THE SOCIETY OF CALIFORNIA PIONEERS
OF SAN FRANCISCO
A GEOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

OF THAT PART OF NORTH AMERICA

CALLED OREGON
OREGON TERRITORY (1832)

W. J. SNELLING
SKETCH OF OREGON - - - (1831) Hall J. Kelley
OREGON TERRITORY - - - (1832) William J. Snelling

TARRYTOWN, NEW YORK
REPRINTED
WILLIAM ABBATT,
1919

Being Extra Number 67 of THE MAGAZINE OF HISTORY WITH NOTES AND QUERIES
EDITOR'S PREFACE.

IN our Extra Number 63 we reproduced Mr. Kelley's very scarce "Circular" on Oregon, and now reprint his second and equally scarce "Description" of the same country.

In addition we reprint a bitter attack on his scheme, from the New England Magazine of April, 1832, which has never been republished. The author was William J. Snelling (1804-48), a son of Colonel Josiah Snelling, U. S. A., and Editor of the Boston Herald. He had himself been a fur-trapper and was the author of some tales of frontier life, the Indian portraiture in which was praised by so good a judge as was George Catlin.

His severe arraignment of the Kelley plan is very readable. What might have been the result had the expedition really set out from St. Louis, can only be conjectured.

Like many other pessimists, however, Mr. Snelling went too far; the settlement and steady growth of Oregon, not so long afterward, are matters of history. Our readers should refer to our Numbers 8 and 10 for graphic accounts of the action of our little Army against the Oregon and Washington Indians in 1855 and 1858.
A GEOGRAPHICAL SKETCH
OF THAT
PART OF NORTH AMERICA
CALLED
OREGON:
CONTAINING
AN ACCOUNT OF THE INDIAN TITLE;—THE NATURE OF A
RIGHT OF SOVEREIGNTY;— THE FIRST DISCOVERIES;—CLIM-
MATE AND SEASONS;— FACE OF THE COUNTRY, &c.—NA-
TURAL DIVISIONS, SOIL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS;
—RIVERS, BAYS, ISLANDS, &c.;— ANIMALS;—INDIANS;—
NUMBER AND SITUATION OF THEIR TRIBES;—TOGETHER
WITH AN ESSAY ON THE ADVANTAGES RESULTING FROM
A SETTLEMENT OF THE TERRITORY.

TO WHICH IS ATTACHED
A NEW MAP OF THE COUNTRY.
SECOND EDITION,
ENLARGED WITH AN APPENDIX EMBRACING AN ACCOUNT
OF THE EXPEDITION, AND DIRECTIONS FOR
BECOMING AN EMIGRANT.

HALL J. KELLEY, A. M.

BOSTON:
PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY J. HOWE, MERCHANTS ROW.
SOLD BY LINCOLN & EDMANDS, 69, WASHINGTON STREET, OR
B. F. & C. WILLIAMS, 19 & 20, CORNHILL;
W. W. WHEILDON, CHARLESTOWN.
1831.
PREFACE.

The geographical character of the Oregon Territory was unknown, if we except some small tracts on the coast, till the exploration of Lewis and Clarke. Information derived from their account, from public documents, from personal interviews with intelligent voyagers and travellers, or from their journals, contributes chiefly to the following sketch, as well as to a more full history, to be published at some future day. The knowledge of navigators has been circumscribed within narrow limits on the coast; their objects in pursuits precluding the possibility of its being otherwise. That of hunters and travellers has been general and inland. As far however, as these persons were eye witnesses of the country, they are qualified justly to estimate its character. Some years of zealous and patient, if not indefatigable inquiry, have likewise qualified the writer to aid in its settlement and to promote generally a plan, the projectors of which avow as their purpose, to secure to themselves a greater repose and enjoyment of life; to meliorate the condition of the Indians, and to propagate among them, and the nations contiguous, the peaceful and refined principles of civilization, Christianity and civil polity.

The writer, fully conscious of his want of abilities to beautify his compositions with rhetorical embellishments, attempts nothing on this subject, transcendentally important, farther than to impress the public mind with simple and unadorned facts.

This sketch has been prepared for the benefit of the friends to the Oregon Colonization Society, as well as of those to mankind in general. To their indulgence he offers it, deeply sensible of its many imperfections. Some of its defects, however, are contingent. Not being possessed of that free and imperial command of words which is the peculiar felicity of a few; and the short time prescribed for the work precluding an opportunity for its thorough accomplishment, he has not been able to elucidate its subjects with
a clearness and elegance satisfactory to himself; nor has he succeeded in giving that minute and picturesque description of the rural scenes, of which the country is susceptible. He derives no merit from the execution of this little work. He does indeed, assume to himself a merit, in having a mind invulnerable to the attacks of calumny, and ardent in the investigation of truth; in having pursued the subject of these pages with a degree of enthusiasm, independence and patience important to its success.

The settlement of the Oregon country has been as long contemplated, as its paramount advantages in climate and soil, and its local opportunities for trade and commerce have been known. Some few, in different parts of the Union have for years made it an interesting subject of inquiry and solicitude; and have tasked themselves in the work of unfolding its history, and of securing its privileges to the citizens of the American Republic.

It is believed that the great philosopher and philanthropist Thomas Jefferson, in his career of useful labours to his country, and ardent desires to advance its glory and the happiness of mankind, first suggested the plan of colonizing the territory, which, through his patriotic designs, had been purchased and partially explored. In his day the period had not arrived for the execution of the purpose. Whoever will, at the present time, attentively observe the meliorating improvements and reforms in human affairs, survey the different sections of the earth, and notice their natural and comparative adaptation to the peaceful operations of civilized life, will be convinced that the time has fully come, in the order of Providence, when that uncultivated tract is to be changed into a fruitful field; that haunt of savages and wild beasts to be made the happy abode of refined and dignified man.

In relation to the advantages of the country, we are fully justified in the general remark that no portion of the globe presents a more fruitful soil, or a milder climate, or equal facilities for carrying into effect the great purposes of a free and enlightened nation.
A country so full of those natural means which best contribute to the comforts and conveniences of life, is worthy the occupancy of a people disposed to support a free representative government, and to establish civil, scientific and religious institutions, energized by the mild and vital principles of our Republic. Life in that country may be made easy with comparatively little effort; but it cannot be long sustained, anywhere, without some suffering and laborious industry. A place where the full sustenance of man is spontaneously produced, would not be desirable for a settlement; as it would encourage a propensity to idleness, and idleness is the soil in which vice can best flourish and produce its pestiferous fruit. To the project which the following sketch is designed to promote, ignorance, envy, and the sordid interests of self have arrayed themselves in opposition.

Ignorance and self, whenever a work beneficial to the community or to the public at large is proposed, becomes active and sometimes brutal. Then, more than at other times, they constitute the rot which weakens and wastes the foundations of free institutions. Hence it is needful that the friends of the Colony should possess a little of the active and vital principle of enthusiasm, that shields against disappointments and against the presumptive opinions and insults of others. Opposition has constantly attended, and sometimes with great injustice, every attempt made by the author of this sketch at public improvements. It oppugned his attempts some years ago, to benefit the youth of our country by a better system of moral and physical instruction, in the establishment of agricultural and mechanical institutions in this State. His zealous efforts, however, excited in others of abler talents correspondent intentions and labours, which resulted in some small benefit to our literary institutions.

He still ventures to think for himself; and to do what he deems it is his duty to do, without fear, palliation, or disguise. And having experienced, during many years of anxiety and labour upon the
Oregon Colonization subject, much contumely from the ignorant, and from the sordid misanthrope; and suffered the loss of a fortune fully adequate to the comfortable support of his family, a loss consequent of a devotedness ardently intense; he is excited to greater diligence, and to a zeal in some measure proportionate to the magnitude of the project.

Of the two Maps attached to this sketch, one is old, but answers the purpose of showing the position of Oregon, in relation to other countries on North America; and of marking out the track of a voyage by which emigrants may reach their destination in less than fifty days from the time of their embarcation. The voyage from Boston into Campeachy bay is generally less than twenty-five days. Over the isthmus, by means of carriages, would be less than two days. From Panama gulf to the entrance of the Columbia river is a voyage of about twenty days. The other Map is a representation of Oregon, made from the best authorities.

NOTATIONS.

The numerical figures are used for references from the description of an object in the book, to the representation of it on the map; for example the figure 1, under the head of Lewis' river, refers to Drewyer's river on the map.

= Two parallel lines drawn across the river indicate a fall.

\(\sim\) A crooked line across a river indicates a rapid.

\(\wedge\) Two sides of a triangle indicate an Indian village, and the figure included is the reference.
A SKETCH
OF THE NATURAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE
OREGON COUNTRY.

EXTENT AND BOUNDARY.

THIS country belongs to different and independent tribes of Indians, and is that part of North America which lies between latitudes 42 and 49 degrees N., and is bounded on the W. by the Pacific ocean, and on the E. by an indefinite line on the summit of the Rocky mountains. On the north it is about 400 miles, and on the south 580 miles in extent. It has about 420 miles of sea coast. The American Republic claims a right of sovereignty over this, and likewise over the country extending from this to 54° 40' N. latitude. The particular territory of which we propose some account, is called Oregon; because it was included within the Louisiana purchase, and because it is watered and beautified by a river which once bore the name of Oregon, but which is now more generally and properly called Columbia, after the name of the first American vessel that ever floated on its waters.

THE INDIAN TITLE.

Captain Kendrick, in the service of a company of gentlemen in Boston in the year 1791, bought of certain tribes of Indians inhabiting the coast of this country, a tract of their lands. With
this exception, if this exception is to be made, the title of the whole country, and the exclusive right of occupation remains invested in the aborigines. These rights to their native domain are paramount, and supported by a grant from the Creator of earth and man, and is in perfect accordance with justice and the best principles of common law and the human heart. They cannot be acquired by others but on those common principles, recognized in the transfer of freehold estate among all civilized nations. The right of purchasing any portion of their lands, seems to be a prerogative of that sovereignty justly claimed and exercised by some enlightened and free people. To take from them a part or the whole of their lands, without an adequate remuneration, on the ground that the improvements in human affairs and the good of mankind require it, is wrong and utterly unjustifiable.

Notwithstanding Indians differ from white men in the tincture of their skins, they nevertheless have natural rights like other members of the human family. They can buy, sell, and hold property, personal, real or mixed; and are wont to exercise these rights. As well might strangers rob them of their pelts and skins, as to take from them their forests and prairies.

Admitting the self-evident truth, that all men are born free and with equal rights; the claims which have been set up by different nations, to territory occupied from time immemorial solely by Indians, are deserving of no respect or support.

Spain, Russia, France, America and England, have each claimed the Oregon country; and if all of them have not likewise claimed the right of parcelling it out to their respective subjects, they have, that of conveying it to other nations. Spain sold it to France and quitclaimed it to America. France deeded it to America. Russia gave up all pretensions to the North West Coast south of 54° 40' N.

The noisy operations of the peaceful arts, and the busy scenes of refined life, please and delight the civilized man and seem essen-
tial to his existence; but to the Indians these things are ungrateful, and have no power to charm like the war song or dance, or the sports of the chase. Because of the disparity of these two natures, the untaught sons of God are doomed to suffer wrongs without hope of redress. They have been driven from their freeholds and obliged to seek a new resting place, in the solitude of a trackless forest. They have retired before the advancing tide of civilization; their numbers and tribes have decreased and their fortunes have declined. The fiat of power, alone, decreeing it.

No convenience or wants of the most improved and enlightened society can justify, upon Indians, aggressions, more unjust than their own retributive acts of cruelties.

The rights which England set up to this country, are predicated on idle and arrogant pretensions; nor is the claim made by America to a right of soil founded on a better tenure. The claim of the latter however, is made with plausibility, having some invested privileges involved in a clear right of sovereignty over the country, as will hereafter appear.

OBSERVATIONS UPON THE RIGHT OF SOVEREIGNTY OVER THE INDIAN TERRITORY.

In considering this subject it is necessary to ascertain what is meant by sovereignty, by its use and ultimate object. We understand sovereignty to be a supreme independent power, joined with wisdom and benevolence. It is directed and animated by the two latter, and ordained by the Author of all happiness, for the advantage and welfare of human society. Its principal object is to enforce the observation of the laws of nature.

If we well consider the actual state of things, the constitution of man, and the principle of his sociability, we shall find that the laws of nature form a perfect system of humanity; and that God, in them, imposes certain benevolent and social duties on individuals,
on communities, and on nations composed of communities. Man is formed for happiness. He strongly desires it. He is endowed with reason and sociability, and furnished with a thousand facilities whereby he attains it. In consequence of his weakness, ignorance, and wants he is provided with parents and governors, who are invested with authority and power to protect and cherish him in infancy, and to direct and sustain him in riper years. From this view of his being we more clearly discover the intention of the laws of nature, and draw from them a system of ethics, whose rules are in perfect harmony with those of divine revelation. To follow them is to obey the voice of reason and religion.

These laws pervade the universe. They encourage and support a commerce of mutual benefits among men, unite them in social covenants, meliorate their conditions and make life easy. By them, the white man and Indian have common rights to occupy the earth, to use its productions and to share mutually in the blessings of society. By them man is obligated to perfect his social state, and conform it to the excellence and perfection of the works of nature, where order and regularity, justly proportioned and balanced, preserve a general harmony and form a complete and beautiful whole; and evince the sovereignty of Him that made them.

The law of nature is perfect, and virtually the law of nations; its first maxim is, that individuals and nations shall live in a friendly intercourse, mutually benefitting each other.

As the perfections of man and society, and consequently nations, depend on a conformity to the law of nature and the intentions of the Creator, so the nations enjoying the highest favours of Providence, such as the benefits of civilization, Christianity and civil freedom, pursuant to the same law, are bound to show kindness to the rude and suffering tribes of Indians, and to relieve the wants of a people unconscious of their savage character, and ignorant of the conveniences and comforts derived from civilization, from the polite arts, and from all which diversify and adorn human life. Hence it
is the duty of enlightened nations, in obedience to the law of nature, to form the tastes, inclinations and habits of the untaught nations, for the enjoyment of those things which result in the prosperity and happiness of our species. From the above we infer that sovereignty over the Indians of Oregon, as well as over all others, necessarily devolves on some people more excellent and happy than themselves; on a people whose power is associated with wisdom and benevolence. It is therefore most clearly seen, among the functions of this sovereignty, to be a duty to protect the rights and to cherish the interests of the Indians. It matters not where sovereignty resides, whether in an individual as in England, or in the whole people, as in America, if it exerts itself for the good of the Indians. As a father should not retain his authority over his children, and leave them to entire independence, and consequently to perish, so neither this country nor England should retain a sovereignty over the Indians and not provide for their happiness—not take immediate measures to diffuse the benefits and blessings of civilization among them.

As it respects Oregon, both countries claim, and either is competent to hold a sovereignty over it.

In determining however, to which belongs the preference, regard must be paid to the circumstances of the first discovery.

THE FIRST DISCOVERY AND POSSESSION OF THE OREGON TERRITORY.

In order justly to determine the nation invested with the right of sovereignty over the Oregon country, it is necessary to inquire by whom it was first discovered, and what disposition has been made of the benefits of the discovery. After the immortal Columbus had found a new world of undiscovered countries, and had made plain a highway for adventurers to it, a spirit of discovery seemed to pervade the Spanish and Portuguese nations. The subjugation of the Mexican empire which followed gave a new spur, and additional facilities to their enterprises. Spain early commenced a series of
discoveries on the West Coast of America, most of which were unknown to other nations till after Capt. Cook’s voyages. In 1513 Balboa discovered the western side of the isthmus of Panama. In 1526 Cortes, the great conqueror of Mexico, discovered California. In 1540, the Viceroy of Mexico sent Vasquez on discoveries to the north. This person penetrated the interior as far as 40° North. Other important discoveries were made of the western shores of North America, in the following order:

Cabrillo in 1542; Francisco Gualli in 1582; John De Fuca in 1592; Sebastian Vizialiao in 1602; De Fonta in 1640; Capt. Perez in 1774; Heceta in 1775; these all were in the service of Spain, and all made discoveries on or near the coast of Oregon. Both De Fuca Straits, in latitude 48° 5’ N. and the Columbia, in latitude 48° 19’ N. were among the places discovered. This river was named on the Spanish charts, St. Roe. Captain James Cook, in 1778, on a voyage patronized by the English government, and the first voyage ever attempted by that nation, if we except that of Sir Francis Drake, who 200 years before had been in latitude 44° N. made a landing at Nootka, and thence sailed to the north west. Thus, between latitude 44° and 49° N., no English vessel had ever touched. This great navigator made search for the famed De Fuca straits, and not finding them, he noted in his journal, that the account given by De Fuca must be fabulous, that there could be no such straits.

Captain Cook made no discoveries south of 57° N. The history of his last voyage having been published in England, and the rich fur trade with the Indians on the North West Coast being known to the world, English, Spanish, American and Russian navigators thronged the coast. Invited by the great profits in this trade America, in 1787, commenced her discoveries, explorations and possessions, which gave her, aside of the purchase from France and the deed of Spain, a clear right to the Oregon country. Joseph Barrell, Crowel Hatch, Charles Bullfinch and others, all of Boston,
in 1787, planned a voyage of trade and discovery to the North West Coast. For this purpose they fitted out two vessels; one a ship of about 250 tons, called the Columbia Rediviva; the other a sloop of 100 tons, called the Washington. Captains John Kendrick and Robert Gray were appointed to the command of these vessels. They sailed on the first day of October, patronized by Congress and the State of Massachusetts. The Columbia arrived at Nootka on the 16th of September 1788. The Washington soon after. In 1789 Captain Gray entered the long lost straits of De Fuca, which he explored 60 miles into the interior. Before leaving the coast these vessels exchanged their masters. Don Estevan José Martinez, with two Spanish ships of war, arrived; and finding some British vessels under Portuguese colours, demanded the reason of their being in his Most Catholic Majesty's regions. They replied for wood and water. Had they not been conscious of trespassing on Spanish rights, they would not have appeared under false colours or dissembled their real objects. The Spanish subjects had maintained a settlement at this place for fifteen years.

