

II. THE UNITED STATES IN 1790.

BOUNDARIES AND AREA—CURRENCY—
TRANSPORTATION—THE POSTAL SERVICE—
INDUSTRIES—EDUCATION—NEWSPAPERS
AND PERIODICALS—SLAVERY—INDIANS.

The taking of the First Census of the United States brought home to each citizen the practical operation and influence of the newly adopted Constitution of the United States. It was the beginning of a series of distinctly Federal operations, recurring decennially, and increasing constantly in importance and in statistical value, which unquestionably have exerted great influence in unifying the states and demonstrating their community of interests. It will be appropriate, therefore, to describe briefly the area of the Republic and the conditions that prevailed at the beginning of constitutional government, with which, for all practical purposes, the First Census was coincident.

The year 1790 was an important one in the history of the principal nations of Europe, as well as of the young Republic in America. Monarchies responsible in but small degree to the people were rapidly becoming intolerable. In all civilized nations the growth of enlightened sentiment had been greatly accelerated by the results of the recent conflict in America. Europe was in a state of unrest, and was already upon the verge of the French Revolution and the continental wars which followed. In England George III—a man of 52 years, and little considered in the affairs of the nations of Europe—still occupied the throne; William Pitt was prime minister, and the energies of the nation, which had been somewhat impaired by the fruitless war in America, were being recruited for more profitable operations upon the Continent. In Prussia Frederick William II reigned as king, having succeeded his father, Frederick the Great. Catherine II—dissolute, but brilliant and powerful—was Empress of Russia. In France Louis XVI clung to a tottering throne, and endeavored by ill-judged and fruitless concessions to placate a nation which was drifting toward revolution and anarchy.

In the United States less than a year of the first administration of the first President had elapsed, General Washington having been inaugurated in New York city, April 30, 1789. Indeed, when the First Census was ordered the machinery of Federal Government was but just constructed, and was undergoing its first and most critical test. The executive branch of the Government included four departments—State, Treas-

ury, War, and Justice. Thomas Jefferson was Secretary of State; Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury; Henry Knox, Secretary of War; and Edmund Randolph, Attorney-General. Congress consisted of 91 members, 26 in the Senate and 65 in the House of Representatives—the numbers specified by the Constitution—pending the enumeration of the inhabitants of the states.

On the 9th of July, 1790, Congress, then in session at New York, passed a bill selecting the District of Columbia as the permanent capital of the nation, but declaring that for ten years from the end of that session the Government should be located at Philadelphia. Under this act the seat of government was removed to Philadelphia in September, 1790. Congress assembled in the following December in that city, its sessions being held in the state house, on Chestnut street; and by the close of the year the Government was established in the temporary capital. The executive departments were located in small rented houses. In the Department of State,¹ there were, indeed, only five clerks.

According to Biddle's Directory, published in 1791, President Washington resided at No. 190 High street, below Sixth, in the mansion built by Richard Penn and occupied during the Revolution by General Howe, Benedict Arnold, and Robert Morris. Vice-President Adams lived in the Hamilton mansion at Bush Hill.²

The year 1790 was probably the most critical year of General Washington's administration.³ It was the first complete year of the Federal Government under

¹ "The force of the department at the time of the adoption of the Constitution was the Secretary, the chief clerk, and three subordinates, at a total cost of \$6,500. During the First Congress the salary of the Secretary of State was fixed at \$3,500, the chief clerk at \$500, and clerks at not to exceed \$500 each. In 1800 the salary of the Secretary was increased to \$5,000, but the total pay roll only amounted to \$12,950."—*John W. Foster: A Century of American Diplomacy, page 130.*

² Scharf and Westcott, *History of Philadelphia, 1609-1884*, page 462.

³ "No man ever entered with a higher sense of responsibility upon a task which was to tax his wisdom, patience, and reputation to the utmost. In his inaugural address he said that no event could have filled him with greater anxiety than the notification of his election, and that the magnitude and difficulty of the trust, to which the voice of his countrymen called him, awakened a distrustful scrutiny into his qualifications."—*John W. Foster: A Century of American Diplomacy, page 136.*

the Constitution. Precedent was being made at every step. No office of the Government, not even the Presidency, had been in existence long enough to command any respect, except such as was imparted by the personality of the official himself. Political party lines, which became clearly defined by 1792, had not yet appeared. Many divisions of sentiment, however, had already developed, especially in connection with the interpretation of the Constitution. Every freeholder was deeply interested in such questions as slavery, Federal assumption of state debts, and the taxation necessary for raising the revenues required to conduct the National Government.

