at the south and terminating at Long Island, first comes Godyn's bay, or the South (Delaware) bay, which was the first discovered. This bay lies in 39 degrees north latitude, being six (Dutch) miles wide and nine miles long, and having several banks or shoals, but still possessing many advantages; convenient and safe anchorages for ships, with roomy and safe harbours. Here also is a good whale fishery. Whales are numerous in the winter on the coast, and in the bay, where they frequently ground on the shoals and bars; but they are not as fat as the Greenland whales. If, however, the fishery was well-managed, it would be profitable. After ascending the bay nine miles, it is terminated in a river, which we name the South river, to which we will again refer hereafter, and pass on to the bay, wherein the East and North rivers terminate, and wherein Staten Island lies: because the same is most frequented, and

the country is most populous, and because the greatest negotiations in trade are carried on there; and also because it is situated in the centre of the New-Netherlands. Hence it is named *quasi per excellentiam*, "The Bay." But before we speak more at large of this place, we will attend to the places, and their advantages, which lie between this bay and the South bay.

Between those two bays, the coast, almost the whole distance, has double forelands, with many islands, which in some places lie two or three deep. Those forelands as well as the islands, are well situated for seaboard towns, and all kind of fisheries, and also for the cultivation of grain, vineyards, and gardening, and the keeping of stock, for which purposes the land is tolerably good. Those lands are now mostly overgrown with different kinds of trees and grape-vines; having many plums, hazel-nuts and strawberries, and much grass. The waters abound with oysters, having many convenient banks and beds where they may be taken.

Besides the many islands which lie between the aforesaid bays, many of which are highland, there are also several fine bays and inland waters, which form good sea harbours for those who are acquainted with the inlets and entrances to the same, which at present are not much used; particularly the Bear-gat, Great and Little Egg Harbours, Barnegat, &c., wherein the anchorages are safe and secure. But as New-Netherlands is not yet well peopled, and as there are but few Christians settled at those places, these harbours are seldom used, unless the winds and weather render it necessary for safety.

The before-mentioned bay, wherein Staten Island lies, is the most famous, because the East and North rivers empty therein, which are two fine rivers, and will be further noticed hereafter. Besides those, there are several kills, inlets, and creeks, some of which resemble small rivers, as the Raritan, Kill van Col, Neuversinck, &c. Moreover, the said bay affords a safe and convenient haven from all winds, wherein a thousand ships may ride in safety inland. The entrance into the bay is reasonably wide or roomy, without much danger, and easily found by those who have entered the same, or are well instructed. We can also easily, if the wind and tide suit, in one tide sail and proceed from the sea to New-Amsterdam, (which lies five miles from the open sea,) with the largest ships fully laden; and in like manner proceed from New-Amsterdam to sea. But the outward bound vessels usually stop at the watering-place under Staten Island, to lay in a sufficient supply of wood and water, which are easily obtained at that place. We also frequently stop

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in waiting for the last passengers and letters, and to avail ourselves of the wind and tide.

Along the seacoast of Long Island, there are also several safe, commodious inlets for small vessels, which are not much frequented by us. There also are many spacious inland bays, from which, by the inlets, (at full tide,) the sea is easy of access; otherwise those are too shallow. The same also are not much frequented by us. With population several of the places would become important, which now, for brevity's sake, we pass over.

Between Long Island and the main land, there are throughout many safe and convenient places for large and small vessels; which may be occupied, if necessary. For in connection with the whole river which is held by many to be a bay, there are in the main land and in the island opposite to the same, many safe bays, harbours, and creeks, which are but little known to us, and which the English, by their devices have appropriated. Although this subject is spoken of in the remonstrances of the New-Netherlands, we will pass over it without waking the *sleepers*, and attend briefly to the most important rivers, waters, and creeks.

Of the South River (Delaware River).

The right which the Netherlanders have to the South River, and how they acquired their right, has been sufficiently shown already, which it is unnecessary to recapitulate at length again. This is the first place of which the men of the Half Moon took possession, before any Christian had been there. There we have built our forts, commenced agriculture, and have driven trade many years in succession, without the intervention or molestation of any persons; until by wrong measures (which we design to notice) a small band of Holland-Swedes set themselves down along the river. We acknowledge freely that we are unable fully to describe the value and the advantages which this river possesses, for in addition to the negotiation and trade, which are great, and not to be despised, there are fourteen navigable rivers, creeks, and streams which fall into this river. Some of the same are large and boatable a great distance, and may well be named rivers, as the ordinary tides flow several miles up the same, where the waters meet and are fresh, and still remain wide and tolerably deep. There are also many streams presenting rich and extensive valleys, which afford good situations for villages and towns. The river itself is roomy, wide, clean, clear and deep, not four American Journeys - www.americanjourneys.org and anchorage.

The tides are strong and flow up near to the falls. The land is fine and level on both sides, not too high, but above the floods and freshets, except some reed-land and marshes. Above the falls the river divides into two large boatable streams, which run far inland, to places unknown to us. There are several fine islands in this river, with many other delightful advantages and conditions, which are estimated by those who have examined the river, and who have seen much of the world, not to be surpassed by any other river which is known. Equalling in many respects the celebrated river of the Amazons, although not in greatness, yet in advantages with which this river and the neighbouring land is favoured, we would regret to lose such a jewel by the devices and hands of a few strangers.*

Of the North River.

We have before noticed the name of this river, with the population and advantages of the country; and, inasmuch as a particular and ample account of the same is preparing for publication, we will at once say, that this river is the most famous, and the country the most populous of any in the New-Netherlands. There are also several colonies settled, besides the city of New-Amsterdam, on the island of Manhattan, where the most of the trade of this river centres. The river carries flood tides forty miles up the same.† Several fine creeks empty into this river, such as the Great and Small Esopus kills, Kats kill, Sleepy Haven kill, Colondonck's kill or Saw kill, Wap-pincke's kill, &c. We can also pass from the North river behind Manhattan island by the East river, without approaching New-Amsterdam. This river still remains altogether in the possession and jurisdiction of the Netherlanders, without being invaded; but if the population did not increase and advance, there would be great danger of its long continuation. This river is rich in fishes: sturgeon, dunns, bass, sheep-heads, &c. I cannot refrain, although somewhat out of place, to relate a very singular occurrence, which happened in the month of March, 1647, at the time of a great freshet caused by the fresh water flowing down from above, by which the water of the river became nearly fresh to the bay, when at ordinary seasons the salt water flows up from twenty to twenty-four miles from the sea. At this season, two whales, of common size, swam up the river

* Van der Donck alludes to the Swedes. They were subdued by Governor Stuyvesant.—TRANS.

† A Dutch mile is American Journeys—www.americanjourneys.org

forty miles, from which place one of them returned and stranded about twelve miles from the sea, near which place four others also stranded the same year. The other run farther up the river and grounded near the great Chahoos falls, about forty-three miles from the sea. This fish was tolerably fat, for although the citizens of Reenselaerwyck broiled out a great quantity of train oil, still the whole river (the current being still rapid) was oily for three weeks, and covered with grease. As the fish lay rotting, the air was infected with its stench to such a degree that the smell was offensive and perceptible for two miles to leeward. For what purpose those whales ascended the river so far, it being at the time full forty miles from all salt or brackish water, it is difficult to say, unless their great desire for fish, which were plenty at this season, led them onward.

Forty-four miles from the sea this North river is divided. One part by four sprouts ascends to the great falls of the Maquas kill, which is named the Chahoos, of which we will treat presently. The other part which retains the name of the North river, is navigable for boats several miles farther, and, according to the information of the Indians, rises in a great lake, from which the river of Canada also proceeds. This should be the lake of the *Iracoyesen* (lake Ontario), which is as great as the Mediterranean sea, being about forty miles wide, when in the middle of the sea, no eye can see land or see over it. The lake also has extensive reed and brocklands of great breadth, wherein great multitudes of water-fowl breed in summer. When the Indians intend to cross this lake, they know certain islands which lie therein, and proceed from one to another by daylight, to the number of three or four, without which they could not find their way over the same. This, however, we relate on the information of the Indians. They also assert that we can proceed in boats to the river of Canada, which we deem incredible.

The other arm of the North river runs by four sprouts (as we have related) to the great falls of the *Maquas kill* (Mohawk river), which the Indians name the Chahoos, and our nation the Great Falls; above which the river is again several hundred yards wide, and the falls we estimate to be one hundred and fifty or two hundred feet high.* The water glides over the falls as smooth as if it ran over an even wall and fell over the same. The precipice is formed of firm blue rock; near by and below the falls there stand several rocks, which appear splendid in the water, rising above it like high turf-heaps, apparently from eight, sixteen, to thirty feet high; very delightful to the eye. This place is well

* This is careless guessing, the falls being seventy feet high.—TRANS.
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calculated to exalt the fancy of the poets. The ancient fabulous writers would, if they had been here, have exalted those works of nature, by the force of imagination, into the most artful and elegant descriptive illusions. The waters descend rapidly downwards from the falls, over a stony bottom, skipping, foaming and whirling boisterously about the distance of a gunshot or more; when it resumes an even course, and flows downwards. We name this the Maquas Kill, but still it is wider in most places than the Yssell of the Netherlands. It however always runs one way; is navigable for boats; being tolerably deep and not rapid; but it extends above sixty miles, and runs through the Maquas and Senecas countries to a lake, remaining boatable all the way. The river passes through fine land, and abounds with fish. The Indians, when they travel by water, and come to trade, usually come in canoes made of the bark of trees, which they know how to construct. When they come near the falls, they land, and carry their boats and their lading some distance below the falls, and proceed on their voyage; otherwise, they would be driven over the falls and destroyed. An occurrence of this kind took place here in our time. An Indian, whom I have known, accompanied by his wife and child, with sixty beaver skins, descended the river in his canoe, in the spring, when the water runs rapid and the current is strongest, for the purpose of selling his beaver to the Netherlanders. This Indian carelessly approached too near to the falls, before he discovered his danger, and notwithstanding his utmost exertion to gain the land, his frail bark with all on board was swept over by the rapid current and down the falls; his wife and child were killed, his bark shattered to pieces, his cargo of furs damaged. But his life was preserved. I have frequently seen the Indian, and have heard him relate the perilous occurrence or adventure.

Of the Fresh River (Connecticut river).

This river is called the Fresh river, because it affords more fresh water than many other rivers. It has advantageous navigable situations. It also has finely situated land, and the country affords a tolerably good fur trade. But as this river with its advantages is mostly in the occupancy of the English nation, to the injury and disadvantage of the Hon. the West India Company, which they continue to occupy, whereby the Company is injured every year. It will be painful to us to recapitulate the subject, as the same is stated in the remonstrance of the New-Netherlanders; where we leave the matter and pass to the East river.

Of the East River.

This river is thus named, because it extends eastward from the city of New-Amsterdam. By some this river is held to be an arm of the sea, or a bay, because it is very wide in some places, and because both ends of the same are connected with, and empty into the ocean. This subtilty notwithstanding, we adopt the common opinion and hold it to be a river. Be it then a river or a bay, as men may please to name it, still it is one of the best, most fit and most convenient places and most advantageous accommodations, which a country can possess or desire, for the following reasons:—Long Island, which is about forty miles in length, makes this river. The river, and most of the creeks, bays and inlets joining the same, are navigable in winter and in summer without much danger. This river also affords a safe and convenient passage at all seasons to those who desire to sail east or west; and the same is most used, because the outside passage is more dangerous. Most of the English (of New-England) who wish to go south to Virginia, to South river, or to other southern places, pass through this river, which brings no small traffic and advantage to the city of New-Amsterdam. This also causes the English to frequent our harbours, to which they are invited for safety. Lastly, this river is famous on account of its convenient bays, inlets, havens, rivers, and creeks, on both sides, to wit, on the side of Long Island and on the side of the fast or main land. In the Netherlands, no such place is known. Of this and the other rivers of New-Netherlands, enough has been said, in our opinion, for this time and for our purpose.

Of the several Waters, and their Diversity.

In this place we will briefly notice the waters, before we notice other matters. In general, we say, to describe *per species* would take too long, and draw us from our original plan. We find in New-Netherlands many fine waters, kills, brooks and streams which are navigable, large and roomy, as well on the sea-board as far inland: also many runs of water, sprouts, stream-kills and brooks having many fine falls, which are suitable for every kind of milling work. Inland, there are also several standing waters and lakes, as large as small seas, also large rivers abounding with fish. The rivers have their origin in sprouts which flow from valleys, and in springs, which connected form beautiful streams. But inasmuch as a report has already been published of a principal part of the waters, near the sea, and of the rivers before mentioned, there still remain

several which deserve the names of rivers. There are also several inland waters ; some are large, and others of less dimensions, which mostly lie near the sea-shores south of the North River ; many of which are navigable and roomy kills and creeks suitable for inland navigation ; and those by the industry of man are susceptible of great betterments and improvements, as may be seen by the chart of the New-Netherlands. There also are, as before remarked, several falls, streams and running brooks, suitable for every kind of water-work for the convenience and advantage of man, together with numerous small streams and sprouts throughout the country, serving as arteries or veins to the body, running in almost every direction, and affording an abundance of pure living water. Those are not numerous near the sea-shore, where the water in some places is brackish, but still the same is of service, and is drank by the wild and domestic animals. Many of the springs run into the rivers, and thence into the sea. In addition to those, there are also many fine springs and veins of pure water inland and in places where no other water can be obtained, as upon the mountains, high elevated rocks and cliffs, where like veins the water flows out of fissures and pours down the cliffs and precipices, some of which are so remarkable that they are esteemed as great curiosities. Other streams rise in bushy woods, through which the summer sun never shines, which are much trodden by the wild beasts, and wherein the decayed leaves and rotting vegetation falls, all which tend to render the water foul. Those however in their course again become clear and wonderfully pure. Some of them possess the extraordinary quality of never freezing in the bitterest cold weather, when they smoke from their natural warmth, and any frozen article immersed in those waters thaws immediately. If the unclouded sun shone on those springs for whole days with summer heat, the water would still remain so cold that no person would bear to hold his hand in it for any length of time in the hottest weather. This peculiarity makes these waters agreeable to men and animals, as the water may be drank without danger ; for however fatigued or heated a person may be who drinks of these waters, they do no injury in the hottest weather. The Indians, gunners, and other persons use those waters freely at all seasons, and I have never heard that any *pleurisy* or other disease had been caused by their use.

The Indians inform us that there are other waters in the country differing in taste from the common water, which are good for many ailments and diseases. As this is intimated by the Indians, therefore we do not place full confidence in the information, not knowing the facts ; yet we deem the reports probable, because the land abounds in metals and minerals, through

which spring veins may filter and partake of the mineral qualities, and retain the same.

It is a great convenience and ease to the citizens of New-Netherlands, that the country is not subject to great floods and inundations, for near the sea, or where the water ebbs and rises, there are no extraordinary floods. The tide usually rises and falls from five to six feet perpendicular, in some places more, in others less, as by winds and storms affected. The flood and ebb tides are strong but not rapid. Sometimes where the wind blows strong from the sea, at spring tides the water rises a foot or two higher than usual; but this is not common, hence, of little inconvenience. But, at the colony of Rensselaerwyck, Esopus, Catskill, and other places, from which the principal upper waters flow, they are entirely fresh at those places. The lowlands are sometimes overflowed once or twice in a year when the wind and current are in opposition; but even then, they who guard against those occurrences in time suffer but little. Sometimes the water may wash out a little in places, but the land is manured by the sediment left by the water. Those floods do not stand long; as they rise quick, they also again fall off in two or three days.

Of the Formation, Soil, and Appearance of the Land.

Having spoken of the waters, we will now treat of the land, with its natural, superficial appearance, beginning with the formations of the earth. Near and along the seashores, the soil is light and sandy, with a mixture of clay, which enriches the land. The productions are different kinds of wood, various fruits and vegetables. Barrens and sterile heath land are not here. The whole country has a waving surface, and in some places high hills and protruding mountains, particularly those named the Highlands, which is a place of high, connected mountain land, about three miles broad, extending in curved forms throughout the country; separated in some places, and then again connected. There also is much fine level land, intersected with brooks, affording pasturage of great length and breadth, but mostly along the rivers, and near the salt water side. Inland most of the country is waving, with hills which generally are not steep, but ascend gradually. We sometimes in travelling imperceptibly find ourselves on high elevated situations, from which we overlook large portions of the country. The neighbouring eminence, the surrounding valleys and the highest trees are overlooked, and again lost in the distant space. Here our attention is arrested in the beautiful landscape around us, here the painter can find rare and beautiful subjects for the employment of his pencil,

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and here also the huntsman is animated when he views the enchanting prospects presented to the eyes ; on the hills, at the brooks and in the valleys, where the game abounds and where the deer are feeding, or gamboling or resting in the shades in full view.

The surface of the land generally is composed of a black soil intermixed with clay, about a foot or a foot and a half deep, in some places more, and in some less ; below, the stratum is white, reddish and yellow clay, which in some places is mixed with sand, and in others with gravel and stones. Here and there, large rocks and stones appear on the surface. There are also hills of pure clay, but sand hills I have not seen, except near the seashore, which have been cast up or formed by the ocean. There also are very rocky places which our naturalists suppose abound in minerals. The mountains and highlands are in some places tillable and fertile, the soil being composed of clay intermixed with stone. Other parts are composed of rocks, of various colours, but all overgrown with wood, growing in the seams, rents, clefts, and ravines. Such are the aspects of the mountains, the hills and inland country. Near the rivers and water sides there are large extensive plains containing several hundred *morgens* ;* in one place more and in another less, which are very convenient for plantations, villages and towns. There also are brooklands and fresh and salt meadows ; some so extensive that the eye cannot oversee the same. Those are good for pasturage and hay, although the same are overflowed by the spring tides, particularly near the seaboard. These meadows resemble the low and outlands of the Netherlands. Most of them could be dyked and cultivated. We also find meadow grounds far inland, which are all fresh and make good hayland. Where the meadows are boggy and wet, such failings are easily remedied by cutting and breaking the bogs in winter and letting off the water in the spring. There also would be much more meadow ground, but as the soil is natural for wood, and as the birds and the winds carry the seeds in every direction ; hence, those moist, low grounds are covered with timber and underwoods which we call cripple bushes. The situations are curious to behold where those lands are cleared and cultivated. They are wonderfully fertile, which in short, is the general quality of such land, and of most of the places we have noticed. Thus we tender to the kind reader the fruitfulness of this land, subject to his own judgment. I admit that I am incompetent to describe the beauties, the grand and sublime works, wherewith Providence has diversified this land. Our opinions are formed by the eye alone, therefore we cannot do justice, and give assurance to the heart.

* A Morgen is somewhat less than two acres .

Of the wood, the natural productions and fruits of the land.

The New-Netherlands, with other matters, is very fruitful, and fortunate in its fine woods; so much so, that the whole country is covered with wood, and in our manner of speaking, there is all too much of it, and in our way. Still it comes to hand to build vessels and houses, and to enclose the farms &c. The oak trees are very large; from sixty to seventy feet high without knots, and from two to three fathoms thick, being of various sizes. There are several kinds of oak, such as white, smooth bark, rough bark, grey bark and black bark. It is all durable wood, being as good as the oak of the Rhine or the Weser when properly worked, according to the opinion of our woodcutters, who are judges of timber and are sawyers. The nut-wood grows as tall as the oak, but not so heavy. It is probable that this kind of wood will be useful for many purposes, it grows straight and is tough and hard. We now use it for cogs and rounds in our mills and for threshing-flails, swivel-trees and other farming purposes. It also is excellent firewood, surpassing every other kind, and setting at naught our old adage, "The man is yet to come, who can find better wood to burn than oak." This wood is far better as well for heat as duration. It possesses a peculiar sap, which causes it to burn freely, whether green or dry. If we draw it up out of the fresh water where it has lain a long time, still, on account of its hardness, it is even then uncommonly durable on the fire. We all agree, that no turf, or other common fuel is equal to nut-wood. When it is dry, it keeps fire and sparkles like matches. Our women prefer nut-coals to turf for their stoves, because they last longer, and are not buried in ashes. This kind of wood is found all over the New-Netherlands in such abundance, that it cannot become scarce in the first hundred years with an increased population. There also is oak and ash enough to supply its place for many purposes. The land also is so natural to produce wood, that in a few years large trees will be grown, which I can say with certainty from my own observation; and that unless there be natural changes or great improvidence, there can be no scarcity of wood in this country.

It has happened when I have been out with the natives, (*Wilden*, for so we name those who are not born of Christian parents,) that we have come to a piece of young woodland. When I have told them, in conversation, that they would do well to clear off such land, because it would bear good corn, that they said, "it is but twenty years since we planted corn there, and now it is woods again." I asked them severally if it were true, when they all answered in the affirmative. This

relation was also corroborated by others. To return to the subject: this woodland was composed of oak, nut and other kinds of wood, but principally of oak and nut; and there were several trees in the same which were a fathom in circumference. The wood was so closely grown that it was difficult to pass through it on horseback. As the wood appeared young and thrifty, I give credit to the relation of the natives. I have also observed that the youngest woodlands are always covered closest with wood, and where the growth is small, the woods are so thick as to render walking through the same difficult. But where the woods are old, the timber is large and heavy, whereby the underwood is shaded, which causes it to die and perish.

The Indians have a yearly custom (which some of our Christians have also adopted) of burning the woods, plains and meadows in the fall of the year, when the leaves have fallen, and when the grass and vegetable substances are dry. Those places which are then passed over are fired in the spring in April. This practice is named by us and the Indians, "*bush burning*," which is done for several reasons; first, to render hunting easier, as the bush and vegetable growth renders the walking difficult for the hunter, and the crackling of the dry substances betrays him and frightens away the game. Secondly, to thin out and clear the woods of all dead substances and grass, which grow better the ensuing spring. Thirdly, to circumscribe and enclose the game within the lines of the fire, when it is more easily taken, and also, because the game is more easily tracked over the burned parts of the woods.

The bush burning presents a grand and sublime appearance. On seeing it from without, we would imagine that not only the dry leaves, vegetables and limbs would be burnt, but that the whole woods would be consumed where the fire passes, for it frequently spreads and rages with such violence, that it is awful to behold; and when the fire approaches houses, gardens, and wooden enclosures, then great care and vigilance are necessary for their preservation, for I have seen several houses which have recently been destroyed, before the owners were apprized of their danger.

Notwithstanding the apparent danger of the entire destruction of the woodlands by the burning, still the green trees do not suffer. The outside bark is scorched three or four feet high, which does them no injury, for the trees are not killed. It however sometimes happens that in the thick pine woods, wherein the fallen trees lie across each other, and have become dry, that the blaze ascends and strikes the tops of the trees, setting the same on fire, which is immediately increased by the resinous knots and leaves, which promote the blaze, and is passed by the wind from tree to tree, by which the entire tops of the trees

are sometimes burnt off, while the bodies remain standing. Frequently great injuries are done by such fires, but the burning down of entire woods never happens. I have seen many instances of wood-burning in the colony of Rensselaerwyck, where there is much pine wood. Those fires appear grand at night from the passing vessels in the river, when the woods are burning on both sides of the same. Then we can see a great distance by the light of the blazing trees, the flames being driven by the wind, and fed by the tops of the trees. But the dead and dying trees remain burning in their standing positions, which appear sublime and beautiful when seen at a distance.

Hence it will appear that there actually is such an abundance of wood in the New-Netherlands, that, with ordinary care, it will never be scarce there. There always are, however, in every country, some people so improvident, that even they may come short here, and for this reason we judge that it should not be destroyed needlessly. There, however, is such an abundance of wood, that they who cultivate the land for planting and sowing can do nothing better than destroy it, and thus clear off the land for tillage, which is done by cutting down the trees and collecting the wood into great heaps and burning the same, to get it out of their way. Yellow and white pine timber, in all their varieties, is abundant here, and we have heard the North-erners say (who reside here) that the pine is as good here as the pine of Norway. But the pine does not grow as well near the salt water, except in some places. Inland, however, and high up the rivers, it grows in large forests, and it is abundant, and heavy enough for masts and spars for ships. There also are chestnuts here, like those of the Netherlands, which are spread over the woods. Chestnuts would be plentier if it were not for the Indians, who destroy the trees by stripping off the bark for covering for their houses. They, and the Netherlanders also, cut down the trees in the chestnut season, and cut off the limbs to gather the nuts, which also lessens the trees. We also find several kinds of beech trees, but those bear very little. Amongst the other trees, the water-beeches grow very large along the brooks, heavier and larger than most of the trees of the country. When those trees begin to bud, then the bark becomes a beautiful white, resembling the handsomest satin. This tree retains the leaves later than any other tree of the woods. Trees of this kind are considered more ornamental and handsomer than the linden trees for the purpose of planting near dwelling-houses. We can give no comparison with this species of trees, and can give the same no better name to make the wood known.* There also is wild ash, some trees large;

* The author undoubtedly refers to our buttonwood tree, (*Platanus occidentalis*) otherwise called Sycamore.—TRANS

and maple trees, the wood resembling cedar; white-wood trees, which grow very large,—the Indians frequently make their canoes of this wood, hence we name it *Canoe-wood*;* we use it for flooring, because it is bright and free of knots. There are also two kinds of ash, with linden, birch, yew, poplar, sapine, alder, willow, thorn trees, sassafras, persimmon, mulberry, wild cherry, crab, and several other kinds of wood, the names of which are unknown to us, but the wood is suitable for a variety of purposes. Some of the trees bear fruit. The oak trees in alternate years bear many acorns of the chestnut species. The nuts grow about as large as our persimmons, but they are not as good as ours. The mulberries are better and sweeter than ours, and ripen earlier. Several kinds of plums, wild or small cherries, juniper, small kinds of apples, many hazel-nuts, black currants, gooseberries, blue India figs, and strawberries in abundance all over the country, some of which ripen at half May, and we have them until July; blueberries, raspberries, black-caps, &c., with artichokes, ground-acorns, ground beans, wild onions, and leeks like ours, with several other kinds of roots and fruits, known to the Indians, who use the same which are disregarded by the Netherlanders, because they have introduced every kind of garden vegetables, which thrive and yield well. The country also produces an abundance of fruits like the Spanish capers, which could be preserved in like manner.