The Columbia, after extending her voyage to Canton, returned to Boston. Again she sailed for the North West Coast, and on the 5th of June, 1791, entered Clayoquot, which place in the former voyage, was called Hancock's harbour. The Indian Chief, Cleshi-nah, informed Captain Gray that a Spanish vessel was then there, and that no British vessel had been seen since those captured. Captain Kendrick arrived at Clayoquot on the 29th of August, having bought of the natives their landed estates laying South 240 miles on the coast, paying them in muskets, iron, copper and clothing.

In March, 1792, Captain Gray left this place, and on the 11th of May, while sailing snug to the coast in latitude 46° 19' N. he discovered and entered one of the largest and most beautiful rivers in North America. He named it after his ship, Columbia. Vancouver, who was at this time at Nootka, receiving from Captain Gray information of this river, sent his first lieutenant to survey its mouth.
In 1803, the United States ordered an expedition under the command of Captains Meriwether Lewis and William Clark to explore, from its source to the ocean, this majestic river. They took formal possession of it, and built at its mouth Fort Clatsop.

We ought not to omit mentioning the possession and occupancy of the shores of the Columbia, by John Jacob Astor, a public spirited and enterprising merchant of the city of New York. He contemplated a permanent occupation of the country, and sent out in 1810 a company of one hundred and twenty men, well supplied with provisions and seeds of every kind. The following account of it is derived from a state paper:

"This little colony consisted of an hundred and twenty men when it arrived in the Columbia; and after ascertaining its soundings, they removed, some miles above Fort Clatsop, and built the town of Astoria, where a portion of them cultivated the soil whilst the others engaged in the fur trade with the natives. The soil was found to be rich and well adapted to the culture of all the useful vegetables found in any part of the United States; such as turnips, potatoes, onions, rye, wheat, melons of various kinds, cucumbers, and every species of peas. In the course of a year or two, it was believed their interest would be promoted by cultivating and securing the friendship and confidence of the tribes inhabiting the waters of that great river; to which end the town of Astoria was maintained by about thirty men, whilst the rest established themselves at five other points, to become fixed stations, to raise their own vegetables, trade with the natives, and receive supplies of merchandize from the general dépôt at Astoria, and to return to it the fruits of their labour. One of these subordinate establishments appears to have been at the mouth of Lewis’s river; one at Lantou; a third on the Columbia, six hundred miles from the ocean, at the confluence of the Wantana river; a fourth on the east fork of Lewis’s river, and the fifth on the Multnomah."
It is a fact, too notorious to be controverted, that England made no pretensions to rights in this country till about the commencement of the late American war with her, when she had fully discovered its vast resources of wealth, and its advantages, so valuable for the possession of an agricultural, a manufacturing and a commercial people. In 1739 she made a public recognition of the Spanish rights to it, and treated with that nation for certain privileges on the coast.

Mr. Burk, an English historian, in his account of the European settlements in America, written in 1761, acknowledges the right of Spain to all the known territory on the west side of North America. “The Spaniards, as they first discovered the Continent, have the largest and richest share in it. All that part of it which composes the isthmus of Mexico, and what lies beyond that, towards the river Mississippi on the east, the Pacific ocean to the West and Northwest; and they possess all South America excepting Brazil.” On a map attached to this work, “drawn from the best modern maps and charts, by Eman. Bowen, Geographer to his Majesty,” the Spanish possessions are laid down; they are made to extend to latitude 44° N. Above this latitude is written “parts undiscovered.” It follows of course, that England knew nothing of the territory laying between 42° and 49° N. latitude, and we have shown that the Spanish nation previous to this had discovered, by John De Fuca, the great inland sea or straits; and by another navigator the grand river of the west. The fact of which discovery is clearly established, there being a river called Saint Roc, corresponding to the Columbia, and in the same latitude, drawn on the Spanish charts of those times.

Capt. Mears, in his voyage of 1788, after having been disappointed in his search for this river, remarks, that “the name of Cape Disappointment was given to the promontory, and the bay obtained the title of Deception bay. By an indifferent meridian observation it lies in the lat. of 46° 10’ N. We can now with safety assert, that no such river as that of Saint Roc exists, as laid down in the Spanish
A S K E T C H  O F  T H E  G E O G R A P H Y  O F

charts; to those of Maurelle we made continual reference, but without deriving any information or assistance from them."

The Spanish nation, from motives of policy, kept for a long time from a knowledge of the world their discoveries in the western ocean. No clearer testimony need be deduced to the entire ignorance of the English concerning this country, than the circumstance of a river called Oregon, marked in a dotted line as unexplored, being laid down on Capt. Cook's chart, published in 1791 and made to enter into De Fuca straits.

Sufficient has been said to convince the candid that the English nation has no invested rights in this country; and that the American, by her own public acts in the country itself, has done enough to establish a claim to it paramount to that of any other nation but Spain, who quitclaimed to America, in 1819, all her rights and benefits derived from first discoveries.

The Louisiana country, whose western boundary should be identified with the shore of the Pacific ocean, was first the possession of France, by her ceded, in 1763, to Spain. This nation, by the treaty of St. Ildefonso, retroceded the same country to France; and France conveys it to America, in 1803, by the treaty of Paris. The United States will therefore, consummate her title to the territory when she has purchased it of the Indians, the lords and the rightful proprietors of the forest.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.

The country is generally uneven. The mountains are high and rough, and wholly unfeasible for cultivation. The hills within two hundred miles of the sea-coast are formed by gentle ascents, and are abundantly covered with forests of heavy timber. Those more remote are rugged and rocky, and sometimes sterile.

An undulating surface of territory, or a surface chiefly broken into hills and mountains is, in almost every consideration, preferable
to one that is level; because the former abounds with springs and rivers of pure water; consequently the air is more salubrious and the country better furnished with natural facilities for the application of labour. How much more valuable then, for settlement, in this respect, is the Oregon country than the Floridas, New Orleans, and much of the Texas tracts of earth, which exhibit one unvaried surface of champaign; where the water is only pure while falling from the clouds; where the stagnant pools and ponds charge the atmosphere with deathful miasmata. This putrid effluvia, generated in abundance from the slimy beds and borders of marshes laying under a vertical sun, adds more than one half to the bill of mortality.

The plains and prairies which intersperse the whole Oregon territory are extensive, and are verdant with grass and shrubbery of luxuriant growth.

The low lands are, for ten months in twelve, dressed in green; while here and there is seen a mountain, whose snow-clad towering top makes more agreeable the contrast, and displays in greater variety the beauteous landscape.

Much of the sea-shore is made of high irregular piles of rocks, which extend along the strand like a wall, rising in some places fifty and in others one hundred feet, in perpendicular projecting cliffs. It occasionally falls to a sandy beach. In such places, which are most frequent between the entrances of the Columbia river and De Fuca straits, the land, as it recedes gradually, rises to the summit level of the country.

Nearly the whole extent of shore south of the Columbia is compact and composed of bluff rocks, back of which, from 40 to 60 miles in width, the country is level or agreeably diversified with verdant hills, and appears like a continued forest, as far as the eye can reach.

The country east of mounts Baker and Ranier is not sufficiently known, to justify any description of it.
The climate between latitude 40° and 60° N. and on the western side of the Rocky Mountains, is remarkably mild; and Providence in this gift especially, has made Oregon the most favoured spot of His beneficence. If any part of this country is more salubrious in climate than another, it is the great plains at the foot of the mountains. These plains are less subject to rains, more remote from the sea, and better sheltered by stupendous mountains. Nevertheless it is warmer on the coast. The many lofty mountains situated in a high latitude, reflecting from their southern declivities the rays of the sun with the greatest effect, and protecting the country from the cold winds of the North and from the violence of the storms of the Southeast, greatly meliorate the atmosphere, and produce that surprising difference between the climates on the western and eastern sides of the American Continent.

The frost seldom appears till January, and then it is so slight as scarcely to freeze over a pond or still water, or to impede, on low grounds, the progress of vegetation. The oldest Indians have never known their bays entirely frozen over. During the winter, which is short and ends in February, two or three inches of snow occasionally fall; but the first meridian sun dissipates the white covering and makes more conspicuous the green. Mercury seldom falls to freezing point, and never below. It has been very justly remarked that the severity of the weather is better determined by the quantity of water that falls, than by its congelation. In the neighbourhood of the mouth of the Columbia, rains are frequent in the winter. They commence with the South-east winds about the first of December, and terminate the last of February, when benign Spring has made some advance "the singing of birds has come," and Nature dresses again in her loveliest garb. In April a mild summer heat obtains, shrubbery is in blossom, and vegetation proceeds briskly. In June all kinds of mild fruit are ripened, and weather delightfully pleasant succeeds.
THE OREGON COUNTRY

MOUNTAINS.

The mountains are numerous and peculiarly conspicuous and sublime, in the physical appearance of this country.

Besides the Rocky mountains and their western spurs, of which we shall take no particular notice in this short sketch, there are two ranges; each is broken into detached ridges; some laying parallel, and others oblique to a line of the coast. They rise to peaks of various heights and forms, the loftiest of which are clad with snow the whole year. The first range consists of low broken mountains, laying about 70 miles from the ocean, nearly N. W. and S. E. This range terminates a few miles north of the Columbia river.

The other range stretches through the whole territory, and is a continuation of the table lands of Mexico. Between 46° and 50° N. it is nearly parallel to, and 150 miles distant from the ocean. South of 46° N. it recedes from the ocean, and, in lat. 42°, is more than 300 miles distant from it.

The principal summits or peaks, are mounts Baker, Ranier, St. Helen, Hood, Jefferson and Olympus. These all but the latter rise from the last mentioned range.

Mount Olympus is in lat. 47° N. about 30 miles from the ocean. It is lofty and stands on a broad base of elevated hills, which descends to cliffs falling perpendicularly on a sandy beach, both on the side of De Fuca straits and the ocean. The sides of this mountain are mostly covered with trees, which have grown up between the rocks to a great size.

Mount Baker stands in a higher latitude, and about 20 miles east of the most eastern point of De Fuca straits. Its sides are formed of rude and huge piles of rocks, which seem to rise, in naked deformity, one above another. Its summit is covered with snow. On its southern extremity, rests Mount Ranier. This is not so high as Baker. It has more verdure on its sides and less snow on its top.
St. Helen is the most remarkable of all the mountains in Western America. It is situated amidst a fertile country, about 40 miles north of the Columbia river, and rises with a naked and bold front to a stupendous height. Its hoary head is lifted into regions of perpetual frost, above the sports of whirlwinds or the darts of vengeful lightnings. It stands Nature's erected beacon, and meets the view of the mariner, far remote upon the waters of the great deep.

Mount Hood, called by the Indians Timm, is in latitude 45° N. and about 50 miles south of the great falls of the Columbia. It rises in the form of a sugar loaf to a considerable height. Its top is destitute of trees and covered with snow.

Jefferson is in lat. 44°, and like the mountains St. Helen and Hood, is a regular cone. Its sides are thinly wooded, but its summit is apparently destitute of every thing but rocks and snow.

There is a mountain of considerable elevation, bearing S. E. about 50 miles distant from the junction of Clarke's and the Columbia river. This mountain having been first discovered by Lewis and Clarke, may, with just propriety, be called after them.

There are other mountains, identified among the most prominent features of the southern section of the country. Of these we shall not attempt a description.

Over-awed by the bold and majestic heights of these mountains, the surrounding hills seem to shrink into littleness, and to become less worthy of notice. However, we shall give some account of them, under the natural divisions into which the country is divided.

NATURAL DIVISIONS.

The Oregon territory is naturally divided into four districts, by lines running nearly parallel with the coast. Each district is from 50 to 200 miles in width.
Under these divisions, respectively, we shall take a more particular view of the physical appearance of the country.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AND SOIL.

I. The first district borders on the ocean, and is from fifty to seventy miles in width, and terminates about 30 miles north of the Columbia river.

It is generally uneven, and well wooded. That section of it north of the river is divided into lawns and plains, and high and steep hills, chiefly covered with trees of the pine and fir species. The bottom lands are almost impenetrable, by reason of under-growth and fallen timber.

Along the shores of the Columbia, the hills occasionally recede, and leave rich and extensive prairies, or thickly wooded plains. On the north of Baker's bay, and back of a wide spread beach, are a number of ponds usually filled with water-fowl; farther back is an extensive tract of low, open and marshy land, interspersed with copses of pine, spruce, alder, &c. It is said that on the hills at the head of Chennook river, in this neighbourhood, pine trees three or four feet through, are seen growing on the fallen trunks of others, which are in some degree sound.

The eastern border of this district consists of a broken range of low mountains, which in some places descend to hills, whose gentle declivities exhibit charming prospects of verdure, and spread into beautiful and extensive plains.

The river lands are sometimes low and marshy, but generally they are high and thickly covered with a heavy growth of timber. The lands on the coast are formed of hills and ravines, varied with plains and prairies.

Clark's Point of View is more than ten hundred feet high, and deserves to be classed among the mountains. The following is Lewis and Clark's account of it:
A SKETCH OF THE GEOGRAPHY OF

“We proceeded to the top of the mountain, the highest point of which is an open spot facing the ocean. It is situated about thirty miles south-east of Cape Disappointment, and projects nearly two and a half miles into the sea. Here one of the most delightful views in nature presents itself. Immediately in front is the ocean, which breaks with fury on the coast, against the highlands and irregular piles of rocks, which diversify the shore. To this boisterous scene the Columbia, with its tributary waters, widening into bays as it approaches the ocean and studded on both sides with the Chinook and Clatsop villages, forms a charming contrast; while immediately beneath our feet are stretched the rich prairies, enlivened by three beautiful streams, which conduct the eye to small lakes at the foot of the hills.”

There is no part of this district, excepting the mountains and sunken lands, which does not furnish a good soil and many local advantages for cultivation. This country is remarkably uneven. And it is the hills, next in importance to the soil, that render this country the most favourable to the convenience and comforts of an agricultural people, and to the increase of their species.

The soil on the high hills, both in the East and West sections of this district, is often thin and stony. It is likewise thin on most sandy plains; but a great depth of rich alluvial earth is found in the valleys. From one to two feet of mould may generally be found on low or level lands, which, from the great deluge, if not from the beginning of creation, have been thickly covered with heavy wood; the roots and trunks only of which, when decayed, must form a considerable depth of vegetable earth.

II. The second district includes the Multnomah valley, and most of the country between the Columbia and De Fuca straits. It is bounded on the West, by the first district and the ocean; and on the East by that range of mountains which crosses the Columbia, at the Grand rapids. It varies in breadth from 50 to 150 miles.
The mountains on the eastern side are principally composed of rocks, and are sometimes barren and naked on their sides.

There are in this district many rich and extensive plains, well timbered, and many prairies stretching out from the banks of the rivers.

Vancouver says of the country South of De Fuca, and bordering on the ocean, that "it presented a most luxuriant landscape. The more interior parts were somewhat elevated and agreeably diversified with hills, from which they gradually descended to the shore and terminated in a sandy beach. The whole had the appearance of a continued forest extending as far as the eye could reach."

About the straits there are some rocky and barren hills, which, however, abundantly atone for their unpleasant appearance by the many fine caves and bays they form; most of which are safe and commodious basins for sheltering vessels of any burthen.

Capt. Gray and Vancouver in 1792, made surveys of these straits. The latter, particularly, made an excursion into the country. He says, "the shores, on either side, are of a moderate height; that on the South is composed of low sandy cliff's falling upon beaches of sand and stone. From the top of these cliffy eminences, the land appears to take a further gentle ascent, and is entirely covered with trees, chiefly of the pine tribe, till the forest reaches a range of high craggy mountains. To the North-west was an extended meadow, bordered on one side by a coppice of pine trees and shrubs of various sorts, that seemed as if it had been planted for the sole purpose of protecting from the winds of that quarter this delightful spot, over which were scattered trees that would have puzzled the most ingenious designer of pleasure grounds to have arranged more agreeably."

Beacon Rock stands on the bed of the Columbia, at the foot of the Grand rapids, and rises to the great height of 700 feet above the water, and terminates in a peak.
Both banks of the river, for the distance of fifteen or twenty miles below the rock, are formed by high, steep and rocky hills, frequently presenting bold and stupendous precipices, covered with fir and white cedar. From these heights fall beautiful cascades. "A large creek descends from a perpendicular rock 300 feet, while other smaller streams precipitate themselves from a still greater elevation, and evaporating in a mist, again collect and form a second cascade before they reach the bottom of the rocks."

The whole breadth of this district, south of the Columbia for sixty miles, to a range of mountains, which crosses the Multnomah, exhibits one continued scene of forest and fertility. Beyond these mountains the country stretches into a vast level plain, destitute of timber.

That part of this district included between this range of mountains and the Columbia, is called the Multnomah valley; concerning which Lewis and Clark say that "it is a fertile and delightful country, shaded by thick groves of tall timber. The soil is rich and capable of any species of culture. The high lands are generally of a dark rich loam, not much injured by stones, and though waving, by no means too steep for cultivation."

It is the concurrent testimony of the many who have explored the country, both about De Fuca and the Columbia, that the top soil is a deep black mould; that the forests are heavy and extensive and the trees are of vast dimensions; and vegetation generally is luxuriant to a degree unknown in any other part of America; and we can add that there are physical causes to render the climate the most healthful in the world. The account which we have received of this section of the country is authenticated by a multitude of persons, whose respectability and intelligence entitle them to the fullest confidence.

The soil in the valley appears to be a black vegetable mould, incumbent on a sub-soil of clay and sand, and perhaps a portion of
alumine, of so close a compact as to form a hard-pan; this, like a bottom of clay alone, gives the soil above it a greater degree of fertility, and thereby better sustains the growth and health of vegetation. Indeed, trees are found here of that astonishing size to which nothing but a soil of great fecundity could give growth.