No service performed by General Washington in the successful prosecution of the Revolutionary War compared with that which he rendered in saving the Republic from itself during the early days of his administration.¹ The operation of the Government under the new Constitution had thus far proceeded without serious friction, but with considerable criticism and unrest. Popular confidence in and respect for President Washington, the hero of the Revolution, was probably the principal factor which prevented the early occurrence of serious disagreements. While the success of the struggle for liberty in America had profoundly impressed the nations of Europe, on the other hand the theories proclaimed by the radicals in France had already attracted attention in the United States and seriously affected a large element of the population. Indeed, French revolutionary ideas were destined to become of some political importance during the administration of President Washington, a consideration which doubtless caused the patient and sagacious President periods of grave anxiety. In fact, in 1790 problems arose on all sides. It appears to have been an open question, at times, whether a dozen self-willed commonwealths, having different views upon many questions of public policy, and great independence of thought and action, ever could be brought to bend submissively to the control of a constitution created for the good of all, but requiring of necessity many mutual concessions and considerable breadth of view.

BOUNDARIES AND AREA.

In 1790 the Union consisted of 13 states—Rhode Island, the last of the original 13 to enter the Union, being admitted on May 29. Vermont, the first addi-

¹ "While the American Union was forming itself, some of the worst symptoms of social and political dissolution were manifesting themselves * * *. The greatest revelation rendered to all subsequent generations by these opening years of the American Republic is in the constant proof they exhibit of the prevailing power of the people for self-government * * *. It was reserved for the sagacity of Hamilton—an alien genius, a rare creation independent of race or time—to see through to the end, to uphold the possibilities of an empire. But the man of the time, the concrete actual personification of these godlike faculties, inchoate and dimly perceived in common men, was George Washington."—*Weeden: Economic and Social History of New England, Vol. II, pages 864 to 967.*

tion, was admitted in 1791, before the census had been completed. Massachusetts included Maine, Virginia included West Virginia and nominally included Kentucky. Georgia included parts of Alabama and Mississippi. The present state of Tennessee, formed out of territory ceded to the Union by North Carolina, was known as the Territory South of the Ohio River, or Southwest Territory. The vast area between the Ohio and Mississippi rivers and the Great Lakes—comprising the present states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, with part of Minnesota—was called the Territory Northwest of the Ohio River, or Northwest Territory.

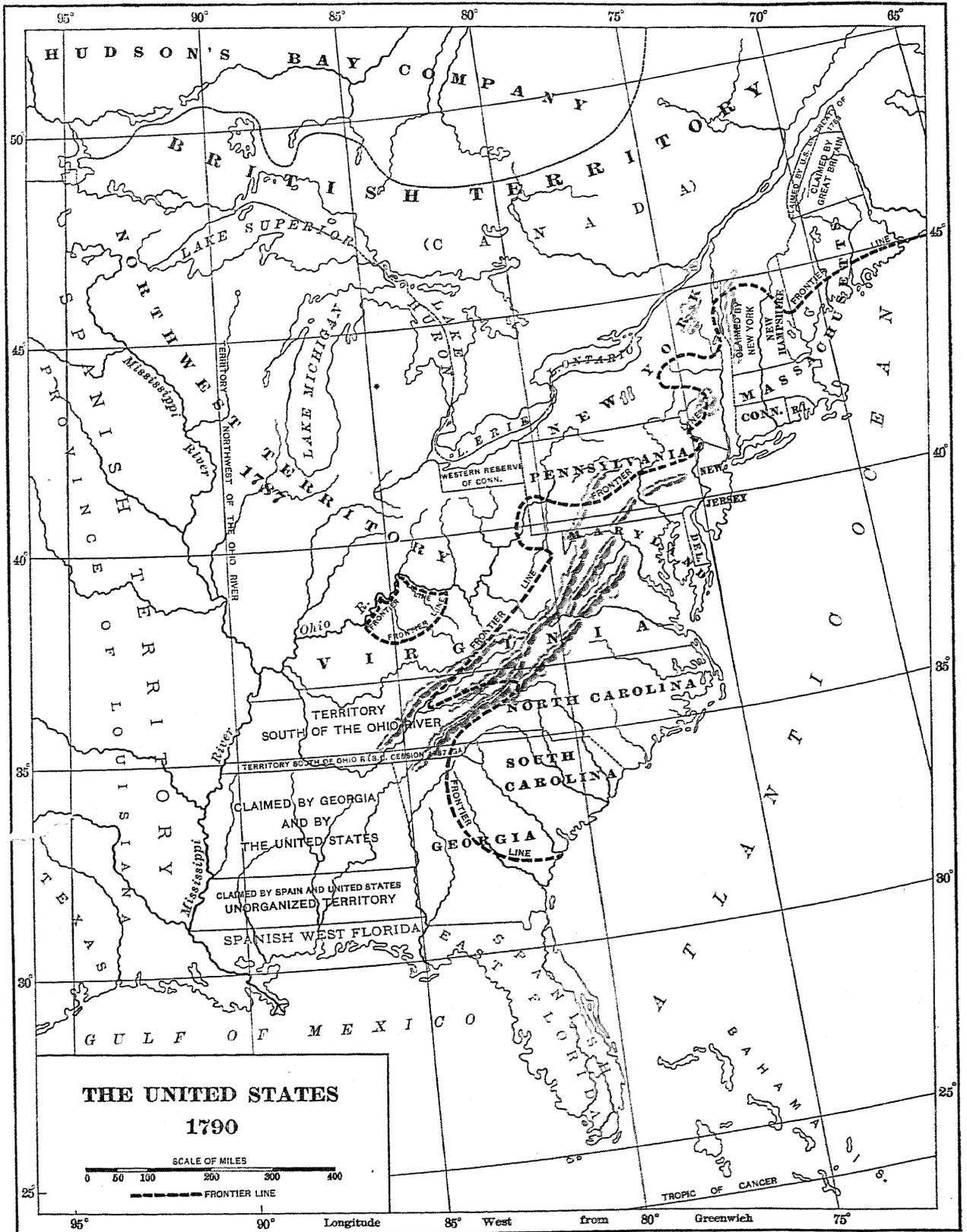
The United States in 1790 was bounded on the west by the Mississippi river; beyond which stretched a vast unexplored territory claimed by the Spanish king. On the south was the Spanish colony of Florida, of which the northern boundary was in dispute, but between which and the settlements in Georgia stretched an uninhabited region containing vast swamps. The northern boundary also was in dispute for long distances; the boundary between Maine and the Dominion of Canada was a fertile source of contention; as a result of the fact that the water line through the St. Lawrence river and the Great Lakes was undefined, some of the islands in those waters were claimed by both the United States and Great Britain; and the discovery that the Mississippi river did not extend as far north as the Lake of the Woods revealed a gap in the boundary line of the Northwest. It was not until more than fifty years later, by the Ashburton treaty, that the boundary of Maine was fully determined and the boundary through Lake Superior and thence to the Lake of the Woods agreed upon.