Of the Fruit Trees brought over from the Netherlands.

The Netherland settlers, who are lovers of fruit, on observing that the climate was suitable to the production of fruit trees, have brought over and planted various kinds of apple and pear trees, which thrive well. Those also grow from the seeds, of which I have seen many, which, without grafting, bore delicious fruit in the sixth year. The stocks may also be grafted when the same are as large as thorns, which, being cut off near the root and grafted, are then set into the ground, when the graft also strikes root: otherwise the fruit is somewhat hard. But in general, grafting is not as necessary here as in the Netherlands, for most of the fruit is good without it, which there would be harsh and sour, or would not bear. The English have brought over the first quinces, and we have also brought over stocks and seeds which thrive well. Orchard cherries thrive well and produce large fruit. Spanish cherries, fore-runners, morellæ, of every kind we have, as in the Nether-

* *The Liriodendron tulipifera*.—TRANS.
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lands ; and the trees bear better, because the blossoms are not injured by the frosts. The peaches, which are sought after in the Netherlands, grow wonderfully well here. If a stone is put into the earth, it will spring in the same season, and grow so rapidly as to bear fruit in the fourth year, and the limbs are frequently broken by the weight of the peaches, which usually are very fine. We have also introduced morecotoons (a kind of peach,) apricots, several sorts of the best plums, almonds, persimmons, cornelian cherries, figs, several sorts of currants, gooseberries, calissiens, and thorn apples ; and we do not doubt but that the olive would thrive and be profitable, but we have them not. Although the land is full of many kinds of grapes, we still want settings of the best kinds from Germany, for the purpose of enabling our wine planters here to select the best kinds, and to propagate the same. In short, every kind of fruit which grows in the Netherlands is plenty already in the New-Netherlands, which have been introduced by the lovers of agriculture, and the fruits thrive better here, particularly such kinds as require a warmer climate.

Of the Grape Vines and Vineyards

It will not readily be credited how numerous the vine stocks are in the New-Netherlands, where they grow wild throughout the country. We do not find a district or a nook of land without grape vines. Many grow in the open fields ; many in the woods under the wild trees ; many along the rivers and the brooks ; many along the hills and at the foot of the mountains, and run up the trees ; some run over the scrubby bushes, some over the brush and weeds, some over the grass and ground, so that we are frequently, on horseback and on foot, entangled in the vines, and are extricated with difficulty and with loss of time. The vines which run up the trees bear grapes, but not many except in some years, when they bear everywhere in great abundance, and then it is gratifying and wonderful to see these natural productions, and to observe such excellent and lovely fruit growing wild ; and very little attention is paid to the same. The country when the vines are in bloom, is perfumed with the lovely fragrance of the blossoms, and it is delightful to travel at this season of the year. It is a pitiful sight to see the grape vines run up the trees, over the bushes, and hidden among the weeds, neglected, untrimmed, and uncultivated, where the roots never feel the sun, by reason of which the grapes do not ripen in the proper season. This, however, is true. Many of the vines extend to the tops of the trees, and to the outer branches, where they are hidden and covered by the

leaves, and never nourished by the rays of the sun, which causes the fruit to be sour, harsh, fleshy and strong, which with proper attention would be good. As a proof of this subject, we find that the vines which run up the dead and dry trees, (from which the bark has been stripped by the Indians, to cover their dwellings,) and are of course exposed to the sun, bear sweeter and earlier grapes than ordinary. The like also occurs where the vines run along the brooks in a southern exposure, where the sun shines direct on the vine. I, with others, have seen this difference, and in such situations have found, gathered, and eaten, delicious ripe grapes in the middle of August. For the grapes to ripen thus early is not common; but we may infer, and it is our opinion, that the fruit would be much earlier, if the vines were dressed, trimmed, and manured, than it now is, but this is never done to the wild vines. That the wild vines, with proper care and management, will produce as good grapes and as good wine as is made in Germany and France, is clear and undeniable. Proofs and examples of this fact are seen at the South river, where the Swedes reside, who have laid down vines from which others have sprung, which they name suckers, from which they make delightful wine year after year. The grapes and their juice are not all of one kind or colour. They have blue grapes, of different shades; others are reddish, and others entirely white, like the Muscatels; hence the colour of the wine is also different. The grapes and the clusters are also of different sizes. The white and the reddish grapes grow as large as the Netherland Muscatels. Of the blue grapes, some are large, and others small; the largest are commonly fleshy, and are therefore called *pork grapes* by the citizens. But those who have a proper knowledge of vineyards say, that discreet cultivation will remove this objection, and that the juice of the grape may be as good as in other places. Some of the native wine is white; some is also reddish; another kind is as dark as the *wine Française*, but this kind is only made from the blue grapes, and to my knowledge from no others. They press a juice out of the blue grapes, which runs thick and is of a dark red colour, resembling dragon's blood more than wine; a small glass of this wine will colour a can of water as deep red as the common red wine in Spain.

Our Netherlanders are unaccustomed to the management of vineyards, and have not given much attention to the cultivation of the vine. Some of them have occasionally planted vines, but they have never treated them properly, and for this reason they have derived very little profit from their labour. I have, however, frequently drank good and well tasted domestic wine, and remark, that the fault is in the people, not in the grapes. Within the last few years, the lovers of the vineyard have paid

more attention to the cultivation of the vine, and have informed themselves on the subject. They have also introduced foreign stocks, and they have induced men to come over from Heidelberg who are vine dressers, for the purpose of attending to the vineyards; and to remedy every defect in the management of the grape, men are also coming over, who possess the most perfect skill in the planting and management of vineyards.

At this time, they have commenced the planting in good earnest, and with proper care. Several persons already have vineyards and wine hills under cultivation, and Providence blesses their labours with success, by affording fruit according to the most favourable expectation. Hereafter, from year to year, the cultivation of the vine will increase; for every one takes hold of the business—one man learns from another—and as the population increases rapidly, it is expected that in a few years there will be wine in abundance in the New-Netherlands.*

Of the Flowers.

The flowers in general which the Netherlanders have introduced there, are the white and red roses of different kinds, the cornelian roses, and stock roses; and those of which there were none before in the country, such as eglantine, several kinds of gillyflowers, jenniflins, different varieties of fine tulips, crown imperials, white lilies, the lily frutularia, anemones, baredames, violets, marigolds, summer sots, &c. The clove tree has also been introduced; and there are various indigenous trees that bear handsome flowers, which are unknown in the Netherlands. We also find there some flowers of native growth, as for instance, sun flowers, red and yellow lilies, mountain lilies, morning stars, red, white, and yellow maritoffles, (a very sweet flower,) several species of bell flowers, &c.; to which I have not given particular attention, but *amateurs* would hold them in high estimation, and make them widely known.

Of the Healing Herbs, and the Indigo.

No reasonable person will doubt that there are not many medicinal and healing plants in the New-Netherlands. A certain surgeon who was also a botanist, had a beautiful garden there, wherein a great variety of medicinal wild plants were collected, but the owner has removed and the garden lies neglected. Because sickness does not prevail much, I suppose the subject

* A chapter on the products of kitchen gardens follows next in the original, but having been omitted by the Translator, will be inserted hereafter. See p. 135.—Ed.

has received less attention. The plants which are known to us are the following, viz : Capilli veneris, scholopendria, angelica, polypodium, verbascum album, calteus sacerdotis, atriplex hortensis and marina, chortium, turrites, calamus aromaticus, sassafras, rois Virginianum, ranunculus, plantago, bursa pastoris, malva, origænum, geranicum, althea, cinoroton pseudo, daphne, viola, ireas, indigo silvestris, sigillum salamonis, sanguis draconum, consolidæ, millefolium, noli me tangere, cardo benedictus, agrimonium, serpentariæ, coriander, leeks, wild leeks, Spanish figs, elatine, camperfolie, petum male and female, and many other plants. The land is full of different kinds of herbs and trees besides those enumerated, among which there undoubtedly are good *simplicia*, with which discreet persons would do much good ; for we know that the Indians with roots, bulbs, leaves, &c. cure dangerous wounds and old sores, of which we have seen many instances, which, for the sake of brevity, we pass by.

The *Indigo silvestris* grows naturally, without the attention of any man, and there is no doubt but that with proper care and attention, much profit might be derived from its cultivation. We have seen proofs of this, in the colony of Rensselaerwyck, where Kilian Van Rensselaer, (who always has been a zealous lover of the New-Netherlands,) sent seed, which was sown late on Bear Island, which has not above a foot of soil above the rock, and where no grass would grow well. The seed came up fine, but the dry summer turned the crop yellow, and dried the plants. We however saw, that if the seed had been sown in season, in a proper place, the result would have been good. Afterwards a certain citizen named Augustin Heerman, who is a curious man, and a lover of the country, made an experiment near New-Amsterdam, where he planted indigo seed, which grew well and yielded much. Samples of this indigo were sent over to the Netherlands, which were found to be better than common. Ridge planting has not been tried, but as the land is rich and strong, there is no doubt of success when the experiment is made. Mr. Minit writes that he has sown Canary seed, and that it grew and yielded well ; but he adds, that the country is new, and in a state of beginning, and that the time of the cultivators should not be spent on such experiments, but to the raising of the necessaries of life ; for which, God be praised, there is plenty and to spare, for a reasonable price. And we begin to supply provisions and drink in common with our Virginia neighbours to the West Indies and the Caribbee Islands, which we expect will increase from year to year, and in time become a fine trade, in connexion with our Netherlands and Brazil commerce.

Of the Agricultural Productions.

The pursuit of agriculture is not heavy and expensive there, as it is in the Netherlands. First, because the fencing and enclosing of the land does not cost much; for instead of the Netherlands dykes and ditches, they set up post and rail, or palisado fences, and when new clearings are made, they commonly have fencing timber enough on the land to remove, which costs nothing but the labour, which is reasonably cheap to those who have their own hands, and without domestic labour very little can be effected. The land whereon there are few standing trees, and which has been grubbed and ploughed twice, we hold to be prepared for a crop of winter grain. For summer grain one ploughing is sufficient. If it is intended to sow the same field again with winter grain, then the stubble is ploughed in, and the land is sowed with wheat or rye, which in ordinary seasons will yield a fine crop.

I can affirm that during my residence of nine years in the country, I have never seen land manured, and it is seldom done. The land is kept in order by tillage, which is often done to keep down weeds and brush, but for which it would have rest. Some persons, (which I also hold to be good management,) when their land becomes foul and weedy, break it up and sow the same with peas, because a crop of peas softens the land and makes it clean; but most of the land is too rich for peas, which when sown on the same grow so rank that the crop falls and rots on the land. Some of the land must be reduced by cropping it with wheat and barley, before it is proper to sow the same with peas. We have frequently seen the straw of wheat and barley grow so luxuriant that the crops yielded very little grain.

I deem it worthy of notice, that with proper attention, in ordinary seasons, two ripe crops of peas can be raised on the same land in one season, in the New-Netherlands. It has frequently been done in the following manner, viz. The first crop was sown in the last of March or first of April, which will ripen about the first of July; the crop is then removed, and the land ploughed, and sowed again with peas of the first crop. The second crop will ripen in September, or about the first of October, when the weather is still, fine and warm. The same can also be done with buckwheat, which has frequently been proved; but the first crop is usually much injured by finches and other birds, and as wheat and rye are plenty, therefore there is very little buckwheat sown. The maize (Indian corn) is carefully attended to, and is sufficient to the wants of the country.

The Turkey wheat, or maize, as the grain is named, many persons suppose to be the same kind of grain which Jesse sent parched by his son David to his other sons of the army of Israel. This is a hardy grain, and is fit for the sustenance of man and animals. It is easily cultivated, and will grow in almost every kind of land, in the worst and strongest in the country, even in a foul and worn-out soil. It is a good crop to subdue new land, and to prepare it for other purposes. When the timber has been removed, and the brush burnt up, then we take a broad hoe, and cut out hills about six feet apart, and plant five or six grains in a hill, with which some persons also plant Turkey beans (as before noticed). After the grain shoots up and grows, it requires two dressings. The weeding and cleaning is done with a broad adze, without breaking up the ground, and is not very laborious work. The weeds and trash in the first dressing, are cut off and placed in a row between the hills. The second dressing is easier. Then the weeds and sprouts are cut off around the hills, and the weeds and rubbish of the first cleaning, are drawn round the corn-hills, which afterwards grow high and tall, and smother all the weeds, stumps, and trash, and kill all other vegetation except pumpkins; those will grow among the maize.

When the land has been treated as above described for one summer, it is fit for any other use; or it may be planted with maize again, which will then grow better than in the first year, and be easier kept clean, and with less labour. Tobacco may be planted on the land, or it may be ploughed and broken up for other purposes, which can then be easily done, because the roots are in a state of decay and easily broken up. After a corn crop is gathered, the land may be sowed with winter grain in the fall without previous ploughing. When this is intended, the corn is gathered, the stalks are pulled up and burnt, the hills levelled, and the land sown and harrowed smooth and level. Good crops are raised in this manner. I have seen rye sown as before described, which grew so tall that a man of common size would bind the ears together above his head, which yielded seven and eight *schepels*,* Amsterdam measure, per *vin* of 108 sheaves, of which two *vins* made a wagon load.

The Rev. Johannis Megapolensis, Junior, minister of the colony of Rensselaerwyck, in certain letters which he has written to his friends, which were printed (as he has told me) without his consent, but may be fully credited, he being a man of truth and of great learning, who writes in a vigorous style,—states, with other matters, that a certain farmer had cropped one field

* A *schepel* is three pecks English.
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with wheat eleven years in succession, which to many persons will seem extraordinary, and may not be credited. Still it is true, and the residents of the place testify to the same, and they add, that this same land was ploughed but twelve times in the eleven seasons—twice in the first year, and once in every succeeding year, when the stubble was ploughed in, the wheat sown and harrowed under. I owned land adjoining the land referred to, and have seen the eleventh crop, which was tolerably good. The man who did this is named Brandt Pelen; he was born in the district of Utrecht, and at the time was a magistrate (schepen) of the colony of Rensselaerwyck. We acknowledge that this relation appears to be marvellous, but in the country it is not so, for there are many thousand *morgens* of as good land there, as the land of which we have spoken.

During the period when I resided in the New Netherlands, a certain honorable gentleman, named John Everts Bout, (who was recommended to the colonists by their High Mightinesses, &c.) laid a wager that he could raise a crop of barley on a field containing seven *morgens* of land, which would grow so tall in every part of the field, that the ears could easily be tied together above his head. I went to see the field of barley, and found that the straw, land by land, was from six to seven feet high, and very little of it any shorter. It has also been stated to me as a fact, that barley has frequently been raised, although not common, which yielded eleven *schepel*, Amsterdam measure, per *vin* of 108 sheaves. Therefore, all persons who are acquainted with the New-Netherlands, judge the country to be as well adapted for the cultivation of grain, as any part of the world which is known to the Netherlanders, or is in their possession.

With the other productions of the land we must include tobacco, which is also cultivated in the country, and is, as well as the maize, well adapted to prepare the land for other agricultural purposes, which also, with proper attention, grows fine, and yields more profit. Not only myself but hundreds of others, have raised tobacco, the leaves of which were three-fourths of a yard long. The tobacco raised here is of different kind, but principally of the Virginia kind, from which it differs little in flavour, although the Virginia is the best. Still it does not differ so much in quality as in price. Next to the Virginia it will be the best; many persons esteem it better, and give it a preference. It is even probable, that when the people extend the cultivation of the article, and more tobacco is planted, that it will gain more reputation and esteem. Many persons are of opinion that the defect in flavour arises from the newness of the land, and hasty cultivation, which will gradually be removed.

Barley grows well in the country, but it is not much needed. Cummin seed, canary seed, and the like, have been tried, and Commander Minuit testifies that those articles succeed well, but are not sought after. Flax and hemp will grow fine, but as the women do not spin much, and the Indians have hemp in abundance in the woods from which they make strong ropes and nets, for these reasons very little flax is raised; but the persons who do sow the seed, find that the land is of the proper quality for such articles.*

Of the Minerals, Earths, and Stones.

To the persons who will please to notice the formation of the country of the New Netherlands, which is mostly elevated above the floods, and free from the overflowings of its upper waters; and that it is mountainous in many places, and that it is situated in a temperate climate, such persons will, on contemplation, readily conclude that the country possesses minerals; although the Netherlanders have not been at much cost or trouble to examine and search for mines and minerals, which has not happened so much from ignorance and negligence as may be imagined, but from other good considerations. The prevailing opinion of the common people has been, that the country abounds in minerals; and it is true and certain that it possesses many valuable minerals, including gold and other precious metals. But such must be sought for by men of science. It cannot be done by the common people, which our rulers have had no disposition to encourage; while, on the other hand, the common citizens have other employments.

Considering that the Netherlanders are not numerous in the country, the discovery of minerals of more value than iron would attract the attention and cupidity of powerful and jealous friends, who in time might easily oust us, and shut the door against us, and then occupy and rule in our possessions. Passing by such speculative probabilities, and to satisfy the

* The peas referred to on page 157 of this translation, the author says, are the large grey kind, called *Old Wives*, having blue and white large pods or shells. Few are sown on an acre, but most in the gardens. The author does not state what kind of barley he refers to, whether it was winter or summer; but we judge it to have been winter barley. We have seen oat straw six feet long, but have never seen barley above five feet high. We, however, have seen ten acres of winter barley, which yielded 600 bushels of merchantable grain, and sixteen acres of summer barley, which yielded 42 bushels per acre. We have also conversed with a respectable farmer of Yates county, (Mr. Dox,) who stated that he had cropped one field with wheat seven years in succession, and that the last crop was fine wheat. Van der Donck's relation on the subject of wheat and barley may therefore be credited.—TRANS.

inquiries of our real friends, we will describe more particularly some facts and occurrences which have passed at several places, on the subject of minerals. It is now placed beyond a doubt that valuable minerals abound in the country, as experiments and satisfactory proofs have been made to establish those facts by the direction of Governor Kieft, in several instances, as well of gold as of quicksilver. I was present, and an eye-witness to the experiments, when the minerals proved to be rich and good, and know that specimens of the same from time to time were sent for the Netherlands which were all lost in the sea. In the year 1645, a mine was discovered on the Raritan, by accident or chance, which is held to be richer and better than any other before known. This discovery was the subject of much conversation at the time. For the information of the curious, we will briefly relate an account of another occurrence according to the truth.

In the year 1645, we were employed with the officers and rulers at the colony of Rensselaerwyck in negotiating a treaty of peace with the Maquas, (Mohawk Indians,) who then were and still are the strongest and fiercest Indian nation of the country; whereat the Director General, William Kieft, of the one part, and the chiefs of the Indian nations of the neighbouring country, on the other part, attended. To proceed with the treaty, the citizens of Rensselaerwyck procured a certain Indian, named *Agheroense*, to attend and serve as an interpreter, who was well known to the Christians, having been much among them, and who also spoke and understood all the Indian languages which were spoken by the parties that attended the negotiations. As the Indians are generally disposed to paint and ornament their faces with several brilliant colours, it happened on a certain morning that this Indian interpreter, who lodged in the Director's house, came down stairs, and in presence of the Director and myself sat down, and began stroking and painting his face. The Director observed the operation, and requested me to inquire of the Indian what substance he was using, which he handed to me, and I passed it to the Director, who examined the same attentively, and judged from its weight and from its greasy and shining appearance, that the lump contained some valuable metal, for which I commuted with the Indian, to ascertain what it contained. We acted with it, according to the best of our judgment, and gave the same to be proved by a skilful doctor of medicine, named Johannes La Montagne, of the Council in the New-Netherlands. The lump of mineral was put into a crucible, which was placed in a fire, and after the same according to my opinion) had been in the fire long enough, it was taken

out, when it delivered two pieces of gold worth about three guilders. This proof was kept secret.*

After the peace was made, an officer with a few men were sent to the Berg mountain, to which the Indian directed them, for a quantity of the mineral, who returned with about a bucket full, intermingled with stones, as they deemed best. They did not observe that the place from which they took the earth had been dug before. Of this mineral several experiments were made, which proved as good as the first. We supposed that we had secured the discovery safely. The Director General thought proper to embrace the first opportunity to send a small quantity of the mineral to the Netherlands, for which purpose he despatched a man named Arent Corsen, with a bag of the mineral to New-Haven, to take passage in an English ship for England, and to proceed to Holland. This vessel sailed at Christmas, and was lost at sea. Misfortune attended all on board.

The Director General, William Kieft, left the New-Netherlands for the Netherlands, in the year 1647, on board of the ship Princess, taking with him specimens of the proved minerals, and of several others. This ship was also lost, and the minerals remained in the sea.

Now we have Cornelius Van Tienhooven for Secretary of the New-Netherlands. Being here in Holland, he states that he had tested several specimens of the mineral, which proved satisfactory; the subject therefore need not be doubted.

This example I have deemed it proper to state, to which others might be added, but it would then become tedious. We find in the country up-drifts, and signs of many mines, but mostly of iron. The people of New-England already cast their own cannon, plates, pots, and cannon balls, from native iron. We now have people in the New-Netherlands who understand mining, who declare that there are much better and richer metals of different kinds there, than in New-England. But in our feeble opinion, it would not be advisable to go any further in disclosing and exposing those matters, as long as the place has so small a population.

The country has hills of fuller's earth, and several sorts of fine clay, such as white, yellow, red and black, which is fat and tough, suitable for pots, dishes, plates, tobacco-pipes, and the like wares. It is known from experience that bricks and tiles can be baked of the clay, and there is no doubt but that the business would be profitable, and the country be benefited if the trade was driven. Meantime crystal, like that of Muscovy, is found there; there is also an abundance of serpentine stone, but of a deeper green than that which is sold in Holland; there is also grey flagging, slate, grit or grinding-stone, but mostly of

*The mineral thus mistaken for gold was probably *pyrites*. The English settlers often made the same mistake.—Ed.

a red kind; much quarry stone, several kinds of blue stone, suitable for mill-stones, for walls and for ornamental work. We also find a kind of stone like alabaster and marble with others of that species. But as the population is small, such things are not valued. When the population increases, and pride advances, then the same will be held in high estimation.

Of the Dyes and Colours.

The original colours of the New-Netherlands may properly be represented in two classes, viz. paints and colours composed of minerals, and made from the same, and from stone; and those prepared from vegetables. The natives, as has been remarked, paint and ornament their faces and bodies with different colours, in various ways, according to their customs. For this purpose, they usually carry small bags of paints with them, keeping their colours separate, such as red, blue, green, brown, white, black, yellow, &c. The colours which they esteem most, are such as possess the most brilliancy, which shine like pure metals. Such was the kind spoken of as proved in the year 1645. Colours of this kind are mostly made of stone, which they know how to prepare by pounding, rubbing and grinding. Such they hold in higher estimation than the colours derived from herbs and plants. There, however, are various plants from which the Indians prepare several fine, lovely and bright colours, differing little in appearance from the stone colours, except in the glossy metallic appearance of the latter.

To describe perfectly and truly how the Indians prepare all these paints and colours, is out of my power. Their stone colours, they have informed me, are prepared as before stated; but whether they add any greasy or adhesive substances to the preparations, I know not; but I do know that all their paints of this kind have a fat and greasy feeling.

With the other colours which they prepare from plants and herbs, they usually pursue the same process. Without detaining the reader long, I will relate the process which I have seen performed; others may be done in the same manner. A certain plant springs up and grows in the country, resembling the *Orache*, or golden herb, having many shoots from the same stalk, but it grows much larger than the *Orache*. This plant produces clusters of red and brown berries, which the Indians bruise, and press out the juice, and pour the same on flat pieces of bark, about six feet long and three broad, prepared for the purpose; these are placed in the sun to dry out the moisture. If it does not dry out fast enough, or if they intend

to remove, which they frequently do in summer, then they heat smooth stones, and place the same into the juice of the berries on the bark, and thus they dry out the moisture speedily. The dry substance which remains on the bark is then scraped out, and put into small bags for use. This produces the finest purple colour I have ever seen. The Indians, when they use this colouring, temper the same with water; hence it comes off easily; but we believe if it was properly prepared by artists, it would be highly esteemed.

The paintings of the Indians are of little importance, being mostly confined to the colouring of their faces, bodies, and the skins which they wear. We have seen some counterfeit representations of trumpets in their strong houses or castles, wherein they hold their council assemblies, but their paintings are not spirited and ingenious. They also paint their shields and war hammers or clubs, and in their houses on the rail-work, they paint representations of canoes and animals, which are not well done.

On this subject I have another case which I have seen worthy of notice. The Indians use instead of plumes, a beautiful kind of hair, some of which is long, coarse and stiff, and some of it shorter and very fine. This they know how to unite and fix together in such a manner as to make the same appear beautiful, when they are dressed and ornamented with it. The hair they tie with small bands to suit their own fancies and fashions. They also know how to prepare a colouring, wherein they dye the hair a beautiful scarlet, which excites our astonishment and curiosity. The colour is so well fixed that rain, sun, and wind will not change it. It, however, appears better and more brilliant in the fine than in the coarse hair. Although the Indians do not appear to possess any particular art in this matter, still such beautiful red was never dyed in the Netherlands with any materials known to us. The coloured articles have been examined by many of our best dyers, who admire the colour, and admit that they cannot imitate the same, and remark that a proper knowledge of the art would be of great importance to their profession.*

Of the Animals of the New-Netherlands.