This valley is particularly designed, through the consent of its sovereign country, for the peaceful residence and possession of the contemplated Oregon Colony. In the choice of a tract of earth for the use of an industrious and agricultural people, it is desirable to find the hills covered with forests, and the plains and valleys fertile and naturally suited to cultivation. Vegetation on the latter is sheltered, and more certain. It is there protected from oblique winds, nourished by a rich soil, and warmed by a congenial heat, reflected from the sides of hills. Hills themselves make the best of wood-lands; trees on them grow to a larger size than on low lands, and the proprietor can more easily get from them his supply of fuel. To strip them entirely of their growth deteriorates the grounds below, and exposes them more to cold winds and destroying frosts; and withholds that fertilizing wash which the forest, from its decayed leaves and other putrescences, abundantly yields. In these respects this country will be found exactly accommodated to the interest of its future cultivators.

III. The third district succeeds the last mentioned on the East; and extends easterly about 200 miles, to the junction of Kooskooskee and Lewis rivers, and to the range of mountains which divide the waters of the Lewis, and the Multnomah. It is terminated on the South, at the point, where these mountains bound the second district on the East. It is extremely mountainous on the western border. Many of the ridges are high, broken and barren; nevertheless the scenes from them are often delightfully enlivened by beautiful cascades, falling down their heights and murmuring along rocky channels, through the deep forests that darken their sides.
Between the Grand rapids and the Great Falls, in the vicinity of the river, the hills are rocky and thinly wooded. Farther remote, both to the North and South, they are shaded with thick groves of tall timber. Beyond the falls, for a great distance, wood entirely disappears, excepting on the banks of creeks and rivers and on the bottoms spreading from them. These bottom lands are distinguished for being the resort of horses; and when found not too low, evince by their spontaneous productions their great fertility; and that they are capable of rewarding the labour of the husbandman with more than a comfortable subsistence.

The hills from the falls to Youmalolam river, are naked, and close both sides of the Columbia; in some places rising from the banks 200 or 300 feet, and presenting a perpendicular surface of black rock. From this to the great bend in the river, the hills retire to the distance of seven or eight miles, leaving low, level and rich plains.

The banks of the small rivers generally spread out into fertile meadows and plains, with uplands bordering on them, covered with trees as stately as can be found in any country.

From the foot of the great falls to the eastern boundary of this district, and through its whole length, the country is nearly one continued open and undulating plain, on whose vast surface, scarcely a single tree grows. Yet the soil is good, and abundantly productive; and the eye is refreshed with cheering prospects of a verdant covering of grass, and herds of animals, not unfrequently the horse, grazing or sporting upon the gentle sloping hills.

Contiguous to the confluence of the Lewis with the Columbia river, there is a plain about fifteen miles in extent, whose surface is a sandy and sterile soil, producing but little herbage of any kind. If in this district the eye, sometimes, glances upon a bed of naked rocks or barren sand, it is, on all quarters, attracted to delightful landscapes of hills and dales and verdure.
How the trees should have become exterminated, root, branch and seed, from places of great fertility, is not certainly known. There are however, many strong reasons to believe it the peculiar and habitual practice of the Indians, from time immemorial, in burning over the plains: First, for the purpose of an earlier and more luxuriant crop of grass, that animals sooner and in greater herds may be induced to visit these fertile pastures. Second, for the purpose of catching the antelope, buffalo, &c. In the dry season of the year, when the grass and shrubbery will best burn and the plains are filled with grazing animals, the native hunters construct snares in the defiles of the adjacent mountains. On the windward side they proceed to kindle fires. The affrighted animals flee to these defiles, and are there caught. Third, on occasions of jubilees, or of war, when it is necessary to assemble different tribes or distant parts of the same tribe; or of migration to some other part of the country. It is a practice of most all the tribes, west of the Rocky mountains, to seek in the fall a residence more suitable for winter quarters. Fourth, in order to bring fair weather. The Copunnish tribe set fire to the woods, in behalf of Lewis and Clark, to secure for their journey a more propitious sky. It is said by them that “the woods consisted chiefly of tall fir trees, with very numerous dried branches; the blaze was almost instantaneous, and as the flame mounted to the tops of the highest trees, resembled a splendid display of fire-works.”

IV. The fourth district extends to the eastern boundary of the Oregon country. It includes the whole western declivity of the Rocky mountains, and a tract lying at their base, 50 miles in width.

This tract is generally uneven and free from stones. It is extremely fertile, but not abundantly supplied with timber.

The lands in the vicinity of Kimoenim river, are composed of a dark rich loam. The hills are high and the bottoms are narrow, and furnish excellent pastures and the abundant productions of a good soil.
Lewis and Clark say, of the country along the foot of the mountains, that “for several hundred miles in length and about fifty in breadth, it is a high level plain, in all its parts extremely fertile, and in many places covered with a growth of tall pine. This plain is mostly interrupted near the streams of water, where the hills are steep and lofty; but the soil is good, being unincumbered by much stone and possessing more timber than the level country. Under the shelter of these hills the low lands along the margin of the rivers, though narrow and confined, are still fertile, and rarely inundated. Nearly the whole of this wide spread tract is covered with a profusion of grass and plants.”

There are three flats, called Quamash. One is situated on a river of the same name, near its entrance into Clark’s river. One at the head of the Copunnish, and the other at the junction of this river with the Kooskooskee. They are handsome plains, from one to four miles in extent, richly supplied with quamash,* an excellent root which largely contributes to the support of the Indians in that section of the country.

The whole valley of Clark’s river, which is from ten to fifteen miles wide, and stretches nearly to the summit of the mountains, is the best of land for cultivation, if we except a section of it in the North which is low, wet and cold. It is for the most part well watered and wooded, and is in some places beautifully diversified with open plains, and with streams of water pouring from the bold heights skirting on its West. The Cakalahishkit valley, about fifteen miles in length, is similar in the character of its soil, to Clark’s valley. It is called the Prairie of the Knobs, from the circumstance of the many knobs scattered over it.

Hot Spring valley is a fine plain, laying at the head of the N. Fork of Lewis river, and watered by Fish creek. It extends N. and S. about fifteen miles, and is thirty miles in length, and sur-

*Now called “camas.”
rounded on all sides by high mountains. The soil is exceedingly fertile, and produces for the natives a great supply of excellent roots and herbs.

The summit of the Rocky mountains is in most parts a cold, barren waste of uneven surface, profusely scattered over with bluff rocks, or for most of the year is covered with snow from ten to fifteen feet deep. The Oregon country, whether considered in the whole or in the parts, into which it has been here divided, must be acknowledged superior in mildness of climate to all others; and to be enriched with every variety of soil and to yield every species of production, which are necessary to prove it valuable for the purposes of an agricultural people. When therefore, a civilized and enlightened nation shall have introduced into this wilderness country the various business and benefits of science and art, and shall have cultivated with patient and faithful industry, the heritage of God, neglected by the savage and desolated by his indolence and sottish ignorance; when the enterprise of man shall have planted in it villages and towns; when his industry shall have caused its fields to wave, for his use, with the golden harvest; when nature, thus improved and embellished by art, shall yield to him its own beneficence and delights, then will it become the loveliest and most envied country on earth.

RIVERS, FALLS AND RAPIDS.

The Oregon country is well watered. Its rivers are numerous; some of them are large and navigable; nearly all of them unite their copious tributes to form the grand Columbia. This river is one of the largest in North America, and will become the most valuable on this continent; valuable because it is conveniently interspersed with extensive and fertile islands, and abounds with fish of the best kinds; valuable because it is in the centre of the commercial and trading world,—opens into a valuable country, connects every part of it by natural canals, and is navigable for vessels of large burden, all seasons of the year, free of ice or any other obstruction.
It is six miles wide at its mouth, yet a boy may bestride its principal source, at a distance less than 600 miles from the ocean. It traverses and waters by its numerous branches, the whole length and breadth of the Oregon territory. It commences in latitudes $41^\circ$ and $52^\circ$ N. from rippling rills which, thus remote from each other, hasten and murmur down the declivities of the Rocky mountains, each forming in its riotous course as beautiful cascades as ever attracted admiration. At the foot of the mountains different streams unite, and flow in broader channels; and arriving at the middle of the country, and breaking through the high lands by the confluence of their angry floods, they produce one of the most remarkable and sublime water-falls in nature. The Columbia, at the distance of 175 miles from the sea and near the foot of the Grand rapids, meets the tide-water. It here assumes a new character, and commences a new career. It meanders in slow, silent and majestic grandeur, through hills and forests and lawns; and having beautified and fertilized 250,000 square miles of territory, it is received into the bosom of its kindred ocean.

The mouth of this river is spacious and easy of ingress, affording good anchorage, and a number of safe and commodious harbours. Its entrance is by no means so difficult as was represented by the early and imperfect surveys of Vancouver.

There are flats or sand bars, which extend from Point Adams, on the South, nearly across the entrance; but over these flats there are no less than 20 feet water at low tide. The ship channel, which lies snug to Cape Disappointment, on the North, gives no less than 24 feet at low water.

It has been before observed that the tide sets up 175 miles. It rises, at Cape Disappointment, about 9 feet, and its reflux at this place is generally, in the spring, five or six knots per hour. The mouth of the river has been particularly surveyed by Capt. Joshua Nash, who has politely furnished the following directions for sailing
into and crossing the river for Fort George, or Astoria, which place is situated on the South side, about fourteen miles from the ocean.

**Directions for sailing into and crossing the Columbia River, for Fort George, or Astoria.**

"Bring Chenoke point to bear N. E. by E. at any distance, not less than 4 leagues, and steer for it, until Cape Disappointment bears North, then run for the eastern part of Cape D. and pass it at a ¼ of a mile distance, and when the southern part of it bears W. ½ S. you may steer nearly East, keeping Chenoke Point, a little open on the larboard bow; this will clear the Spit bank, and bring the ship into a fine channel of 6, 9, 12 and 13 fathoms, (should the wind be ahead, you may work up for Cape Disappointment, standing to the westward, until the Cape bears N. N. E. ¼ E. and to the eastward, until it bears N. ½ W. in a good channel,) when abreast of Chenoke Point haul in for Point Ellice, and pass it at ¼ cable's length, when you may bring it to bear S. ½ S. and steer E. by N. ½ N. until the Red Cliff bears N. W. ½ W.; then steer for the low land to the southward of Tongue Point, until two trees, which stand above the rest of the high woods to the South, are directly over the middle of three trees, that stand near the water between two red patches; then run for them until you shut a bluff point of sand upon the river, into Tongue Point; then steer for Fort George, till an old white stump, or withered tree, bears S. E. by S. ¼ S.; then haul in shore till two trees on the high land, to the N. E. shut just on to Tongue Point, and keep them so, and you may anchor at Fort George in 7 fathoms mud."

There are but few places that can be so easily and completely secured against the hostile attempts of an enemy. Let Cape Disappointment be fortified, and no enemy's vessel can pass, or having passed, can escape destruction; because, after passing the bar, to avoid the breakers, it is obliged to bear up directly to the cape, and come close in to the shore. Thus even a small battery erected on this point, in conjunction with the surges on the opposite side, would greatly endanger, if not effectually deter the approach of an invader, ever so bold or formidable; while kindness and fair dealing, better than fortifications or armies, would be a sufficient protection for the interior.

About 260 miles up this river, where it breaks through a range of high mountains, is a considerable fall. One mile and a half above this place the river is reduced from a breadth of one mile, to that of one hundred and fifty yards, and the channel is much divided by islands and choked by large rocks. The first perpendicular pitch is 20 feet; another soon succeeds, of eight feet. For a quarter of a
mile, including these pitches, where the river is only 70 yards wide, and its bed bestowed with tremendous rocks, the waters tumble and whirl and roar with the wildest agitation. Below this the river widens, and at the distance of two and a half miles it spreads into a wide basin. At the extremity of this basin, a high perpendicular rock extending from the northern shore and approaching within forty yards of a hill on the opposite bank, seems almost to stop the passage. Through this narrow, and no doubt deep channel, the waters of the Columbia force their way, and fall 38 feet. For three miles beyond this, the channel is from fifty to one hundred yards wide, worn into a solid rock, and continues to swell and boil with fearful rage. Below this place, which is called the Great Falls, about eighty miles, is another considerable fall, called the Grand Rapids. Here the river, by its banks of perpendicular rocks, is compressed within a space of one hundred and fifty yards; and the current, which falls about twenty feet in the course of four hundred yards, is much obstructed by the large rocks laying on its bed. One mile and a half farther is another rapid, nearly of the same character, where the river is as narrow, but has a less descent.

No full description can be given of the Columbia without considering its separate parts, those numerous tributaries, which so much enrich and adorn the fertile tracts they water.

N. 1.* The first river deserving notice is the Chinnook. It runs a circuitous and southerly course of thirty or forty miles, through a low country, and empties itself into Baker’s bay.

N. 2. There is a creek which opens into Baker’s bay, and communicates with a number of ponds, usually the resort of numerous water-fowl. It is three hundred yards wide, at high water.

S. 3. Netul is about thirty miles long, and runs into Meriwether bay. Lewis and Clark, three miles up its western bank, built

*The figure refers to the River on the Map; and the capital letter before it, shows the side of the main river, into which it enters.
Fort Clatsop, situated on a beautiful eminence, shaded by a thick grove of lofty pine.

S. 4. Kilhowanakil is the size of Netul, and runs parallel with it. It enters into the bay near Astoria.

S. 5. Kekemahke is a small river that enters the Columbia, a few miles East of Kilhowanakil.

N. 6. Orchards is larger than either of the former, and disembogues opposite Marshy islands.

No. 7. Coweliskee is a considerable river. It is one hundred and fifty yards wide, and navigable thirty or forty miles, for sloops. It rises in Mount Regnier, and discharges itself three miles above a remarkable high, rocky knoll, the southern side of which it washes in its course.

N. 8. Chawahnahooks, rises in Mount St. Helen, runs southerly about seventy miles. It discharges a great quantity of water; but the falls and rapids, a few miles above its mouth, entirely obstruct navigation.

S. 9. Multnomah river receives its name, as do many others, from the Indians. Its origin is from the union of two branches: one springing from a spur of the Rocky mountains in lat. 41° N.; the other issuing from Lake Timpanogos. It traverses about 500 miles through a country of extreme fertility, and empties itself into the Columbia, opposite Wappatoo island. The first part of the country through which it runs is level and open; but the last and much the greater part, is covered with the thickest and loftiest forests on the globe. This river is 500 yards wide, and furnishes five or six fathoms of water at its mouth. Excepting a sand bar immediately at its entrance, it is free of all obstructions to navigation, seventy miles, to a place where there are rapids and considerable falls. This navigable section of the river furnishes a number of delightful islands, and widens into bays, where ship-masters from the ocean might find secure and commodious harbours.
There are nine branches to the Multnomah. 1. Clackamus. 4. Callahpoewah. 8. Timpanogos.

N. 10. Seal river is eighty yards wide; it rises in St. Helen and discharges itself opposite Whitebrant island. It is very much obstructed with falls and rapids. Near its mouth it overflows its banks, and forms several large ponds.

S. 11. Quicksand river is nearly opposite Seal river, and extends to Mount Hood, a distance of forty miles. Although it is three hundred yards wide near its mouth, yet its channel is not over fifty yards, and six feet deep. The banks of the river are low and subject to being overflowed.

Below the Grand rapids there are three small streams which enter the Columbia on the North.

N. 15. Crusatte enters a little above the rapids. It has its source in St. Helen, and is sixty yards wide.

N. 16. Canoe is a deep, rapid creek, eighteen yards wide.

S. 17. Labieche rises near Mount Hood, brings in its current great quantities of quicksand, and enters the Columbia opposite Canoe creek; and four miles above a beautiful cascade, formed by a brook pitching over a precipice rock, one hundred feet high.

N. 18. Cataract derives its name from the numerous cataracts it produces. It is a considerable river, with a deep and rapid current.

S. 19. Quenett is a small stream, and enters immediately below the Great Falls.

S. 20. Towarnahookes disembogues above the falls, opposite a large island. It is two hundred yards wide, and contributes largely to the waters of the Columbia. It rises in the high lands, which give source to some of the branches of Lewis river; forty miles from its mouth it is joined by the Kieshowe, from Mount Jefferson; and fifteen miles further down it receives the Skimhoox, from Mount Hood. The country on its eastern bank is destitute of wood.
S. 21. *Lepage* is a shallow river, forty yards wide. Ten miles from this, up the Columbia, is a small stream on the South. Eight miles farther on the same side is another stream, neither of them is more than twelve yards wide. Four miles above the last is a brook, which falls in on the North.

S. 25. *Youmalolam* is a small river, about forty yards wide, running through a rocky tract of country, of a thin soil and destitute of wood.

S. 26. *Wallawollah* is a handsome stream of clear water, fifty yards wide, and six feet deep. It discharges itself twelve miles below *Lewis* river. The hills on both sides are steep and rocky, and covered with timber. Its bottoms are extremely fertile.

27. *Lewis* river has a vast number of sources issuing, everywhere, from the western side of the Rocky mountains, between latitudes 43° and 48° North. The South fork rises from the same section of mountains with the Multnomah, and with some of the waters of the Rio del Norte, La Platte, and Missouri; which rivers run into the Atlantic ocean. On this branch, besides a great number of difficult rapids, there is one fall of considerable magnitude. The North fork is through a region of huge rocks and lofty precipices. Twenty miles of its course is through a narrow channel, worn out of a mountain, where the rocks on either side rise perpendicularly, in some places one hundred, in others three hundred feet. This river, though three hundred yards wide and abundantly supplied with water, is for no considerable distance navigable for anything but small boats, its currents being rapid and much obstructed by rocks. It discharges its waters into the Columbia, about fifteen miles above the Great bend. The country over its western borders is open, and has the appearance of a rich soil; that on its eastern is generally uneven; the high lands are covered with timber and the bottoms with the productions of an exuberant fertility. This country, which constitutes a large part of the fourth district, has many advantages for a settlement, and is next in importance to the Multnomah.
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valley; it exhibits many delightful landscapes, of hills and dale and verdure, variegated with every charm which beauteous nature can offer.