The gross area of the United States in 1790 was 820,377 square miles, but the settled area was only 239,935 square miles, or about 29 per cent of the total. The thickly populated areas were along the seaboard and in the valleys of the larger rivers. Western New York was a wilderness; rude frontier forts occupied the present sites of Oswego and Utica; and Binghamton and Elmira were outposts of civilization, the former having been settled in 1787 and the latter in 1788. Much of western Pennsylvania, also, was a wilderness.

At the time of the Declaration of Independence only 6 of the 13 American states—New Hampshire, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland—had definite boundaries. Each of the others laid claim, on the strength of early and often very conflicting grants of territory, to large and ill-defined areas in the vast unexplored region west of the Appalachian mountains.

The ownership of these western lands by individual states was opposed by those states which did not share in their possession, mainly on the ground that the resources of the General Government, to which all contributed, should not be taxed for the protection and development of this region, while its advantages would inure

INHABITED AREA IN UNITED STATES IN 1790.



to the benefit of but a favored few. On this ground several of the states refused to ratify the Constitution until this matter had been settled by the cession of these tracts to the General Government.

Moved by these arguments, as well as by the consideration of the conflicting character of the claims, which must inevitably lead to trouble among the states, Congress passed, on October 30, 1779, the following act:

Whereas the appropriation of the vacant lands by the several states during the present war will, in the opinion of Congress, be attended with great mischiefs. Therefore,

Resolved, That it be earnestly recommended to the state of Virginia to reconsider their late act of assembly for opening their land office; and it be recommended to the said state, and all other states similarly circumstanced, to forbear settling or issuing warrants for unappropriated lands, or granting the same during the continuance of the present war.¹

By 1790 Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and Virginia had ceded to the Federal Government all right and title to lands claimed by them in the Northwest Territory, with the exception of what was known as the "Connecticut Reserve;" North Carolina and South Carolina had yielded up their claims to territory extending to the Mississippi; and Maine, Vermont, and Kentucky were sufficiently distinct to be reported separately at the First Census. Georgia still held out, but Georgia's western territory was practically a wilderness, the enumerated area being merely that part of the present state which lies along the seacoast.

In 1790 the claim of the Federal Government to ownership of the vast areas between the Appalachian mountains and the Mississippi river was still subject, to some extent, to the rights of the Indians; but such rights had never been seriously regarded in the past, and in fact subsequently proved of little consequence in the settlement of the territory.

The greatest length of the Northwest Territory was about 900 miles, and its greatest breadth, approximately 700. It was bounded on the east by Pennsylvania, on the southeast by the Ohio river, and on the north and west by the international boundary. By contemporary writers it was estimated to contain 220,000,000 acres of land surface. This land, with the exception of a few tracts, was held by the Federal Government, to be sold for the discharge of the national debt. One exception was the narrow strip known as the "Connecticut Reserve," bordering on Lake Erie and stretching 120 miles west of the western boundary of Pennsylvania. This tract belonged to the state of Connecticut. Title to about one-sixth of it was given to citizens of Connecticut who had lost property in the Revolution, and the remainder was sold by the state, in 1795-96, to the Connecticut Land Company, for \$1,200,000, the proceeds being used for the support of schools and colleges in that state. It was not until the year 1800 that Connecticut relinquished jurisdiction over this region in favor of the Federal Government.