We will now speak of the cattle and animals of the New Netherlands, including such as have been introduced by the Christians, and those which are native to the country; beginning with the tame stock, which at the settlement of the country were brought over from the Netherlands, and which differ little from the original stock. The horses are of the proper breed

* The colouring matter spoken of by the author, we believe to have been made from the *Poke berries*.—TRANS. (*Phytolacca decandra*.—ED.)

for husbandry, having been brought from Utrecht for that purpose, and this stock has not diminished in size or quality. There are also horses of the English breed, which are lighter, not so good for agricultural use, but fit for the saddle. These do not cost as much as the Netherlands breed, and are easily obtained. There are *Curaçoon* and *Arabian* horses imported into the country, but those breeds are not very acceptable, because they do not endure the cold weather of the climate well, and sometimes die in winter. The whole of this breed require great care and attention in the winter. Fine large horses are bred in the country, which live long and are seldom diseased. There however is a plague, which is natural to the country, and destroys many horses. A horse which takes this plague is well, and dead in a short time. There appears to be no remedy for this distemper. The distemper appears like a paralytic affection; the diseased animal staggers like a drunken man, falls down, and dies in a short time. This malady has attracted the attention of many men, and there are those who have preserved the lives of many horses. It is therefore not considered as dangerous now as formerly. The origin of this disease has excited much attention, but the cause remains undiscovered. There also is an opinion prevailing that scientific horsemen, who are plenty in many places, but scarce in the New-Netherlands, will discover a remedy for this disease and ascertain its cause.

The cattle in New-Netherlands are mostly of the Holland breed, but usually do not grow as large, because the hay is not so good, and because the heifers are permitted to play in the second year for the purpose of increasing the stock. When this is not permitted until the proper time, they raise as fine cattle as we do in Holland. The Holland cattle, however, were subject to diseases when they were pastured on new ground, and fed on fresh hay only. This at the first, before a remedy was discovered, was very injurious; but it is now prevented by feeding with salt, by giving brackish drink, and by feeding with salt hay. There are also cattle brought over from the province of Utrecht, which are kept on the highlands at Amersfort, where they thrive as well as in Holland; the increase is not quite as large, but the stock give milk enough, thrive well in pasture, and yield much tallow.

They also have English cattle in the country, which are not imported by the Netherlanders, but purchased from the English in New-England. Those cattle thrive as well as the Holland cattle, and do not require as much care and provender; and, as in England, this breed will do well unsheltered whole winters. This breed of cattle do not grow near as large as the Dutch cattle, do not give as much milk, and are much cheaper; but they fat and tallow well. They who desire to cross the

breeds, and raise the best kind of stock, put a Holland bull to their English cows, by which they produce a good mixed breed of cattle without much cost. Oxen do good service there, and are not only used by the English, but by some of the Netherlanders also, to the wagon and plough. The grazing of cattle for slaughtering, is also progressing, as well of oxen as of other cattle, which produces profit in beef and tallow.

Hogs are numerous and plenty. Many are bred and kept by the settlers in the neighbourhood of the woods and lowlands. Some of the citizens prefer the English breed of hogs, because they are hardy, and subsist better in winter without shelter; but the Holland hogs grow much larger and heavier, and have thicker pork. In some years acorns are so abundant in the woods, that the hogs become fine and fat on the same, their pork frequently being a hand-breadth in thickness. When it is not an acorn year, or where persons have not an opportunity to feed their swine on acorns, in those cases they fat their hogs on maize, or Turkey wheat, which, according to the accepted opinions, produces the best pork, being better than the Westphalia pork. The heavy pork is frequently six or seven fingers in thickness, and will crack when cut. The persons who desire to raise many hogs, take care to have sucking pigs in April. When the grass is fine, the sows and pigs are driven woodwards to help themselves. At a year old the young sows have pigs. Thus hogs are multiplied, and are plenty in the New-Netherlands.

Sheep are also kept in the New-Netherlands, but not as many as in New-England, where the weaving business is driven, and where much attention is paid to sheep, to which our Netherlanders pay little attention. The sheep thrive well, and become fat enough. I have seen mutton so exceedingly fat there, that it was too luscious and offensive. The sheep breed well, and are healthy. There is also good feeding in summer, and good hay for the winter. But the flocks require to be guarded and tended on account of the wolves, for which purpose men cannot be spared; there is also a more important hinderance to the keeping of sheep, which are principally kept for their wool. New-Netherlands throughout is a woody country, being almost every where beset with trees, stumps and brushwood, wherein the sheep pasture, and by which they lose most of their wool, which by appearance does not seem to be out, but when sheared turns out light in the fleeces. These are reasons against the keeping of sheep. The inhabitants keep more goats than sheep, which succeed best. Fat sheep are in great danger, when suffered to become lean; of goats there is no danger. Goats also give good milk, which is always necessary, and because they cost little, they are of im-

portance to the new settlers and planters, who possess small means. Such persons keep goats instead of cows. Goats cost little, and are very prolific; and the young castrated tups afford fine delightful meat, which is always in demand.

The New-Netherlanders also have every kind of domestic fowls, as we have in Holland, such as capons, turkeys, geese and ducks. There are also pigeoners, who keep several kinds of pigeons. In a word, they have tame animals of every description, including cats and dogs. Respecting the dogs which are trained to the gun for hunting, and to the water, better dogs are not to be found, and it is useless and unnecessary to take any to the country.

Of the Wild Animals.

Although the New-Netherlands lay in a fine climate, and although the country in winter seems rather cold, nevertheless lions are found there, but not by the Christians, who have traversed the land wide and broad and have not seen one. It is only known to us by the skins of the females, which are sometimes brought in by the Indians for sale; who on inquiry say, that the lions are found far to the southwest, distant fifteen or twenty days' journey, in very high mountains, and that the males are too active and fierce to be taken.*

Many bears are found in the country, but none like the grey and pale-haired bears of Muscovy and Greenland. The bears are of a shining pitch black colour; their skins are proper for muffs. Although there are many of these beasts, yet from the acute sharpness of their smelling, they are seldom seen by the Christians. Whenever they smell a person they run off. When the Indians go a-hunting, they dress themselves as Esau did, in clothes which have the flavour of the woods, (except in their sleeping and hiding season, whereon we will treat hereafter,) that they may not be discovered by their smell. The bears are sometimes seen by the Christians, when they are approached from the leeward side, or when they swim across water courses. The bears are harmless unless they are attacked or wounded, and then they defend themselves fiercely as long as they can. A person who intends to shoot a bear, should be careful to have a tree near him to retreat to for safety; for if his shot does not take good effect, and the bear is not killed instantly, which, on account of their toughness, seldom happens, then the hunter is in danger; for then the bear instantly makes a stopper of leaves or of any other substance, as instinct directs, wherewith the animal closes the wound, and directly proceeds towards the

* The animal here referred to is probably the Cougar, (*Felis concolor*), known at the north under the various names of panther, painter, and catamount, and in South America as the puma, or South American lion.—Ed.
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hunter, if in sight, or to the place whence the smoke ascends and the gun was fired. In the meantime the hunter should be up the tree, which should be thick and full of limbs, otherwise the bear would also climb the tree easily. In this position the hunter has the advantage, and should be prepared to despatch his adversary; otherwise he must remain in his sanctuary until the rage of the animal is abated, which has frequently lasted two hours, and he retires. Hunters have related these particulars, who have preserved themselves as related.

The bears of this country are not ravenous, and do not subsist on flesh and carrion, as the bears of Muscovy and Greenland do. They subsist on grass, herbs, nuts, acorns and chestnuts, which, we are told by the Indians, they will gather and eat on the trees. It is also affirmed by the Christians, that they have seen bears on trees gathering and eating the fruit. When they wish to come down, then they place their heads between their legs, and let themselves fall to the earth; and whether they fall high or low, they spring up and go their way. Bears are sometimes shot when on the trees.

The Indians and the Christians are firmly of opinion that the bears sleep and lay concealed twelve weeks in succession in a year. In the fall they always are fat. During the winter they eat nothing, but lie down on one side with a foot in the mouth, whereon they suck growling six weeks; they then turn on the other side and lay six weeks more, and continue to suck as before. For this purpose they usually retire to the mountains, and seek shelter under projecting rocks in a burrow, or in a thick brushy wood, wherein many large trees have fallen, where they also seek shelter from the wind, snow and rain. The Indians say that the greatest number of bears are taken during their sleeping season, when they are most easily killed. The heaviest bears which are taken, (judging from their skins,) are about the size of a common heifer. The animals also are very fat, as before stated, the pork frequently being six or seven fingers in thickness. The Indians esteem the fore quarters and the plucks as excellent food. I have never tasted the meat, but several Christians who have eaten bear's flesh, say it is as good as any swine's flesh or pork can be.

Buffaloes are also tolerably plenty. These animals mostly keep towards the southwest, where few people go. Their meat is excellent, and more desirable than the flesh of the deer, although it is much coarser. Their skins when dressed are heavy enough for collars and harness. These animals are not very wild, and some persons are of opinion that they may be domesticated and tamed. It is also supposed that a female buffalo, put to a Holland bull, would produce a cross breed which would give excellent milking cattle, and that the males

would form fine hardy working animals when castrated. Persons who have got them when young, say they become very tame as they grow older, and forget the wild woods, and that they fatten well. It is remarked that the half of those animals have disappeared and left the country, and that if a cross breed succeeded, it would become more natural to the climate.

The deer are incredibly numerous in the country. Although the Indians throughout the year and every year, (but mostly in the fall,) kill many thousands, and the wolves, after the fawns are cast, and while they are young, also destroy many, still the land abounds with them everywhere, and their numbers appear to remain undiminished. We seldom pass through the fields without seeing deer more or less, and we frequently see them in flocks. Their meat digests easily, and is good food. Venison is so easily obtained that a good buck cashes for five guilders, and often for much less.

There are also white bucks and does, and others of a black colour in the country. The Indians aver that the haunts of the white deer are much frequented by the common deer, and that those of the black species are not frequented by the common deer. These are the sayings of the Indians. The truth remains to be ascertained relating to the preference between the animals.

There is also another kind of animals in the country, which are represented to be large, and which are known to the people of Canada, who relate strange things concerning the same. I have heard from the mouth of a Jesuit, who had been taken prisoner by the Mohawk Indians and released by our people, and come to me, that there were many wild forest oxen in Canada and *Nova Francia*, which in Latin they name *boves silvestres*, (the moose, or elk,) which are as large as horses, having long hair on their necks like the mane of a horse, and cloven hoofs; but that, like the buffalo, the animals were not fierce. I have also been frequently told by the Mohawk Indians, that far in the interior parts of the country, there were animals which were seldom seen, of the size and form of horses, with cloven hoofs, having one horn in the forehead, from a foot and a half to two feet in length, and that because of their fleetness and strength they were seldom caught or ensnared. I have never seen any certain token or sign of such animals, but that such creatures exist in the country, is supported by the concurrent declarations of the Indian hunters. There are Christians who say that they have seen the skins of this species of animal, but without the horns.

Wolves are numerous in the country, but these are not so large and ravenous as the Netherlands wolves are. They will not readily attack any thing, except small animals, such as deer,

(but most commonly when young,) calves, sheep, goats, and hogs. But when a drove of hogs are together, they do not permit the wolves to do them any injury, as those animals defend and assist each other.

The wolves in winter know how to beset and take deer. When the snow is upon the earth, eight or ten wolves, hunter-like, prowl in the chase in company. Sometimes a single wolf will chase and follow a single deer, until the animal is wearied, and falls a prey; but if the deer in the pursuit crosses a stream of water, then the wolf is done, because he dare not follow, and remains on the margin of the stream to see his chase escape. Wolves frequently drive deer into the rivers and streams. Many are taken in the water by persons who reside in the neighbourhood of rivers and streams, by the means of boats, with which they pursue the animals. If the deer is so near the shore as to be likely to gain the land before the boat can be near enough to take the prize, the person or persons in the boat shout and holloa loudly, when the echo from the land and woods frightens the animal off from the place to which it was swimming, and fearing to land it is easily taken by these stratagems.

Some persons are of opinion, that a driven deer will not betake itself to fresh water for safety, but we of the New Netherlands know to the contrary, and that there is no difference. When deer are chased upon an island near the sea, or on land near the sea, they will enter the open ocean, and frequently swim so far from shore that they never find their way to the land again.

Beavers are numerous in the New-Netherlands. We will treat at large of these animals hereafter. There are also fine otters in the country, very fine fishes, and wild cats, which have skins nearly resembling the skin of the lioness;—these animals also resemble them in form, but they have short tails, like the hares and conies. Foxes and racoons are plenty;—the skins of the latter are streaked, resembling seals, and are excellent applications for bruises and lameness. When their meat is roasted, it is delicious food, but when stewed, it is too luscious, on account of its fatness. The racoons usually shelter in hollow trees, wherein they lay up food for the winter, which they seldom leave, except for drink. It is a pleasure to take racoons; the trees wherein they shelter are discovered by the scratching of the bark, which is done by the racoons in climbing and descending the trees. When their haunts are discovered, the trees are cut down. By the fall of a tree, the racoons are stunned, and on leaving their holes they stagger as if drunk, and fall an easy prey to the hunter. Minks, hares, and conies (rabbits) are plenty in the country. Tame rabbits

run at large in New England. Musk-rats are abundant ; these creatures smell so strong of musk, that it can hardly be endured : when the skins are old and dry, the smell is retained, and all articles which are kept with the skins, are impregnated with the musky smell. *Maeters*, and black and gray squirrels, are also numerous. One kind of squirrels can fly several rods at a time ;—this species have a thin skin on both sides from the fore to the hind legs, which they extend and flap like wings, with which they fly swiftly to the desired place. Ground hogs, English skunks, drummers, and several other kinds of animals, for which we have no names, are known and found in the country. Their description is passed over.

Of the Land and Water Fowls ; and first, of the Birds of prey.

Birds of prey are numerous in the New-Netherlands ; among which there are two species of eagles, so different in appearance that they hardly resemble each other. The one is the common kind, which is known in Holland. The other kind is somewhat larger, and the feathers are much browner, except the whole head, a part of the neck, the whole tail, and the striking feathers, which are as white as snow, and render the bird beautiful. This kind are called white-heads, and they are plenty. Falcons, sparrow-hawks, sailing-hawks, castrills, church-hawks, fish-hawks, and several other kinds, for which I have no name, are plenty ; but every kind feed on flesh or fish, as they can best take the same. Those hawks might easily be trained to catch game, to which nature with art would perfect them. The small kind live on small birds, the larger kinds watch for woodpeckers, corn-birds, quails, &c. ; each that kind which it can overcome. But the eagles look for higher game, and bring terror where they appear. They usually frequent places where the trees are old, and where the ground is free from underwood, near the bay sides, or near large rivers, where from the tops of the trees they can have their eyes over the fish, the swans, the geese and the ducks, with which they can supply themselves ; but they do not commonly feed on fowl, because they prefer fish. They frequently strike a fish, and jerk it living from the waters. When a bird is crippled by a gunner, or is otherwise disabled, then the eagle's eye will see them, where the human eyes have looked in vain. The eagles soar very high in the air, beyond the vision of man, and on those flights they are always looking out for prey, or for a dead carcass, near which they are commonly seen. They seldom kill corn birds, or fowls which live

on fruit. Eagles are fond of the flesh of deer, for which they watch the places where the wolves kill deer, and have left a carcass partly eaten, which they discover on the wing. Many persons who know the nature of the eagle, and observe their sailing, have followed in their direction and have found the deer for which the eagle went, partly destroyed and eaten by wolves. It also happens that the hunters wound deer which escape, and die from the loss of blood. Such are also sometimes found uninjured by the direction of the eagles. There is also another bird of prey in the country, which has a head like the head of a large cat. Its feathers are of a light ash colour. The people of the country have no name for the bird. The Director Kieft says, the bird is known in France, and is named *Grand Duc*, where it is held in high estimation by the nobility, who have them trained for sporting. They are difficult to break, but when well trained they are frequently sold for 100 French crowns per bird.*

Of the Land Birds and Fowls.

The most important fowl of the country is the wild turkey. They resemble the tame turkeys of the Netherlands. Those birds are common in the woods all over the country, and are found in large flocks, from twenty to forty in a flock. They are large, heavy, fat and fine, weighing from twenty to thirty pounds each, and I have heard of one that weighed thirty-two pounds. When they are well cleaned and roasted on a spit, then they are excellent, and differ little in taste from the tame turkeys; but the epicures prefer the wild kind. They are best in the fall of the year, when the Indians will usually sell a turkey for ten stivers, and with the Christians the common price is a daelder each. Sometimes the turkeys are caught with dogs in the snow; but the greatest number are shot at night from the trees. The turkeys sleep in trees, and frequently in large flocks together. They also usually sleep in the same place every night. When a sleeping place is discovered, then two or three gunners go to the place together at night, when they shoot the fowls, and in such cases frequently bring in a dozen or more. The Indians take many in snares, when the weather changes in winter. Then they lay bulbous roots, which the turkeys are fond of, in the small rills and streams of water, which the birds take up, when they are ensnared and held until the artful Indian takes the turkey as his prize.

There are also several kinds of quails† in the country, some

* A good price for a *Cat-Owl*.—TRANS. † The Dutch word is *patrijsen*—the European partridge.—ED.
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of which are smaller, and others larger than those of the Netherlands. The sportsmen have given them distinguishing names, and they afford fine sport. In the Netherlands it is not believed that they will alight and sit in trees; but it is true that many are shot from trees in this country. I have done it several times, and have killed a hundred or more from trees. I have also heard from respectable authority, that eleven heath-fowls have been killed at a shot at Rensselaerwyck, off of a palisade fence, with which fields are enclosed. In some places, in the hedges and brush, the small quails are abundant, and they are so tame that they run along the roads and enter the gardens, and sometimes fly into houses; and they frequently lay in the grass, as it were under the traveller's feet, and in rising sometimes fly against them and frighten them. Many of those kinds of birds are killed with rods and sticks. There are also woodcocks, birch-cocks, heath-fowls, pheasants, wood and water snipes, &c. and many cranes, of which great numbers are shot on the mowed lands in the fall of the year, and they are fine for the table. Quacks and bitterns are also plenty. The pigeons, which resemble coal pigeons, are astonishingly plenty. Those are most numerous in the spring and fall of the year, when they are seen in such numbers in flocks, that they resemble the clouds in the heavens, and obstruct the rays of the sun. Many of those birds are shot in the spring and fall, on the wing, and from the dry trees whereon they prefer to alight, and will sit in great numbers to see around them, from which they are easily shot. Many are also shot on the ground, and it is not uncommon to kill twenty-five or more at a time. The Indians, when they find the breeding places of the pigeons, (at which they assemble in numberless thousands,) frequently remove to those places with their wives and children, to the number of two or three hundred in a company, where they live a month or more on the young pigeons, which they take, after pushing them from their nests with poles and sticks.

There are also quails, (*quartels*), differing from those in the Netherlands in their drumming, and somewhat in size.* Woodpeckers (*spechten*) are also found there; these birds are spotted with handsome feathers, and have a fine top-knot. The country people call them tree-peckers, which is their common employment, and they peck with such power, that at a distance the noise resembles the striking of a hammer. I have seen many trees into which those birds had pecked large holes, wherein they built their nests. Large blackbirds also are very plenty, to which the people have given an appropriate name, calling them (*maies dieven*) corn thieves, to which they have a

* The drumming noise is made by the partridge of the eastern States—the pheasant of the south, (*Tetio umbellus*), which is probably the bird here referred to.—Ed.

strong propensity. It is necessary after planting, to watch the corn fields to keep off those birds, whereon they frequently alight in large flocks, and are so stout that shooting will not drive them away. In places frequented by eagles, the blackbirds do very little injury. I have been informed by men of veracity, that a certain *Jacob Van Curler* had killed one hundred and seventy of those blackbirds, which he took up, at a shot, besides the cripples which escaped. From this occurrence an opinion of the probable numbers of those birds may be formed. There are also ravens, crows, kaws, owls, swallows, land-runners, with many other kinds of small birds, such as finches, chipping birds, wrens, hedge-sparrows, &c. Some of the birds sing beautifully; others have handsome plumage. I have seen birds of a lustrous blue colour, shining much; others of a yellow and orange, resembling the aurora, with a high flame colour; but those have black beaks, and some black wing feathers.

There is also another small curious bird, concerning which there are disputations, whether it is a *bird*, or a large West India *bee*. We will pass over those disputations, and describe the bird, its form, manner and appearance. The bird is about the length of a finger, exclusive of its beak; its tail is about the breadth of a thumb; its feathers are of various shining colours; having a beak and feet like other birds. I have not observed that it pecks and eats with its beak; but it sucks its nourishment from flowers like the bees, for which it has members in its beak like the bees. It is everywhere seen on the flowers regaling itself; hence it has obtained the name of the West India bee. It is only seen in the New-Netherlands in the season of flowers. In flying they also make a humming noise, like the bees. They are very tender, and cannot well be kept alive. We however prepare and preserve them between paper, and dry them in the sun, and send them as presents to our friends.

Of the Water Fowls.

Among other subjects wherewith the New-Netherlands is abundantly provided, are the fowls that keep to the waters, which we find there principally in the spring and fall of the year. At other seasons they are not as plenty. But at those seasons, the waters by their movements appears to be alive with the water fowls; and the people who reside near the water are frequently disturbed in their rest at night by the noise of the water fowls, particularly by the swans, which in their seasons are so plenty, that the bays and shores where they resort appear as if they were dressed in white drapery. The swans

are like those of the Netherlands, and come regularly in their proper seasons.

There are also three kinds of wild geese. The first and best kind are the grey geese, which are larger than the Netherlands geese, but not so large as the swans. Those fowls do much damage to the wheat fields which are sown near the places to which they resort. There are persons who believe this species to be the trap geese; but this cannot well be credited, because they are so numerous. A great many of those fowls are shot, and they are esteemed before the other kinds for the table. I have known a gunner named *Henry de Backer*, who killed eleven grey geese out of a large flock at one shot from his gun.

The other kinds are the black geese, and the white heads. Some of the latter kind are almost white, like unto our tame geese. Those kinds, in cold weather, frequent and resort to places near the sea shores in great numbers, where many are killed, often eight or ten at one shot. A Virginia planter of my acquaintance has killed sixteen geese at a shot, which he got, when several which he wounded escaped.

There also are several kinds of ducks, with widgeons, teal, brant, and many species of diving fowls, such as blue bills, whistlers, coots, eel-shovellers, and pelicans, with many strange fowls, for which we have no names, being of less importance; but which to persons who understand the art of preserving birds, might afford them a profitable business, as they are plenty and cheap. After the increase of our population, the fowls will diminish. Even feathers are now considered of little value or importance.*

Of the Fishes.

All the waters of the New-Netherlands are rich with fishes. Sturgeons are plenty in the rivers at their proper season; but these fish are not esteemed, and when large are not eaten. No person takes the trouble to salt or souse them for profit; and the roes from which the costly *caviær* is prepared, are cast away. Salmon are plenty in some rivers, and the striped bass are plenty in all the rivers and bays of the sea. The bass is a fish which in its form differs but little from the salmon. The inside of the latter is red, and of the other white. The bass are also a fine fish, and their heads are delicious food. The drums are a tolerably good fish, somewhat like the cod in form, but not so stout. I have heard it said, that the drums were named

* The swans, the pelicans, the grey and white-headed geese, and the grey ducks. have now fors
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Thirteens, when the Christians first began fishing in the New-Netherlands. Then every one was desirous to see the fishes which were caught, for the purpose of discovering whether the same were known to them, and if they did not know the fish, then they gave it a name. First in the fishing season they caught many shad, which they named *Elft*. Later they caught the striped bass, which they named *Twalft*. Later still they caught the drums, which they named *Dertienen*. For those fishes succeeded each other in their seasons, and the same are still known by the names which were thus derived. There are also carp, snook, forreels, pike, trout, suckers, thickheads, flounders, eels, palings, brickets and lampreys. Some of the latter are as large as a man's leg, and above an ell in length.* There are also sun-fish tasted like the perch, having small shining scales, with brilliant spots, from which they have derived the name of sun-fish. In the winter season, the creeks and back waters abound with a small kind of fish which comes from the sea, about the size of a smelt. Some call them little mullets. Those fishes are so tame that many are caught with the hand; and as those come with the frost, we call them frost-fish. Outside at sea, and in some of the bays of the East river, the cod-fish are very plenty; and if we would practice our art and experience in fishing, we could take ship loads of cod-fish, for it can be easily accomplished. There are also shell-fish, week-fish, herrings, mackerel, roah, hallibut, scoll, and sheeps-heads. The latter are formed like the sun-fish, but much heavier, with cross stripes, being about the weight of the largest carps. They have teeth in the fore part of the mouth like a sheep, but are not voracious, and are an excellent fish. There is another species of fish, called black-fish, which are held in high estimation by the Christians. It is as brown as a *seek*, formed like the carp, but not so coarse in its scales. When this kind of fish, which are plenty, is served upon the table, it goes before all others, for every person prefers it. There are also porpoises, herring-hogs, pot-heads or sharks, turtles, &c. and whales, of which there are none caught, but if preparations were made for the purpose, then it might be easily effected; but our colonists have not advanced far enough to pursue whaling. A lost bird, however, is frequently cast and stranded, which is cut up. Lobsters are plenty in many places. Some of those are very large, being from five to six feet in length; others again are from a foot to a foot and an half long, which are the best for the table. There are also crabs, like those of the Netherlands,

* There is a tradition that there were but ten species of fishes known to the Dutch when they discovered America, and that when they caught the shad, they named the fish (*Elft*) Eleventh; the bass (*Twalft*) Twelfth; and the drum (*Dertienen*) Thirteenth. The numbers in the Dutch are good names.—TRANS.

some of which are altogether soft. Those the people call weak crabs, and they make excellent bait for hook fishing. There are also sea-cocks, (horned crabs) sea-colts, sea-concks; and periwinkles are very plenty, which in some seasons are cast ashore by the sea in very great numbers. From these the Indians make wampum. Oysters are very plenty in many places. Some of these are like the Colchester oysters, and are fit to be eaten raw; others are very large, wherein pearls are frequently found, but as they are of a brownish colour, they are not valuable. The large oysters are proper for roasting and stewing. Each of these will fill a spoon, and make a good bite. I have seen many in the shell a foot long, and broad in proportion. The price for oysters is usually from eight to ten stivers per hundred. Muscles of different kinds are plenty; the St. Jacobs and mother of pearl shells, with Alis or stone crutches. There are also several other kinds of shell-fish, for which there are no names. There are also shrimps and tortoises in the waters and on land. Some persons prepare delicious dishes from the water terrapin, which is luscious food. There are also sea-spiders, and various other products of the ocean, which are unknown in Holland, and are of little consideration, as they contribute little to the wants of human society.