N. 28. Tapteal is a large river, which rises in Mount Regnier, receives the Nocktock and Selatar from the North, and discharges itself into the Columbia seventeen miles above the mouth of the Lewis.

E. 29. Basket-pot is a small river about forty yards wide at its mouth.

W. 30. Wohnahahcha is a considerable river. It has a course N. E. 120 miles, and empties itself twenty miles above Basket-pot, on the opposite side.

E. 31. Clark's river rises in lat. 46° North. It takes some of its waters from the summit of the Rocky mountains, and after a route nearly in form of a semicircle, of 700 miles, and extending beyond the 49° of latitude, flows into the Columbia, one hundred and thirty miles above the mouth of Lewis' river. Some of the head branches of this river interlock with those of the Missouri. It is from a quarter to a half of a mile wide, the first fifty miles from its confluence with the Columbia; its channel is deep, and but a little obstructed by rapids; it waters a number of extensive valleys, some of which are not inferior in points of soil and charms of rural nature, to any other tract West of the Rocky mountains.

The principal branches of this river are:

1. Lautaw is about seventy-five miles long, and flows from Wayton lake. Twenty miles from the lake it makes considerable
falls; ten miles farther down it receives a small stream from the South. Ten miles still farther, it receives, on the North, a large river called Kihianim, which has a course of two hundred miles, parallel to, and thirty miles distant from Clark’s river.

3. Great Lake river is about sixty yards wide. It proceeds from a large lake, and flows into Clark’s river on the North.

6. Hohilpo has a course of fifty miles, nearly W. and enter Clark’s. 8. Inshepah is a small river, from the east. 10. Cokahlah-ishket, is separated by a range of low hills, about ten miles wide, from Dearborn’s river. For the distance of twenty miles these two rivers run nearly parallel, but in opposite courses. The water of the one finds its way into the Pacific; that of the other into the Atlantic ocean. 12. Travellers’ Rest is a small creek, one branch of which issues from a hot-spring.

The head branches of the Missouri, which interlock with those of the Columbia, are:

35. Wisdom; 36. Jefferson’s; 37. Madison’s; 39. Salt Fork; 40. Big River; 41. Maria’s; 42. Battle; 43. Tansey; 44. Medicine; 45. Dearborn’s; 46. Smith’s.

The principal rivers, which let into the sea.

21. Tacooche rises in lat. 54° North; and after a southerly course of three hundred and fifty miles, enters Birch bay, the eastern extremity of De Fuca straits. This river discharges a large body of water, and is navigable for vessels drawing twelve feet water, thirty miles to an obstruction by falls. At or near these falls the Hudson Bay Company have a trading settlement.

20. Caledonia is a small river which falls into Port Gardner, twenty miles South of Tacooche.

14. Queenhithe is a small river which enters a bay of the same name, about thirty miles South of Cape Flattery. It is remarkable
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for the massacre, in 1788, of a boat's crew of English sailors belonging to the ship *Imperial Eagle*.

11. *Gray's* river is about fifty yards wide, rises in Mount Olympus, and falls into Gray's harbour.

The next river on the coast, worthy of notice, beyond the Columbia, is

9. *Clatsop*, about twenty miles South of Point Adams. It is a beautiful river, with a bold, rapid current, eighty-five yards wide, and three feet deep in its shallowest soundings.

*Ecola* creek is thirty-five miles South of Point Adams.

8. *Killamuck* creek is twenty miles farther S. and is nearly as long as Clatsop river.

7. *Killamuck* river is a hundred yards wide, has no falls and no difficult rapids. It opens into Killamuck bay, ten miles South of the creek of the same name, and forms a communication, for a considerable Indian trade, with the Multnomah valley; there being a short portage from the head of this river, to the Multnomah.

There are other rivers, South of this point, emptying into the ocean; but not enough is known, to give them a name, or a particular description.

BAYS, HARBOURS, &C.

1. Berkley's Bay.  
2. Port Discovery.  
3. Hostility Bay.  
4. Classey Bay.  
5. Admiralty Inlet.  
6. Puget's Sound.  
7. Hood's Canal.  
8. Port Orchard.  
11. Port Gardner.  
12. Deception Passage.  
13. Strawberry Bay.  
15. Shoal-water Bay.  
16. Queenhithe Bay.  
17. Gray's Harbour.  
19. Meriwether Bay.  

De Fuca straits is in lat. 48° 34' North; and receives its name from Joan De Fuca, a Greek, who discovered it, A. D. 1592. This
noble entrance is twenty miles wide, and maintains nearly the same width and a course a little South of East, for the first sixty miles, when it narrows to about ten, at a place called New Dergeness;* where is found good anchorage as well as a good harbour. It extends about twenty miles farther, and then turns, nearly at right angles, on both sides; runs towards the Columbia river fifty miles, and north-westerly nearly two hundred, till it opens again into the ocean. The soundings are every where deep and free from stones.

*Port Discovery is situated near the north-westerly entrance of Admiralty Inlet, in lat. 48° 7' N. Its name was derived from the ship Discovery, commanded by Vancouver, who first explored it. It is a fine and commodious harbour, about eight miles deep, affording, from ten to fifty fathoms soundings, and a muddy bottom. The entrance is formed by two capes, which are low and opposite each other, extending in gentle descents from high woodland cliffs; leaving an opening of two and a half miles; directly in front of which is an island in the form of a crescent, presenting its concave side to the harbour. It is called Protection, from its convenient location for giving protection to the harbour; from this circumstance, as well as the general appearance of the island, which is open and verdant, variegated with a coppice of pinetrees, and richly bordered with shrubs and flowers all agreeably arranged, it seems to be the finished work of art, rather than of nature. It is the conviction of all who have witnessed its natural advantages, that the combined navies of the world, whatever be the tonnage of their ships, might sail through De Fuca straits, enter Port Discovery, and there moor, and find safety and comfort from the violence of winds and waves.

Berkley's bay is in lat. 49°, and derives its name from the British captain of the Imperial Eagle. It is extensive, and contains many islands, high and well wooded. Of the harbour, which is in the north-eastern part of the bay, and called Port Effingham, Capt. Meares says, that "it is sufficiently capacious to contain an hundred

*Dungeness is meant.
sail of ships, and so fortunately sheltered, as to secure them from any storm. The anchorage is also good, being soft mud.”

3. **Hostility** bay is on the northern, and 4. **Classet** bay on the southern side of the entrance of De Fuca straits. Both are exposed to the sea.

13. **Strawberry**, and 14. **Birch** bays, are both in the eastern part of the straits. The latter, at the entrance of Tacooche river.

15. **Shoal-water** bay is on the coast, and is made difficult of access by the breakers, which extend across its mouth. It has from five to fifteen feet soundings, over hard sand.

18. **Baker’s** bay is a capacious opening, extending from Cape Disappointment to Chennook Point, a distance of five miles; and is five miles deep. The eastern part of the bay is much exposed to the sea, but between the mouth of Chennook river and the back part of the cape, is found a sheltered harbour, with six fathoms water and good bottom.

19. **Meriwether** bay is a deep opening, on the South side of the river, about four miles across its mouth. It receives, besides a number of small creeks, the two rivers Netul and Kilhowanakel. The sand spits render it inaccessible to large vessels. Much of the shore is a sandy beach. The eastern part is beautifully covered with pebbles of every size and colour.

21. **Gray’s** bay, laying on the easterly side of Point Ellice, furnishes deeper soundings, better shelter, and generally greater advantages for a harbour; and has a more desirable site for a port, than can be found on either side of the two other bays.

20. **Killamuck** bay is on the coast, back of Cape Look-out, about sixty miles South of Point Adams. It receives at its head Killamuck river, where it is open, and much exposed to heavy breakers. The lower part, which is ten miles from its entrance, at the sea, offers a spacious, safe and convenient harbour for vessels of any burden.
It cannot be that the Oregon country, so advantageously situated for a commerce with the whole world; so richly provided with hills and mountains, giving health to the atmosphere; with a soil capable of yielding every needed comfort, and of sustaining to any extent, agricultural efforts; with natural canals running in every direction; with large rivers, supplying vast quantities of the best of fish and furs; and at the termination of their navigable currents, accommodated with mill and manufacturing privileges; with a sea coast, and with inlets, beautifully indented with bays and coves, safe and commodious for sheltering vessels of any burden, was made for no valuable end! These paramount advantages are indications, that the God of nature has designed it for the great purposes and operations of heaven-born man.

MINERALOGY.

No part of this country has been, as yet, explored with the particular view of ascertaining its metallic substances. And therefore it is not known what ores the hand of Nature has deposited, either in the plains or mountains. There are reasons however, for believing the country to possess its full proportion of the useful and precious metals.

Pure malleable lumps of copper ore have been seen in the possession of the Nootka Indians, received, as they say, in trade from the natives farther northward.

The Indians in all parts of the country make use of the oxide of lead, a kind of coarse red paint. They likewise use a black pigment in painting their bodies. Over this paint they strew a glittering sand, or pulverized rock, which contains particles of gold. The Indians collect it from a bed of rock, of a whitish colour, at the bottom of a small river. Gold is sometimes found in an aggregate opaque mass of this colour, and until reduced to a powder makes no ostentation of its riches. Too often have gold mines disappointed the hopes and ruined the fortunes of those engaged in them, both
individuals and nations. It is much to be desired that mines of this precious metal, in Oregon, may only be found in manufacturing buildings, store-houses, and in the cultivation of a rich soil.

The Spaniards, in 1789, opened a mine on an island in Nootka sound. The miners were kept constantly at work for some time, and no one suffered to approach the island but the soldiers ordered to guard it.

Fossil coal, of an excellent quality, has been brought down the Columbia and exhibited at Astoria, by the Indians. It is probably found in the neighbourhood of Kooskooskee river.

There is an extensive bed of clay between Cape Disappointment and the entrance of Chennook river. There is also a vast bed of porcelain earth, near Clark’s Point of View; the quality is not known, no analysis or experiment ever having been made of it. Marrow-stone prevails about Port Discovery.

The yellowish white earth, so common at the mouth of the Columbia, is supposed to be clay marle, a fertilizing substance of much more benefit to an agricultural people than a mountain of precious and shining mineral.

Free stone, in large quarries, is found at the head of Clark’s river. Brown flint stone and sand stone are found near the Great Falls. Travellers believe that beds of pure lime stone exist, in different places, on the banks of the Columbia. The second and fourth districts furnish strong indications of this valuable material.

MINERAL SPRINGS.

Springs of this description are found in various parts of the country. The hot springs, on the North side of Traveller’s Rest creek, issue from the interstices of a gray free-stone rock, constituting the base of a hill. The Indians have constructed a dam across the run of one of these springs, so as to form a bath, which
those in the vicinity are in the constant habit of using. Lewis and Clark represent the warmth of the hottest, to be equal to that of the hottest spring in Virginia.

In a beautiful open plain, on Wisdom river, is another hot spring. "Its bed is fifteen yards in circumference, and composed of loose, hard stone, through which the water boils in great quantities. It is impregnated with sulphur, and so hot that a piece of meat, the size of three fingers, was completely cooked in twenty-five minutes."

**THE CHIEF ISLANDS IN DE FUCA STRAITS.**

*Vancouver's Island* extends from De Fuca straits nearly two hundred miles northwesterly, and constitutes the principal part of the northern Archipelago, discovered by De Fonta in 1649. A small part only of this great island is included in the territory called Oregon. It has many fine harbours. Nootka sound is the principal. The land is low and fertile, covered with heavy forests, and plentifully supplied with small streams of water.

*Strawberry* and *Whidbey's* islands are situated at the eastern extremity of the straits. About five miles West of the latter, is *Protection* island, laying in front of a large bay called Port Discovery. No engineer could have planned a better location of an island, for the purpose of protection. It is between two and three miles in extent, and a convenient distance from either shore. Salubrity of situation and natural advantages for security, tend to make Port Discovery a desirable place for a harbour and a port of entry.

*Passage* and *Anvil* islands lie in Howe's Sound, back of Vancouver's island.

*Orchard* island is in Admiralty Inlet, South of Whidbey's island.

*Tatooche's* island is situated two miles from the land, forming the southern entrance of De Fuca straits. It is two miles in circuit,
and exhibits a barren, uncultivated surface. It is connected to the main land by a ledge of rocks, over which the sea breaks with great violence.

*Duncan's Rock* is about one mile N. E. leaving a clear ship channel between. This remarkable rock is in the form of an obelisk, of considerable height.

*Destruction* island is in lat. $47^\circ 37'$ N. It is low and flat, about one mile in diameter and two miles from the main land. It has no wood and presents a barren aspect. This, although small, is the largest parcel of detached land on the coast of Oregon.

**ISLANDS IN THE COLUMBIA RIVER.**

*Seal Islands*, about eighteen miles from Port Adams, are low and marshy. On one of them the Indians deposit their dead. They are placed in canoes raised on scaffolds above the tides.

*Fanny's Island* is opposite a fine grove of white oak trees, three miles below the entrance of Cowelikee river.

About ten miles below the entrance of the Chawahnahooks is *Elalah* or *Deer* Island, nine miles long and four wide. It is bordered on all sides with cotton-wood, ash, &c. while the interior consists of prairies interspersed with ponds; these afford refuge to geese, swans, canvas-back and mallard ducks, and sand-hill cranes.

The *Wappatoo* Island is situated at the mouth of the Multnomah. It is a large tract of land twenty miles long, and from five to ten wide, rich in soil and of a good elevation. It takes its name, from the wappatoo root, which it produces in great abundance, and at all seasons of the year. This excellent root grows in all the ponds on this island. The Indian women generally collect it by going into the water as high as the breast, if that depth is required; and by means of their toes, separate the bulb or part wanted, from the main root. It then rises, and is thrown into the canoe.
**Image Canoe Islands** are three in number, nearly connected, and extend along the river nine miles; the lower end is near the entrance of the Multnomah.

**Diamond Island** is a few miles farther up. It is six miles long, three in width, thinly covered with timber, and has a number of ponds scattered over it.

**Whitebrant Island** is about a half of a mile above Diamond. It extends three miles, to a point near the entrance of Seal river. It is rocky at its upper end, and has considerable timber on its shores. There are small ponds in the interior.

**Strawberry Island** is immediately above Beacon rock, which is insulated from it only at high tide. This island is three miles in length and about one in width. It is high and open; the land is rich and covered with grass, and a profusion of strawberry vines. It bears the appearance of having once been in a state of cultivation. To this succeeds Brant island, at the distance of a quarter of a mile up the river. It is smaller than the last described, and is similar to it in appearance.

Three miles below Cataract river, and in the middle of the Columbia, are three large rocks; the middle one is called **Sepulchre rock**. It is the largest, and has a flat surface of two acres, on which are scattered thirteen square vaults; in these the Shackshops tribe of Indians deposit their dead.

**Capes and Points.**

The points **Atkins, Gray** and **Roberts** are situated in De Fuca straits, northerly from the mouth of Tatoosh river. Point **Francis** is between this river and Bellingham bay. Point **Hanson** makes the eastern entrance of Port Discovery. Point **Wilson** is about five miles S. E. of Hanson.

**New Dungeness** takes its name from the circumstance of its near resemblance to Dungeness, in the British Channel. It lies sixty

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miles from the entrance of the straits, on the southerly side. It forms on the East a harbour, well sheltered, with good anchorage ground.

Cape *Beal*, in lat. 48° 50′ N. forms the headland on the southerly side of Berkley’s sound.

Cape *Classet* is made by a rock projecting into the entrance of the straits. Near to this, and Tatoочe island, on the South, is Cape *Flattery*, a headland, in lat. 48° 24′ North.

*Flattery rocks* are about fifteen miles South of the cape. They consist of five or six large rocks elevated above the water. The sea breaks around them with great violence.

Point *Grenville* is a considerable extent of bluff land, running into the sea, ten or fifteen miles northerly of Gray’s harbour.

Capes *Brown* and *Hanson* are the two opposite points of land which make the entrance of Gray’s harbour. The great violence of the breakers renders Cape Brown, on the North side, almost inaccessible.

Cape *Shoalwater* is a headland, high and bluff, forming the southerly entrance of Shoalwater bay.

Cape *Disappointment* lies on the North side of the entrance of the Columbia river. It received its name from Capt. Meares, who in 1788 was disappointed in his search for the river Saint Roc, as laid down on the Spanish charts. The cape is formed by a circular hill of steep ascent, one hundred and fifty feet high and covered with a heavy growth of wood, excepting on the side facing the sea, where it is bare of trees but verdant with grass. There is a sand bank extending from the cape about two miles, in a W. S. W. direction.

*Point Adams* forms the South side of the river. It is a low projection of land, bearing S. E. about seven miles from the cape, and thinly wooded. From it sand banks extend within one mile of the cape, and inside of the bank, which runs out from the cape.
Chinnook Point is on the easterly side of Baker's bay, about five miles from Cape Disappointment. It is formed by a remarkable hill, which has an open patch of ground on its southerly side. There is good anchorage in eight fathoms above this point.

Tongue Point is about fifteen miles above Point Adams, on the same side of the river.

Point William is about seven miles above Point Adams, and is formed by the low termination of a peninsula, about four miles in circuit, and connected to the main land by an isthmus 30 yards wide.

Port Samuel is farther up on the same side of the river.

Cape Lookout forms the southerly entrance of Killamuck bay. It is bluff and high and terminates abruptly. About two miles distant from the cape there are three remarkable rocks, conspicuously situated in the water. The middle one has a hole like an archway through its centre.

Cape Foulweather in lat. 44° 49' N. is a conspicuous promontory, projecting abruptly into the sea; it is remarkable for a high hill, with a flat summit.

Cape Perpetua in lat. 44° 12', is a high, rocky promontory. A river of considerable magnitude lets into a bay, north of this cape.

Cape Gregory, in lat. 43° 23' N. is formed by a round and steep hill. On the northerly side are high and white cliffs which, at the distance of four miles, terminate in a white sandy beach.

Cape Orford, in lat. 42° 52', is formed by low land, extending from a high rocky coast, and terminating in a low perpendicular cliff. It is covered with wood to the very margin of the water.

FORESTS AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.