By an act of Congress passed on the 13th of July, 1787, the Northwest Territory was erected, for the pur-

poses of temporary government, into one district—subject, however, to a division when circumstances should make it expedient. The fifth article of this act provided that there should be formed in the territory not less than 3 nor more than 5 states. Under its terms tentative state boundaries appear to have been constructed for the maximum number, which are shown upon contemporary maps as First State, Second State, etc. The First State roughly coincided with the present state of Ohio, the Second with a part of the present state of Indiana, the Third with a part of Illinois, the Fourth with a part of Michigan, and the Fifth with more than the present state of Wisconsin. In 1790, therefore, the foundations of 5 great states may be said to have been laid.

Beginning on the meridian line which forms the western boundary of Pennsylvania, seven ranges of townships had been surveyed and laid off by order of Congress. In a portion of the territory the Indian title had been extinguished and 4 counties had been laid off by June, 1790—Washington, erected on July 26, 1788; Hamilton, January 2, 1790; St. Clair, April 27, 1790; and Knox, June 20, 1790. Of these, Washington and Hamilton counties were located in the present state of Ohio, Knox county in Indiana (north of Vincennes), and St. Clair county in Illinois.

The Northwest Territory contained but a few thousand inhabitants, nearly all of whom were in the fertile valley of the Ohio. Bands of marauding savages contested the advance of settlers and made the life of the pioneers hazardous and often tragic. Cincinnati was settled in 1780 and Marietta in 1788; but for years Cincinnati was only a garrison, and the first white child was not born there until 1790. The westernmost settlement on the Ohio was at Louisville. All of the Great Lake ports were in the hands of the British. Across the mountains, south of the Ohio, the only considerable settlements were in Kentucky and western Tennessee, whither settlers had been led by Daniel Boone and other hardy hunters, to make homes for themselves in the fertile blue grass regions. Only about one-twentieth of the people of the country lived west of the crest of the Appalachian mountains. The western country was so vast, and the facilities for transportation and communication so meager, that Jefferson predicted it would be a thousand years before the country as far west as the Mississippi would be thickly settled.

Local organization.—The states differed widely in local government, and hence in the geographic division of their counties. In New England the county was a corporation which existed for judicial rather than for political purposes. The political unit was the town, which received its charter from the state legislature, elected its own officers, and managed its local affairs in its own way.

In the Middle states—New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware—the county was of much

¹ Henry Gannett, United States Geological Survey, "Boundaries of the United States," third edition, page 30.

greater importance than in New England; on the other hand, the subdivision of the county called the township (except in Delaware, where it is called the hundred), was of less importance than the New England town. In New York the township was created by the county board; in New Jersey, by the state legislature; in Pennsylvania, by the county court of quarter sessions; in Delaware there appears not to have been any definite and systematic subdivision of the counties. New York adjoined New England, and a large part of the population of the state were persons who had migrated from that section, and naturally had carried with them the idea of the town system of local government; consequently, in 1790, the township limits in New York were better defined than those in any other state outside of New England, with the possible exception of New Jersey, the only Middle state in which the township was created by the state. In Pennsylvania the township, as a geographic area, was less important than in New York. The principal maps of Pennsylvania at the period under consideration show the location of mountains and rivers in detail, the names of counties, and the names of the more prominent towns and cities, but do not define the township boundaries. Population was increasing and extending with great rapidity, existing townships were being subdivided, and new ones were being created. Under these conditions the boundaries of the townships in the more thinly settled portions were very unstable.

In the Southern states the county was the political unit, fulfilling all the functions of both the county and town in New England. Subdivision into townships was made for administrative purposes only;¹ in some instances these subdivisions corresponded to the election precincts of the present day.

CURRENCY.

The close of the War of the Revolution found the finances of the country in almost hopeless confusion, and affairs had improved but little by 1790. There was no mint, and but little specie, and much of the trade, especially in the interior, was carried on by barter. All the coins in circulation were foreign, and many were badly worn and mutilated.

The commonest coin was the Spanish "milled dollar," or "piece of eight," which was obtained in trade from the West Indies; after the Revolution this coin, with its subdivisions, was the recognized unit of account. The coins of Great Britain were in limited circulation in all the states, and reckoning was often in pounds, shillings, and pence; but because of the

¹ In most of the county-system states the local subdivisions, by whatever name known, are created by the county authorities. They are but skeletons and exist only for convenience as districts for holding elections, for fixing the jurisdiction of the justice of the peace, or for determining the militia-company organization. Justices of the peace and constables are found in these districts, but the districts are in no sense political organs. (Hinsdale: *The American Government*, page 404.)

limited supply of English coins, and from other causes, the value of the pound and shilling differed materially in the different states. Hence it was often necessary, in business transactions, to name the state of exchange. The principal gold coins in use, other than the British pieces, were the French guinea and pistole, the Portuguese moidores and johannes, or "joe," and the Spanish doubloon and pistole; but the number of these was small. The silver coins in circulation, besides British pieces and the Spanish dollar, were chiefly the crown and livre of France. The copper coins were principally those of Great Britain. The supply of fractional currency was inadequate to the demand, and silver pieces were often cut into halves and quarters in order to make change.