Of the Poisons.

During my residence of eight or nine years in the New-Netherlands, I have not discovered more than one poisonous plant in the country, which is named the *poison artichoke*, although it does not resemble the artichoke much, as it bears blue flowers in clusters, which are handsome to the eye, resembling pope's caps, or moon-heads, as they are named in Brabant.

Several kinds of black, speckled and striped snakes are found in the country. Some of these have bellies of the colour of the rainbow, and keep on the land and in the water, and are said to have connections with the eels. Snakes of those kinds do no damage except destroying young birds. Unless they escape from travellers and farmers, they are usually put to death. The Indians do not fear snakes of this kind, for they will run after and take them by their tails, and then take hold of them behind their heads and bite them in their necks; thus they kill them. There is also another snake about the size of a tobacco pipe. This kind of snake keeps in the weeds and high grass, and is seldom seen. Many are of opinion that it is venomous, but I have no proof of it. Rattlesnakes like those of Brazil, are found in the country. To persons who have never seen any of those reptiles, a description of them will ne-

cessarily be imperfect. Many affirm that the fiery serpents which plagued the Israelites in the wilderness, were rattlesnakes; but this is uncertain. Those are vile serpents, which seldom go out of the way of man or beast. They are speckled with yellow, black and purple colours, chub-headed, with four sharp teeth in the front of the mouth, which the Indians use for lancets. The body, except the tail, is fashioned like the bodies of other snakes; at the end of the tail it has a hard, dry, horny substance, which is interlocked and jointed together, with which these snakes can rattle so loud that the noise can be heard several rods; but they never rattle unless they intend to bite. The rattling is made by the thrilling of the tail, to the end of which the rattles are by nature attached. The rattles increase one joint every year. Snakes with six or seven rattles are very common, and I have seen one with fourteen rattles (which is an uncommon instance). When those snakes intend to bite, they have a dreadful appearance. The head is then spread out, and they open a wider mouth than they appear to have, and then also they open a bluish skin or valve, which lies at the root of the teeth of the upper jaw, from which the poison issues by the teeth into the wound inflicted by the serpent. In appearance the poison resembles a bluish salt, which I have seen by causing the snake to bite at a long stick for observation, on Long Island. When persons are bitten by those serpents and the poison enters the wound, their lives are in great danger. I have seen persons who were bitten by the serpents that were not bad, and others whose whole bodies became coloured like the snakes by which they had been bitten, before death. The Indians also dread those snakes, and when bitten by this species they also frequently die of the bite. Fortunately the rattlesnakes are not numerous, and a person who does not frequent the woods and fields much, may reside in the country seven years without seeing one of those snakes. There is a certain plant which grows in the country, named snake-wort, which is a sovereign remedy for the bite of the rattlesnake. I have witnessed an experiment made on Long-Island with snake-wort, on a large rattlesnake, when a person chewed a quantity of the green plant, and spit some of the juice on the end of a stick, which was put to the nose of the snake, and it caused the creature to thrill and die instantly. The Indians hold this plant in such high estimation, that many of them always carry some of it, well dried, with them to cure the bites of those serpents. Adders also are found in the country, but I have never heard of injuries done by them.

Lizards like those found in Holland are in the country, and also another species which have pale bluish tails. Those are much feared by the Indians, because (as they say) this kind

will crawl up into their fundaments, when they lay asleep on the ground in the woods, and cause them to die in great misery. When the toads are added, I have given an account of the poison and of the poisonous reptiles which I have discovered in the country, and according to my original design, hereafter will treat of the winds, air, sea, seasons, and of the natives of the land; and also give a particular description of the beavers.

Of the Winds.

The swift and fostering messengers of commerce are the winds that prevail in the New-Netherlands. They blow from all quarters of the compass, without any monsoons or regular trade winds. In winter, the cold comes with the northerly winds; in summer, the south and south-westerly winds prevail. It is seldom calm in winter, as it is in Holland. In the heart of winter, when it is calm, *loof still*, and cold, turn either way, and you have it in your face. The north-west winds which bring the most cold weather usually blow sharp and steady, except at the foot of the mountains, which break the winds. All the storms which arise, usually come with easterly winds from the sea, at the spring tides, and seldom last more than three days. If they come more from the south, then it usually blows hard, and with more warmth, and a hazy sky or rain, which frequently happens. The westerly wind usually blows severe and squally, but as it comes from the land, and blows across most of the rivers to the sea, it gives windward stations and is not feared. The north-west and north winds bring the cold, as the east and north-east winds do in Holland. Should it be warm southerly weather, whenever a northerner rises, the air will change from heat to cold in a short time. On these occasions it will blow hard and severe, but as it leaves an upper shore, it seldom does damage at sea. The sea then washes against a windward shore; hence no damage is apprehended. The damage arises from the easterly winds. When the north-west gales blow, then much damage is done in the timber lands, by the blowing down and cracking of the trees, and then is the proper time for the gunners to approach their game. In summer, a southerly sea breeze usually sets in on the flood-tide at New-Amsterdam, which blows over a cool element, and brings refreshment with it. The warm weather in summer frequently brings thunder storms from the west, when it will frequently rain one, two or three hours, after which it will blow from the north-west, and be succeeded by fine cool weather: so that within an hour the clouds will appear as if they would spew cats, and in another

hour scarcely a cloud will be seen. The easterly winds seldom blow in the interior parts of the country, sometimes not once in a year: those winds appear to be stayed by the highlands and the mountains.

Of the Air.

The sweet ruler that influences the wisdom, power and appearance of man, of animals, and of plants, is the air. Many name it the temperament, or the climate. The air in the New-Netherlands is so dry, sweet and healthy, that we need not wish that it were otherwise. In purity, agreeableness, and fineness, it would be folly to seek for an example of it in any other country. In the New-Netherlands, we seldom hear of any person who is afflicted with a pining disease. Many persons from the West-Indies, Virginia, and other quarters of the world, who do not enjoy health in those parts, when they come into the New-Netherlands, there become as active as fishes in the waters. The *Galens* have meagre soup in that country. We may say that there are no heavy damps or stinking mists in the country, and if any did arise, a northerly breeze would blow them away, and purify the air. Hence the healthiness of the country deserves commendation. The summer heat is not oppressive in the warmest weather, for it is mitigated by the sea breezes, the northerly winds, and by showers. The cold is severer than the latitude seems to promise, which arises from the purity of the air, which is sensitive and penetrating, but always dry with northerly winds, against which nature directs us to provide, and to clothe ourselves properly. Cold damp weather seldom arises. Such weather is caused by southerly winds; and whenever the wind blows from the south in winter, the cold ceases. If the south wind rises in the middle of winter, which frequently occurs, and blows some time, then the weather becomes as warm as in Lent, and the ice gives way. The country is seldom troubled with much moist damp weather, nor does it last long. Still there is plenty of rain, but more in some seasons than in others. When it rains the water falls freely, which extends to the roots of the vegetation. By the thunder and lightning, which is common in the warm weather, the air is purified, and the state of the atmosphere corrected. This is regulated by the seasons, and adherent to particular seasons of the year.

Of the Seasons.

The changes of the year, and the calculations of time, are observed as in the Netherlands; and although these countries differ much in their situations in south latitude, still they do not differ much in the temperature of cold and heat. But to discriminate more accurately, it should be remarked that the winters usually terminate with the month of February, at New-Amsterdam, which is the chief place and centre of the New-Netherlands. Then the spring or Lent-like weather begins. Some persons calculate from the 21st of March, new style, after which it seldom freezes, nor before this does it seldom summer; but at this season a change evidently begins. The fishes then leave the bottom ground, the buds begin to swell; the grass sprouts, and in some places the cattle are put to grass in March; in other situations they wait later, as the situations and soils vary. The horses and working cattle are not turned out to grass until May, when the grass is plenty everywhere. April is the proper month for gardening. Later the farmers should not sow summer grain, unless they are not ready; it may be done later, and still ripen.

Easterly winds and stormy weather are common in the spring, which then cause high tides; but they cannot produce high floods. The persons who desire to explore and view the country, have the best opportunity in April and May. The grass and herbage at this season causes no inconvenience in the woods, and still there is grass enough for horses. The cold has not overcome the heat produced by the wood burnings, and the ground which has been burnt over, is yet bare enough for inspection. The flowers are then in bloom, and the woods are fragrant with their perfume. In the middle of May, strawberries are always plenty in the fields, where they grow naturally; they are seldom planted in the gardens, but there, in warm situations, they are earlier. When the warm weather sets in, then vegetation springs rapidly. It is so rapid as to change the fields from nakedness to green in eight or ten days. There are no frosts in May, or they are very uncommon, as then it is summer. The winter grain is in full blossom. The summer may be said to begin in May, but it really is calculated from the first of June, and then the weather is frequently very warm, and there is seldom much rain. Still there are no extremes of wet and dry weather, and we may freely say, that the summers are always better in the New-Netherlands than in Holland. Rainy weather seldom lasts long. Showers and thunder-storms are frequent in summer, and will last an hour, an hour and a half, and sometimes half a day. It seldom rains three hours in succession, and the

rains seldom do any injury, because the earth is open, and the water settles away, and on the high lands the rains are always desirable. A summer shower frequently will produce water sufficient to extend to the roots of the vegetation, and be immediately succeeded by a north-west wind, which will clear off the sky, as if no rain had fallen. Heavy dews are common, which in the dry seasons, are very quickening to the vegetation.

Now when the summer progresses finely, the land rewards the labor of the husbandman; the flowers smile on his countenance; the fishes sport in their element, and the herds play in the fields, as if no reverses were to return. But the tobacco, and the fruit of the vines, come in in September. There is plenty here for man and the animal creation.

The days are not so long in summer, nor so short in winter, as they are in Holland. Their length in summer, and their shortness in winter, differ about an hour and a half. It is found that this difference in the length of the days, causes no inconvenience; the days in summer are long and warm enough for those who are inclined to labour, and do it from necessity; and for those who seek diversion. The winters pass by without becoming tedious. The reasons for this, and the objections thereto, we leave to the learned, as we deem the subject not worthy of our inquiry. The received opinion on this subject is, that the difference in the length of the days and nights arises from the difference of latitude of the New-Netherlands and Holland. The former lies nearer the equinoctial line, and nearer the centre of the globe. As they differ in length, so also they differ in twilight. When it is midday in Holland, it is morning in the New-Netherlands. On this subject there are also different opinions. Most men say that the New-Netherlands lay so much farther to the west, that its situation causes this variation; others go further, and dispute the roundness of the globe. As the creation of the world is connected with this subject, which none will deny, and as the difference in the appearance of the eclipses supports the truth of the first position of the roundness of the globe, therefore the other position appears to be unsupported.

The autumns in the New-Netherlands are very fine, lovely and agreeable; more delightful cannot be found on the earth; not only because the summer productions are gathered, and the earth is then yielding its surplusage, but also because the season is so well tempered with heat and cold, as to appear like the month of May, except that on some mornings there will be frost, which, by ten o'clock will be removed by the ascending sun, leaving no stench or unwholesome air, and causing little inconvenience. On the other hand, the vegetation and grass produced in summer falls, and is trodden down, which is succeeded by a fall crop, growing as it does in Lent, bringing de-

light to man and pasturage for animals. There is not much rain in autumn except in showers, which do not last long; yet it sometimes rains two or three days. Otherwise there is day after day, fine weather and a clear sunshine, with agreeable weather. In short the autumns in the New-Netherlands are as fine as the summers of Holland, and continue very long; for below the highlands, towards the sea coast, the winter does not set in, or freeze much before Christmas, the waters remaining open, the weather fine, and in many places the cattle grazing in the fields. Above the highlands, advancing northerly, the weather is colder, the fresh waters freeze, the stock is sheltered, the kitchens are provided, and all things are put in order for the winter. The fat oxen and swine are slaughtered. The wild geese, turkeys and deer are at their best in this season, and easiest obtained, because of the cold, and because the woods are now burnt over, and the brushwood and herbage out of the way. This is also the Indian hunting season, wherein such great numbers of deer are killed, that a person who is uninformed of the vast extent of the country, would imagine that all these animals would be destroyed in a short time. But the country is so extensive, and their subsistence so abundant, and the hunting being confined mostly to certain districts, therefore no diminution of the deer is observable. The Indians also affirm, that before the arrival of the Christians, and before the small pox broke out amongst them, they were ten times as numerous as they now are, and that their population had been melted down by this disease, whereof nine-tenths of them have died. That then, before the arrival of the Christians, many more deer were killed than there now are, without any perceptible decrease of their numbers.

We will now notice the winters of the New-Netherlands, which are different at different places. Above the highlands, towards Rensselaerwyck, and in the interior places extending towards New-England, (which we still claim,) there the winters are colder and last longer than at New-Amsterdam, and other places along the sea coast, or on Long Island, and on the South River, (Delaware.) At the latter places, there seldom is any hard freezing weather before Christmas, and although there may be some cold nights, and trifling snows, still it does not amount to much, for during the day it is usually clear weather. But at Rensselaerwyck the winters begin earlier, as in 1645, when the North River closed on the 25th day of November, and remained frozen very late. Below the highlands and near the sea coast, as has been observed, it never begins to freeze so early, but the cold weather usually keeps off until about Christmas, and frequently later, before the rivers are closed; and then they frequently are so full of drifting ice during the north-west

winds, as to obstruct the navigation ; and whenever the wind shifts to the south or south-east, the ice decays, and the rivers are open and clear. This frequently happens two or three times in a winter, when the navigation will be free and unobstructed again. Much rainy weather, or strong winds which continue to blow from one quarter a long time, are not common, or to be expected in the country.

It is probable, (and many persons support the position with plausible reasoning,) that the subtlety and purity of the atmosphere changes the water before it comes to the earth, or whilst it is still retained in the clouds, or in its descent to the earth, into hail or snow. The latter is sooner to be credited, for during the winter much snow falls, which frequently remains weeks and months on the earth, without thawing away entirely. But below the circle of the highlands, the southerly winds are powerful ; there the snow cannot lay long, but is removed by the southerly weather.

It frequently happens once or twice in a winter, that the trees are silvered over with sleet, which produces a beautiful and speculative appearance when the sun shines on the same, particularly on the declivities of the hills and mountains. Many persons say that sleets and heavy hail are signs of good fruit seasons in the succeeding year.

It is strange and worthy of observation, and surpasses all reasoning, that in the New-Netherlands, without or with but little wind, (for when the weather is coldest, there seldom is much wind,) although it lies in the latitude of Spain and Italy, and the summer heat is similar, that the winters should be so much colder, as to render useless all the plants and herbs which grow in those countries, which will not endure the cold weather. The winter weather is dry and cold, and we find that the peltries and feltings are prior and better than the furs of Muscovy. For this difference several reasons are assigned, which we will relate, without controverting any, except in remarking that in most cases wherein many different reasons are assigned to establish a subject, all are frequently discredited. Some say that the New-Netherlands lie so much further west on the globe, and that this causes the difference ; others who compare the summer heat with Spain and Italy, deny this position ; others declare that the globe is not round, and that the country lies in a declining position from the sun. Others assert that the last discovered quarter of the world is larger than the other parts, and ask, if the world formerly was considered round, how that theory can be supported now, when about one-half is added to it ? Some also say that the higher a country is situated, the colder it is. Now, say they, the New-Netherlands lie in a high westerly position ; *ergo*, it must be cold there in winter,

and as warm in summer. Many remark, and with much plausibility also, that the country extends northerly many hundred miles to the frozen ocean, and is accessible by Davis Straits, (which by some is doubted,) and that the land is intersected and studded by high mountains, and that the snow remains lying on them and in the valleys, and seldom thaws away entirely; and that when the wind blows from and over those cold regions, it brings cold with it. Receiving the cold from above and from beneath, (both being cold,) it must of course follow that the cold comes with the north-westerly winds. On the contrary they say, that whenever the wind blows from the sea, if it be in the heat of the winter, then the weather becomes sultry and warm as in Lent.

The cold weather, however, is not so severe as to do much injury, or to become tedious; but for many reasons it is desirable for the benefit of the country, which it frees from insects and every other kind of impurity in the air, and fastens firmly in their positions all the plants, and screens the same from the effects of the cold, against which nature has thus carefully provided.

There is everywhere fuel in abundance, and to be obtained for the expense of cutting and procuring the same. The superabundance of this country is not equalled by any other in the world. The Indians do not clothe as we do, but frequently go half naked and withstand the cold, in fashion, and fear it little. They are never overcome with the cold, or injured by it. In bitter cold weather, they will not pursue their customary pleasures, particularly the women and the children; for the men do not care so much for the cold days in winter as they do for the hot days in summer.

*Of the products of Kitchen Gardens.**

The garden products in the New-Netherlands are very numerous; some of them have been known to the natives from the earliest times, and others introduced from different parts of the world, but chiefly from the Netherlands. We shall speak of them only in a general way; *amateurs* would be able to describe their agreeable qualities in a more scientific manner,

* The omission of this chapter by the Translator was discovered too late for its insertion in the proper place, (page 155,) and the absence of Mr. Johnson in attendance upon the State Legislature, of which he is a member, has rendered it necessary for the Editor to supply the omission by translating the chapter, and inserting it out of its original connexion.

but having been necessarily occupied with other subjects, we have had no leisure to devote to them. They consist, then, of various kinds of salads, cabbages, parsnips, carrots, beets, endive, succory, finckel, sorrel, dill, spinage, radishes, Spanish radishes, parsley, chervil, (or sweet cicely,) cresses, onions, leeks, and besides whatever is commonly found in a kitchen garden. The herb garden is also tolerably well supplied with rosemary, lavender, hyssop, thyme, sage, marjoram, balm, holy onions, (*ajuin heylig*,) wormwood, belury, chives, and clary; also, pimpernel, dragon's blood, five-finger, tarragon, (or dragonswort,) &c. together with laurel, artichokes, and asparagus, and various other things on which I have bestowed no attention.

The inquirers into nature inform us that plants are there less succulent, and therefore more vigorous than here. I have also noticed that they require less care and attention, and grow equally well; as for instance, the pumpkin grows with little or no cultivation, and is so sweet and dry that it is used, with the addition of vinegar and water, for stewing in the same manner as apples; and notwithstanding that it is here generally despised as a mean and unsubstantial article of food, it is there of so good a quality that our countrymen hold it in high estimation. I have heard it said, too, that when properly prepared as apples are with us, it is not inferior to them, or there is but little difference, and when the pumpkin is baked in ovens it is considered better than apples. The English, who in general think much of what gratifies the palate, use it also in pastry,* and understand making a beverage from it. I do not mean all sorts of pumpkins and cucurbites that may be found anywhere, and of course in the New-Netherlands; the Spanish is considered the best.†

The natives have another species of this vegetable peculiar to themselves, called by our people *quaasiens*, a name derived from the aborigines, as the plant was not known to us before our intercourse with them.‡ It is a delightful fruit, as well to the eye on account of its fine variety of colours, as to the mouth for its agreeable taste. The ease with which it is cooked ren-

* By the *English* the author means the inhabitants of New-England, where *pumpkin pies* still hold a prominent place among the luxuries of the land.—ED.

† The Spanish or mammoth pumpkin is still preferred. See *Bridgeman's Gardener*. New-York, 1840.

‡ Roger Williams, the celebrated founder of the colony of Rhode Island, describes the same plant in the following manner:—"Askutasquash, their vine-apples, which the English from them call *squashes*; about the bigness of apples, of several colours, a sweet, light, wholesome refreshing."—*Key into the Languages of the Indians*. London, 1643. Reprinted in *Collections of Mass. Hist. Society*, 1st series vol. iii. Dr. Webster, in his quarto Dictionary, derives the name of this vegetable from a *Greek* root.—ED.

ders it a favourite too with the young women. It is gathered early in summer, and when it is planted in the middle of April, the fruit is fit for eating by the first of June. They do not wait for it to ripen before making use of the fruit, but only until it has attained a certain size. They gather the squashes and immediately place them on the fire without any farther trouble. When a considerable number have been gathered, they keep them for three or four days; and it is incredible, when one watches the vines, how many will grow on them in the course of a single season. The vines run a little along the ground, some of them only two or three steps; they grow well in newly broken wood-land when it is somewhat cleared and the weeds are removed. The natives make great account of this vegetable; some of the Netherlanders too consider it quite good, but others do not esteem it very highly. It grows rapidly, is easily cooked, and digests well in the stomach, and its flavour and nutritive properties are respectable.

Melons, likewise, grow in the New-Netherlands very luxuriantly, without requiring the land to be prepared or manured; there is no necessity for lopping the vines, or carefully dressing them under glass, as is done in this country; indeed, scarcely any attention is paid to them, no more than is bestowed here in the raising of cucumbers, and the people in that part of the world have every reason to be well content. They plant no more than they think will come to maturity, but when it unfortunately happens that any are destroyed, they put fresh seeds into the ground. Melons will thrive too in newly cleared wood land, when it is freed from weeds; and in this situation the fruit, which they call *Spanish pork*, grows large and very abundant. I had the curiosity to weigh one of these melons, and found its weight to be seventeen pounds. In consequence of the warm temperature of the climate, the melons are quite sweet and pleasant to the taste, and however many one may eat, they will not prove injurious, provided only that they are fully ripe.

The citrull or water-citron,* (*citerullen ofte water-limoenen*,) also grows there, a fruit that we have not in the Netherlands, and is only known from its being occasionally brought

* The water-melon, as it is now called. The French give the name of citrull or *citrouille*, to the pumpkin. The fruit mentioned by our author under the name of *melon*, seems to have been the musk-melon, which, being then cultivated in Holland, did not require a particular description. But the water-melon at that period was comparatively little known, as Van der Donck states, and not regarded as a melon. On this account he describes the fruit so minutely that it cannot well be mistaken. It was sometimes termed by English writers the *Citrull cucumber*. Botanists place the water-melon in the same genus as the pumpkin, calling it *Cucurbita citrullus*.—ED.

from Portugal, except to those who have travelled in warm climates. This fruit grows more rapidly and in greater abundance than melons, so much so that some plant them, even among those who are experienced, for the purpose of clearing and bringing into subjection the wild undressed land to fit it for cultivation. Their juice is very sweet like that of apricots, and most men there would eat six water-citrons to one melon, although they who wish can have both. They grow ordinarily to the size of a man's head. I have seen them as large as the biggest Leyden cabbages, but in general they are somewhat oblong. Within they are white or red; the red have white, and the white black seeds. When they are to be eaten, the rind is cut off to about the thickness of the finger; all the rest is good, consisting of a spongy pulp, full of liquor, in which the seeds are imbedded, and if the fruit is sound and fully ripe, it melts as soon as it enters the mouth, and nothing is left but the seeds. Women and children are very fond of this fruit. It is also quite refreshing from its coolness, and is used as a beverage in many places. I have heard the English say that they obtain a liquor from it resembling Spanish wine, but not so strong. Then there is no want of sweetness, and the vinegar that is made from it will last long, and is so good that some among them make great use of it.*

Cucumbers are abundant. Calabashes or gourds also grow there; they are half as long as the pumpkin, but have within very little pulp, and are sought chiefly on account of the shell, which is hard and durable, and is used to hold seeds, spices, &c. It is the common water-pail of the natives, and I have seen one so large that it would contain more than a bushel.† Turnips also are as good and firm as any sand-rapes that are raised in the Netherlands. There are likewise peas and various sorts of beans; I shall speak of the former under the head of *field products*. Of beans there are several kinds; but the large Windsor bean, which the farmers call *tessen*, or house beans, and also the horse-bean, will not fill out their pods; the leaf grows well enough though delicate, and ten, twelve, or more

* Prof. Pallas, in the account of his journey to the southern provinces of Russia, in 1793-4, speaking of a colony of Moravians at Sarepta, or Sapa, on the Volga, says, "The ingenious inhabitants of this town brew a kind of beer from their very abundant and cheap water-melons, with the addition of hops; they also prepare a conserve or marmalade from this fruit, which is a good substitute for syrup, or treacle." Other instances of a similar character might be adduced to confirm the general correctness of the author's observations and statements, but it seems to be unnecessary. His remarks betray no want of familiarity with the subject of gardening, notwithstanding the modest disclaimer which he makes at the outset.—ED.

† The Dutch bushel (*schepel*) is about three pecks English.

stalks frequently shoot up, but come to little or nothing.* The Turkish beans which our people have introduced there grow wonderfully; they fill out remarkably well, and are much cultivated. Before the arrival of the Netherlanders, the Indians raised beans of various kinds and colours, but generally too coarse to be eaten green, or to be pickled, except the blue sort, which are abundant; they somewhat tend to cause flatulency, like those we raise in Holland, but in other respects they furnish an excellent food, of which the Indians are especially fond. They have a peculiar mode of planting them, which our people have learned to practise:—when the Turkish wheat, (Indian corn,) or, as it is called, *maize*, is half a foot above the ground, they plant the beans around it, and let them grow together. The coarse stalk serves as a bean-prop, and the beans run upon it. They increase together and thrive extremely well, and thus two crops are gathered at the same time.