This country appears from the coast like an immense, impenetrable forest. Every where within one hundred and fifty miles of
the ocean, both the high and bottom lands are covered with thick woods, and are supplied with great quantities of timber. Concerning it Capt. Meares observes, “that it abounds with timber for masts and spars, and for ship-building generally, the finest in the world.” Of the parts nearest the coast, he says; “the appearance of the land was wild in the extreme; immense forests covered the whole of it, within our sight, down to the very beach.” The principal growth in the two first districts, which terminate on the East at the Grand rapids, are pine, fir, spruce, black alder, white cedar, beech, birch, maple, oak, hemlock, and cottonwood. The woods are interspersed with many other trees of smaller size, such as the crab-apple, laurel, &c. and very much choked with undergrowth. Among the last is redwood, which chiefly prevails about the Coweleksie river.

Beyond the Grand rapids the growth is found more and more thin, and the trees smaller till at the Great falls, they disappear from the face of the country.

**FOREST TREES.**

Trees most frequent, near the coast, are of the fir species. Of the several species of the pine there is one which grows to an astonishing size. Lewis and Clark say “it is very commonly twenty-seven feet in circumference, six feet above the earth’s surface; and rises to the height of two hundred and thirty feet; one hundred and twenty of that height without a limb. We have often found them thirty-six feet in circumference. One of our party measured one, and found it to be forty-two feet in circumference, at a point beyond the reach of an ordinary man. This trunk, for the distance of two hundred feet, was destitute of limbs. At a moderate calculation its height may be estimated at three hundred feet. The timber is* throughout and rives better than any other species; the bark scales off in flakes irregularly round, and of a reddish brown colour, particularly the younger growth: the trunk is simple, branching, and not very prolificous.”

*Here a word is missing in the original.
Much of the covering of the highlands along the coast, is the lofty pine. This, above described is sometimes called, *1. Spruce Pine, and is the largest of the species. Capt. J. Sturgis measured a tree of this species, and found it thirty-six feet in circumference at a point twenty-five feet from the ground. II. The common White Pine measures over two hundred feet in height. IV. The Yellow and Pitch Pine differ from those in the United States, only in size.

III, IV. The Long-leaf Pine is similar in some respects to the yellow pine. It bears a fruit resembling in size and shape the seed of a sunflower; this fruit the natives use for food. It is almost the only growth in some parts of the third district.

IV. The Dwarf Pine resembles in appearance the pitch-pine, and is from ten to twelve feet high.

I, IV. Of the Fir, there are several species. The first is the most common, and forms nearly one half of the growth near the coast. It resembles the spruce. The trunk is straight, round and tapering, and from four to six feet in diameter. The wood is white, soft, and difficult to rive. The second is the common balsam fir, and rises to the height of one hundred feet. The wood is white and soft, and yields a fine aromatic balsam. The third resembles the first. It differs most in its foliage. It yields no balsam: the wood is porous. I. The fourth differs but in a few points, from the third; the outer wood, for one third of the diameter of the trunk, is white and tough; the remainder is a brown colour. It is frequent on low lands, where its size is not so great, and its branches are more diffusive. II. The Elm is found in the Multnomah valley and about De Fuca straits.

II. Of the Oak there are three species. The White Oak is found in all parts of the country. Its groves form a considerable part of the woodlands on both sides of the range of mountains which

*The numeral prefixed to the name, refers to the district in which the tree prevails.
crosses the Columbia near the Coweliskee river. This useful timber is likewise found in the neighbourhoods of Admiralty Inlet and the Multnomah river. It is harder than the white ash of New England. The Yellow and Red Oak are frequent in the second and fourth districts.

I, II. Of the Spruce there are two varieties, which are abundant on bottom lands. Within sixty miles of the coast they grow to a great height. Lewis and Clark measured one in the Multnomah valley which had fallen down, and found it to be three hundred and eighteen feet in length. They are extremely hard, and would answer most of the purposes of the dock-yard.

I, II, IV. Cottonwood is the largest tree on the Western Continent. It resembles the ash, except in its leaf and size. It is a light, soft and porous wood. It often attains the diameter of twelve feet, and is found in most of the timbered parts of the country. It makes a conspicuous appearance in the wet and stony section of the valley of Clark's river, where nothing but rose-bushes, honey-suckle, willow and redwood are found its neighbours.

I, II, IV. Beech, Birch, Red and White Cedar and Crab-apple are common on dry lands. The wood of the latter is excessively hard; the natives make wedges of it, for the purpose of splitting wood and hollowing out canoes.

I, II. Hemlock, White, Brown and Brown-leaf Ash, Black and White Alder, are frequent on moist lands. The black alder often grows to the astonishing height of seventy feet, with a diameter of three or four; whereas in the New England States, its diameter rarely exceeds six inches.

II, IV. White and Sugar Maple intersperse the woods; the latter is scarce within thirty miles of the ocean.

I. Dogwood abounds on the uplands. Its trunk is frequently eighteen inches through.
There are a great number of trees which we cannot here notice. Every species and variety of trees found in the United States are, likewise, found in Oregon. In the latter country they grow to a greater size, and the wood is harder. There are some trees found in that country, not known elsewhere. Lewis and Clark described a tree common to the Columbia river, below the cataract, that when divested of its foliage resembles the ash. Its leaves resemble those of the palm. The trunk is three feet in diameter. The wood is hard and the seed is winged like that of the maple.

There is another tree growing in some part of the country, resembling the white maple. It grows in clusters, and is seldom more than six inches in diameter.

John Hoskins, Esq. describes a tree, found about De Fuca straits, which the natives call Wetap; the leaf resembles that of the hemlock; the bark is a deep crimson; the wood is much like redwood, and nearly of the specific gravity of lignumvitæ.

UNDERGROWTH AND SHRUBBERY.

The undergrowth and shrubbery, which choke the woods, skirt the prairies, and ornament and imbower the banks of rivers, are chiefly laurel, filberts, redwood, seven-bark, a species of low alder, whortleberry; sweet, red and broad-leaf willow; low; three varieties of honeysuckle; common, vining and white berry; two species of mountain holly; elder, fern, green briar of many peculiarities, sweet-briar, two species of sumach, red and white roses, damask-red rose, of which there are two species, both quinquepetalous, and with stems alike: one of them has a large leaf, and an apex three times the size of a common wild rose. Columbine, red flowering currants, black, purple and yellow-currants, purple haw, crimson haw, large leafed thorn, gooseberry, blueberry, blackberry, serviceberry, mulberry, mulberry-leafed raspberry, chokeberry; a bush called yahma, whose leaves resemble those of the orange, but of a darker shining green, with a berry, black, of the size of a green pea, and of a deli-
A SKETCH OF THE GEOGRAPHY OF

cious flavour: another shrub, whose berry is the size of a thimbleberry; it has an agreeable flavour, and is so extremely delicate that a shower of rain washes it entirely away. Cesinnuah, a bush with a small light green leaf, somewhat similar to that of the barberry bush; it bears a scarlet berry twice as large as a currant, and of a most delicate and agreeable taste.

The same infinitude of plants grow about the Indian villages, as are found in the United States. On the prairies and open plains there are every kind and variety of grasses. Among the different species of clover there is one with a small leaf and a pale blossom, much relished by grazing animals. There is another species of grass, with a succulent leaf, nearly as broad as the flag; this is a favourite food for horses; it is confined to the mountains where likewise grows bear-grass, which preserves its verdure through the coldest winters.

The bottom lands and marshes, in the first and fourth districts, furnish redwood, ginseng, snake-root, pashequaw, liquorice, which the natives call sheetlah, shanataque, onions called quanoose, strawberries, shallun, wappatoo, cinquefoil, quamash, lilies, &c. Berries and esculent roots grow everywhere in the greatest profusion.

That part of the vegetable kingdom which furnishes roots, as food for the Indians, consists, in part of thistle, fern, rush, liquorice, and small roots cylindrical in form;—of two different plants, the one resembling in flavour the sweet-potato, the other is bitter, and when boiled, is eaten with train oil, which is a substitute for butter;—of wappatoo, a bulbous root of the arrowhead plant, (sagita-folia) and is much cultivated by the Chinese. This is the most valuable of all roots used by Indians, and constitutes a staple article of trade with distant tribes. It grows exclusively in the beautiful and fertile valley of the Multnomah;—of a root resembling the pawpaw, and bearing a berry of a deep purple green;—of the quamash, a root much esteemed by the Indians. It is found only on the quamash flats, in the fourth district;—of the cows, [?] which
are produced on the same flats with quamash;—of a small tuberous root which is two inches long, and as thick as a man’s finger, when eaten raw it is crisp and milky, and of a pleasant flavour. The potato is the only root not indigenous, used by the Indians; of this considerable crops are raised at the mouth of the Columbia river.

Among the most choice berries, used by the natives are shallun, solme, cranberry, the berry of the sacacommis; a deep purple berry like the whortleberry. These are dried and pounded, and generally made into a kind of bread.

The reader is favourably and justly impressed with the advantages of Oregon, from a survey of its vegetable productions, which are abundant and excellent of their kind. Their exuberant growth, the mildness of the climate and fertility of soil, very much favour, if not incontrovertibly establish the opinion, that whatever is exotick, whether tree, plant, or vegetable of any kind, that may be introduced, will succeed, under the hand of the cultivator, and richly reward his labour.

All who have explored the country, and witnessed the natural stores of its fertile soil, have been astonished that a tract so valuable should have been so long overlooked, and when it was first known to a civilized and commercial nation, that it was not immediately occupied. It is believed however, that the time is not far off when Oregon will be the happy residence of a great and prosperous nation and will enrich the world with the productions of her soil and labour.

ZOOLOGY.

The forests of Oregon are replete with aboriginal animals. They are in general of the same species as those in Canada and the United States. No mention however, will here be made of any which have not been seen by voyagers or travellers, or by them known to exist.
The noble and generous Horse, both in a wild and domestic state, is found in the third and fourth districts of the country. The Shoshonee, Choppi.mish, and Sokulk Indians possess great numbers, and make all their national wealth to consist in them. They appear to be of excellent blood; lofty, active, of elegant form. Some of them would suffer nothing in comparison with the best English coursers. They are sometimes of a dark brown bay, irregularly spotted with white. They are generally of a uniform colour, marked with stars and white feet.

Cattle are found in the southern part of Oregon, near Mexico, (sic) from which they probably emigrated. Horned cattle were not known in America till after the conquest of that country. They now, in a wild state, graze and browse upon a thousand hills.

The Metamelth, or Mule Deer, are the largest of the deer kind.

The Moose Deer are extremely large, with branching horns.

The Red Deer are similar to those in the United States. They flee their pursuers with great speed and wind. On open ground they will out run and tire down the best horse the Indians can put on the chase.

The Black-tailed Fallow Deer are a distinct species, and peculiar to the sea coast. They sometimes inhabit the wood lands, but more frequently the prairies. The ears of this animal are longer,
and their winter coat darker, than those of the common deer. The tail is of the same length; the hair on its under side is white; on the other sides it is a jetty black.

The *Buffalo* inhabit only the fourth district. They generally prefer a mountainous country.

When Lewis and Clark were crossing the Rocky Mountains, near Medicine river, the buff'alo were congregating to emigrate southward; their numbers within the circuit of two miles, were computed to be not less than ten thousand.

The *Elk* prefer the sea coast, and are seldom found as far remote as the Rocky mountains.

The *Antelope* are abundant in the third district. The Indians, mounted on horses, pursue them on the open plains and shoot them with arrows. Their meat is superior to that of the deer; their skins are made into robes.

*Bears* are plenty on the Rocky mountains, where they are fierce in their natures, and have terrible battles with the natives, on whose rights they sometimes encroach; but make ample satisfaction in their skins, which contribute to the Indian war dress.

The *Brown Bear* seems to be of the same species with the white bear, differing chiefly in an accidental variation of colour. Though bears have their dens in mountains, they often roam to distant parts of the country, and are frequently found on the borders of plains, in copses of undergrowth, and in thickets near water courses. The brown bear is the strongest, most fierce and determined of the family, and is rarely found near the coast. The Indians make but two species of bears. The white and brown constitute the first, which they call *hohhost*. The black bear is the second species, called *yackah*.

The *Black Bear* is sometimes seen in the first district; he is much less formidable in his attacks than the white or brown bear. He differs from the two latter in being smaller; having shorter
tusks, shorter, as well as smaller talons, and preying less on other animals. He climbs trees, a thing which the white or brown bear never does, however closely pursued by hunters.

The Brown Wolf inhabits woody tracts, near the ocean and on the mountains. They are by no means abundant in this country.

The Wolf of the plains is found only in the open country; he is smaller and less ferocious than the brown wolf.

The Tiger Cat inhabits the first and second districts, and is some larger than the wild cat. His back, neck and sides are of a reddish brown colour, variegated with spots of dark brown; his tail is but two inches long, nearly white, and terminates abruptly, as if amputated; his belly is white, beautifully spotted black; his back is marked transversely with black stripes; his hair is long and fine, and the skin is highly valued by the natives.

The Black Fox or Fisher, as he is sometimes called, is a jetty black, excepting the breast, on which there is a small white spot. He is extremely active in climbing, and can bound from branch to branch, from tree to tree, in pursuit of the squirrel or other game, with great ease. This, with the beautiful Silver Gray Fox, inhabits the woody country bordering on the coast.

The Yellow Fox has long, soft and very beautiful fur. The natives far to the north, aware that foxes and bears have a keen scent, decoy them by burning fish, or other oleaginous matter.

Sheep are found in all the mountainous parts of the country. They are very abundant in the timbered heights and cliffs near the coast; they differ mostly from the common domestic sheep of the United States in their wool, which is shorter, that on their backs coarser, and on their heads it is intermixed with straight long hair.

The Mountain Sheep are found on the summit of the Rocky mountains, seem to be a distinct species. They are of the size of a large deer, have winding horns like a ram; their wool is coarser than
the other sheep. They are in great abundance in the northern regions, about Prince William's Sound and Cook's river.

The Braro is a small animal resembling the badger of New-England; it is found in the first district.

The Beaver is found about the bays, ponds and rivers of this country. Its fur being more valuable than that of most other animals, it has been sought for with greater avidity till it has become almost extinct. It is hoped that government will extend a protecting arm over her rights in this country, and cause to be suspended, if possible, for a term of years, the further hunting of these animals.

Seal are vastly plenty on the coast, and up the Columbia, as far as the Great Falls.

The Sea Otter is never found out of sea or salt water, and never below the thirtieth degree of N. lat. He frequents the N. W. coast, the coasts of Japan, China and Corea. This animal when fully grown, is six feet long from the nose to the end of the tail; the tail is ten inches long; the legs are short, the feet have five toes on each, which are broad and webbed. He is furnished with powerful weapons of offence and destruction: his fore paws possess great strength; his mouth contains most formidable rows of teeth, superior to any other marine carnivorous animal, except the shark. His fur is of extreme fineness, and unrivalled for softness, richness and beauty. It is perfectly black at first sight, but when opened it is lighter. When the coarse shining black hairs are plucked off, the lower fur appears of a beautiful velvet brown. The great abundance of this animal on the American coast, occasion its being caught in greater plenty by the natives, who are supplied not only with what they esteem delicious food, but a comfortable protection against the severity of the winters.

The Ermine is of a yellowish colour, and does not possess that clear and beautiful white colour, common to the royal ermine, in more northern regions.
The Marten are of two kinds, one similar to that in New-England, the other has so coarse a fur as to be in little or no estimation.

The Dog is the size of an ordinary cur; he is usually parti-coloured; the head is long, the nose sharp, the ears erect and pointed; the hair is short and smooth. Among the tribes about Nootka Sound, in 1785, these animals had become so extremely plenty and their fleas and filth so offensive, even to the Indian, that they were utterly exterminated from that quarter.

The Barking Squirrel inhabits the plains in the third district; he weighs about three pounds; the colour is a bright red and grey, the former predominates; the legs are short; the head is more blunt and wider than that of other squirrels; the ears are short and square on the top. From the end of the nose to the extremity of the tail, he is one foot and five inches in length, of which the tail makes four inches. He is remarkably active, and burrows in the ground with great ease and to a great depth; he, sometimes penetrates more than ten feet in solid earth. These animals generally rest erect on their rump, and in this position bark at the intruder, as he approaches, with great confidence, and with a fretful and harmless intrepidity; their notes are in quick and angry succession. Their subterraneous habitations, occupy in one part of the country, several hundred acres of ground.

The Sewellel is a small animal, very much resembling the squirrel; mounts a tree and burrows in the ground like him. The fur is fine, short, thickly set, and of a silky gloss. The skin is highly valued by the Indians. He is found in considerable abundance, in the first and second districts.

Marine Animals.

Besides those of this class already named, the sea coast abounds with the whale, both the spermaceti and black; the sword
fish, the thrasher, the grampus, the black and white porpoise, the sea lion, and sea cow.

The Finners, (Balæna Physalus) are, sometimes, found about the mouth of the Columbia. The blubber of all whales, particularly of these, is highly esteemed by the natives, and if a little tainted it constitutes a most delicious dish, exceeded only by the flesh of the sea cow and sea lion, which furnish one of peculiar zest and delicacy.

The Indians do not always subject themselves to the inconvenient and troublesome operation of cooking the flesh of the whale, or of fish generally; when they do, it is put into a basket, so constructed as to hold water, into which heated stones are put till it boils. It would seem that with this rude people, the more putrid their fish the more palatable; the flesh of land animals may be ever so unsavoury with filth, but must not be the least tainted. An Indian, whose appetite is a little sharpened with hunger, and when denied the gratification of it, in a share of the meat of an animal, will sometimes seize upon one end of a gut, and gather it into his mouth, while pressing from the other end its contents.

FISH.

The bays and rivers of Oregon teem with fish of the best quality; the most common are:

Salmon, salmon trout, sturgeon, skait, cod, halibut, rock fish, herring, shrough, sardine, speckled trout, anchovy, red snapper, dog fish, cuttle fish.