In 1785 Congress adopted as the currency basis the silver dollar, on a decimal system, as exemplified in the Spanish dollar; and by 1790, in making exchanges, the value of all coins was quite generally referred to this standard. The system of reckoning in shillings and pence, however, persisted in some places and with some people. The equivalent of the dollar in New England and Virginia was 6 shillings; in New York and North Carolina 3 shillings; in South Carolina, 32½ shillings; in Georgia, 5 shillings; and in the four other colonies, 7½ shillings.

In addition to specie, there was a large amount of paper money in circulation. During the Revolution, and in the succeeding years of the Continental period, both the Confederation and the individual states had made large issues of paper money, and, being unable to redeem it, had refunded now and then by new issues. This was never worth its face value, and steadily depreciated from the date of issue. In March, 1780, the Continental currency had fallen to such a point that one dollar in silver was worth 65 dollars in paper. "Not worth a continental" came to be the phrase used for anything practically worthless. There can be no doubt that this paper money had much to do with the demoralization of industry during the Continental period. A contemporary writer and close observer of the times—Peletiah Webster, of Philadelphia—says: "We have suffered more from this cause than from any other cause of calamity. It has killed more men, perverted and corrupted the choicest interests of our country more, and done more injustice, than even the arms and artifices of our enemies." And again he says: "If it saved the state, it has violated the equity of our laws, corrupted the justice of our public administration, enervated the trade, industry, and manufactures of our country, and gone far to destroy the morality of our people." M. de Warville, in his travels in America in 1788, inveighed against the paper money of Rhode Island and New Jersey in tones no less uncertain. As a climax to the whole, Congress even refused to accept its own paper money in payment of postage.

In Virginia the lack of specie was supplied largely by paper currency called "tobacco money." This was a genuine asset currency, the notes being simply the public warehouse receipts for the tobacco placed therein. They circulated freely in the state, according to the known value of the tobacco.

In 1790 there were but three banks in the United States: The Bank of North America, established in the city of Philadelphia; the Bank of New York; and the Bank of Massachusetts, in Boston. Of these three, the first-named is the only one which had at any time a direct relation with the Federal Government.

TRANSPORTATION.

The common mode of travel before the Revolution was by boat or horse. The river valleys are usually the portions of a country first settled, and in the newer portions of America travel was often by river routes. Many persons did not own carriages or wagons; in consequence, a considerable proportion of the population had no requirement for wagon roads. This was particularly the case in the South, where the plantations were situated along the banks of navigable streams and products were marketed by boat.

With the growth of the colonies, and an increasing requirement for intercommunication, the extension of stagecoach systems was very rapid, and became especially marked after the Revolution. As might be expected, such extension was coincident with the opening of many new roads and the improvement of existing highways. In 1790, however, there remained many sections of the country in which there were no roads. On the maps of the states published during the last decade of the eighteenth century, no highways are shown in the eastern part of Maine, and but few in northern New England, northern and western New York, northwestern Pennsylvania, and throughout the mountainous regions of the South. Many highways were such in name only—often little more than bridle paths or blazed trails running through otherwise unbroken wildernesses. Even the more pretentious roads were poor, and often impassable. Bridges were all but unknown in the thinly settled portions; and in the fall and spring, when the rivers were covered with unsafe ice or were full of floating ice, travel was extremely dangerous.

Between important towns, especially in New England, better conditions prevailed. From Boston, roads branched off in many directions. A broad highway extended westward through Marlboro, Worcester, Spencer, and Springfield; another passed through Lynn, Salem, Portsmouth, and Portland, to the headwaters of the Kennebec; other roads led to Providence, Lowell, and Concord. Roads followed both banks of the Merrimac and Connecticut rivers; and an important road ran from Concord and Ashburnham, Mass., through Rutland, Vt., and along the

eastern shore of Lake Champlain. Over these highways the products of the surrounding country for long distances were brought to Boston for export.

The maps of Rhode Island and Connecticut at this period present a network of highways. From Providence a road skirted the western coast of Narragansett bay and followed the Sound to New York. In the Connecticut valley, also, there were many important roads.

In New York the Albany post road ran from New York city along the eastern bank of the Hudson river to Albany, and thence northward to Plattsburg and into Vermont. Through Albany passed the western highway from Massachusetts to the Mohawk valley, over which, in 1790, numbers of emigrants journeyed daily. In the wilds of western New York this road dwindled to a trail, and as such continued to Fort Niagara.

Across the state of New Jersey there were many roads, but the principal highway extended from New York through Newark, Elizabethtown, and Brunswick to Trenton. Another road skirted the eastern and southern shores of New Jersey. From Trenton a road passed through Burlington, Philadelphia, Chester, Wilmington, Elkton, Havre de Grace, Baltimore, Alexandria, and then southward.