*Bridgeman makes a similar statement in regard to the 'large Windsor bean,' and other varieties of the English *Dwarfs*. He says, "the principal cause of these garden beans not succeeding well in this country, is the summer heat overtaking them before they are podded, causing the blossom to drop off prematurely; to obviate this difficulty they should be planted as early in the year as possible." p. 31.

OF THE MANNERS AND PECULIAR CUSTOMS OF THE
NATIVES OF THE NEW-NETHERLANDS.

FIRST:—*Of their bodily form and appearance, and why we named them (Wilden) Wild Men.*

Having briefly remarked on the situation and advantages of the country, we deem it worth our attention to treat concerning the nature of the original native inhabitants of the land; that after the Christians have multiplied and the natives have disappeared and melted away, a memorial of them may be preserved.

Their appearance and bodily form, as well of the men as of the women, are well proportioned, and equal in height to the Netherlanders, varying little from the common size. Their limbs are properly formed, and they are sprightly and active.— They can run very fast for a long time, and they can carry heavy packs. To all bodily exertions they are very competent, as far as their dispositions extend; but to heavy slavish labour the men have a particular aversion, and they manage their affairs accordingly, so that they need not labour much. Misshapen or ill-formed persons are very rare amongst them.— During the whole time of my residence in the country, I have not seen more than one who was born deformed. Cripples, hunch-backed, or other bodily infirmities, are so rare, that we may say that there are none amongst them; and when we see or hear of one who is crippled or lame, we on inquiry find the same to have originated by accident or in war. They are all properly formed and well proportioned persons. None are gross or uncommonly heavy. Although nature has not given them abundant wisdom, still they exercise their talents with discretion. No lunatics or fools are found amongst them, nor any mad or raving persons of either sex. The men and women commonly have broad shoulders and slender waists. Their hair, before old age, is jet black, sleek and uncurled, and nearly as coarse as a horse's tail. Hair of any other colour they dislike and despise. On the skin, the breast, under the arms, and on other parts of the body, they have little or no hair, and if any appear on their chins they pluck it out by the roots, and it seldom sprouts again. Their old men sometimes have a little stubble on their chins. The men and women all have fine brown eyes, and snow white teeth. Purlind, or cross-eyed

persons are rare objects, and I have never heard of a native who was born blind, and they seldom lose their sight by accident.— One I have seen who had lost his eye-sight by the small pox ; and when they become old, their sight does not fail so early in life as ours. The colour of their skin is not so white as ours ; still we see some of them who have a fine skin, and they are mostly born with good complexions ; otherwise they have a yellowish colour like the Tartars, or heathen who are seen in Holland, or like the Outlanders who keep in the fields and go uncovered as they do. Their yellowness is no fault of nature, but it is caused by the heat of the scorching sun, which is hotter and more powerful in that country than in Holland, which from generation to generation has been shining on that people, and exhibits its effects stronger. Although this yellowness of the skin appears more or less on all this race, still we find very comely men and women amongst them. It is true that they appear singular and strange to our nation, because their complexion, speech and dress are so different, but this, on acquaintance, is disregarded. Their women are well favoured and fascinating. Several of our Netherlanders were connected with them before our women came over, and remain firm in their attachments. Their faces and countenances are as various as they are in Holland, seldom very handsome, and rarely very ugly, and if they were instructed as our women are, there then would be little or no difference in their qualifications.

The original natives of the country, (for now there are native born Christians also,) although they are composed of different tribes, and speak different tongues, all pass by the appellation of (Wilden) wild men ; and this name was given them, as far as we can learn, at the first discovery of the country, which for various reasons seems very appropriate. First, on account of their religion, of which they have very little, and that is very strange ; and secondly, on account of their marriages, wherein they differ from civilized societies ; thirdly, on account of their laws, which are so singular as to deserve the name of wild regulations. And the Christians hold different names necessary to distinguish different nations, such as Turks, Mamelukes, and Barbarians ; and as the name of Heathen is very little used in foreign lands, therefore they would not distinguish the native Americans by either of these names ; and as they trade in foreign countries with dark and fair coloured people, and with those who resemble ourselves, in distinction from negroes, and as the American tribes are bordering on an olive colour, the name of *wild men* suits them best. Thus without deliberation, and as it were by chance at the first word, (as we suppose,) they were called Wild Men. And as unlearned persons never reflect much but speak their first thoughts, in this manner it

has probably happened that this people received their national name, because they seemed to be wild and strangers to the Christian religion.*

Of the Food and Subsistence of the Indians.

In eating and drinking the Indians are not excessive, even in their feast-days. They are cheerful and well satisfied when they have a sufficiency to support nature, and to satisfy hunger and thirst. It is not with them as it is here in Holland, where the greatest, noblest, and richest live more luxuriously than a *Calis*, or a common man; but with them meat and drink are sufficient and the same for all. Their common drink is water from a living spring or well, when it can be had, wherein they seldom fail, as in days of old. Sometimes in the season of grapes, and when they have fresh meat or fish, and are well pleased, they will press out the juice of the grapes and drink it new. They never make wine or beer. Brandy or strong drink is unknown to them, except to those who frequent our settlements, and have learned that beer and wine taste better than water.

In the Indian languages, which are rich and expressive, they have no word to express drunkenness. Drunken men they call fools. When they associate much with our people, and can obtain liquor, they will drink to excess, when they become insolent and troublesome, and are malicious. To prevent this, the government has forbidden the sale of spirituous liquors to the Indians. Most of them however will not taste liquor. Before they are accustomed to spirituous liquor, they are easily made drunk, for which a small glass or two is sufficient; but in time they become accustomed to it, and bear it as well as our own people do. The rheumatic gout, red and pimpled noses, are snares unknown to them; nor have they any diseases or infirmities which are caused by drunkenness.

Their common food is meat, and fish of every kind, according to the seasons, and the advantages of the places where they reside. They have no pride, or particular methods in preparing their food. Their fish or meat they usually boil in water, without salt, or *smout*,† and nothing more than the articles yield. They know of no stewing, fricasseeing, baking, frying, or the like methods of cooking, and seldom do they warm up or boil any food, unless it be small pieces of meat or fish, when they

* The sexes are admirably distinguished in the Dutch language, in the case of the Indians. *Wilt* is male; *Wilden* is female. The terms are much softer than the English, of Indian and squaw.—TRANS.

† A sort of oil.—ED.

travel or are hunting, and have no other opportunity to prepare their food.

For bread they use maize, or Turkey corn, which the women pound fine into meal, (as the Hebrews did their manna in the wilderness,) of which they bake cakes, for they know nothing of mills. They also use pounded maize, as we do rice, and samp, with their boiled meat. Their common food, and for which their meal is generally used, is *pap*, or *mush*, which in the New-Netherlands is named *sapaen*. This is so common among the Indians, that they seldom pass a day without it, unless they are on a journey or hunting. We seldom visit an Indian lodge at any time of the day, without seeing their *sapaen* preparing, or seeing them eating the same. It is the common food of all; young and old eat it; and they are so well accustomed to it, and fond of it, that when they visit our people, or each other, they consider themselves neglected unless they are treated with *sapaen*. Without *sapaen* they do not eat a satisfactory meal. And when they have an opportunity, they frequently boil fish or meat with it; but seldom when the meat or fish is fresh, but when they have the articles dried hard, and pounded fine. This food they usually prepare at the close of the winter and in the spring, when the hunting season is past, and their stock of provisions is nearly exhausted. They also use many dry beans, which they consider dainties. Those they boil soft with fresh meat. They use for their subsistence every kind of fish and flesh that is fit for food, which the country and the places of their settlements afford, and that they can obtain. They observe no stated times for their meals, as our people do, but they suppose it best to eat when they are hungry. They can control their appetites, bodies and stomachs in a wonderful manner; for with very little or no food, they can pass two, three, or four days, and when afterwards they again have it plenty, they will make up for the arrears lost without overcharging their stomachs, or becoming sick; and although they eat freely, they have no excessive eaters or gluttons among them.

Ceremonies of high or low seats, or of beginning to eat their meals first or last, or to be waited upon, I have never seen among them. Seldom will they invite each other to eat with them, except at great feasts, but every person who is with them at meal time, without exception, can partake of their fare without pay or compensation. It is not customary with them to receive compensation for their hospitality. On extraordinary occasions, when they wish to entertain any person, then they prepare beavers' tails, bass heads, with parched corn meal, or very fat meat stewed with shelled chestnuts bruised.

When they intend to go a great distance on a hunting excursion, or to war, where they expect to find no food, then they

provide themselves severally with a small bag of parched corn meal, which is so nutritious that they can subsist on the same many days. A quarter of a pound of the meal is sufficient for a day's subsistence; for as it shrinks much in the drying, it also swells out again with moisture. When they are hungry, they eat a small handful of the meal, after which they take a drink of water, and then they are so well fed, that they can travel a day. When they can obtain fish or meat to eat, then their meal serves them as well as fine bread would, because it needs no baking.

Of the Clothing and Ornaments worn by the Men and Women.

Their clothing usually is of one fashion, and they are not proud of their dress, except some of their young persons, who forget it when they become old. Their women are more inclined to dress, and to wear ornamental trinkets than the men are; but they are not so proud as they are in Holland. The males until they are twelve or thirteen years old, run nearly naked in summer. The females when they are able to run about, wear a little covering. They are all accustomed to wear a leathern girdle, which is usually ornamented with pieces of whales' fins, whale-bones, or wampum (*zewant*). When the men can procure duffels cloth, then they wear a piece of the same half an ell wide, and nine quarters long, which they gird around their waists, and draw up a fold to cover their nakedness, with a flap of each end hanging down in front and rear. This dress does not appear uncomely, and it is light and airy in summer; and they frequently go without any other covering. It hides their nakedness, and bears the name of a breech-cloth. Before they could obtain duffels cloth, and when it is not to be had, they wear a dressed skin cut in a proper form, and prepared for the purpose, which we commonly call a (*cloot-sap*) breech-cloth, which word in Holland may appear impolite; but as words are intended to convey ideas, and to express the things intended, the term therefore has a common signification in that country, and will not offend the ear of a lady, or the delicacy of a maiden's taste.

The women also wear a cloth around their bodies, fastened by a girdle which extends down below their knees, and is as much as an under-coat; but next to the body, under this coat, they wear a dressed deer-skin coat, girt around the waist. The lower border of this skirt they ornament with great art, and nestle the same with strips, which are tastefully decorated with wampum. The wampum with which one of those skirts is ornamented, is frequently worth from one to three hundred

guilders. The men and women usually wear a plaid of duffels cloth of full breadth, and three ells long. This is worn over the right shoulder, drawn in the form of a knot about the body, with the ends extending down below the knees. This plaid serves them for a covering by day, and for a blanket by night. Stockings and shoes (moccasins) made of deer and buffalo skins, are worn by both sexes; some of those they ornament curiously with wampum, &c.; but those articles are bad to wear. They also make shoes out of corn husks, which are not durable. Some of them purchase shoes and stockings from us, which they find to be most comfortable.

The men usually go bare-headed, and the women with their hair bound behind, in a club of about a hand long, in the form of a beaver's tail; over which they draw a square cap, which is frequently ornamented with wampum. When they desire to appear fine, they draw a head-band around the forehead, which is also ornamented with wampum, &c. This band confines the hair smooth, and is fastened behind over the club, in a beau's knot. Many believe these head-bands are like those worn by the ancient women. Their head-dress forms a handsome and lively appearance. Around their necks they wear various ornaments, which are also decorated with wampum. These they esteem as highly as our ladies do their pearl necklaces. They also wear hand-bands, or bracelets, curiously wrought, and interwoven with wampum. Their breasts appear about half covered with an elegantly wrought dress. They wear beautiful girdles, ornamented with their favourite wampum, and costly ornaments in their ears. Their young women and their courtiers, when they desire to appear superfine, also paint a few black stripes on their faces. They usually appear sedate, as if they possessed no amorous feelings; they however only thus disguise nature. The men paint themselves uniformly, particularly their faces, with various colours, by which they can so effectually disguise themselves as to deceive an acquaintance. In their parade time they appear very deceitful, and they will scarcely turn their heads to notice an object. Some of them wear a band about their heads, manufactured and braided of scarlet deer-hair, interwoven with soft shining red hair. With this head-dress, they appear like the delineations and paintings of the Catholic saints. When a young Indian is dressed in this manner, he would not say *plum*, for a bushel of plums. They however seldom decorate themselves in this manner, unless they have a young female in view. Otherwise they naturally are filthy and negligent in their dress. In winter, when the weather is cold, the women and children do not go abroad much, and when they do, they cover themselves with duffels and other articles. The men, to defend themselves against the

cold, grease themselves with bear and racoon fat. They also wear clothing made of weasel, bear, deer, and buffalo skins, &c. With such dresses they can withstand the cold easily. At a word, they have all necessary raiment to defend themselves against the inclemency of the weather. In their best apparel, they know not how to appear proud and foppish. To white linen they formerly were strangers, but now many begin to wear shirts, which they buy from our people, and those they frequently wear without washing until the same are worn out.

Of their Houses, Castles, Villages, and Towns.

Their houses are usually constructed in the same manner, without any particular costliness or curiosity in or to the same. Sometimes they build their houses above a hundred feet long; but never more than twenty feet wide. When they build a house, they place long slender hickory saplings in the ground, having the bark stripped off, in a straight line of two rows, as far asunder as they intend the breadth of the house to be, and continuing the rows as far as it is intended the length shall be. Those sapling poles are bent over towards each other in the form of an arch, and secured together, having the appearance of a garden arbour. The sapling poles are then crossed with split poles in the form of lathing, which are well fastened to the upright work. The lathings are heaviest near the ground. A space of about a foot wide is left open in the crown of the arch. For covering they use the bark of ash, chestnut, and other trees, which they peel off in pieces of about six feet long, and as broad as they can. They cover their houses, laying the smooth side inwards, leaving an open space of about a foot wide in the crown, to let out the smoke. They lap the side edges and ends over each other, having regard to the shrinking of the bark, securing the covering with withes to the lathings. A crack or rent they shut up, and in this manner they make their houses proof against wind and rain. They have one door in the centre of the house. When the bark of the ash and chestnut trees is not loose, they have recourse to the timber trees, which grow along the brooks, the bark of which can be taken off during the whole summer season. Durability is a primary object in their houses. In short, their houses are tight and tolerably warm, but they know nothing of chambers, halls, and closets. They kindle and keep their fires in the middle of their houses, from one end to the other, and the opening in the crown of the roof lets out the smoke. From sixteen to eighteen families frequently dwell in one house, according to its size. The fire being kept in the middle, the people lay on either side

thereof, and each family has its own place. If they have a place for a pot or kettle, with a few small articles, and a place to sleep, then they have room enough; and in this manner, a hundred, and frequently many more, dwell together in one house. Such is the construction of an Indian dwelling in every place, unless they are out on fishing and hunting excursions, and then they erect temporary huts or shanties.

In their villages and their castles they always build strong, firm works, adapted to the places. For the erection of these castles, or strong holds, they usually select a situation on the side of a steep high hill, near a stream or river, which is difficult of access, except from the water, and inaccessible on every other side, with a level plain on the crown of the hill, which they enclose with a strong stockade work in a singular manner. First, they lay along on the ground large logs of wood, and frequently smaller logs upon the lower logs, which serve for the foundation of the work. Then they place strong oak palisades in the ground on both sides of the foundation, the upper ends of which cross each other, and are joined together. In the upper cross of the palisades they then place the bodies of trees, which makes the work strong and firm. Thus they secure themselves against the sudden invasion of their enemies. But they have no knowledge of adding flankings and curtains to their fortifications. Those belong not to their system. Near their plantations they also frequently erect small works, to secure their wives and children against the sudden irruption of the small marauding parties of their enemies. When their castles and forts are constructed according to their rude custom, they consider the same very safe and secure places. But in a war with the Christians, those afford them no security; on the contrary, they do them more injury than good. In their castles, they frequently have twenty or thirty houses. We have measured their houses, and found some of them to be a hundred and eighty yards long, and as narrow as before stated. In those places, they crowd an astonishing number of persons, and it is surprising to see them out in open day. Besides their strong holds, they have villages and towns which are enclosed. Those usually have woodland on the one side, and corn lands on the other sides. They also frequently have villages near the water sides, at fishing places, where they plant some vegetables; but they leave those places every year on the approach of winter, and retire to their strong places, or into the thick woods, where they are protected from the winds, and where fuel is plenty, and where there is game and venison. Thus they subsist by hunting and fishing throughout the year.

Their castles and large towns they seldom leave altogether. From other situations they remove frequently, and they seldom

remain long at other places. In the summer, and in the fishing seasons, many come to the water sides and rivers. In the fall and winter, when venison is best, they retire to the woods and hunting grounds. Sometimes towards the spring of the year, they come in multitudes to the sea shores and bays, to take oysters, clams, and every kind of shell-fish, which they know how to dry, and preserve good a long time.

Of their Marriages, Accouchements, Children, &c.

Having treated of the manners of the natives, of their appearance, of their clothing, of their ornaments, of their subsistence, and of their dwellings; we will continue the description, and treat of their customs in their marriages and connections, without which they could not be. Marriages, and the fruits of marriage connections between males and females, keep up the succession of every living species in the world; and there has been no nation discovered or known, so barbarous as not to be benefited by marriage connections, and who have not upheld and supported the same. With the natives of the New-Netherlands, (for the Christian usages are the same as in Holland,) we can still observe the old and ancient customs in their marriage ceremonies. But to illustrate the subject properly, it will be necessary to notice their distinguishing names of man and woman, father and mother, sister and brother, uncle and aunt, niece and nephew, husband and wife, married and unmarried, which are all known and distinguished among the natives by different and appropriate names, and give strong evidence of their attachment to their relatives, and of their preference to marriage connections. The natives generally marry but one wife, and no more, unless it be chief, who is great and powerful; such frequently have two, three, or four wives, of the neatest and handsomest women; and it is extraordinary, that the people can, by the light of nature, so effectually control their women, that no feuds or jealousies do arise and exist between them; for on inquiry, we have never discovered that any strife, hatred, or discord existed in an Indian family between the women about their family affairs, their children, or of the preference of their husband, whom they all esteem and implicitly obey. Concerning their marriages, they do not use as many ceremonies as the people of fashion do in Holland; but they act more like common citizens on such occasions. With the natives there is no established time of marriageable years, but they judge their apparent fitness from their appearance, about which they are not very particular even to experimental proof. When the parties are young and related, the marriage usually

takes place upon the counsel and advice of their relatives, having regard to their families and character. When the parties are widows or widowers, whether by death or otherwise, of whom there are many, then also it takes place sometimes upon the advice of friends; but it is not common for relatives to interfere in such marriages. The men, according to their condition, must always present their intended and betrothed bride, with a marriage gift, as a confirmation of their agreement, and of his intention, being similar to the marriage pledge of the ancients. When the parties are a widow or widower, who unite without the advice of friends, and the parties afterwards do not agree, for good cause or otherwise, then the husband frequently takes the gifts from his wife, forbids her his bed, and if she does not leave him, he turns her out of doors. Marriages with them are not so binding but that either party may altogether dissolve the union, which they frequently do.— I have known an Indian who changed his wife every year, although he had little or no reason for it. We have also noticed that the dissolution of their marriages for unchastity, arises more from the improper conduct of men, than of the women.— In their marriage dissolutions, the children follow their mother, which is also usual in many other nations, who calculate their descent and genealogies from the mother's side. The longer a marriage exists among the natives, the more the parties are esteemed and honoured. To be unchaste during wedlock, is held to be very disgraceful among them. Many of their women would prefer death, rather than submit to be dishonoured. Prostitution is considered baser by day than by night, and in the open fields than elsewhere, as it may be seen, or shined upon by the sun, which they say beholds the deed. No Indian will keep his wife, however much he loved her, when he knows she is unchaste. When their women are young, free, and unmarried, they act as they please, but they are always mercenary in their conduct, and deem it disgraceful to be otherwise; neither is the fruit of illicit connexions despised, but the same are disregarded in a marriage connexion. Few females will associate with men in a state of concubinage when they will not marry. Those women are proud of such conduct, and when they become old they will frequently boast of their connexion with many of their chiefs and great men. This I have heard from several aged women, who deemed themselves honoured for having been esteemed, and gloried of their "quasi bene gesta," in their speeches. When one of their young women is *rijp*, (for that is the native term,) and wishes to be married, it is customary on such occasions that they veil their faces completely, and sit covered as an indication of their desire; whereupon pro-

positions are made to such persons, and the practice is common with young women who have suitors, whereby they give publicity of their inclination. The men seldom make the first overtures, unless success is certain and they hope to improve their condition in life. Whenever a native female is pregnant, in wedlock or otherwise, they take care that they do no act that would injure the offspring. During pregnancy they are generally healthy, and they experience little or no sickness or painful days, and when the time of their delivery is near, (which they calculate closely,) and they fear a severe accouchement, or if it be their first time, then they prepare a drink made of a decoction of roots that grow in the woods, which are known by them, and they depart alone to a secluded place near a brook, or stream of water, where they can be protected from the winds, and prepare a shelter for themselves with mats and covering, where, provided with provisions necessary for them, they await their delivery without the company or aid of any person. After their children are born, and if they are males, although the weather be ever so cold and freezing, they immerse them some time in the water, which, they say, makes them strong brave men, and hardy hunters. After the immersion they wrap their children in warm clothing and pay them great attention from fear of accidents, and after they have remained several days in their secluded places, again return to their homes and friends. They rarely are sick from child-birth, suffer no inconveniences from the same, nor do any of them die on such occasions. Upon this subject some persons assign, as a reason and cause for their extraordinary deliveries, that the knowledge of good and evil is not given to them, as unto us; that therefore they do not suffer the pains of sin in bringing forth their children; that such pains are really not natural, but the punishment which follows the knowledge of sin, as committed by our first mother, and is attached to those only; others ascribe the cause of the difference to the salubrity of the climate, their well-formed bodies, and their manner of living.

Of the Suckling of their Children, and the associations of the Men and Women.

The native Indian women of every grade always nurse their own children, nor do we know of any who have trusted that parental duty to others. About New-Amsterdam, and for many miles and days' journey into the interior, I have never heard of but a few instances of native women, who did not take good care of their children, or who trusted them to the nursing and care of others; American Journeys—www.americanjourneys.org ant, they in those

cases practise the strictest abstinence, because, as they say, it is beneficial to their offspring, and to nursing children. In the meantime, their women are not precise or offended, if their husbands have foreign associations, but they observe the former custom so religiously, that they hold it to be disgraceful for a woman to recede from it before her child is weaned, which they usually do when their children are a year old, and those who wean their children before that period are despised. During a certain season, their women seclude themselves, and do not appear abroad, or permit themselves to be seen of men; if they are at one of their great feasts or public assemblies, and the fountain springs, they retire immediately if possible, and do not appear abroad again until the season is over. Otherwise when all is well, and they are not betrothed, they frequently are light of behaviour, as well the women as the men, and yield to temptation without shame; but foul and impertinent language, which is common with the lower class with us, is despised with them. All romping, caressing and wanton behaviour they speak of with contempt, and say that they are indirect allurements to unchastity. If they observe such behaviour among the Netherlanders, they reprove the parties, and bid them seek retirement. What better reproof can be given to such levity? Some of their chiefs and great men have two or three wives, who will readily accommodate a visiting friend with one of his women for a night; but if it takes place without his consent, the act is deemed a disgrace, and the woman is chastised and sent away.

Manner of burying their Dead.—Lamentations and Mourning.

Whenever an Indian departs this life, all the residents of the place assemble at the funeral. To a distant stranger, who has not a friend or relative in the place, they pay the like respect. They are equally careful to commit the body to the earth, without neglecting any of the usual ceremonies, according to the standing of the deceased. In deadly diseases, they are faithful to sustain and take care of each other. Whenever a soul has departed, the nearest relatives extend the limbs and close the eyes of the dead; and after the body has been watched and wept over several days and nights, they bring it to the grave, wherein they do not lay it down, but place it in a sitting posture upon a stone or a block of wood, as if the body were sitting upon a stool; then they place a pot, kettle, platter, spoon, with some provision and money, near the body in the grave; this they say is necessary for the journey to the other world. Then they place as much wood around the body as will keep the

earth from it. Above the grave they place a large pile of wood, stone or earth, and around and above the same they place palisades resembling a small dwelling. All their burial places are secluded and preserved with religious veneration and care, and they consider it wicked and infamous to disturb or injure their burial places. The nearest relatives of the deceased, particularly the women, (the men seldom exhibit much excitement,) have their periods of lamentations, when they make dreadful and wonderful wailing, naming the dead, smiting upon their breasts, scratching and disfiguring their faces, and showing all possible signs of grief. But where a mother has lost a child, her expressions of grief exceed all bounds, for she calls and wails whole nights over her infant, as if she really were in a state of madness. If the deceased are young persons, or persons slain in war, then their lamentations are of a particular kind, and the women shave off their hair, which they keep the customary time, and then they burn the hair upon the graves of the deceased or slain, in the presence of the relations. In short they possess strong passions, and exhibit the same with much feeling when mourning over their dead relatives and friends. For the purpose of removing the existing causes of grief, and not to excite sorrow in the mind of the bereaved, and as far as possible to promote forgetfulness of the friends lost, the name of the deceased is never mentioned in the presence of the relations; or when the name is mentioned, it is received as if designed to produce mortification, and as an act of unkindness. The use of tokens of mourning is common, which usually are black signs upon their bodies; when a woman loses her husband, she shaves off her hair, and paints her whole countenance black as pitch, and men do the same when their wives die, and they also wear a buckskin vest next to their skin, and mourn a whole year, even if they have not been long married, or if the connection had not been happy—still they observe the ceremonies religiously, without marrying again until the season of mourning is over.