The Salmon are from 2½ to 3 feet long, and weigh from ten to twenty pounds. In the month of June they ascend all the rivers, which open from the ocean, in astonishing numbers. In the season of their return to the sea, which is generally the first of October, they float in vast crowds down the streams, drift ashore, where the Indians have only to collect, split and dry them for use.
The *Salmon Trout* seldom exceed two feet in length. There is a species called the *White Salmon Trout*. They are $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet long, and weigh about ten pounds, seldom found above the Great falls on the Columbia.

The *Speckled Salmon Trout* differ in nothing but size from those in New-England. They are large; frequent creeks and rivulets, and delight themselves in cool spring water.

The *Cod* are remarkably fine in the spring.

*Herring* and *Sardines* enter the rivers in vast shoals.

The *Shrough* is a small fish, resembling the herring, about four inches long. It is found only in the ponds about De Fuca straits. This fish is remarkably fat, and serves the natives with their best oil, which is extracted by the very simple process of hanging it up, exposed to the sun; in a few days it will have melted entirely away. The oil is received in troughs, then conveyed to fish bladders, in which state it is exported in large quantities to distant tribes.

*Shrough, Herring* and *Sardines* are all taken by the natives in one and the same manner, and in vast quantities. They first drive the shoals into the small coves or shallow waters, when a number of persons in canoes keep splashing the water, while others sink branches of pine; the fish are then easily taken out with scoops, or wicker baskets. The two latter after being cleaned, are strung on rods, and hung in rows over their fires, to smoke; when sufficiently dried they are packed up in mats for their winter’s provisions.

The *Cuttle Fish* is taken and eat by the Indians, in its raw state, with great relish.

*Muscles* are found in the Columbia river and De Fuca straits, of a large size; but the pearls they contain are small, and not very transparent.
REPTILES.

A small brown snake, the rattlesnake, the garter snake, black and horned lizard, and snail, compose the principal part of the class of reptiles.

There is a snake, nearly four feet long, seen by Lewis and Clark, on the Rocky mountains, and described by them as having two hundred and eighteen scuta on the abdomen, and fifty-nine squama, or half formed scuta, on the tail. It is not of the poisonous class of snakes.

The Brown Snake is one foot and a half long. They are inoffensive, and flee on hearing the least noise. The Rattle Snake is the only poisonous reptile known to infest the Oregon country, and this tribe of snakes is confined chiefly to the mountainous parts of the fourth district.

The Garter Snake is much like that in the United States. They have one hundred and sixty scuta on the abdomen, and seventy on the tail; and are found in the prairies of the second district. Sometimes forty or fifty will entwine round each other, in the same bundle.

BIRDS.

The birds are vast in numbers, various in plumage and in note; many of them are excellent for the table. Lewis and Clark divided them into two classes, the land and the aquatic; of the former are the

Eagle, Pheasant, Wood-pigeon, Sparrow,
Buzzard, Robin, Hen or prairie Cock, Corvus,
Hawk, Black-bird Magpie, Snipe,
Crow, Turtle-dove, Woodpecker, Crow,
Owl, King-fisher, Lark, Bat,
Raven, Martin, Thrush, Humming-bird.

Of the different kinds of Eagles in this country the Calumet, though not so large as the bald eagle, is the most beautiful of all the family. They are variegated with black and white colours. The
tail feathers, which are twelve in number, and prized above all other feathers by the Indians, are white, except within three inches of their extremities, where they change to a jetty black; these feathers decorate the stems of the sacred pipe or calumet; from whence the calumet eagle derives its name. The wings have each a large circular white spot in the middle. They fly with great rapidity and soar high in the heavens. They are feared by all their carnivorous competitors, and are unapproached in the solitude of inaccessible mountains, where they make their summer residence and breed their young, descending with their offspring to the plains only in the fall and winter.

The Buzzard is the largest bird of North America; it measures nine or ten feet between the extremities of the wings, and weighs from thirty to forty pounds. They frequent the sea coast and the banks of the Columbia.

Pheasants of this country have been divided into three kinds; black and white pheasants, small speckled pheasants, small brown pheasants.

The first kind are as large as a hen; reside almost exclusively in the fourth district, and feed on sacacommis berries.

The Speckled Pheasant is half the size of the black and white pheasant, is more of a gregarious bird, and resides also in the fourth district.

The Brown Pheasant is the size of the speckled pheasant, and like the others is a silent bird and feeds on the leaves of pines and firs.

Of Hens there are two kinds; the Prairie hen, and the Cock of the Plains. They both inhabit the third district. In the winter season the Prairie Hen is booted to the first joint of the toes; the toes are curiously bordered with hard scales, which are placed close to each other, and extend horizontally, about one eighth of an inch on each side of the toes, adding to the width of the feet, a security which bounteous nature has furnished them for walking on snow:
it is very remarkable that in the summer these scales drop from the feet. This bird is the size of a small turkey. The Cock of the Plains is two thirds the size of an ordinary turkey. It cackles and crows, like a dung hill fowl, and feeds on the seed and leaves of shrubs found on the plains.

The Martin and Humming bird are said to be found only on the Rocky mountains.

AQUATIC BIRDS.

The most important of this class of birds are loons, brants, geese, swans, ducks, sea-parrots, and Cranes.

There are three kinds of Brant. The White Brant are very common on the sea-shores, where they continue in vast numbers during the winter, feeding on the grass, roots and seed found on marshes. It is two thirds the size of a wild goose; its plumage is a clear, uniform white, except the extremities of the large wing feathers, which are black; the flesh is exceedingly fine, preferable to that of any other bird, if the common black duck is excepted.

The Brown Brant is larger than the white, and nearly the same form and colour; the feathers on the upper part of the body, neck, head and tail are intermixed with those that are dark brown and black.

The Pied Brant, on its sides and back, is the same colour of the common wild goose; the breast and belly are white, with an irregular mixture of black feathers; back of its legs, underneath, the feathers are white; the extremities of the side tail feathers are white; the beak is of a light flesh colour; the legs are of an orange. It weighs eight or nine pounds.

The Swan are of two kinds, the large and small, and are alike in colour, contour and habits. They are found in considerable numbers on the Columbia, as far up as the Grand rapids, and in De Fuca.
The **Ducks** are of many kinds; the mallard duck; the canvas-back duck; the red-headed fishing duck; the black and white duck; the brown duck; the black duck; two species of divers, and blue winged teal. These are all found in abundance, and excellent in kind, on the ponds and rivers near the ocean.

**Sand-hill Cranes** are numerous on the side of the Rocky mountains.

**INSECTS.**

Most of the insects common to the United States, are seen in this country: such as the butterfly, the common housefly, the blowingfly, the horsefly, except one species of it, the gold-coloured earfly, the place of which is supplied by a fly of a brown colour, which attaches itself to the same part of the horse, and is equally troublesome. There are, likewise nearly all the varieties of beetles known in the Atlantic States, except the large cow beetle, and the black beetle, commonly called the tumblebug. Neither the hornet, the wasp, nor the yellow jacket inhabit this part of the country, but there is an insect resembling the last of these, though much larger, which is very numerous, particularly in the Rocky mountains and on the waters of the Columbia; the body and abdomen are yellow, with transverse circles of black, the head black, and the wings, which are four in number, of a dark brown colour; their nests are built in the ground, and resemble that of the hornet, with an outer covering to the comb. These insects are fierce, and sting very severely, and are very troublesome to horses.

The **Silkworm** is also found here, as well as the humble bee, though the honey bee is not.

**INDIANS.**

No account of the character or numbers of the aboriginal inhabitants of Oregon can be considered, in strict correspondence with

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*This entire account of the insects, and many other important facts concerning the animal kingdom, were derived from Lewis and Clark's journal.*
their present state and condition, unless the data from which it is
given, have been collected since the occurrence of any important
change with them.

Some of the facts contributing to this sketch represent their
condition at the present time; others, equally authentic, represent it
at the period of Vancouver and Capt. Gray's voyages. Such is the
certain and easy mutability of Indian affairs, that a few years of
trading intercourse with a people boasting superior excellence from
civilization and Christianity make a vast difference in the numbers
and fortunes of these unwary sons of the forest. The Indian history
opens a wide field of inquiry and curiosity, into which the writer
forbears to enter till he has more leisure and a better opportunity;
he attempts nothing farther at present, than a short, and necessarily
rude sketch of the numbers, character, manners and customs of the
tribes.

There are about fifty subordinate tribes not noticed in the list,
which follows.

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<th>THE PRINCIPAL INDIAN NATIONS, OR SOVEREIGN TRIBES, IN OREGON.</th>
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<td>Wickaninish, .......</td>
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<td>Klaisart, .......</td>
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<td>Shoshonee, or Snake, .......</td>
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<td>Clackamus, .......</td>
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<td>Callahpoewah, .......</td>
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These figures refer to the places of residence as marked on the map.

Of this number of souls about 6,000 rank as warriors; and 8,000 in all the tribes might, possibly, be enrolled as fighting men, in the defence of their individual rights; but not more than 3,000 could ever be induced to imbody and act in concert against a common enemy.

Wickaninish is a potent chief, who resides at Port Cox, in great magnificence, loved and dreaded by the neighbouring chiefs. His domain extends from some point near Nootka sound to De Fuca straits. He reckons his subjects at 13,000. Seven thousand of this number live within the limits of Oregon, in the villages of Equalett, Howschueselet, Elothet and Nittanat. His warriors are athletic and bold, but less savage than those of Tatoocne, whose nation is next south. This last named chief resides on Tatoocne island, and claims a sovereignty over the villages, as far South as Queenhithe river. Between this river and the mouth of the Columbia are Klaizart, the Quinnechart, Quineltz, Quoitesos and Chiltz nations, all independent, and differing considerably in language from the nations about them.

The Klaizarts are said to be better dressed, more affable and mild in manners than other tribes. They are remarkable for sprightliness, celebrated for singing and dancing, and much skilled in the manufacturing of canoes. They reckon about six hundred warriors. The natives in this section of the country are generally about the common stature; fleshy, though not corpulent. They have broad, full visages; the cheek bone rather prominent; the face falls in between the temples, quite back to the crown of the head, which is pressed forward, so as nearly to form a line with the fore-
head, which is low; the eyes are small and black; the nose flattens at the base with spreading nostrils; the mouth is large with thick lips; the teeth are regular, well set, and of an ivory white. Some have considerable beard, with long whiskers. It is a common practice for the young men to pluck out their beard, together with a part of their eye-brows; what remains, is, with grease and a black pigment, formed into a narrow and (was it not for the dirt,) graceful arch. Their heads are well covered with hair, long, black and coarse. They have crooked legs, thick and projecting ankles, which appears as though swollen, and large, flat spreading feet. These defects are entirely owing to the practice of continually sitting on the calves of their legs and heels. The Indians in all parts of the country are so extremely filthy, that it is almost impossible to ascertain their true colour; when they have been induced to thoroughly wash their bodies, which are kept besmeared with grease, paint and dirt, their skin appears of that sallow white which distinguishes the population of some parts of the Southern States. The children are pleasant and full of vivacity; but in manhood they appear reserved, and possess seemingly a dull thoughtful disposition. The women have nearly the muscular power of the men, and habit much like them; and their natural feminine graces sufficiently evince the sex. They uniformly possess an open, pleasing countenance, that when mantled by the glow and blush of youth give them strong pretensions to beauty; a beauty that is often associated with modesty, which, appearing in the uncultivated Indian, equally surprises and charms the virtuous mind.

Although the natives preserve a general resemblance in person, dress and manners to each other; yet some, more than others have distorted visages, from the universal custom of flattening the heads of their infant children.

This practice of sacrificing a perfect symmetry of natural form to the most unaccountable notions of beauty, prevailed at one period among most of the nations on the American continent. In order
to give the head a broad forehead, or the shape of a sugar loaf, it is compressed between two pieces of boards, strongly bound with ligatures. This operation is not apparently attended with pain, and is continued one year; when the head is released it is often not more than two inches thick above the natural forehead.

The dress of the natives, particularly those near the sea coast, have in some degree become assimilated to that of white people.

Twenty years ago it consisted of a robe or mantle made of skin, with the hair or fur on, extending half way down the legs and tied with a string across the breast, with the corners hanging over the arms. They sometimes made use of a blanket manufactured from the bark of a tree, or the wool of the native sheep.

The tribes on and near the Rocky mountains wear a long shirt, leggings reaching as high as the hips, and moccasins. The hair of the women is generally done up with a comb in it; that of the men is formed into queues, hanging over the ears, which gives the face a broader appearance.

Their caps are made of small skins or bear grass and cedar bark, interwoven in a conick form, with a knob at the top, and without a brim.

The women wear, with or without the mantle, as convenience or fancy may lead, a sort of tissue, which covers the body to the knee in front, and to the thigh behind. Some substitute a small skin, drawn under a girdle and hanging down like an apron.

Both sexes are fond of decorating their persons with beads and other ornaments, which are tied about the wrists and ankles, and are pendant from the ears and nose.

The external beauty of an Indian female is truly fantastic. Her appearance, with limbs ill-shaped; features distorted; heads swarming with vermin; hair braided into tresses, and clotted with grease and oil, and hanging like so many tails down the back; breasts
exposed and falling, and the whole skins besmeared with train oil and red ochre, presents a most disgusting contrast with that of a lady in a refined and civilized state, dressed in her full attire for the social circle.

Hunting, fishing, collecting and drying roots, constitute the chief employments of the lower or common people. The nobler occupations, such as killing the whale, hunting the sea otter, and the larger animals, chastising and destroying other tribes, belong exclusively to Chiefs and Warriors.

They occupy houses with pitched roofs, from twenty to sixty feet long, and from ten to twenty feet wide. The ridge pole is sometimes two or three feet in diameter, resting on posts, the ends of which are let into the ground. The sides of the building are made of boards; the top is covered with white cedar bark. The entrance is by a small hole, generally fourteen by twenty inches, cut through a board or large post. The fire-place is in the centre of the house; the smoke escapes through a large opening in the roof.

SMOKING THE PIPE OF FRIENDSHIP.

The Pipe or Calamut is generally made of stone, highly polished; the bowl is about two and one-half inches long, of an oval shape, or in the same direction with the stem.

On the reception of a friend the chief makes a circle in the sand, lights his pipe,—first directs the stem to the heavens, in regard to the Almighty, in whom the Indians believe; then to the centre of the circle, in manifestation of love, which should be the moving principle and in the centre of all human actions; then to the guest who receives it, after which each person present, takes a number of whiffs. No talk or noise of any kind can commence till after the business of smoking is concluded. When they pretend a sacred regard to their guest, they pull off their moccasins; a religious custom, which the tribes of Israel were required to observe when standing "on holy ground."
A SKETCH OF THE GEOGRAPHY OF RELIGION.

There are many things in the religious faith and observances of this people, which bears a strong analogy to the Jewish ritual.

Besides the instances above, they observe days of humiliation, fasting and prayer. They have annually, a religious celebration, which continues seven days, on which occasion they make a mock sacrifice of a prince,—return thanks for past favours, and implore the benediction of their god, Quahootze. They torture themselves by piercing their sides and arms; and try in various ways to surpass each other in their proofs of enduring pain.

The Chopinish nation have huts appropriated specially for women, where they must retreat and observe the rites of purification. No person is suffered to approach these deserted females; and even their food is thrown to them at a considerable distance.

From these circumstances, and many others that might be mentioned, of their dress, ornaments and customs; from the great resemblance in complexion, figure, manners, and even language, which these people, and those on the islands in the Pacific bear to the inhabitants* of the island of Cracatoa, laying in the entrance of the straits of Sunda; an important inference may be drawn towards accounting for the origin of the aboriginal inhabitants of the North West coast of America.

The fact of the dogs, which are wholly domestic, and the constant and inseparable companions of the Indians, being the same species of dogs in the East Indies, does much in settling this question.

*See Capt. Cook's Voyages.

*Note....It is probable that the dispersion of the Jews, effected, in part the settlement of some of the islands in the Indian Ocean, and that the wars between the Chinese and Tartars which were continued, from 200 to about 86 years before Christ, kept the inhabitants of these two countries as well as those of the contiguous islands in constant distress and jeopardy of their rights. These sons of Jacob, therefore, might have been induced to migrate to islands in the Pacific farther remote from the seat of oppression.
Many, if not all the tribes north of De Fuca straits, were once cannibals. It is believed however, that for many years past, their sanguinary appetites have been not so well set, and that they have abandoned a practice the most horrid, and the most shocking to human nature.

They were in the habit of killing and eating a part of those whom the fortune of war had put into their hands, and whom they held as slaves. One of these unhappy victims was sacrificed every moon, or as often as the occurrence of their festival days, in the following manner. A part or the whole of the slaves are collected at the sovereign chief’s house, where they are compelled to join in the music and the dance. The inferior chiefs sing the war song, dance round the fire, throwing oil into it to make larger the flame. In the midst of this hellish mirth the principal chief, dressed and painted in savage costume, and in the appearance of a ghastly demon, enters blindfolded; in this state he pursues the unhappy wretches, whose struggles and shrieks to escape his fearful hold create an awful moment of confusion, and thrill with horror the heart of stone; the fatal grasp is made; the knife is plunged to the heart, and the infernal shout announces the silence of the devoted victim; it is immediately cut into pieces; a reeking parcel is given to each of the guests, who, like dogs, seize the quivering flesh, and while they devour it the blood runs from the mouth warm as in the current of life.

Notwithstanding these or other habitual cruelties, they furnish no unequivocal facts by which to determine the general character of the Indians. They are, indeed acts than which none, human or brutal, are more shocking or more to be deprecated: they would be deprecated, and held in utter abhorrence by the perpetrators themselves, were they endowed with the mental cultivation of white men. But these things evince a disposition no more depraved than that of thousands in the most enlightened countries, practising crime in every form, and with every degree of atrocity. For when a man

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of a corrupt education, either from accident or design, becomes familiar with the business of shedding blood, whether of an enemy or a brother, he can pursue it with system and with a degree of self approbation.