Philadelphia was a common center of highways for a wide radius. This city was a great market for the sale of farm produce; in the autumn and winter the highways were filled with heavily loaded wagons from the surrounding farms, bound for Philadelphia. The main road from Philadelphia westward passed through Lancaster, Harrisburg, Carlisle, Shippensburg, Bedford, and Pittsburg. Several other roads crossed or nearly crossed the state, converging at the mountain passes and centering upon Pittsburg.

The maps of the Southern states show many roads, but the most important were along the seacoast. Leaving Alexandria, an important road ran through Fredericksburg and Jamestown, Va., Hertford, Newbern, and Wilmington, N. C., Charleston, S. C., and Savannah, Ga., thus completing a chain of highways from the Kennebec river to Georgia.

Several roads crossed the mountain barriers of Virginia and North Carolina to the West, those that were not lost on the banks of rivers being centered upon Lexington, Danville, Clarksville, Knoxville, and Nashville. One of the most famous of these was the "Wilderness road," which passed through the Cumberland Gap. It was the only direct overland route into Kentucky, and was marked out by Daniel Boone. Not until 1795 was this road widened into a wagon track.

Bridges over even the larger rivers were not common, and the smaller streams were usually forded; but by 1790 many bridges had been built near the large cities and on the principal roads. The greatest

engineering feat in the Republic was the bridge over the Charles river, connecting Boston and Charlestown. This bridge was built in 1786, and was then the longest bridge in the world. The Charles river was about as wide at that point as the Thames river at the famous London bridge.

Stagecoaching days had not arrived at their zenith by 1790, but the stagecoach was fast coming to be the common mode of inland travel. The system was developed to the greatest extent in New England, where the population was comparatively dense. As early as 1765 there were two stage routes between Providence and Hartford. In 1769 a coach was announced between Hartford and Norwich, "a day's journey only," and two coaches a week between Providence and Boston, which journey also was accomplished in a day. In 1793 there were daily stages between Boston and Providence, the fare being but a dollar. In 1790 stages ran between Newburyport and Boston three times a week in summer and twice a week in winter; between Boston and New York, by the way of Worcester, Springfield, and Hartford, three times a week in summer and twice a week in winter; between New York and Philadelphia, five times a week; between Philadelphia and Baltimore, and between Baltimore and Alexandria, three times a week; and between many other cities at less frequent intervals.

Mr. Levi Pease started the first line of stages between Boston and New York shortly after the conclusion of peace in 1783.¹ He also obtained the first government contract within the United States for carrying the mails by stage, and the first mail in this new service passed through Worcester on January 17, 1786.²

The distance between Boston and New York was covered under ordinary conditions in four days, and

¹ Stages from Portsmouth in New Hampshire, to Savannah in Georgia:

There is now a line of stages established from New Hampshire to Georgia, which go and return regularly, and carry the several mails, by order and permission of Congress.

The stages from Boston to Hartford in Connecticut set out, during the winter season, from the house of Levi Pease, at the sign of the New York Stage, opposite the Mall, in Boston, every Monday and Thursday morning, precisely at 5 o'clock, go as far as Worcester on the evenings of those days, and on the days following proceed to Palmer, and on the third day reach Hartford; the first stage reaches the city of New York on Saturday evening following.

The stages from New York for Boston set out on the same days, and reach Hartford at the same time as the Boston stages.

The stages from Boston exchange passengers with the stages from Hartford at Spencer, and the Hartford stages exchange with those from New York at Hartford. Passengers are again exchanged at Stratford ferry, and not again until their arrival in New York.

By the present regulation of the stages it is certainly the most convenient and expeditious way of traveling that can possibly be had in America, and in order to make it the cheapest, the proprietors of the stages have lowered their prices from four pence to three pence a mile, with liberty to passengers to carry fourteen pounds baggage.

In the summer season the stages are to run with the mail three times in a week instead of twice, as in the winter, by which means those who take passage at Boston, in the stage which sets off on

the time of the "diligence" between New York and Philadelphia was two days. Intelligence of Washington's election to the Presidency of the United States, in New York, on April 7, 1789, was conveyed to him at Mt. Vernon by Charles Thomson, the clerk of Congress, on April 14. Washington died on December 14, 1799, and news of an event of such great interest was probably forwarded with all possible dispatch; yet this news did not reach Boston until December 24.

The most traveled road in the country was doubtless the highway across New Jersey connecting New York and Philadelphia. For most of the distance this road was kept in excellent repair. For part of the distance, from New York to Newark, it represented considerable engineering enterprise, being built wholly of wood in the midst of water and "on a soil that trembled when stepped upon." The stagecoach used was a kind of open wagon, hung with curtains of leather and woolen, which could be raised or lowered at pleasure. It had four benches and would seat twelve persons. Light baggage was put under the benches, and the trunks were attached behind.