Of their Feast Days and Particular Assemblies.

Feasts and great assemblages are not common among the Indians, yet they occur sometimes, and on special occasions, as on the subjects of peace, war, alliances, treaties and devotions; or to counsel the devil on some approaching event, or in relation to the fruitfulness of the seasons, or to celebrate some successful occurrence by frolicking and dancing, as at the conclusion of peace, or to make war with some neighbouring people. They do not resolve and decide hastily and by a small number,

but on all important matters, all the chiefs and persons of any distinction in the nation assemble in their councils, when each of them express their opinions freely on the subject before the council, as briefly or as extendedly as they please without any molestation. If the speaker even digresses from the matter in hand, or opposes others, he is heard with attention; if they approve of what has been said, at the conclusion they shout and cheer the orator. Their councils assemble in the morning while the sun is ascending, and if the business is not done before noon they adjourn until the next morning. When they wish to hunt or drive the devil (as they do by *spooking* and deception), then they assemble in the afternoon towards evening, and then some of them do, most singularly indeed, endeavour to enchant and charm the devil and carry on witchcraft, wherein the common people believe. They begin with jumping, crying, and grinning, as if they were possessed and mad. They kindle large fires, and dance around and over the same, lengthwise and across; they roll, tumble overhead, and bend themselves, and continue their violent exercises until the sweat pours out and streams down to their feet. By their distortions and hideous acts, they appear like devils themselves; their awful conduct will astonish those who are not accustomed to see them. During those operations, all their devil-drivers join in the rolling and howling, when they altogether appear to be crazy. When their charming has continued some time, then the devil, as they say, appears to them in the form of a beast. If the beast be a ravenous animal, it is a bad omen; if it be a harmless creature, the sign is better; the animal gives them strange answers to their inquiries, but seldom so clear and distinct that they can comprehend or interpret the same, which, however, they strike at, as a blind man does at an egg. If they interpret the answers incorrectly, the fault is theirs—sometimes they utter things beyond the devil's texts. If there be any Christians present on those occasions, who observe all their doings, then their devil will not appear. Their devil-drivers sometimes bewitch some of their common people, and cause them to appear possessed or besotted, which otherwise is not seen, when they cast themselves into glowing fires without feeling it. When the person who has been afflicted for some time, and one of the charmers whisper in his ear, he again becomes as gentle as a lamb. When they assemble to rejoice or dance, they meet at mid-day. On those occasions, an orator first delivers an address on the occasion and cause of their meeting, after which they entertain themselves by eating and feasting; this they also do sometimes at their councils. They eat lustily on such occasions, and every one devours as much food as would serve each of them for three days, as no-

thing may be left at their frolics ; what is not eaten by them or by their dogs must be carried back. When they have stuffed themselves like cattle and can scarcely move, then the old and middle-aged conclude with smoking, and the young with a *kin-tecaw*, singing and dancing, which frequently is continued until morning.

How Men and Animals came on the American Continent.

There are various opinions on this subject, and many persons have endeavoured to show how those, whom we name Indians, first came to this part of the world, which is separated from the other parts by the great seas, and which appears always to have been thus separated. Some are of the opinion that they were planted as a colony ; others ask, by whom ? and how lions, bears, wolves, foxes, serpents, with poisonous reptiles, and other ravenous beasts came on the continent, because such are never carried or transported in ships. When we speak to the natives of the creation, we can never satisfy them on the subject, or receive from them any affirmation that they believe in the doctrine. Many remark that an unknown chronicle writer has observed, that in former days, when, according to some *Rationes Gentium*, people were accustomed to adventures, some persons well equipped and provided, sailed from a part of Norway or Sweden in search of a better country, under the command of a certain chief named *Sachema*, and that they had never been heard from after they sailed ; and as all the native chiefs of the New-Netherlands who reside along the rivers and the sea-shore are called *sachems*, they conclude that the country was peopled by those adventurers. We, however, do not concur in this opinion, although the subject seems mysterious.* Others go much farther, and inquire whether the natives of the new world have descended from Adam, and whether there has not been a separate creation of men and creatures for the same. This theory they endeavour to support by various reasons. They assert that there has been no deluge over America, and speak of the same as a separate and entire new world, being entirely different in formation and condition from the old world, and by connecting other matters in support of their proposition, they render their subject plausible. They also doubt whether the new world will be judged at the judgment day with the old world. In support of their doctrine they affirm that the period is not long since sinners came there ; that the natives were

* It is now well ascertained that this continent was visited by the Northmen, (from Norway, Sweden, &c.) about A. D. 1000.—*Ed.*

innocent; that the land had not been cursed on their account; and that no righteous punishment can be inflicted on them with the other inhabitants of the old world. A more probable opinion is advanced by others, who affirm that many years ago the sea between Cape de Verds and America was as narrow or of less breadth than the strait between Calais and Dover, and that by the help of the adjacent and intervening islands, people and animals could pass and re-pass from Africa to America. If the communication was not there, (which is not to be credited,) it must have been elsewhere; and as memorials of Chinese origin are found at the Brazils, it is evident that the Chinese have formerly been there, and that they came to the country along the broken coast of the strait of Magellan, or overland from the shore of the Pacific ocean; or that that they had driven a trade in the country. It is necessary that we support the planting of a colony, and the removal of people from the old world, and not a separate creation, as by the latter the doctrines of the Holy Scriptures would be subverted and ruined. Those who hold other opinions, ask, if at any time people could see across from Cape de Verds to America, whether, in such a case, Columbus or Americus can have found a country which was never lost? It is not our intention to follow those disputations, but we will leave every person to the enjoyment of his own opinion on the subject, and proceed in our work.

Of the different Nations and Languages.

The nations, tribes and languages are as different in America as they are in Europe. All those who are of one tribe or nation, form one separate society, and usually keep together; every tribe or nation has its own chief, and is a separate government, subject to its own laws and regulations. They however all appear to have descended from one parent-stock, but they seldom marry out of their own tribes. They always are jealous of each other as it respects their national power; and every tribe endeavours to increase its own strength. As they have chiefs over their nations, tribes, and settlements, so also every family has its head, who is regarded as the most eminent and famous by descent,—from which their rank in the tribe is usually settled. Their languages and dialects are very different, as unlike each other as the Dutch, French, Greek and Latin are. Their declensions and conjugations have an affinity with the Greek and accord to it. Their declensions, augmentations, cases and adverbs, are like the Greek; but to reduce their language to any of ours, would be impossible, for there is no resemblance between the same. Before we have acquired a knowledge of any of their

languages or dialects, we know no more of what they say than if a dog had barked. In some of their languages the letter *r*, is not sounded, and in others scarcely a syllable is spoken without it; otherwise they are not very different, and the tribes usually can understand their dialects. Their various tongues may be classed into four distinct languages, namely, *Manhattan*, *Minquas*, *Savanoos*, and *Wappanoos*. With the *Manhattans*, we include those who live in the neighbouring places along the North river, on Long Island, and at the *Neversink*. With the *Minquas* we include the *Senecas*, the *Maquaas*, and other inland tribes. The *Savanoos* are the southern nations, and the *Wappanoos* are the eastern nations. Their languages are seldom learned perfectly by any of our people, and those who by long and continued intercourse and conversation with the Indians learn to speak their language, are not men of education, and are unable to compose grammatical rules for the same, and of course are unable to instruct others.

Of their Money or Circulating Medium.

That there should be no miserly desire for the costly metals among the natives, few will believe; still it is true, the use of gold and silver or any metallic coin is unknown among them. The currency which they use in their places to which they resort is called *wampum*, the making and preparing of which is free to all persons. The species are black and white, but the black is worth more by one half than the white. The black wampum is made from conck shells, which are to be taken from the sea, or which are cast ashore from the sea twice a year. They strike off the thin parts of those shells and preserve the pillars or standards, which they grind smooth and even and reduce the same according to their thickness, and drill a hole through every piece and string the same on strings, and afterwards sell their strings of wampum in that manner. This is the only article of moneyed medium among the natives, with which any traffic can be driven; and it is also common with us in purchasing necessaries and carrying on our trade; many thousand strings are exchanged every year for peltries near the sea shores where the wampum is only made, and where the peltries are brought for sale. Among the *Netherlanders* gold and silver begin to increase and are current, but still the amount differs much from that of the *Netherlands*.

Of the Nature and Diversions of the Indians.

The Indians are naturally (with few exceptions) of taciturn, steady and pensive dispositions and tempers, and of few words, which are well considered, uttered slowly, and long remembered; they say no more than is necessary to the subject in hand. When they want to buy or to sell any article, they say no more than is necessary to the bargain. On the other occasions, they talk of no subjects except hunting, fishing, and war. Their young men frequently entertain each other on their gallantry with young female connections. They despise lying, and still they are not very precise in the performance of their engagements. Swearing and scolding are not heard among them, unless it be among those who have learned those habits from us. They do not possess great wisdom or extensive knowledge, but reasonable understanding, resulting from practical experience, which they certainly possess without any desire for further instruction; they are naturally civil and well disposed, and quick enough to distinguish between good and evil, but after they have associated amongst us, they become cunning and deceitful. They are slovenly, careless, and dirty of their persons, and are troubled with the evils which attend filthiness. They are very revengeful and obstinate even unto death, and when in trouble they disregard and despise all pain and torture that can be done to them, and will sing with proud contempt until death terminates their sufferings. They are all stingy and inclined to beggary, and cannot be trusted too far because they also are thievish; denying them the least trifle does not offend them. They are all free by nature, and will not bear any domineering or lording over them; they will not bear any insult, unless they have done wrong, and they will bear chastisement without resentment. Delicious food or drink they disregard; they fear no accidents, and can endure heat, cold, hunger, and thirst, in a wonderful manner, and they can all swim like ducks from their childhood. When abroad they spend their time in hunting, fishing or war; at home they smoke tobacco, and play a game with pieces of reeds, resembling our card playing. The old men knit nets, and make wooden bowls and ladles. Labour among the young men is uncommon, and nearly all the necessary labour is done by the females.

Of their Sustenance and Medicines.

Famine they do not fear, nor do they regard medicines and purgatives much. When they are unwell, they fast; if that will not remove the complaint, they then have recourse to

sweating and drinks; but the latter they take very sparingly. Their sweating places are made of clay, and enclosed tight in the earth, with a small entrance to admit the patients within the apartments. Where the place is needed there many stones are heated, and placed around and within the same; and then the patient enters and sits down, naked and singing, wherein he remains as long as it is possible to endure the heat, and on leaving the stewing apartment, they usually lay down in cold spring water. By those means they say that they gain relief, and cure most diseases. They can heal fresh wounds and dangerous bruises in a most wonderful manner. They also have remedies for old sores and ulcers, and they also cure venereal affections so readily, that many an Italian master who saw it, would be ashamed of his profession. All their cures are made with herbs, roots and leaves, (with the powers of which they are acquainted,) without making any compounds. Still it must be admitted that nature assists them greatly, for they indulge in no excesses of eating or drinking, otherwise they could not accomplish so much with such simple and small means. When any of them are very sick, and they apprehend the disease to be of a deadly character; then, they all, or at least the nearest relatives of the sick persons, have recourse to devil-hunting or driving, and make noise enough to frighten a person in extremity to death; which they say they do to learn from the devil whether the patient will live or die, and when hope of recovery is given, what remedies are to be used for the restoration of the sick. They seldom however receive any positive answers, but directions to use remedies, and when their hope for the recovery of the sick, then food is presented to the person, who is persuaded to eat heartily, whether the food is relished or not.

Of their Agriculture, Planting, and Gardening.

All their agriculture is performed by their women. The men give themselves very little trouble about the same, except those who were old. They, with the young children will do some labor under the direction of the women. They cultivate no wheat, oats, barley or rye, and know nothing of ploughing, spading and spitting up the soil, and are not neat and cleanly in their fields. The grain which they raise for bread, and mush or sapaen, is maize or turkey-corn, and they raise various kinds of beans as before remarked. They also plant tobacco for their own use, which is not as good as ours, and of a different kind, that does not require as much labour and attendance. Of garden vegetables, they raise none, except pumpkins and squashes, as before observed. They usually leave their fields and garden spots open, unenclosed, and unprotected by fencing, and take

very little care of the same, though they raise an abundance of corn and beans, of which we obtain whole cargoes in sloops and galleys in trade.

Of manuring and proper tillage they know nothing. All their tillage is done by the hand and with small adzes, which they purchase from us. Although little can be said in favour of their husbandry, still they prefer their practice to ours, because our methods require too much labour and care to please them, with which they are not well satisfied.

A Relation of their Hunting and Fishing.

To hunting and fishing the Indians are all extravagantly inclined, and they have their particular seasons for these engagements. In the spring and part of the summer, they practise fishing. When the wild herbage begins to grow up in the woods, the first hunting season begins, and then many of their young men leave the fisheries for the purpose of hunting; but the old and thoughtful men remain at the fisheries until the second and principal hunting season, which they also attend, but with snares only. Their fishing is carried on in the inland waters, and by those who dwell near the sea, or the sea-islands. The latter have particular advantages. Their fishing is done with seines, set-nets, small fikes, wears, and laying hooks. They do not know how to salt fish, or how to cure fish properly. They sometimes dry fish to preserve the same, but those are half tainted, which they pound to meal to be used in chowder in winter. Their young and active men are much engaged in hunting bears, wolves, fishers, otters, and beavers. Near the sea-shores and rivers where the Christians mostly reside, they hunt deer, where many are killed. Those are mostly caught in snares, they also shoot them with arrows and guns. The Indians sometimes unite in companies of from one to two hundred, when they have rare sport. On those occasions, they drive over a large district of land and kill much game. They also make extensive fikes with palisades, which are narrow at their terminating angles, wherein they drive multitudes of animals and take great numbers. At a word, they are expert hunters for every kind of game, and know to practise the best methods to insure success. The beavers are mostly taken far inland, there being few of them near the settlements—particularly by the black Minquas, who are thus named because they wear a black badge on their breast, and not because they are really black, by the Senecas, by the Maquas, and by the Rondaxes or French Indians, who are also called Euyrons (*Hurons*). For beaver hunting the Indians go in large parties, and remain out from one

to two months, during which time they subsist by hunting and on a little corn meal which they carry out with them, and they frequently return home with from forty to eighty beaver skins, and with some otter, fishers and other skins also, even more than can be correctly stated. We estimate that eighty thousand beavers are annually killed in this quarter of the country, besides elks, bears, otters, deer and other animals. There are some persons who imagine that the animals of the country will be destroyed in time, but this is unnecessary anxiety. It has already continued many years, and the numbers brought in do not diminish. The country is full of lakes, seas, rivers, streams and creeks, and extends very far, even to the great south sea; hence we infer, that there will not be an end to the wild animals, and also because there are large districts where the animals will remain unmolested.

Of their Orders and Distinctions, by birth or otherwise.

Distinctions are supported and observed among all the Indian nations, but not as much as amongst us. They remark, that they do not know why one man should be so much higher than another as we represent them to be. And till they have those among them whom they hold as nobles, who seldom marry below their rank, and they also have their commonality. No chief among them has the power to confer rank. Rank descends in families, and continues as long as any one in the family is fit to rule, and regents frequently govern in the name of a minor. The oldest and first of a household or family, represent the same with or unto the chief of the nation. Military distinction is not observed, except in war; and then it is conferred by merit, without regard to families or birth. The lowest among them may become a chief, but the rank dies with the person, unless his posterity follow in the footsteps of the parent; and then, the rank of the parent and his situation will descend in the family. It may well be supposed that such is the origin of the rank and distinction which prevails among them. Their chiefs feel proud of their stations, but not as much as ours do. Still their commonality do not regard them much, unless they are distinguished for understanding, activity and bravery; and then they honour them greatly. Such persons, for their artfulness and activity, they compare with the devil, the master of evil arts, and name them, Manitto or Ottico.

Of their Wars and Weapons.

The principal command and authority among the Indians is developed in war, and in their councils on war. In times of war they do not organize armies, troops or regiments. In their best postures they are without regular order. They are artful in their measures, furious in their attacks, and unmerciful victors. When their plans are hazardous, then they are conducted covertly and privately by night. They always practise hinderances, deceptions, and ambuscades against their enemies. Face to face, in the open field or on water, they are not soldiers. They usually run away in time, if they can; but when they are surrounded and cannot escape, then they fight obstinately, and as long as they can stand, to the last man. The victors accept of no ransom, nor are the captives certain of their lives, until they are given over to persons who have previously lost connections by blood in war. They seldom destroy women and children, unless it be in their first fury, but never afterwards. If it be in their power, they carry them all with them to their own abode. The women they treat as they do their own, and the children they bring up as their own, to strengthen their nation. They all serve as volunteers in war, and they receive no pay to retain them in service. They cannot subsist long in a body together, nor can they conduct sieges. Their men will not readily divulge any of their secret designs, unless it be to their own women, and they usually do not know enough to withhold a secret from the Christians, particularly when they expect to derive any advantages from the development.

When they intend to carry on any offensive measures, and when they fear approaching danger; in those cases, the women and children are removed to places of safety, where they hope to secure them from danger until their purposes are executed, or until the apprehended dangers are past.

Their weapons formerly were bows and arrows, with a war-club hung to the arm, and a square shield which covered the body up to the shoulders; their faces they disfigure in such a manner that it is difficult to recognize one known before; they bind bands or snake-skins round the head, and place a fox's or wolf's tail perpendicularly upon the head, and walk as proud as peacocks. At present many of them use fire-arms, which they prize highly and learn to use dexterously. They spare no pains in procuring guns and ammunition, for which they trade with the Christians at a dear rate. At present they also use small axes (tomahawks) instead of their war-clubs, and thus they march onwards.

Of their Laws and Punishments.

The common rules of order in the administration of justice are not observed among this people, and are not exercised to protect the innocent or to punish the guilty. There is so little order observed among them that the Netherlanders, who reside there and traffic with them, are astonished to find that such societies can remain united, where there is no regard paid to the administration of justice. All minor offences, such as stealing, adultery, lying, cheating, and the like wrongs against civil order, pass unpunished among them. I have known that an unmarried woman murdered her own child, and although the fact was well known, still she went unpunished; and also that an Indian, on several occasions, violated several women whom he found alone in the woods and in lonely places, who also passed unpunished. With those exceptions, during a residence of nine years in the country, I have not heard of any capital offences. Stealing is quite common among them, but not of articles of great value. It may be a knife, an axe, a pair of shoes, a pair of stockings, or such like articles. When we detect them with the goods, we may retake the same and chastise them freely; and when the thief is not known and the matter is represented to the chief, the property is usually restored. On those occasions the thief is reprimanded by the chief for his conduct, and although reproof is the highest punishment suffered by the culprit, yet it will not readily show how much they fear such treatment, and how uncommon crimes are among them. With us a watchful police is supported, and crimes are more frequent than among them.

Murder or personal injuries are not attended to by the chief, or friends, except for the purpose of reconciling the parties, for which they use all possible means, and give liberally to effect their object when the offender is deficient in means, which is usually the case. A murder among them is never atoned for without heavy payment. The nearest relative by blood always is the avenger, and if he finds the murderer within twenty-four hours after the act, he is slain instantly, but if the murderer can save himself until one day is past, and the avenger slays him afterwards, then he is liable to be pursued and slain in like manner. A murderer seldom is killed after the first twenty-four hours are past, but he must flee and remain concealed; when the friends endeavour to reconcile the parties, which is frequently agreed to, on condition, that the nearest relatives of the murderer, be they men, women, or children, on meeting the relatives of the person murdered, must give way to them.

Persons are very seldom doomed to death among them, except captives taken in war, whom they consider to have forfeited the rights of man. Such they condemn to be burned. This they usually do slowly, beginning with their hands and feet. The torture sometimes lasts three days before the victim expires, who continues to sing and dance, until life is extinct, reproaching his tormentors, deriding their conduct, and extolling the bravery of his own nation.

Of their Religion, and whether they can be brought over to the Christian Faith.

The natives are all heathen and without any religious devotions. Idols are neither known nor worshipped among them. When they take an oath they swear by the sun, which, they say, sees all things. They think much of the moon, and believe it has great influence over vegetation. Although they know all the planets from the other stars, by appropriate names, still they pay no idolatrous worship to the same, yet by the planets and other signs they are somewhat weatherwise. The offering up of prayers, or the making of any distinction between days, or any matter of the kind, is unknown among them. They neither know or say any thing of God; but they possess great fear of the devil, who they believe causes diseases, and does them much injury. When they go on a hunting or fishing excursion they usually cast a part of what is first taken into the fire, without using any ceremony on the occasion, then saying, "stay thou devil, eat thou that."* They love to hear us speak of God and of our religion, and are very attentive and still during divine service and prayers, and apparently are inclined to devotion; but in truth they know nothing about it, and live without any religion, or without any inward or outward godly fear, nor do they know of any superstition or idolatry; they only follow the instilled laws of nature, therefore some suppose they can easily be brought to the knowledge and fear of God. Among some nations the word Sunday is known by the name of Kintowen. The oldest among them say that in former times the knowledge and fear of God had been known among them, and they remark, that since they can neither read nor write, in process of time the Sunday will be forgotten, and all knowledge of the same lost. Their old men, when we reason earnestly with them on the matter, seem to feel pensive or sorrowful, but manifest no other emotions or agitations.—when

* The offering here said to be made to the devil is certainly a gross act of superstition.—TRANS.

we reprove them for bad conduct and reason with them on its impropriety, and say that there is a God in heaven above whom they offend, their common answer is—'We do not know that God, we have never seen him, we know not who he is—if you know him and fear him, as you say you do, how does it then happen that so many thieves, drunkards, and evil-doers are found among you. Certainly that God will punish you severely, because he has warned you to beware of those deeds, which he has never done to us. We know nothing about it, and therefore we do not deserve such punishment.' Very seldom do they adopt our religion, nor have there been any political measures taken for their conversion. When their children are young some of them are frequently taken into our families for assistants, who are, according to opportunity, instructed in our religion, but as soon as they are grown up, and turn lovers and associate again with the Indians, they forget their religious impressions and adopt the Indian customs. The Jesuits have taken great pains and trouble in Canada to convert the Indians to the Roman Church, and outwardly many profess that religion; but inasmuch as they are not well instructed in its fundamental principles, they fall off lightly and make sport of the subject and its doctrine.

In the year 1639, when a certain merchant, who is still living with us, went into that country to trade with an Indian chief who spoke good French, after he had drank two or three glasses of wine, they began to converse on the subject of religion. The chief said that he had been instructed so far that he often said mass among the Indians, and that on a certain occasion the place where the altar stood caught fire by accident, and our people made preparations to put out the fire, which he forbade them to do, saying that God, who stands there, is almighty, and he will put out the fire himself; and we waited with great attention, but the fire continued till all was burned up, with your almighty God himself and with all the fine things about him. Since that time I have never held to that religion, but regard the sun and moon much more, as being better than all your Gods are; for they warm the earth and cause the fruits to grow, when your lovely Gods cannot preserve themselves from the fire. In the whole country I know no more than one Indian who is firm in his religious profession, nor can any change be expected among them, as long as matters are permitted to remain as heretofore. If they are to be brought over to the Christian faith, then the public hand must be extended to them and continued; we must establish good schools at convenient places among them, for the instruction of their children; let them learn to write our catechism, and let them be thoroughly instructed in the fundamental principles of our

religion, so that in process of time they may be enabled to instruct each other and become attached thereto. It certainly would be attended with some trouble and expense to the government, still, without such means and measures, it will be difficult to do any good among them. Our negligence on those matters is very reprehensible, for the Indians themselves say that they are very desirous to have their children instructed in our language and religion.

Of their hope after this present life.

It is a wonderful truth which affords strong evidence against unbelievers and free-thinkingspirits, that this barbarous wild race of people of whom we have treated, should know that there is a distinction between the body and the soul, and believe, as they actually do, that the one is perishable and the other immortal. The soul, they say, is that spirit which directs all the actions of the body, and is the producing cause of all good and evil conduct, which, when the body dies, separates from it and removes to a place towards the south, where the climate is so fine that no covering against the cold will be necessary, and where the heat will never be troublesome. To this place the souls of all those who have been good and valuable in this life will go, where they will be satisfied and have an abundance of good things, without any trouble or labour for the same, forever; and they who have been bad in this life, after death will go to another place, where their condition will be directly contrary to the first; where they will never enjoy peace and contentment, as the good will do. But I have never been able rightly to discover whether they believe the soul will be hereafter united to the body. I have, however, spoken with Christians who remark, that they have heard them state such to be their belief. But they do not affirm to this fact. When they hear voices or noises in the woods at night, which frequently happens, and which, we believe, usually proceed from wild animals, but which they declare, with fear and astonishment, are made by the wicked, the souls of whom are thus doomed to wander at night in the woods and solitary places for punishment in unhappy situations. The Indians, because they fear those subjects, do not travel by night unless it be necessary, and then go in parties or companies; when they go alone they always carry a fire-brand with them, with which they believe they can keep off those evil spirits and prevent them from doing them any injury, which, they say, are always disposed to frighten them and do them wrong. They acknowledge also that the soul proceeds from God, and that the same is his wife. American Journeys - www.americanjourneys.org Sometimes learn

from their old men of understanding, when an opportunity presents itself in conversation, and we probably would discover more of them in relation to this matter, if we did perfectly understand their languages. Among their common or young people we do not hear those spoken of. In this we still see the providence of God, who, by the common light of nature, has given to this people the knowledge that there is, after this life, a reward for the just, and a punishment for the unjust, which all mankind may expect.

Of their knowledge of God, and their fear of the devils.

Although the original inhabitants of the New-Netherlands be heathen and are unbelievers, they however believe and acknowledge that there is a God in heaven from all eternity, who is almighty. But they say God is good, kind, and compassionate, who will not punish or do any injury to any person, and therefore takes no concern himself in the common affairs of the world, nor does he meddle with the same, except that he has ordered the devil to take care of those matters. For they say that all which happens to persons on the earth, is ordered and directed by the devil as he pleases. God, the chief of all, who dwells in heaven, is much greater and higher than the devil, over whom he has power, but he will not meddle in, or trouble himself with, those concerns.