It is not going too far, in the vindication of the Indian character, to say that all who are just themselves, and have had opportunities of familiar intercourse, have found them an inoffensive people, adhering to their notions of right and wrong; courteous and kind to strangers; amiable and obliging to one another. Let them be dealt with fairly, and a more hospitable and better disposed race of men cannot be found.

ADVANTAGES OF SETTLING THE OREGON COUNTRY.

The local position of that country; its physical appearance and productions; its qualities of soil and climate, suggest not only the practicability of founding a colony in it, but the consequent beneficial results to our Republic, and the many valuable blessings it might be made to yield to the settlers, and to their posterity. The expense of the project could not much exceed that of the present South Sea expedition, though the profits would be in the proportion of one hundred to one. It is the object of these remarks to notice some of the advantages which would inevitably accrue to the government of the United States, from a colonization of that country.

First. The occupancy of it, by three thousand of the active sons of American freedom, would secure it from the possession of another nation, and from augmenting the power and physical resources of an enemy. It might save that and this country from the disastrous consequences of a foreign and corrupt population; and benefit mankind by a race of people whose past lives, affording the most honourable testimony of their characters, would be a pledge for their future conduct and a full indemnity for all expenses incurred in their behalf.
It is not a doubtful hypothesis that unless our legitimate rights on the waters and in the territory of Oregon, are protected by planting a colony in it, or by other means no less effectual, they will in a few years more become entirely lost to our merchants, or to the benefits of our country.

England is desirous of possessing the whole country, with all its invaluable privileges. She has evinced this by that bold and lawless spirit of enterprise, by which she has acquired so great a monopoly in the Indian trade; by which, in the year 1812, she took from American citizens the town of Astoria, (now called Fort George,) and still retains it; by which she built and scattered along the Columbia and its tributaries, on the Taccooche, and at other places, her trading towns. In this presumptuous way; in defiance to treaties and obligations, to the paramount claims of this country, and by alliances with the Indians, she hopes to secure a hold upon it which the physical power of the American Republic, exerted in the plentitude of its energies, cannot break. She is provident in these things; and wisely anticipates that awful catastrophe, which will terminate on the Eastern Continent her long and brilliant career. She therefore selects this fair tract of earth, where to rebuild her empire, and again make it resplendent in wealth and power. Nature has provided every material on the spot, necessary to make it as permanent and lasting in foundation, as stupendous in structure.

Second. A free and exclusive trade with the Indians, and with a colony in Oregon, would very considerably increase the resources and promote the commercial and manufacturing interests of our country.

The fur trade has been and still is found, vastly lucrative to those who pursue it. The contemplated colony would find it productive of great pecuniary advantage, and a fruitful source of their prosperity. The traffic carried on with the Indians will become more reciprocal, and equal in the diffusion of its comforts, as industry and the peaceful arts are sustained by them; for a trade with any people
is commensurate with their real wants; these, with Indians, must naturally increase, as they assimilate their customs and habits to those of their refined and civilized neighbours. Trade on the North West Coast was commenced in A. D. 1787. Private adventurers of four different commercial nations, unknown to each other, animated by the same bold and enterprising spirit, simultaneously commenced voyages, and met together in the Western Ocean. Each claimed, as a part of his object, the fur trade. The English and Americans from that to the present time, have pursued it with great success. The furs and other articles which the latter have shipped from that coast to the East India market, have amounted to nearly one million of dollars per annum. The trade requires a small capital; and yields to the government a revenue of five hundred thousand dollars per annum. So lucrative has it been on that coast that some hundreds of American citizens have been induced to cross the Rocky mountains, and engage in it inland. These enterprising adventurers for some years found it rich and profitable; till unsustained by that protecting policy which the exigencies of their pursuit seemed to require, they were called to compete with rival interests, to meet and to submit to the unjust restrictions, imposts and indignities, which jealousy and self-interest were pleased to impose. English traders at the present time possess the country. The will of the Hudson Bay Company is the supreme law of the land. The natives are subservient to it, and American traders dare not resist it. Hence, the inland trade is fast on the wane, and has become disastrous if not in most cases ruinous. While it is so constantly exposed to the rapacity of treacherous Indians, and to the avarice of the English, it must remain utterly valueless. It might however, be reclaimed, and for ever protected by a colony occupying the shores of the Columbia. And what better means could the American Republic desire, for the protection of the lives and property of her citizens, in that territory and on the Western Ocean? What means could be found more compatible with her interests, and more agreeable to the dictates of her sovereign authority, as it regards justice, philanthropy and her own glory?
English traders, by a proper circumspection and deportment of conduct, and by honest and honourable dealing, have conciliated the friendship of the natives and secured a profitable trade with them, which consists chiefly in beads and many other articles of no value; in some coarse broad cloths, blankets, and a vast variety of iron and tin wares, which are exchanged principally for skins and furs, the productions of trapping and the chase. Economy has suggested to the Indians, a less valuable and a less cumbersome dress than the beautiful and rich skin of the sea otter. They are now generally clad and decorated in articles of English merchandize. The exclusive privilege, therefore, of supplying these articles, would be alike beneficial to the merchant and the manufacturer, and would contribute to the wealth and prosperity of the country. Were not the Indian trade a source of great advantage, and the country valuable for colonization, that shrewd and eagle-eyed nation, without justice, would not have made it so long the theatre of commercial enterprise; nor would she have been so eager to possess and make it her own.

Third. The fisheries might be more extensively and profitably pursued. They have long constituted a valuable branch of our commerce, and a perennial and vital source of our comforts and prosperity. Fish, in vast shoals and of the most useful kinds, abound in the Western ocean. Whales, both the black and spermaceti, throng those waters, and sport in the very seas and bays of Oregon.

The fisheries deserve the care and protection of government. They deserve it for other reasons than the vast profits they yield to the merchants. They have given employment and salutary discipline and instruction to thousands of our seamen. They have occupied, annually, in the Pacific ocean, fifty thousand tons of shipping, and have brought into ports cargoes, worth 200 per cent. on the outfits and charges. The whale-fishing craft occupying that ocean might be built and victualled in the Columbia, at a small expense; and there it might go in and out and find comfort. A colony, therefore, affording to the fisheries the advantage of greater facilities,
would render them more valuable. The losses sustained by the merchants of New Bedford and Nantucket, in the late war, were said to have exceeded three millions of money; these losses might have been saved by a colony; and the war itself might either never have been commenced, or more speedily terminated.

Fourth. A port of entry, and a naval station at the mouth of the Columbia, or in De Fuca straits, would be of immense importance to a protection of the whale and other fisheries, and of the fur trade; and to a general control over the Pacific ocean, where millions of our property are constantly afloat. The great abundance of excellent timber for ship building, and the small comparative expense at which ships of war might be built on the banks of the Columbia, would justify the making of navy yards, and building, in them, the principal part of our public and private vessels. Incalculable would be the advantages of some safe place, in that part of the globe, where to build, repair vessels, and get supplies;—where in time of war to enter with prizes, and make preparation for common defence. The prizes taken by Commodore Porter, in that ocean and necessarily destroyed by him, for the want of some port, were more than equal to any expense that might necessarily accrue in making the proposed establishment, fortifying and strengthening it with three thousand settlers.

Fifth. It is an object worthy the attention of government, to secure the friendship of the Indians, and prevent alliances between them and other nations.

By cultivating a friendly intercourse, and coalition with them, they might not only be prevented from co-operating with an enemy, but if desirable, be induced to oppose his attacks. The American people, at present, are too far remote to effect this purpose. The English are on the ground; their traders do business among them; and their interests, in a measure, commingle together. They are therefore in a better situation to direct the policy and command the obedience of the Indians; to excite in them jealousies and a hatred
implacable, fatal and eternal; and to expose our frontier settlements to the encroachments and abuses of an uncivilized, treacherous people. The Indians at present are peaceable and wish nothing more than fair dealing; the free and undisturbed enjoyment of their rights. Satisfied of this white men may pursue in quiet and security, the various business of civilized life.

The American government ought to hold no sovereignty over the Indians without doing them good, and in order to bless and be blessed, it is not enough simply to occupy their territory. The settlers must consider them in the relation of children, and treat them with the tender solicitude and kindness of parents. Indians love their ease, and seldom leave it, unless compelled, to supply animal wants, or excited by revenge, or by the triumph of victory. Nevertheless, they may be made to acquire habits of industry and practise labour; and even to seek moral and intellectual improvement. Let kindness and affection invite them to moderate, but regular exercise, under excitements of curiosity and self gratification. Let them be directed and assisted in cultivating, at first small parcels of fertile ground; and let them receive the entire products. Let them furthermore, share variously in the benefits of society;—their children be educated in the common schools of the Colony, and they will be made happy and useful in the present generation, and commence on another, under the blessings of improved natures, and progressive civilization.

How consistent with the prosperity of the Indians, and the best good of our country, would such a state of things be. The Republic planting and protecting a colony; that colony cherishing the interest and welfare of the Indians, who in turn contribute to the security of the Republic.

Sixth. The settlement of the Oregon country would conduce to a freer intercourse, and a more extensive and lucrative trade with the East Indies.
Commerce would break away from its present narrow and prescribed limits, and spread into new and broader channels, embracing within its scope China, Corea, the Phillipine and Spice islands, Japan and its provinces. These countries possess an extremely dense population, and articles of merchandise the richest in the world. The colony located on a shore of easy access and measuring its conduct by a policy, liberal and universal, will find no difficulties in opening with that civilized people a free intercourse, and consequently, inexhaustible sources of wealth and prosperity. Improvements and facilities in trade with China, resulting in a state of social and commercial relations, and connecting the interests of that Empire, with those of a government the most liberal, refined and free, will be sufficient motives on their part to form, on just and reciprocal principles, a commercial alliance, and to receive with all due consideration of respect and favours our ministers.

These are subjects vast and valuable; and, it is believed, may be attained at an inconsiderable expense. The power of the Mandarins would be restricted, and that of the Hoang agency suppressed. Other advantages would accrue; our trade would be disenthralled from the monopolies, the vexations and the bondage of the East India Company, should it be re-chartered. The acquisition of just privileges, and a full participation in a trade so exceedingly rich, deserves some attempt on the part of our government.

Such an extension and enjoyment of the East India trade, would provoke the spirit of American enterprize, to open communications from the Mississippi valley, and from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific ocean, and thus open new channels, through which the products of America and the Eastern world will pass in mutual exchange, saving in every voyage, a distance of ten thousand miles; new channels, which opening across the bosom of a wide-spread ocean, and intersecting islands, where health fills the breeze and comforts spread the shores, would conduct the full tide of a golden traffic into the reservoir of our national finance.
Seventh. Many of our seaports would be considerably benefited by taking emigrants from their redundant population. It is said, and truly so, that business of all kinds is overdone; that the whole population cannot derive a comfortable support from it; hence the times are called hard, which generally press the hardest upon those who pursue the useful occupations of laborious industry. Multitudes of such persons, sustaining the character of worthy citizens, cast out of employment, into idleness and poverty, might wisely emigrate to a country where they could pursue useful occupations, to which they are competent, with profit. This reduction of population would promote the interests and prosperity of those who remain at home; industry with them would be more encouraged; agriculture, commerce and manufactories, mutually supplying each other, would be better supported, and unite in yielding in greater abundance, the necessary comforts and conveniences of life.

The learned professions might spare some of their wise and erudite votaries, who in Oregon could find meeds of immortal honours. Many of industrious habits and honest lives, whose reputations have been blasted by the foul breath of calumny; these, with the unfortunate and oppressed, but virtuous of all orders, could there find an asylum, and succeed to a better condition. There, all may pursue in quiet, unassailed by the corrupt and vicious, the smooth and tranquil paths of life, and strive to rival each other in the career of useful labour, in virtue and social happiness.

These hastily written observations must be concluded by the remark that all nations who have planted colonies, have been enriched by them. England acquired a supremacy of the ocean, and all her national influence by it. America has a better opportunity and fairer prospects of success, to emulate such examples. She can set up in business her full grown and more affectionate children nearer home; and on a richer inheritance; and can receive to herself greater benefits. The present period is propitious to the experiment. The free governments of the world are fast progressing to the con-
summation of moral excellence; and are embracing within the scope of their policies the benevolent and meliorating principles of humanity and reform. The most enlightened nation on earth will not be insensible to the best means of national prosperity. Convinced of the utility and happy consequences of establishing the Oregon colony, the American Republic will found, protect and cherish it; and thus enlarge the sphere of human felicity, and extend the peculiar blessings of civil polity, and of the Christian religion, to distant and destitute nations.
OREGON TERRITORY.

We had thought that no part of the world presented a fairer field to enterprise and industry than that portion of North-America which lies east of the Mississippi and south of the Great Lakes. We have good laws and well administered; commerce and agriculture flourish, and honest labor is sure of its reward. We had thought that in New-England, especially, sickness and unavoidable accidents were the only causes for fear. Here education is more encouraged than any where else. The helpless poor, even those whom vice has rendered so, are not suffered to starve. All this is well; very well; but it seems we can do better. At least so say, and perhaps think, the projectors of the intended expedition to the mouth of Columbia river.

A gentleman for whose talents and ambition his native land does not afford sufficient scope, has been employing his leisure in devising schemes to better the condition of his fellow countrymen. His studies have not been in vain: if his plans should prove practicable, nations yet to be will bless him as their father and benefactor. In a word, he has issued advertisements, inviting the good people of New-England to leave their homes, their connections, and the comforts of civilized society, and follow him across the continent to the shores of the Pacific. When we heard of this scheme, our first impression respecting the morals of its originator was by no means favorable. His noble confidence in his abilities as a governor and a guide, over territories he had never seen, to a country in which he had never been, appeared extremely like impudence. We observed too, that while his public programme spoke of the natural advantages of Oregon, and of two hundred acres of land which he intended to bestow on each emigrant, it said nothing of the sum said emigrant
was to deposit in his hands previous to the commencement of the journey. But when we considered the hardships and dangers which he, as well as those he may delude, must undergo; when we thought of the risk he has run and still runs, of being sent to the insane hospital; when we reflected on his certain disappointment, and the ridicule he will incur by it, we were constrained to believe that disinterested benevolence was his motive.

We are informed that this excellent person has now a list of the names of many hundreds who receive his dreams as oracles. Were our prisons to be emptied on the shores of the Pacific, the benefit to the United States would be undeniable, whether the convicts perished on the way or not. Even then a wrong would be done to the natives of Oregon. But we are informed that the persons who intend to leave us, and to lead their wives and children to misery, if not to destruction, are husbandmen, mechanics, and other respectable members of society. Such persons should not be lightly lost, and we write in the hope that they will read and pause.

The proceedings of our projector have been so involved in mystery that it is impossible to speak minutely of his intentions. We understand however, that his followers are to assemble at St. Louis as early next spring as possible, and thence proceed to cross the Rocky Mountains, somewhere near the sources of the river Platte. The expedition is to go by land, but farther our informant saith not.

Whether half the Oregon emigrants will ever reach St. Louis is at least doubtful. Do they seek a fine country on the Oregon river? They will pass through a much finer, even allowing the tales on which they rely to be true, whether they go by the Ohio or the lakes. They will find as healthy a climate as is in the world, and a soil that yields eighty bushels to the acre. They will pass through lands of which they may buy two hundred acres for less than the farther expenses of their journey. They will pass through a kindred people, from whose society they will derive as much advantage, to say the least,
as they could from the Clatsops and Chopunnish of Oregon. In short, they will see the state of things they expect to bring about at the end of a long and perilous journey, and after several years of strenuous exertion, already established, without trouble on their part. If they pass the Mississippi they will injure the reputation of New-England for sagacity.

Those who reach St. Louis will find there many who have been to Oregon and found no temptation to remain there. These will treat their undertaking with the scorn it deserves; and if they go farther it will be in spite of good advice. The people of Missouri, though a little addicted to drinking and duelling, are not destitute of humanity, and will not see their fellow creatures perish without expostulating.

We will suppose that a considerable number persist and proceed onward. They may possibly charter a steamboat to take them to the mouth of the Platte, but no farther, for that stream is not navigable for steamboats, unless during freshets. We take it for granted that women and children cannot perform so long a journey on foot, and that the baggage, household furniture, implements of husbandry, &c. cannot be conveyed on pack horses. Wheel-carriages will therefore be necessary, and animals to draw them.

So large a caravan must necessarily proceed slowly, especially as it will be encumbered with so many helpless persons. We have seen bodies of the Assinneboia emigrants on their way from Red River to the Falls of St. Anthony, and they never gained more than ten miles per diem. Moreover, they had been seasoned to the hardships of an Indian country, which cannot be said of the Oregon adventurers. Besides, their journey was not so long, and there were several trading stations on their route, so that they were not obliged to halt to procure provisions.

If our friends are ready to start from St. Louis by the first of June, they will have done wonders. If they reach the mouth of the
Platte in a month more, it will be more than we think possible. Thence they have a thousand miles to go before they reach the Rocky Mountains. At the above mentioned rate of traveling they would reach the dividing ridge about the last of September; that is supposing they met no accident, hindrance, or delay. But there are many obstacles to their progress, against all of which they may, and some of which they must, be obliged to contend.

They cannot take provisions with them for more than a few days, and must therefore depend on their guns for support. The only game the country affords in abundance are buffaloes, and of these there are enough, and more than enough in some seasons. There are bears indeed, but these are of the kind properly called by naturalists horribilis, and are much more likely to feed on the travelers than to furnish them with a meal. There are deer and elks, and prairie antelopes; but too few and too seldom seen, to be relied upon. Likewise there are marmots, owls, rattlesnakes, and other vermin, on which all who make long journeys in the steppes of North-America, must occasionally be content to dine, and be thankful for the god-send. The buffaloes are all “that are to trust to,” and a very precarious trust it is. They are constantly migrating, and their migrations are not regulated by the seasons, or any circumstances on which calculations can be made. We may say without exaggeration, that we have seen hundreds and thousands at a glance, and we have also passed months in a buffalo country without seeing a horn. The Indians live on them, it is true; but they follow them in their travels as closely as the wolves, and if the herd enters the country of a hostile tribe, they endure the horrors of starvation. Very many of the buffalo-hunting savages perish every year of literal famine. There is ever either great abundance or extreme want. If the Indians suffer, how will the emigrants, who are not hunters, provide for themselves? A ship's crew who should undertake a voyage to India, relying on the fishes they might catch on the way, would have a better and surer
resource than those who undertake a slow march to Oregon, relying on the buffalo.