The highway from Philadelphia to Baltimore was less traveled, and, because of the character of the soil, was often in an almost impassable condition.³

Samuel Breck, speaking of travel between New York and Boston in 1787, says:

In those days there were two ways of getting to Boston: One way by a clumsy stage that travels about 40 miles a day, with the same horses the whole day; so that rising at 3 or 4 o'clock and prolonging the day's ride into the night, one made out to reach Boston in six days; the other route was by packet-sloop up the Sound to Providence and thence by land to Boston. This was full of uncertainty, sometimes being traveled in three and sometimes in nine days. I myself have been that length of time (nine days) going from New York to Boston.

Monday morning, may arrive at New York on the Thursday evening following, and all the mails during that season are to be but four days going from Boston to New York, and so from New York to Boston.

Those who intend taking passage in the stages must leave their names and baggage the evening preceding the morning that the stage sets off, at the several places where the stages put up, and pay one-half of their passage to the place where the first exchange of passengers is made, if bound so far, and if not, one-half of their passage so far as they are bound.

N. B.—Way passengers will be accommodated when the stages are not full, at the same rate, viz, 3 pence only per mile.

Said Pease keeps good lodging, etc., for gentlemen travelers, and stabling for horses.

Boston, January 2, 1786.—*Massachusetts Spy, or the Worcester Gazette, January 5, 1786.*

² Alice Morse Earle: *Stage Coach and Tavern Days*, pages 295 to 297.

³ A Frenchman who made a journey from Philadelphia to Baltimore in November, 1788, thus describes a portion of his trip: "From thence (Havre de Grace) to Baltimore are reckoned 60 miles. The road in general is frightful, it is over a clay soil, full of deep ruts, always in the midst of forests; frequently obstructed by trees overset by the wind, which obliged us to seek a new passage among the woods. I can not conceive why the stage does not often overset. Both the drivers and their horses discover great skill and dexterity, being accustomed to these roads."—*Brisson de Warville: Travels in the United States of America (1788).*

At that time there was scarcely a town along the coast of Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Jersey that was not connected by sailing sloops with New York. The fare from Providence to New York by packet was \$6. From ports in New England, sloops made frequent trips to Boston; and from the southern ports, to the nearest principal cities. All through the advertisements in the newspapers of that period were notices of the regular or occasional sailings of sloops to different seacoast towns. These sloops had accommodations for passengers, and were generally comfortable, but with head winds the time of arrival was very uncertain. Meals were charged for at high rates—sometimes in excess of the fare; and it was often claimed that the skipper delayed the voyage when there were many passengers, in order to profit at their expense.

THE POSTAL SERVICE.

The post office system established during the Continental period was continued when the Federal Government was established. This system was based upon an "Ordinance for Regulating the Post Office of the United States of America," passed by the Continental Congress, October 18, 1782. In 1790 there were 75 post offices and 1,875 miles of post roads; for the first quarter of that year the receipts were \$37,935 and the expenditures \$32,140, which left a surplus of \$5,795.

The main post road ran from Wiscasset, Me., through Boston, Springfield, Hartford, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Alexandria, Wilmington, and Charleston, to Savannah. With this as a main system, crossroads branched off, connecting the principal settlements; but a large number of important towns, and even entire states, had no communication by post. Many of the post roads were marked by milestones, set up when Franklin was Postmaster-General, to assist the postmasters in ascertaining the postage. Indeed, some of these milestones are still in existence.

Most of the mail was carried by stages, the Postmaster-General being instructed to favor stage lines in awarding contracts.¹ The only portions of the main system served by postriders were from Wiscasset, Me., to Newburyport, Mass., and from Georgetown, S. C., to Charleston, S. C. Postriders still rode, however, on several of the crossroads.

¹"The mail is now carried in stagecoaches in which there are generally several passengers, sometimes as many as six, and it is supposed that many more letters go by the passengers than by the mail; it is to be supposed that most persons would wish to be excused from the trouble of carrying these letters, and if this objection passes they will be furnished with an excuse for not taking them; and it appears very unreasonable and absurd that the public should pay the proprietors of the stages for transporting the mail, and in this way be defrauded out of that revenue which they are undoubtedly entitled to receive."—*Mr. Livermore, of House of Representatives, June, 1790.*

At this time there were about twenty different contracts for carrying the mail, and this had a tendency to confuse the system.² The Postmaster-General states, in a report submitted to Congress in 1790, that "every contractor consults his own interest as to the days and hours of arrival and departure of the mail, without having a due regard to the necessary connection of the post office. A regular system of days and hours of departure has never been established farther southward than Alexandria."

The revenue of the post office at this period arose "principally from letters passing from one seaport to another." The amount of postage depended upon the distance the letter was to be carried. The postage on letters was usually collected at the place of delivery, but the postmaster had authority to collect it at the place of posting if he desired to do so.