When, on those subjects, we answer them conclusively, that the devil is deceitful and wicked ; they acknowledge it to be true, and that he to the extent of his power, directs such matters in the most wicked and injurious ways (wherein he takes pleasure). They say that all accidents, infirmities and diseases, are sent and forced upon them by the devil, to whom they ascribe it by the common name, saying that the devil is in them, and is the cause of all their misfortunes and ailments. For instance, if they have any inward complaint, they say there is a devil in me ; if they have a defect in arm or leg, foot, or hand ; shoulder or in the head ; they devote the part, and say there is a devil in the same. And because he is so unkind to them, they must, whether they be willing or not, fear him, and preserve his friendship, and sometimes (as before related) cast a piece to him into the fire. Where we refute those follies, by saying that God knows all things, and is almighty, and has a perfect knowledge of the devil, and observes his conduct, and will not permit him to rule over man, who is created in the image of God, and is the noblest part of the creation ; nor will the devil be permitted to tyrannize over man, provided they will rightly confide and trust in God, and not withdraw from his commandments to do evil ;

then they repay us, with strange and fabulous replies, saying—
 “You lazy Dutchmen say so, and when we observe the matter outwardly it would appear to be true—what you say; but in fact you do not understand the matter. That God, who is the highest good, almighty and gracious, and Lord of heaven and earth, in whom all power is, exists in heaven, but not alone, and without pastime; for he has there with him a goddess, a female person, the most beautiful ever known and beheld. With this goddess or beautiful person, he is so much engrossed, that the time is passed away and forgotten. Meantime the devil plays the tyrant and does what he pleases.”

This belief and feeling is deeply impressed in them, and when we with stronger reasons sift the subject and drive them from their positions, they fall into more abominable absurdities, and like the dogs return to their vomit, and say they must serve the devil because he has the power to do them injuries.

Their Opinions of the Creation, &c.

From the young Indians who frequent our settlements, and continue somewhat wild, we cannot derive any certain information of their belief on these matters; but we must have recourse to their aged men of understanding, when we desire to know their belief on those important subjects.

It sometimes happens when we enter into a curious discourse with them, that they ask us our opinions on the origin of man, and how they came to this country; and when we inform them in broken language of the creation of Adam, they cannot believe, or will not understand relative to their people and the negroes, on account of their great difference and the inequality of colour. According to their opinion the world was not created as described in the first and second chapters of the book of Genesis; but they say the world was before all mountains, men and animals; that God then was with that beautiful woman, who now is with him, without knowing when or from whence they came. Then was all water, or the water covered all; and they add that if there had been any eyes in being, there was nothing but water to be seen, and nothing else visible in every direction.

It happened at this period, they say, that the before mentioned beautiful woman or goddess, gradually descended from heaven, even into the water, gross or corpulent like a woman, who apparently would bring forth more than one child. Having gradually settled into the water, she did not go under it; but immediately at the place where she descended, some land appeared under her, whereon she remained sitting. This land increased, and in time became greater and dry around the place where

she sat ; like one who is placed on a bar, whereon the water is three or four feet deep, which by the ebbing of the tide becomes dry land.

Thus they say and mean to be understood, it occurred with this descended goddess. And that the land became of greater extent around her, until its extent was unbounded to the sight, when vegetation appeared ; and in time fruitful and unfruitful trees began to grow throughout the world as it now appears. Whether the world of which you speak originated at this time, we cannot say.

At this period of time, when those things had taken place and were accomplished, this great person was overtaken in labour, and brought forth three distinct and different creatures. The first was like a deer as those now are, the second like a bear, and the third like a wolf in every respect. The woman suckled those animals to maturity, and remained a considerable time upon the earth, cohabiting with those several animals, and bringing forth at every birth more than one of a different species and appearance ; from which have originated and proceeded all the human beings, animals and creatures, of every description and species, as the same now are and appear ; being propagated according to nature, each in their peculiar order, as the same are in succession continued.

When all those subjects were brought to a state of perfection, and could continue, this common mother rejoiced greatly, and ascended up to heaven, where she will continue to remain and dwell, enjoying pleasure, and subsist in goodness and love, which her upper Lord will afford her, for which she is particularly desirous, and God also loves her supremely above all things.

Here on the earth, in the meanwhile, the human species, and the animals after their kind, have multiplied and produced so many different creatures, and increased exceedingly : which every other thing that was created also does, as the same at present is seen. Therefore it is at this time, that all mankind, wherever they be, are always born with the nature of one or the other of the aforesaid animals. They are timid and innocent like the deer ; they are brave, revengeful, and just of hand, like the bear ; or they are deceitful and blood-thirsty like the wolves. Although their dispositions are apparently somewhat changed, this they attribute to the subtlety of men, who know how to conceal their wicked propensities.

This, they say, is all they have learned from their fathers on the subject of the Creation ; which has been handed down to them, and which they believe to be true. And they add if they had been able to write as you are, they would have transmitted

and left us all the particulars on these matters, which they could not do, because they know not the art of writing.

Here, esteemed reader, you have all, both general and particular, that was worth writing, concerning the manners, opinions, and acts of the Indians in the New-Netherlands, which I could discover, and also which any of our Christians from the discovery of the country, could ascertain from them; and although much is fabulous and contrary to truth, I have nevertheless committed the same to writing. The more discerning (and I have heard some of them philosophize on the matter) take a more extensive view, and have high speculations, and know, as we say, with Virgil, how to extract gold from the filth of Euvius.*

* Probably a misprint for *Ennius*. But Virgil does not mention his indebtedness to Ennius, whom another Roman poet describes as *ingenio maximus, arte rudis*.—Ed.

OF THE BEAVER.

UNDER the title of the wild animals of the New-Netherlands, we remain indebted for a description of the uncommon and natural habits of the beavers. Having said much of the manners and customs of the natives, we will in this place fulfil our promise on the subject of the beaver. This animal has attracted many persons to the country. We will begin by stating the opinions of the ancient and later writers on the beaver, and by following the truth show how far they have wandered from it on this matter.

Pliny, the great naturalist, in his XXXII Book, Chap. 3, says that the limbs of the beaver, whereby he means the *testicles*, are very useful for many purposes in medicine. And that the animals when sought by the hunters for their tests, and when closely pursued, would castrate themselves with their teeth and leave the parts for the hunters, which the creatures knew to be the prize sought after. This most of the old naturalists and physicians believed to be true; although some denied the same, still they held that the beaver cods, which they named *castorium*, possessed many medicinal virtues.

They write that the beavers could bite very sharp; that they could fell trees as if cut with an axe. Olaus and Albertus remark on their carrying of wood for their houses. They also state that the beavers' tails are very long, and that that part is fish; that beavers will attack men and bite them severely, with many other things differing widely from the truth. Hence it may be inferred, that neither of them have ever seen a beaver, but have related their uncertain propositions upon the credit of ignorant, unlettered persons. We may give credit to their declarations, when they relate that they used beaver flesh and cods for medicines. This was their art; the virtue of the specific lay in the faith of the patients, which they saw suited their designs.

We will now relate in connection the disorders for which they say the medicines prepared from beaver testicles were infallible remedies. The smelling of beaver-cods will produce sneezing and cause sleep—connected with the oil of roses and hog-lard, and rubbed on the head of a drowsy person, it will produce wakefulness. Taken in water, it serves to remove idiocy. The sleeping are awakened by rubbing with cod oil. Two quarts of the oil, mixed with polay-water, will restore the menses to women, and remove the second birth. Beaver oil is good for dizziness, for trembling, for the rheumatism, for lameness, for the pain in the stomach, and for apoplexy, when the stomach is greased with it. Again, when taken inwardly, it removes

the falling sickness and stoppages in the body, pain in the bowels, and poison. It cures the tooth-ache; dropped in the ear, it cures the ear-ache. Tingling and rustling in the ears is cured by a few drops of *Macolim* sap. Beaver oil, mixed with the best honey and rubbed on the eyes, restores the sharpness of sight. Beaver water is an antidote for all poisons, but to preserve it good it must be kept in the bladder. Those who have the gout, should wear slippers and shoes made of beaver skins.

After relating all those things we will proceed to an accurate description of the beaver, as we have found and known the animal. And that none may believe that I treat upon a subject which is unknown to me, the reader will please observe that in the New-Netherlands, and in the adjacent country, about eighty thousand beavers have been killed annually, during my residence of nine years in the country. I have frequently eaten beaver flesh, and have raised and kept their young. I have also handled and exchanged many thousand skins.

A beaver is a four footed animal that feeds on vegetables, and keeps in water and on land, coated with fur and hair, short-legged, quick, timid and subtle, and commonly as thick as it is long. The Greek name of this animal is *castor*, the Latin is *eyber*,* the Dutch is *beever*. The other names by which it is known in Europe, are mostly derived from the foregoing. It has feet like the otter, or like other wild and tame creatures which keep on land.

The food of the beaver is not, as some suppose, fish and prey like the otter's; to which end the beaver has been described and delineated with a fish in its mouth, and to be part fish and part flesh. It feeds on the bark of several kinds of wood, on roots, rushes and greens, which it finds in the woods, fields and bushes, near the water sides. The kinds of bark whereon it feeds, are of the water willow, birch, and maple trees, which grow plentifully near the water sides, and of all other trees, which are not sour or bitter to the taste, which they dislike.

The beavers keep, (as is said, which is true,) in the water and on land; therefore they may be named land and water animals, but they are mostly on the dry land, and get most of their food on land, consisting of bark and herbage. The wood and grass used in the construction of their house are got on the land; they remain whole nights on land, and they cannot live and remain long under the water, particularly when they are chased and fatigued. In the water they obtain a scanty subsistence from the bark of roots of trees which extend into the water from the margin of the water courses, and the weeds and bushes which grow in some places, but mostly on the margin of the water. The true and certain reason why the beavers keep so

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* Misprint for *fsber*.—Ed.

much in the water arises from their natural timidity, which is supported by the testimony of the great beaver catchers. Being naturally timid, the creature can best preserve and secure itself much better and easier in the water than on land. To that end, as will be detailed hereafter, they construct their abodes over the water, having apertures in the lower stories that communicate with the water, from which they can readily retreat under water to places of safety, which they have always prepared near their houses; these consist of a hollow or hole entwining under water from the side of the stream whereon their houses are erected and ascending under the bank, into which they retreat on the approach of danger—wherein they seem to be so safe and secure that no person can molest them.

The beaver's skin is rough, but very thickly set with fine wool (fur) of an ash grey colour, inclining to blue. The outward points also incline to a russet or brown colour. From the beaver fur, or wool, the best hats are made that are worn, which are named beavers or castoreums, after the materials from which the same are made, being at present known over all Europe. Outside of the coat of fur many shining hairs appear, which are called wind hairs, that more properly are winter hairs, for those fall out in summer and appear again in the fall. This outer coat is of a chestnut brown colour—the browner the better—it sometimes will be somewhat reddish. When hats are made of the fur, the rough hairs are plucked out, being useless. The skins usually are first sent to Russia (Muscovy) where they are highly esteemed for the outside shining hair, and on that their greatest recommendation depends with the Russians. There the skins are used for mantle linings, and are also cut into stripes for borders, as we cut the rabbit skins. Therefore we name the same *peltries*. Whoever there has the most and costliest fur trimmings is esteemed the greatest, as with us, the finest stuffs and gold and silver embroidery are considered the appendages of the great. After the hairs have fallen out, or are worn, and the peltries become old and dirty, and apparently useless, we get the articles back and convert the fur into hats, before which it cannot be well used for this purpose, for unless the beaver has been worn and is greasy and dirty, it will not felt properly—therefore those old peltries are most valuable. The coats which the Indians make of beaver skins, and have worn a long time around their bodies, until the same have become foul with sweat and grease—those afterwards are used by the hatters and make the best hats. They also work it with the combed wool or fur (which is so called) because the beaver skins before the same are sent to Russia are combed, by which process much of the fur is taken out of the long hair (or wind hair) with a comb—this is also worked with the peltry fur, after its return from American Journeys - www.americanjourneys.org

The beavers have very short legs, appearing as if there were no middle bones, and when they run, their legs are scarcely observable, and appear as if their feet were joined to their bodies, with which they move. Their claws or paws are bare and blackish, with strong, brown nails, bound with a thick, strong skin, like swans' feet, which they resemble, but are not so broad, being shorter before than behind. The hinder part of the body is short, much like that of a goose or swan. The forefeet (as the creature has a short neck, or is almost without a neck, the head being near the shoulders) stand near the head, Therefore when they run, which they do with great activity, their whole body appears to touch the ground and appears to be too heavy for their small short legs : but far from it, they are well provided by nature with strong sinews and muscles and are very strong.

The beavers are so quick, that they not only can run wonderfully over the earth, when we consider their formation, avoiding men and dogs ; but in the water they seem as active as fishes. Therefore the Indians must take them in traps ; or when they lay in their burrows in the earth, they know how to take and kill them with long rammers (which have lances affixed at the ends) inserted at the holes of their burrows. That the beavers according to the meaning of Olaus Magnus and Albertus, will be inclined to bite and wound persons dreadfully, is a mistake ; for it is a timid creature, which seeks to preserve itself by flight if possible, and as it has a sharp scent and hearing, we seldom happen to see it on the land. Nor will it ever keep near man like the otters, which the latter sometimes do. The beavers keep in deep swamps, at the waters and morasses, where no settlements are. Still when they are beset and bitten by dogs, they can defend themselves very well, and do great injury to a common dog, when they take hold of the same with their foreteeth ; but as to their attacking men with violence, it is erroneous. I have seen and conversed with hundreds of beaver hunters, but have never known more than one who had been bitten by a beaver in his shoulder and received a bad wound. This happened when the hunter's dog and a beaver were striving for the mastery, and the hunter stooped down to help his dog ; when the beaver missing the dog probably, in terror and misery, bit the hunter in his shoulder.

That the beavers are subtle animals appears by the construction of their houses, and in rearing their young, which we will presently relate, with their continual watch, which they keep to prevent surprise and being taken ; which, we are informed, they keep at every house, for the beavers commonly have six or seven in a family in every house, at which they in turn keep watch. It is certain that when it freezes hard, which it fre-

quently does where the most and best beavers resort, there always sits one, not as *Albertus* and *Magnus* assert, with half of the body in the water (for this would be impossible in severe frost). The beaver can keep above water without pain, which they nevertheless on the contrary feel; but I assert that one of the family always sits near the running water, for they always build on running waters, that with the striking of their tails they keep it open; the noise of which resembles the continual striking of a person with his flat hand, by which means they prevent the freezing of the water and keep it open. This is not done because, as the doctors say, they cannot remain out of water without pain, but to keep the entrance of the houses open, so that they can seek food, and in case of danger, that they can readily with little difficulty retreat to their strongholds, which they always have near their houses under the banks of the water courses.

The form of a beaver resembles the shape of a cucumber which has a short stem, or a duck that has the neck and head cut off, or like a ball of yarn wound in long form and flattened a little, being often thicker than long, or like a swine which is flat on the back, with its belly hanging down. The dead beaver resembles a dead mole which is somewhat flattened with the foot.

When full grown, the skins are about an ell long and an ell broad; they are not round, but frequently nearly square. From this size up to five quarters, the skins are merchantable--they are seldom larger. From December to the first of June, the skins are good, and then they are killed. The fall skins have the winter hairs in part, with very little fur. The summer skins and those taken from ungrown beavers are of little value. Still the Indians kill all they find when they are hunting.

Their houses, as *Sextius*, *Albertus*, and *Olaus* say, they construct always over a running stream, with several stories, four, five, or more, above each other, of curious workmanship, and worthy of speculation. Every apartment and story in their houses is made perfectly tight with wood, grass and clay to the top, which keeps out the rain. They lodge in those houses in whole families, and parts of families, and break out like bees, with their increase when disturbed. The wood used in the construction of their houses is of the soft kind, such as maple, pine, white-wood, &c. which they find laying along the water courses. When this supply is insufficient, they have recourse to the nearest trees, which is done as follows. When a beaver intends to fell a tree, it selects one of a proper size, of about six inches diameter, the bark of which is not bad tasted. The beaver then begins cutting with its front teeth, of which it has two in the upper and two in the lower jaw; very strong and about half

an inch long, more or less, according to its age. Those teeth are yellow on the outside. When this is scraped off and taken inwardly, it will cure the jaundice. With those teeth, which are common to the squirrels and other animals, they commence gnawing, making a cut of about a hand's breadth or more around the tree, which they work at until the tree falls, and then the ends resemble the turned whip-tops used by children. Whether they look up when the tree falls, to observe its direction, I have never heard. But I have seen many trees which had been cut down by the beavers, that had fallen fast against trees that stood near by, that were left by the animals. After a tree has fallen down, they then gnaw off the wood into proper lengths for their work. They carry the wood together, and nearly all the inhabitants of the New-Netherlands know that many skins are sold from which the outside wind hairs are worn off on the back, which are called wood-carriers' skins, because they carried wood for the construction of their houses; this is not done as the ancients relate, between their legs, as upon a sled or waggon; but the Indians who have seen the beavers labour, have frequently told me, that after the wood is cut off and ready for removal, the female places herself under the piece to be removed, which the male and the young ones support on her back to the place where it is used. In this manner every stick is carried. That the carrier is dragged by its tail with the wood, lying on its back, by the other beavers, is a fabulous tale. The tail of a beaver is not large and long, as the ancients remark. The largest are not larger and broader than a man's hand, without the thumb. Their tails also are tender and would not bear pulling by the same with the sharp teeth of another beaver.

The beaver tails are flattish, without hair, coated with a skin which appears as if set with fish scales, and when chopped up with the flesh of the beaver, it is a delicate food, and is always preserved for the Emperor's table, whenever a beaver is caught in Germany, which seldom happens. The beaver tails excel all other flesh taken on land and in the water. Wherefore the Indians deem it a special favour to permit us to partake with them of a part of a beaver's tail; and they will seldom part with any beaver flesh. The most of the settlers in the New-Netherlands have never tasted it—but the best and most excellent part of a beaver is its tail. The Indians will seldom part with it, unless on an extraordinary occasion as a present.

The beaver like the swine goes with young sixteen weeks; they bear once a year and in summer, some earlier than others, and have four in a litter, except at the first, when they sometimes have but two or three. The young beavers, whenever they are brought forth, cry like children, so that a person coming to a place where there is a young beaver, if he did not know to

the contrary, would suppose a child was at hand. The beavers have two paps between the fore-legs at the breast, resembling the paps of a woman, and no more. She suckles her young sitting and permits two to suckle at the same time, like children standing at the breast. Meanwhile the others lay, as if they were crying, in their nest—they are suckled in turn. A young beaver is a beautiful creature; is easily raised and will become as tame as a dog, and will feed on any food, like cats, except flesh and fish, which they will eat when boiled. When they are taken very young they require milk, which they readily learn to suck from a rag-teat, out of a horn. They are gentle to handle as a young dog, and will not get cross or bite. When grown they are fond of the water, and will sport and play in a stream with astonishing agility; and if they are not confined in locked waters, by going into streams every day they stroll away and become wild, and do not return again, like the deer, which also can be made very tame.

The doctors of medicine, as before related, ascribe many medicinal virtues to the beaver cods, which they name castorium. Aristotle, Pliny, and the writers of those days meant that the beavers seldom castrated themselves. But *Olaus Magnus*, *Agricola*, *Albertus*, and *Sextius* have not admitted this, but say much fraud was practised in the sale of beaver-cods, which is evident. And as I have been at great pains to arrive at a certainty on this subject, for which purpose I have not only examined many Indians carefully, who were most acquainted with the matter, but have also with my own hands opened many beavers, which I have examined curiously; the result of which, friendly reader, on this occasion will not be withheld from you.

I have heard, that for medicinal purposes, small kegs of dried and salted cods have been shipped to be sold by druggists, but for the most those were beaver kidneys, dugs, or not the real castor cods, therefore the article did not sell well. Several persons also have left the New-Netherlands for Holland, who took with them, as they supposed, the real cods, which they had obtained from the Indians; but on their arrival, they were found to be a spurious article. Having heard of this several times, my curiosity became excited, and I even doubted whether I had seen real castor cods. All I had seen were round, some larger than others, but as long as they hung to smoke or dry, the fat dropped out as from pork hung in the sun. Finally I observed one somewhat long, like a preserved pear, shrivelled and a little musky. This I presented to an experienced physician in the New-Netherlands, who pronounced it to be a true beaver cod, of the proper kind, and as the article should be. It happened at this time that beavers were found not far from my residence, and several were brought to me by the Indian hunters, unopened

and fresh; these I opened and examined with great care for the real castor cods, but to no purpose. I found deep in the body, under the *os pubis*, or *eys* bone, small ballats like a *fleur-de-lis*, which in Holland were pronounced spurious. At last, a discreet Indian hunter, who had assisted me in my experimental dissections, after I had represented to him that the subjects sought for were flattish, and in form somewhat resembled a pear, advised the opening of a female beaver. We took in hand a female which was with young, to see how the young lay; upon which I found against the back bone two *testiculos*, of the form which I sought after, flattish like some pears, resembling young calves' *tests*, and yellowish, covered with a tolerable tough fleece or skin. I took them out, and for further certainty and assurance, that it was a female beaver, I removed four young from the body. After some time I presented those testicles to the doctor before mentioned, at the Governor's house, before much company. The doctor and all present pronounced the articles real beaver testicles. After I had related to them the whole procedure, they were amazed, but adhered to their first opinion, and that the same were the real beaver castor cods. Afterwards I have opened more beavers with the like result; therefore, without prejudice to the feelings of any person, I am decidedly of opinion, that the real *castorium* is found in the females and not in the males. The round balls of the males the Indians carve fine, and suck much with their tobacco:---it is healthy and well tasted. The fat or pork around the body of a beaver is frequently two or three fingers thick, of which the Indians are very fond. It resembles fed pork. The tails are great delicacies. The Indians always burn the beaver bones, and never permit their dogs to gnaw the same; alleging that afterwards they will be unlucky in the chase.

The beavers are usually all of the same colour; a few are a little browner than others. Among all the beaver skins I have seen, no more than one was of a different colour, and that was white. The outer *wind-hairs* were golden yellow. This skin was shipped on board the ship Princess, with Director Kieft, which was lost at sea.

A DIALOGUE

BETWEEN

A PATRIOT AND A NEW-NETHERLANDER,

UPON THE

ADVANTAGES WHICH THE COUNTRY PRESENTS TO SETTLERS, &c.

My worthy friend :—I have heretofore embraced several opportunities and read with attention the particular description of the natural formation of the New-Netherlands, and of the appearance and customs of the country, and have arrived at the conclusion that a burgher, farmer, or mechanic, and all other persons, can gain a comfortable subsistence in that country. I have, however, long desired to know your opinion in relation to other subjects connected with the settlement of that country, and therefore request your answers to the following propositions :—

First.—Whether it would be of any service to this city, if the said country arrived at a flourishing condition, and wherein those advantages would consist and be continued.

Secondly.—If there should be a great increase of population and riches in the country, whether the land presents situations for defence against an enemy, or robbers, by the construction of fortifications ?

Thirdly.—Whether the country presents proper situations for commerce and at what places, and in what articles we could trade to advantage ; and, in short, please to state the subjects in connection and solve the same according to your own reflections ?

New-Netherlander. Although I am not as well informed on the subjects of inquiry as I would wish to be, still I will endeavour to answer your propositions. And first :—whether it would be of service to this city, if New-Netherlands were flourishing ? I answer, yes—for the following reasons—or to

come closer to your question, the advantages which this city may derive from that country are as follow :—

First.—If difficulties should arise with Spain, (which God forbid!) there then is no place in the world better situated, from which to strike at the heart and vitals of that nation, than from the New-Netherlands, where we have all things together, such as provisions, ship-timber, plank, knees, masts, &c., that are necessary to equip our ships, in abundance. Whenever we desire to improve those advantages, we can do so without molestation.

Secondly.—If it should happen that iron, timber, ashes, grain, and other articles which we now receive from the east, should fall short, the deficiencies can be supplied from the New-Netherlands in abundance, if we encourage and advance the settlement of the country, without which it is worth nothing.

Thirdly.—By so doing we shall always have a free and unobstructed commerce to and fro, and enjoy a free and profitable trade with the Lords' colony, from and to their own country, which in time will increase so much as now is deemed incredible. We see how much the trade has advanced in two or three years since we have encouraged the settlement of the country, and by going on from year to year, the gain will advance proportionally. But more of this upon the third question.

Fourthly.—By pursuing this course and encouraging the population of the country, we could derive formidable assistance from the same in men and means in times of need, which causes all republics to be respected by those who envy their prosperity.

Fifthly.—And as we well know that this country is visited by many people who seek employment, and who always found business; but since the peace, there is not much employment, and there are many persons injuriously idle—hence it certainly appears, that it would be of service to the country to settle another Netherland with the excess of our population, which can be easily done, as a sheet-anchor and support to the state. By this I consider your first question answered.

Patriot. In common I observe some reasons advanced by you; but I have frequently heard persons of understanding say that Spain need not thank herself for her outlandish colonies, because they attract so many persons from home as frequently to create internal troubles and injury, and leave dwellings vacant and neglected. Now we know well, that the most important subjects require most attention—the shirt before the coat. Please to solve me this difficulty.