The country through which the adventurers must pass is a level plain, where the eye seeks in vain for a tree or a shrub. The streams only are scantily fringed with wood. In some places the emigrants must travel days and nights without finding wood or water. None but those who have endured these privations can conceive the sufferings attendant on them. And supposing the horses are not stolen by the Indians, or driven away by the wolves and grisly bears, they cannot find food. The ground is covered with herbage for a few weeks in the year only. The Indians burn the prairies regularly twice a year, from Lake Winnipeg to Mexico, and for at least nine months in the twelve, nine tenths of their area is as bare of vegetation as the desert of Sahara. The wet and swampy spots, only, escape the flames. The wild horses and other animals contrive to exist, indeed; but it is by keeping in such places as we have mentioned as long as they find a green leaf, and then flying like the wind in search of others. Their existence depends on an activity which draught horses cannot exert. There is yet another difficulty which the emigrants should consider. We can assure them, on our own experience, that not one horse in five can perform a journey of a thousand miles without a constant supply of something better than prairie grass. If our friends lose half their cattle on the way, as it is twenty to one they will, what is to become of those who must necessarily be left behind?

Between the river Platte and the Rocky Mountains there are several streams which are dry, or nearly so, more than half the year. But when a long rain falls in the mountains they swell into raging torrents, and are impassable, at least to carts, women and children, for days together. Is it not likely that the caravan may be delayed by such an occurrence? May not such a delay take place while the prairie is blackened with cinders and the buffaloes are far away?
The country through which the expedition must pass is precisely in the track of all the war parties that travel over the space between the Missouri and the Rocky Mountains. It is the abiding place and the battle ground of fifty warlike tribes. We grant that there is not an individual among them all who will not receive a stranger kindly in his wigwam, and give him to eat of the best; but neither is there an individual among them who will not cut that stranger’s throat for the value of his gun-flint, if he meets him alone in the prairie. Besides, it is their rule, when they undertake a warlike enterprise, not to bear the sword in vain, and if they happen to be unsuccessful or defeated, woe to him who crosses their path. We could adduce a hundred instances of American citizens who have been put to death for no other cause than having accidentally fallen in the way of an unsuccessful war-party. Was not the last caravan that went from St. Louis to Santa Fé repeatedly assailed, and only preserved from destruction by a strong armed party of United States troops? Those traders gave no offence to the savages, unless passing through their country be considered such.

Allowing that the travelers can save their persons from the attacks of Tetons, Pawnees, Pawnee Loups, Pawnee Republicans, Apaches, Comanches, Arrapahoes, Shoshonees, Rickarees, Kanzas, Crows, Blackfeet, and fifty more predatory hordes, whose very names are abominations, can they save their horses? Do they know that all the buffalo-hunting Indians are the most expert horse-thieves in the world? Do they know that they make their proficiency in horse-stealing their boast and pride? that they consider the appropriation of a horse a very virtuous and praiseworthy action; little less glorious than the slaughter of a white man? Do they know that a horse is absolutely necessary to a buffalo-hunter’s existence, and is therefore the greatest temptation that can be put in his way? Do they know that their path is directly in the track of the no less barbarous than brave Blackfeet, who, when Captain Lewis killed two of their tribe (in an attempt to steal his horses) made a vow never to spare an
Oregon Territory

American, and have religiously kept it ever since? Do they know that all the Indians of that region justly hold the very name of an American in abhorrence? Perhaps, if we give them the reason for this hatred, they will believe us the more readily.

About twelve years since it was discovered by a public-spirited citizen of St. Louis, that the supply of furs was not equal to the demand. To remedy this evil he raised a corps of white sharpshooters, equipped them with guns, traps, ammunition and horses, and sent them into the wilderness to teach the Indians that their right was only a right of occupancy. They did the savages irreparable injury. They frightened the buffaloes from their usual haunts, destroyed the fur-clad animals, and did more mischief than we have room to relate. The Indians were wont to hunt in a slovenly manner, leaving a few animals yearly for breed; but the white hunters were more thorough-spirited, and made root and branch work. When they settled on a district they destroyed the old and the young alike, and when they left it, they left no living thing behind them. The first party proving successful, more were fitted out, and every successive year has seen several armed and mounted bands of hunters, from twenty to a hundred men in each, poured into the Indian hunting grounds. All this has been done in open and direct violation of a law of the United States, which forbids trapping and hunting on Indian lands in express terms. The consequence has been, that there are now no fur-clad animals on this side of the Rocky Mountains. These proceedings, we think, may account for the hatred of the Indians; but there is yet something more.

In eighteen hundred and twenty-five or six, the Rickarees attacked a body of about a hundred hunters, and killed several of them. These met the fate they had provoked and well deserved. Nevertheless, a brigade was forthwith sent to chastise the Rickarees. Sixty of the savages having been sacrificed to the manes of the intruders they had slain, peace was granted them, and after the honor of our
country had been pledged to pursue them no farther, the promise was violated, and their village was burned before their eyes. Though ignorant, Indians are not idiots, and our Oregon friends may be assured that these transactions are remembered by all the Indians of that region, and will continue to be, perhaps to their cost.

We may be told that it is no news that horses may be stolen if they are not watched, and that men may be attacked and defeated, if they do not defend themselves bravely. We may be told that there are engaged in the expedition, men enough to bid defiance to all the Indians west of the Missouri, and that it is hoped Government will grant additional protection. We may be told that what has been done once may be done again, and that the journey has already been performed by several parties. But for every why there is a wherefore.

When so many travel they must have many horses, and these must be suffered to feed at large every night. Indians lose their own cattle, and Indians are more watchful and see better in the night than white men. Captains Lewis and Clark lost their horses; the hunters and trappers have lost hundreds. Why should our friends expect better fortune than commonly falls to the lot of others?

We make no doubt that the emigrants are numerous enough to beat any number of savages that can be assembled, in a fair field. But Indians do not fight pitched battles. They come when they are least expected, and, if they find too much resistance, retire and wait for a more favorable opportunity. In so long a march it is impossible that so many can keep together. The Indians may easily cut off the stragglers, and those who from very weariness, fall in the rear. They may drive the buffalo out of their road and burn the prairie before them, so that their horses must perish, and, in consequence, the women and children also. In a word, it is impossible that such a body can make so long a journey through a hostile country, without a hundred times exposing themselves to attack at disadvantage.
Their numbers will increase the difficulty of procuring food, and they will therefore be obliged to scatter more than other parties are wont to do. That they will lose their horses we consider absolutely certain, and if they do, the women and children will inevitably perish by hunger or the tomahawk. If they are not assailed more than once before they reach the sources of the Platte, then must the Indians have changed their opinions; nay, their very nature.

The project of a settlement on Columbia river has been repeatedly before Congress, and has been pronounced visionary by the wisdom of the nation. At this present session, such an opinion has been expressed by one of the best and greatest men in the country, and there is little appearance of any measures in favor of the expedition. A part of the army, it seems, is to protect the Santa Fé traders, and our troops are too few to permit a second detachment for a similar purpose.

The journey has, indeed, been performed; but by whom? Not by farmers just from the plough; by handicraftsmen just from their workshops, led and guided by a student, who confessedly does not himself know the way; but by small parties of practised hunters. They carried no women or children with them; no carts, no baggage. They did not linger along the route. They knew the dangers and hardships they were to encounter, and prepared to meet the hardships and avoid the dangers. Have they not, nevertheless, endured much? Was not Captain Lewis obliged to fly for his life with his men? Was not Major Long’s party robbed once? and were they not in imminent danger of suffering the like again? We are told that General Ashley and Mr. Pilcher encourage this undertaking. Have not parties under their command been repeatedly attacked? Have not very many of their people perished with cold and hunger, or been killed by wild beasts and Indians? Did any white man ever cross the Rocky Mountains, who will say that a white woman could have followed him? In short, to live in an Indian
country, men must be able to move with a celerity which cannot have being in our body of emigrants.

Let us suppose, for the sake of argument, what is impossible—that our friends surmount all the difficulties we have mentioned. Perhaps, it will not be unreasonable to suppose that these difficulties will detain them a month longer on the route. They will then reach the Rocky Mountains about the beginning of October, and winter will stop them on the summit. They will find a climate of which they have never dreamed in the Atlantic States. How are they to winter in the mountains? That region has no buffaloes, and does not abound in game of any kind. Captains Lewis and Clark describe the Indians who reside there as miserable in the extreme, and always half-starved. Many of them actually do starve. And how are the cattle, which will have been as miraculously preserved as were the Israelites in the Exodus, how will they subsist among rocks and precipices, from which the argali will look down and laugh at the guns and the folly of the adventurers? The people will have brought no winter provision, no forage. There is one comfort, however; having performed a journey of little more than a thousand miles, with light loads, and having had the grazing of perhaps a hundred acres of prairie, the beasts will no doubt be plump and well-conditioned. They may be killed and jerked, and the deluded crows, attracted by the scent of the feast, will not, as usual, wing their way to a more hospitable region. When this supply fails, the settlers may climb over the rocks which echo the cries of their famishing children, in vain search for tripe de roche. We have taken it for granted that they have found a practicable road into the mountains. Messrs. Pilcher and Ashley say there is one; at least, so Mr. Kelley tells us. Perhaps it would be well to inquire if these gentlemen (who have much business beyond the Rocky Mountains) have not some interest to desire a settlement on the Columbia. But they are far distant, and we have no wish to impute other than the best mo-
tives to them. Let it suffice that the emigrants have now gone over half their distance.

We know that there is a nutriment in old shoes; and though two thirds of Captain Franklin's men died of abdominal cramp in consequence of eating *tripe de roche*, that fungous aliment may agree better with the emigrants. It is but trying it, when the worst comes to the worst. With these helps then, we will suppose our friends have starved through the winter with the wolves. The horses may also be supposed to have been brought through the winter as they were through the prairies, by the especial favor of Providence. By the first of April, perhaps, the expedition will be ready to start afresh, and a proper day it will be for the renewal of such a journey.

Lewis and Clark tell us that the country on the Columbia River is to the last degree rugged and mountainous. So say hunters who have been there; and so says the map. Messrs. Ashley, Pilcher and Kelley say, nay; and that there is an excellent cart-road. Which are we to believe? The persons who intend to emigrate believe Mr. Kelley. For our own part, having found the reports of Lewis and Clark, touching a part of their travels, corroborated by our own experience, we are content to take their word for the rest. Mr. Kelley says that the country abounds with food. Lewis and Clark say that they often found the natives in extreme want, if not actually starving, and that their own party, though provided with fishing tackle and guns, which they well knew how to use, were glad to buy a few small dogs wherewith to quiet the cravings of nature. Mr. Kelley says the climate is excellent. Lewis and Clark say that it is wet and uncomfortable. Lewis and Clark also say that if their party did not actually suffer from hunger, they at least found much difficulty in making their rifles maintain them. A proof of the fact is, that they were glad to mend their fare with the putrid carcass of a dead whale which the sea had washed up, and for this they went ten
miles over a high and steep mountain, at the imminent risk of their necks. Lewis and Clark do not agree with Mr. Kelley in a single point, and as they have been where he grants that he never has, we must prefer their word to his.

When Mr. Kelley has gotten his gulls fairly to their nests, that is, to Oregon, how is he to obtain the land which he proposes to lay out for them, in lots of two hundred acres each? Does he mean to purchase it of the natives with the money with which the settlers will have so judiciously entrusted him? The laws of the United States expressly prohibit any such traffic between Indians and private individuals. We hope the gentleman does not intend to set up the doctrine of State rights, and "nullify" the laws and the constitution. It would throw discredit on Massachusetts. Especially do we hope and trust that he does not intend to throw off allegiance and become the founder and ruler of a Western Empire. If he does, we can tell him that we shall not permit the establishment of such an imperium in imperio. But there is no danger of his making such a bargain, on any pretence whatever. We do not think he can take the goods which would be necessary with him, and unfortunately the Clatsops and Chopunnish set no value on coined silver; still less on bank notes. His dollars would have far less value in their eyes than so many fish hooks or musket balls. We are reluctantly obliged to draw this inference from the facts; that he intends to follow the example of Attila; to lead his followers to the field, slay and take possession. To this there exists one objection. For any of our citizens to levy war, on their own responsibility, against a foreign people, savage or civilized, is, if not exactly treason, yet a grave misdemeanor, and as such punishable by law. The arm of the law, too, is long enough to reach Oregon. An armed vessel was sent to the Mulgrave Islands in search of the mutineers of the Globe whaler, and it is but a few days sail from the Mulgrave Islands to the mouth of Columbia river. There is yet another objection to such a course, which we think is insuperable. It would be matter of supererogation
to offer Mr. Kelley any information on the subject, as he knows more than we do about it, and would not thank us; but the emigrants should know, if they do not know already, that when it comes to the 
\[\textit{voie de fait},\] they will not be the strongest party. The Clatsops and Chopunnish are numerous enough to drive them into the Pacific, and if they should prove unable, they can call the Multnomahs, Skilloots, Echeloots and Sokulks to their assistance. There is no part of savage America more densely peopled than the banks of the Columbia, and if the natives of Oregon suffer the intruders to sit down in peace and quietness among them, it is more than the latter have any right to expect.

Our ancestors fled hither to avoid religious persecution, and it was many years before they made good their footing in the land. Every one knows what their sufferings were, and yet they came with more advantages than the emigrants will carry to Oregon. They did not come in carts. They brought with them all that was necessary to procure the comforts if not the luxuries of life. They did not cut themselves off from communion with their friends and connections. The Oregon settlers can, for obvious reasons, carry nothing with them. They are about to put a barrier between themselves and their native land, which cannot be passed and repassed in less than two years, even were there no lions in the path. It may be said that the sea is open to them as it was to their fathers; but it should be remembered that there is a vast difference between a voyage round Cape Horn and one across the Atlantic. Our friends, we fear, are about to attempt to put themselves beyond the reach of human sympathy, aid and protection; and for what? We believe that nobody but Mr. Kelley can tell.

For the first season after their arrival in Oregon, the settlers must rely on their guns and fishing tackle; for we are not told that corn grows spontaneously there. No great crop can be expected the second year. They will not have had time to break the soil. If they
raise enough to support life they will do well. Thus three years will be absolutely wasted before their affairs can possibly begin to be prosperous.

The advertisements before mentioned inform the colonists that they can vend their surplus grain in the Asiatic ports; among others, in Japan. Japan! quotha. Some one ought to send Mr. Kelley (whose name appears in full at the bottom of the programme) a copy of Morse's Abridgement or Guthrie's Grammar. He might there learn that there is but one port in the Japanese Isles open, and that only to the Dutch. He might learn that the lower classes of all India subsist solely on vegetable food, which is so abundant that an individual may live well for about a penny a day. And if grain were not abundant in India, where is there a better soil than that of Hindostan and of the Burman peninsula? and where can manual labor be procured cheaper? It is really astonishing that one who has spent the best years of his life in teaching others, should be so grossly ignorant of what every merchant's clerk knows. Mr. Kelley's grain might, indeed, find acceptance in Kamschatka, but unluckily, the Kamschatkadales are too poor to pay for it.

Again, the advertisement tells the settlers that they may carry on a profitable trade in lumber with the Spanish American ports of the Pacific. Now it so happens that Peru and Chili have lumber of their own, and nearer at hand. Three years ago there was a law in Mexico, and we believe it is still in force, absolutely prohibiting the importation of lumber. It is notorious that several vessels were run ashore in distress, to evade this law.

If any one is disposed to take lumber to Spanish America, or grain to Japan, cannot he get a ship built here, and purchase beams, boards and spars in the state of Maine? He could do it cheaper here, and more easily, than by taking his tools, &c. to Oregon to build there. Or, if he has a partiality for Oregon timber, what is to hinder him from doubling Cape Horn and cutting his trees, without thank-
ing Mr. Kelley, or any one? He may get trees in Oregon without
crossing the continent; but if he goes thither any time within a dozen
years to come, in the expectation of loading with grain, we fear that
his supply will be as uncertain as his market—in Japan. If any
such trade as Mr. Kelley promises can be carried on, how comes it
that none of the masters of Northwest Coast vessels have ever made
the discovery? And, supposing the possibility of such a trade, how
long will it be before the people of Oregon will commence ship-
building? Not in this generation, we fear. The art belongs to an
advanced state of society.

We can see no advantage in Oregon which the emigrant may
not secure in the state of Maine. The sea washes the shores of both.
The soil is good in both. There are fisheries pertaining to both. If
the climate of Oregon is milder, it is not proved that it is better.
There is waste land in both. There is plenty of timber in both.
Maine has these advantages. Her inhabitants are under the pro-
tection of the laws. They are numerous enough to protect each
other. They have free communication with every part of the world.
There is no art or science of which she does not possess at least the
rudiments. All that can be done in Oregon within a hundred years,
is already done in Maine. Above all, she has no Indians to root out
with fire and sword, fraudulent treaties, or oppressive enactments.

That a party of young, brave, hardy men may cross the contin-
ent to the mouth of the Columbia, we know; but that a large body
of the inhabitants of New-England, wholly unacquainted with In-
dian life, and encumbered with baggage and their families, can do
so, we hold impossible. We think we have proved that it is so. Our
facts cannot be disputed, and the inference is as clear as a geometri-
cal demonstration. We do not know that the prime mover of the
folly we have exposed is actuated by any evil motive; we do not
believe it. We look upon him as an unfortunate man, who, deluded
himself, is deluding others, and conceive it our duty to warn those
who are about to follow him on the road to ruin. To conclude, we advise those who have been so unfortunate as to embark in this enterprise to erase their names from the list as soon as possible. If they cannot retrieve the money they may have advanced, let them consider it better lost, than followed to Oregon, and be thankful that they have so escaped.

W. J. Snelling.