New-Netherlander. As for Spain, it is certain that without

her outlandish colonies, she would not be as powerful as she is. This is a round O. Still, that her colonies withdraw her population, by which it may follow that many of the poor places in Spain are left uncultivated, all this may be true. But between the advantages of Spain and the United Netherlands this difference is so great that all the reasons which are *contra* there are *pro* here. It would be tedious to enter into detailed reasoning on the subject. To be brief, we consider the countries which lay contiguous to Spain, as Italy, France, and Portugal, as good as Spain itself, where there is abundant employment for vigilant native citizens, who are more frequently consumed and destroyed by wars than with us; but here, around the Netherlands, in Eastland, Germany, Westphalia, Bergland, Walland, &c., from which the people came in numbers to seek employment, and gain a living, as they should do, otherwise this emigration would cease, and the reputation of our country be injured—we could spare from the Netherlands thousands from year to year, and send them abroad without injury; and if ever there should happen to be any defect in our population, this would be supplied from the neighbouring countries. At a word, we could use those people and make them Netherlanders. Our neighbours must put up with it, and the people who now go to the New-Netherlands are not lost or destroyed, but are as if they were placed at interest, for we know how fast the population increases.

Patriot. Do you then conclude that the Netherlands are better than the eastern countries of Germany, &c. are?

New-Netherlander. We evidently have not intended to advance this, but when that question occurs, it will solve itself. But that, in the provinces of this city, there are at present (by the goodness of God) more prosperous merchants, manufacturers, mechanics and traders, than in the countries mentioned, is certain; the Hanse towns not excepted—where the bait is, there the eagles gather. The habits of the Netherlanders are as favourable to strangers as to native citizens. Thus they are induced to come to us, particularly craftsmen of every profession, who can always find advantageous employment, and in time, by conforming to our customs, become as citizens. Hence I conclude that out of this country we can send as many colonial settlers as Spain can, and one-half more, without missing any man out from the Netherlands. We could increase our strength by so doing; for they who are colonists in the New-Netherlands become Netherlanders as well as they do who become burghers here, and remain devoted to us.

Patriot. This I would now begin to understand with you; that the population of this city might not be unserviceable there, but this objection arises. When men of property and fashion

go to that country, which is the case already, where, it is said, something may be gained, and where careful and industrious people flourish and prosper, for such become persons of importance, or at least their descendants do—what certainty can such persons have for themselves, and their property? I mean certainty, without circumstances?

New-Netherlander. I take this well, sir; but this is evidently the sound question which you propounded to me, wherein I have already given you a clear and decisive answer.

Patriot. Not so certain and satisfactory as you suppose. For I consider that to be a country which we have found, which is easy of access by sea and by land, open and unsupplied, or unfurnished with any considerable fortifications. The English and the Indians are strong and numerous around it. The Portuguese and other pirates can easily invade the place on the seaboard, in a short time; for it is easy of access, and near the ocean, and what is more, you well know that our nation is particularly attached to commerce. This I understand to be their principal object. They are industrious as merchants; but to the security of the country they pay but little attention; they trust to the militia, who are few in numbers. In fact I see great danger there, for if we took property to that country, or gained property therein, we are still insecure in our possessions.*

New-Netherlander. Will you be pleased to answer yourself, or refer to previous remarks; then I may be silent; for if I showed you the country, nothing would be gained. And although there may appear to be some reason in your remarks, they lay undistinguished and unconnected, appearing like something, but in truth unfounded.

Patriot. I will frankly admit your explanation under a promise not to prejudge the subject on party grounds, according to your request, for that would be useless argument.

New-Netherlander. You do well, sir; for that is the only way to elicit truth; and if my memory extends far enough, your objections will be answered. What kind of a country the New-Netherlands is, and how its possession was acquired, is fully detailed in the history of its discovery, whereon it is unnecessary to dilate in a particular manner. The West India Company, in connection with others from time to time, have expended many tons of gold in the establishment, and for the security of their colony. It has not been brought to its present situation without much cost and trouble.

You say in the second place, that the country is unprovided with proper fortifications for its defence, and that its seaboard is unprotected, the land sides also. You advance too much. Ob-

* The invasion of Col. Nicholls, in 1664, proves the correctness of the *Patriot's* remarks.—TRANS.

serve, sir, that the South and the North rivers, are *lead-men's* waters,* and for those who are unacquainted, the risk is great and the entries almost impossible. The bars and sand flats frequently shift their positions, and when an enemy has entered, his work is not done, he must come to places where he will find business, and pass forts of considerable strength on advantageous positions, equal to the forts of this country; and by the increase of men and means, as necessity requires, all is safe. The land fortifies itself, and presents positions which can be easily rendered impassable. Sandy Hook, the Highlands, Hell-Gate, and the head lands of the bays, can be rendered impregnable against human skill, whenever it is necessary. Where we have little, we hazard little. He who will take a stiver from another, will not readily hazard two.

Patriot. This is well; but if I could be there, I would not seek your bays and havens, for I have read that the whole coast presents a sand beach. It is not subject to heavy winds from the sea, and has good anchor ground. There I would cast my ground hooks, and attack you in your rear, where you are unprepared. How would that suit you?

New-Netherlander. This is easily said, but impossible to perform. It is true you might with great hazard effect a landing, but your work would not be over, for the whole coast of the New-Netherlands presents double forelands, between which lay broad shallow waters, or there are islands two or three deep; and if you overlook and despise the inside waters, tell me where you will find boats to cross your men over the bays? This is work for madmen. It cannot be done; and if any person would attempt such work of folly, we would know it before a landing was effected from the Indians who watch the seashore, and are rewarded for giving intelligence whenever ships appear on the coast.

Patriot. But what do you say of Long Island?

New-Netherlander. There also nothing can be done; for Long Island has double fore-lands nearly its whole length; and admit that you were upon it, how would you get off? and what would it benefit you? Nothing but damage and great danger. If there was to be anything done, it must be at New-Amsterdam. If you now answer, I would be there; I place before your nose, first that you can hardly get there, on account of your ignorance of the navigable waters. We would always know it a day or two before hand. The Hook and the head lands will be fortified, and what is more, without passing under the cannon of Fort Amsterdam, you cannot get there, whereon there are so many cannon mounted, that I am of opinion the half will not be required to repel any invading foe for fifty years to come.

*That is, requiring the aid of a *loodsman*, or pilot.—Ed.
American Journeys—www.americanjourneys.org

Patriot. Very good. All this appears favourable against an outward invasion from the sea; but you have the Indians within, and the English are numerous on either side. You know very well how dangerous it is to have such powerful and ticklish neighbours. What do you say to this?

New-Netherlander. As for the native Indians they need not be feared. They may terrify a stranger or a new comer. Read the History of the New-Netherlands, under the title of their Wars, you will find no organized regiments, companies, or regular military force, they are impatient under restraint, and cannot effect much. The last war we had with them, when we were not half as strong as we now are, they remember so well that they will not readily begin again. When we speak of the beginning of the troubles with them, there was little fault on their side; still it is done and past. But respecting the English, that subject deserves deep reflection, and presents difficulties and dangers, and I assure you that we of the New-Netherlands are not so proud as to be easily enticed, nor do we desire to get into difficulties or war with those of Virginia or of New-England.

Patriot. Get into quarrels, man! we would anxiously desire to avoid the same. But you can no longer have rest or peace, unless your neighbours agree with you in the same opinion.

New-Netherlander. This does not appear clear, nor do I know how the matter stands between you and them; but I have read, and understand that it is not always wise *not* to justify yourself in necessary cases, and at once to call the party to account. This should be done, unless intercession follows, when we may for various reasons effect our purpose, before a third party plays. I would refer you to many historical examples, to prove this position, but because they all agree in the same conclusion, and as those are tender and delicate matters, (for good reasons) we pass them over and return to the New-Netherlands. To satisfy you on this subject. The Virginians can do nothing unless they come by sea. Their account is answered already. A land march presents insurmountable difficulties. The people of New-England are much stronger than we are; but that it will suit them better than it will us to enter into unnecessary disputes, is a matter I do not profess to know, seeing they possess a country wherein commerce must prosper, which they cannot pursue to advantage southward of Cape Cod without passing our channel within Long Island. Again, they lie open along the coast above one hundred miles, without forts, soldiers, or armaments for their security. Their planters and inhabitants are trained for defence against the Indians, for which they are sufficient; and if we suffer any affront from them, they must know that we, with few men, and less than we can spare in New-Netherlands for the purpose, in small parties, can ransack their

whole country, seeing they lie widely dispersed in small defenceless villages contiguous to the woods, which may be surprised and destroyed by night, and the parties again retire in safety through the woods; so that I do not fear them much. Nor would they trouble us without an express command of Parliament, which will not be readily given, as in so doing open war with England would follow, which they desire as little here as we do there. You may not incline to believe that the people of New-England are not madmen. Can you discern that it is not their interest to give offence, or to war against us? Not that I ascribe all this to their good will; but their interest and advantage bind them to peace. Danger and difficulties lie in a contrary course.

As for the Portuguese and pirates spoken of, there is little to be feared from them. The difficulties already stated are a protection against such invaders. But admit that a pirate entered with a sloop in disguise—what would it amount to? The place would be his grave before he could do any injury. Without an army no danger need be apprehended.

Our national character is well known. They delight in commerce. It is apparent in their habits. But mark, sir, the difference between national governments. Where is the government on earth which is inclined to do more by art and money, to fortify and secure their country than the Netherlanders are? There are no people under the sun as liberal for such purposes as our nation. Still it must be well financiered. Every one enjoys the freedom to talk about it, when it frequently would be better to let it alone. But to speak freely of the New-Netherlands before persons in power there, it would be proper to have authority from their superiors here for that purpose; and then we must commonly observe how their humour leads, and take the proper time to have our requisition answered. The same is also frequently practised here, though this is, *salva et integrare*, thus spoken. But in instances of immediate need, we must on the occasion make and found the law. And herewith, sir, I trust that your firm conclusions are somewhat weakened.

Patriot. Since now, though not willingly, I admit that the dangers are not so great as was supposed by me, we will therefore drop that subject, and speak of the commerce; and tell me, at once, how that is to be supported in time by the population?

New-Netherlander. It is a pleasure to me to have satisfied you thus far. Upon the fourth proposition you will receive contentment.

Patriot. Places which will suit us must possess convenient situations for trade; otherwise they will not please us, although the territory be ever so great. In Germany, under the Electors

of Brandenburg, in the Palatine, and other places near at hand, there is land and territory enough; but that amounts to nothing, as they possess few places for trade, and therefore the countries cannot prosper.

New-Netherlander. We must look to commerce, and there we can have it; and that which at present is carried on in the New-Netherlands, consists mostly in grain, as wheat, rye, peas, barley, &c., and in pork, beef, fish, beer and wine, and what is necessary for families, for the back and the belly. All other things are plenty, which, with the commerce of navigable streams, of which we will treat, quantities are sent to the islands in the West Indies, with which we have long since assisted the islands; and as the population increases, the productions will increase. The settlers who now come to the country raise their own provisions in the second year, and in the third year they have a surplus, which they exchange for wares and tobacco. They who can import articles, find many kinds of peltries, such as beaver skins, otters, bears, elk and deer skins, &c., as may be seen in the History of the country. The planting of vineyards is progressing, and in time will be of importance. So also are the outland fisheries. If a hundred ship loads are required, the fish are there during the whole winter. Train oil can be made at the South bays, where whales are plenty.

Item. Timber, hemp, tar, ashes, and iron, &c., as treated of in the History, can be had there. But on leaving this subject, I will advance those reasons as I progress.

First.—It is now about fifteen years since the New-Netherlands has in earnest begun to be settled by freemen. In that time we have endured a destructive war, otherwise it would have been double to what it now is. For that which before had been done by the company, except the fortifications and a few houses, of little importance, the residue was destroyed in the war. Until now few people of property have emigrated to the country. All who went over would gain much and bring nothing, except the merchants, who brought something, but carried much more away, which is common. Thus in new countries at the first, there are few churchmasters but persons who anoint their own breast, and are careless about the means and the latter end, and regardless of the common good, worthy citizens not included. Still there are without deception many good men, who love orderly behaviour, and have erected good dwellings.

Item. Many fine farms, plantations, pasturages, grain fields, gardens and orchards, with many fine cattle; and if the land was not good, how could such things be there? From that which is not good, nothing extraordinary can be derived.

Secondly.—If we say yes to those things that cost the parties, the Company and others money enough, then we answer, that

here never has been sent as much to New-Netherlands as has been taken from it with interest. This you may deem strange, because there are so many accounts in arrears. But I do not say that the returns have been received by their proper owners; for then I would speak contrary to my better knowledge. Consider what quantities of peltries were purloined from the company, before the trade was thrown open, that may be best known by comparing the quantities then accounted for with the present shipments, although now the whole is not reported. After the trade has been free, little has been lost. All those who have knowledge on the subject know that the faith-penny which has been gained on the company's goods never came into their coffers, while all losses fell upon them. They also paid unnecessary and extravagant monthly wages to those who defrauded them, and made good cheer every where, whereby they did themselves little good; for it will go as it came. Yet I will add that much has been gained in New-Netherlands which is not seen, because much has been fooled away, or has been brought over here, where persons fare well with it; still it has at first come from that country, or been gained upon its productions.

Thirdly.—The country is well calculated and possesses the necessaries for a profitable trade. First, it is a fine fruitful country. Secondly, it has fine navigable rivers extending far inland, by which the productions of the country can be brought to places of traffic. The Indians, without our labour or trouble, bring to us their fur trade, worth tons of gold, which may be increased, and is like goods found. To which may be added the grain and provision trade, which we proudly enjoy.

Fourthly.—The country is so convenient to the sea, that its value is enhanced by its situation. On the northeast, within four or five days sail, lay the valuable fishing banks.

Item. Canada and New-England will bring a profitable inland trade. On the southwest we have Virginia, which affords us a profitable tobacco trade with the Floridas, the Bahamas, and the other continent and West India islands, upon which reliance may be made.

Patriot. But by the treaty of peace those ports and harbours are shut against us on every side. You cannot expect business in such places.

New-Netherlander. I acknowledge this, and believe, also, as all our merchants have seen, what profit our country would have derived, if those ports had not been shut, and how advantageously the West India Company would have been placed, if the shutting up of those places had not been consented to. Our trade should have extended to those places.

Patriot. Oh, sir, you err; that subject was not neglected. We did enough for it, but it would not take. The subject was attended to.

New-Netherlander. Attended to? I have nothing against it; but the King of Spain was so situated that he could not have avoided the privilege, if we had abstained from his views, and insisted on the right; at least, he might have been subjected to allow the *taliter qualiter*, with Spanish commissions to trade. In time we would have got on well enough in the business. At present it affords no prospect of successful enterprise. Still the country remains. In New-Netherlands we have good courage, that when we have a more powerful population, we will be able to drive on a profitable trade by commissions or otherwise to those places. We have the means, and they cannot easily hinder us. The island of Guraloa [Curacoa] belongs to New-Netherlands and lies within eight miles of Carthagena, on the main land, and in sight of the same. In addition to this, we have the advantageous trade of the Carribee Islands, which will increase as our power increases. Hence we have nothing to fear, although timid persons may have heavy minds about us, and say, after we have produced many articles, where will you shift and vend the same? Lastly, what will hinder the New-Netherlanders? Can they not visit France, Spain, Portugal, and the whole Mediterranean, as well from thence as from this country, when they have men and means? which two things their unfailing population will produce, if no more emigrate to the country. In such a case their own increase would in time be sufficient. The land, in process of time, will cover those advantages.

Patriot. I will readily tell you what will obstruct and place hinderances in the way—the distance from those places; for if you have not the articles necessary for negotiation, then you cannot send them and exchange for consumption, as we can from this country.

New-Netherlander. It is true, sir, we provide now too far ahead, but the distance cannot support your positions; for we can from thence sail with one wind and come through a free and open sea, without the danger of shoals or enemies, and navigate the whole outer coast of Europe from Ireland to the Straits, without uncommon hinderances, in four weeks or less. Hence then is little difference—what you gain in the one, you lose in the other.

In conclusion, a country like the New-Netherlands, possessing such advantages for commerce, and that of and within itself, and abounding with articles for commerce beyond its own wants, which it can spare—when attention is paid to the subject and the same be properly directed, will it not prosper? Judge for yourself.

Patriot. It does not appear strange to me, and we would not do wrong, in taking proper measures to advance the pros-

perity of that land, but more of this on another occasion. At present I deem my inquiries answered. In time I may think further upon the matter, and renew my inquiries.

New-Netherlander. That must then be done in the New-Netherlands, for my departure is at hand, and I have now no leisure to enjoy your company.

Patriot. Return, then, to that country, with good will, and may you find the same as you expect.

New-Netherlander. With the help of God, my hope and design is such, and thus I take my leave and departure.

Patriot. Well, sir, I wish that the Lord our God may grant you a prosperous voyage, and bless you with his special favour, and those who dwell in the New-Netherlands, in time and forever, to the furthering and magnifying of his Holy Name and Glory. Amen.

CONDITIONS

Entered into and made between the Lords the Burgomasters of the city of Amsterdam, and the West India Company, by the approbation of their High Mightinesses, the States General of the United Netherlands.

WHEREUPON the following is presented to all those who, as colonists, desire to withdraw to the New-Netherlands, and who shall address themselves to the Hon. Lord *Coenraed Burgh*, Counsellor and former Schepen, *Henrick Roeters*, Upper Commissary of the Exchange, *Eduart Man*, *Isaac Van Beeck*, *Hector Pietersz*, and *Johan Tayspel*, as Commissioners and Directors thereunto appointed, and named by the Burgomasters, upon the authority of the Council of this City, and commissioned, who will hold their sittings provisionally at the West India House, on Tuesdays and Thursdays, in the afternoon at half-past three o'clock.

ARTICLE 1. The colonists going thitherward, together with their families, needful household furniture, and other necessaries, shall be carried over in proper ships.

ART. 2. The city of Amsterdam shall agree with the shippers, as they best can, for the transportation of persons and goods.

ART. 3. The same city shall pay the transport money, by form of advance, which shall hereafter be repaid in the manner hereafter mentioned.

ART. 4. The said city shall advance to the colonists, to enable them to settle honorably and prosperously, as follows, viz :

ART. 5. First, the said city shall provide and direct to a fruitful land, of a temperate and healthy climate, watered and lying against a salt, navigable river; for which an agreement has been made with the West India Company, and where no persons can set up any adverse claims.

ART. 6. That the said city shall provide a suitable piece of land on the bank of a river for a secure and proper dwelling place for the colonists. The place shall be provided with a trench and wall on the outer side, and the inner ground be laid out with streets, a market, and in lots for the advantage of merchants, mechanics, and those who will pursue agriculture—the whole to be done at the cost of the said city.

ART. 7. The city of Amsterdam shall send to the said place a capable person to serve as a schoolmaster, who by provision shall be a preacher of the Holy Scriptures, and also a leader in psalmody.

ART. 8. The city shall also provide for and pay the salary of the school master.

ART. 9. And to the end that the colonists may be provided with necessaries as far as is practicable, the said city shall supply them with clothing and necessaries for one year, and also with seed grain; and for the assurance and certainty of having the necessary supplies on hand, the city shall erect a large magazine or warehouse in said place for the storage of clothing and necessaries for the people, wherein they shall keep their factor, who shall supply every colonist with necessary clothing, household necessaries, and husbandry articles at the same prices of this country, the toll of the company not charged.

ART. 10. Concerning the toll (commissions) of the company, the same shall be paid according to the annexed list of rates, and the city shall also provide in time that the tolls which are paid in the New Netherlands shall be there employed and expended, in the erection and support of such public works as shall be authorized by this city and the West India Company.

ART. 11. The said fortified place, destined for the dwelling of the colonists, whether it be named a city or town, (*vlek*,) shall be governed for political justice, in the manner of succession, according to the present practice of the city of Amsterdam.

ART. 12. They shall first have a Schout (sheriff,) as chief of the police, (*justicia*,) installed as is done here.

ART. 13. The Schout shall be installed in the name of their High Mightinesses, and of the West India Company, for the Deputies of Amsterdam, who, for that purpose, by procurator shall give authority to the Director.

ART. 14. There shall also be three Burgomasters, to be chosen by the common burghers from the honestest, richest, and most capable men.

ART. 15. There shall be five, or seven magistrates (*Schepenen*), for which purpose the burghers shall nominate a double number, from which a choice shall be made by the Directors upon procuration according to Art. 13.

ART. 16. Whenever the city or town shall have increased to the number of 250 families or more, then the burghers shall elect a council of twenty persons, who shall assemble in council with the burgomasters and schepens, and resolve upon all subjects relating to the state of the said city. And this council, after it shall have been thus formed, shall have power to fill vacancies arising in their number by deaths or otherwise, by ordering the election of other persons by a fair majority of votes to fill such vacancies in the said city council. Elections for the burgomasters and for the council shall be held annually. The said body shall also have the nomination of the double number of schepens, from which the same shall be appointed as aforesaid.

ART. 17. The Schepens may give final judgment upon arrests for all sums not exceeding 100 guilders. For sums exceeding 100 guilders, the aggrieved party may appeal to the Director General and council.

ART. 18. The said Schepens shall also have power in all criminal cases, but it is provided that appeals may be taken from their decisions.

ART. 19. The city of Amsterdam shall agree with a smith, a wheelwright, and a carpenter, to remove to the said place for the benefit and service of the colonists.

ART. 20. The aforesaid city of Amsterdam shall cause the land lying around and contiguous to such city or town, to be laid out into fields for tillage, pasturage and hay-land, and provide ways to the same.

ART. 21. To every person who desires to pursue farming, there shall be granted in firm and continued ownership, as much tillable, pasture and hay-land, as he with his family can till and require, from twenty to thirty morgens or more, upon condition that all such land granted to any of the colonists shall, within two years after the same is granted, be brought into cultivation, upon pain of forfeiture and of the same being granted unto another.

ART. 22. Every colonist shall freely hold and occupy his land without paying any per centage, horn-money, or salt-money, for ten years, calculating from the time his land was first sowed or mowed. When these ten years have expired, they shall not be burthened higher than the residue of any neighbouring district are who stand under the administrators of the West India Company in the New-Netherlands. They shall also be free from the tenths for twenty years from the

time of sowing or mowing as aforesaid. After said twenty years are expired, a tenth shall be given to the city of Amsterdam, with the understanding that then the half of the tenth shall be used there for the support of the public works, and of the persons employed in the public service for preserving and keeping of the same. And also, whenever any poundage or other assessments shall be paid, the same shall be employed for the erection and maintaining of the public works, and for the payment of the persons who are in service in the same.

ART. 23. The city of Amsterdam shall provide, that ships be regularly sent from Holland for the grain, seeds, timber and merchandise of the colonists, and to bring the same over for their benefit. They shall also be at liberty to freight vessels, upon consigning the same to the city of Amsterdam.

ART. 24. The city of Amsterdam shall provide warehouses in Holland for the benefit of the colonists, and for the reception of their grain and articles of merchandise, and shall sell the same for the profit of the shippers, and again invest and remit the proceeds in such articles as shall be ordered, retaining a commission of two per cent. and a tenth of the net profits, to reimburse the said city for the money it has advanced for the transportation of the persons and goods of the colonists. This to continue until the advances are repaid, and no longer.

ART. 25. The colonists of the New-Netherlands, whenever they want necessaries, may be supplied from the city warehouse, at the set price; the accounts of such sales shall be remitted here, to have the same credited to the merchant, or otherwise.

ART. 26. The colonists may, for the building of houses, vessels, and also for sale, cut and procure timber in the nearest woods of their district, and from any other place in the jurisdiction of the West India Company in New-Netherlands, at their pleasure, from any land which has not been particularly reserved, already granted, or that may be granted, subject to the further conditions also of Art. 28.

ART. 27. The burgomasters of Amsterdam, as founders, patrons, and having the jurisdiction, shall appoint a secretary legate for advancing the subalterns.

ART. 28. The hunting in the wilderness, and also the fishing in all waters and rivers which have not already been granted, shall be free to all the colonists, subject to such regulations as shall be made under the authority of the Company, or of the States-General.

ART. 29. The city of Amsterdam shall provide that all

necessary implements of husbandry shall be shipped for the colonists free from recognition charges.

ART. 30. If any of the colonists, by himself, his family, or his servants, shall discover any minerals, chrystals, precious stones, alabaster, &c., &c., of whatever nature or kind soever the same may be, he shall possess the same as his own, free from any impost for ten years; and at the expiration of ten years, he shall pay over to the company one-tenth part of the net profits proceeding from the same.

ART. 31. The city of Amsterdam shall provide a warehouse in said city, wherein shall be brought all the goods to be imported and examined, by a person appointed on the part of the West India Company, and another person on the part of the city of Amsterdam. After the inspection the same shall be marked with the marks of the city and of the Company, and the impost upon the same paid by the Company, according to the list of the rates.

ART. 32. The goods shall be laden, to the knowledge of the Company, on board of such ships as the city shall provide for that purpose.

ART. 33. If the said city should send over any goods on board of a ship on freight, the same must be sent to New-Amsterdam, subject to the same regulations, and the city be subject to their own rules as well as others.

ART. 34. But whenever the city of Amsterdam will send their own or any kind of ship laden only with their own goods, they may send such vessel direct to their city, place or colony, with all the lading, to be delivered into the warehouse of the said city, consigned and committed to any of the said Company to whom the commission and letters shall be delivered.

ART. 35. As all the wares, productions, and merchandise of the colony of the said city, and coming from thence, must be brought here into this city and deposited in its warehouses to the credit of the company and sold, and the right of the land and of the Company paid out of the same—the following list of specifications is annexed.

[We deem it unnecessary to enter and translate the list of specifications referred to in the preceding articles, and deem it sufficient to remark, that 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. covered all charges. All articles employed in agriculture, and used by mechanics in their trades, came over free. All the productions of the soil, including salted and dried fish, were exported free. Peltries paid from 8 to 10 per cent. In the New-Netherlands, 4 per cent. in light money, in addition, was charged upon all goods entered subject to any charges. The rix dollar passed at sixty-three stuys.]