In 1787 the postage on letters established in the ordinance of 1782 was reduced 25 per cent, and the Postmaster-General was instructed to fix such rates for the carriage of large packages as he judged would be most likely to induce persons to patronize the post. These rates continued in force until 1792.

It has been asserted by many historians that newspapers were not sent by post at this period, but the ordinance quoted seems to make provision for them to be so sent. Moreover, the Postmaster-General states that "newspapers, which have hitherto passed free of postage, circulate extensively through the post offices; one or two cents upon each would probably amount to as much as the expense of transporting the mail."

By a law approved February 20, 1792, the following rates of postage went into effect: For the postage of every single letter—under 30 miles, 6 cents; 30 to 60 miles, 8 cents; 60 to 100 miles, 10 cents; 100 to 150 miles, 12½ cents; 150 to 200 miles, 15 cents; 200 to 250 miles, 17 cents; 250 to 350 miles, 20 cents; 350 to 450 miles, 22 cents; over 450 miles, 25 cents. "And every double letter shall pay double the said rates; every triple letter, triple; every packet weighing one ounce avoirdupois, to pay at the rate of four single letters for

²"No letters from the northward or eastward of this, bearing date between the 15th and 30th of May, have come to my hands; and having abundant evidence, before I reached Charleston, of the slow movement of the mail, through the three southernmost states, I did, before I left that place, on the 9th of that month, direct that all letters which might be for and following me, be returned to Fredericksburg, as the first place I should touch the post line upon my return. But, these directions not arriving in Richmond in time, as I conjecture, the letters of that interval agreeably to the superscriptions, which I am informed were on them, were forwarded from that place to Taylor's Ferry in expectation of meeting me there. But to this circumstance, which was unknown to me, and to finding from better information than I set out with, that it would be more convenient to cross James river higher up than at Taylor's, is to be ascribed my missing the communications, which were made between the 15th and 30th of May, as mentioned before. These dispatches I may be long without, and perhaps never get; for there are no cross posts in those parts, and the letters, which will have to pass through many hands, may find some who are not deficient in curiosity."—*The Writings of George Washington, Vol. XII, page 45.*



POST OFFICES IN THE UNITED STATES, 1790.

each ounce, and in that proportion for any greater weight."

The rate on newspapers was fixed at one cent for carriage under 100 miles, and one and one-half cents for a greater distance. But every printer of newspapers was allowed to send one paper free to each and every other printer of newspapers within the United States, subject to such regulations as the Postmaster-General should provide. These rates continued until 1816. The franking privilege at this time was quite extensive, and undoubtedly made serious inroads upon the revenue.

Postage could not be paid in paper currency; specie alone was receivable. As the coins in the different states varied, the payment was attended with some confusion. The Postmaster-General, in his report to Congress in 1790, states that "the postage on a single letter from New York to Philadelphia is one penny-weight eight grains, or sixpence two-thirds Pennsylvania currency. This can not be made out in any pieces of coin current in the United States. The letters are charged with seven pence, which is right; for if there must be a fraction, it ought always to be taken in favor of the post office." He further stated that the postage on letters probably averaged about fifteen cents.

The 75 post offices which had been established up to 1790 were distributed as follows:

Maine.—Wiscasset, Portland.

New Hampshire.—Portsmouth.

Massachusetts.—Newburyport, Ipswich, Salem, Boston, Worcester, Springfield.

Rhode Island.—Providence, Newport, East Greenwich, South Kingstown.

Connecticut.—Hartford, Middletown, New Haven, Stratford, Fairfield, Norwalk, Stamford, New London, Norwich.

New York.—New York.

New Jersey.—Newark, Elizabethtown, Brunswick, Princeton, Trenton.

Pennsylvania.—Bristol, Philadelphia, Chester, Lancaster, Yorktown, Carlisle, Shippensburg, Chambersburg, Bedford, Pittsburg.

Delaware.—Wilmington, Duck Creek, Dover.

Maryland.—Elkton, Charlestown, Havre de Grace, Harford, Baltimore, Bladensburg, Georgetown, Warwick, Georgetown Cross Roads, Chestertown, Chester Mills, Easton.

Virginia.—Alexandria, Colchester, Dumfries, Fredericksburg, Bowling Green, Hanover Court House, Richmond, Petersburg, Cabinpoint, Smithfield, Suffolk, Williamsburg, Yorktown, Hampton, Norfolk.

North Carolina.—Edenton, Washington, Newbern, Wilmington.

South Carolina.—Georgetown, Charleston.

Georgia.—Savannah.

It appears from this analysis that the state of Vermont, the district of Kentucky, and the Southwest Territory (Tennessee) possessed no postal facilities whatever; and that three states, including the prominent state of New York, had but one post office each. It is evident, however, that the postal conditions at the date of the First Census were generally regarded as inadequate and unsuited to the requirements of the country. The act of 1792, which was an attempt to

effect a material improvement in the postal conditions, resulted in the prompt increase in the number of post offices. The number reported by the Post Office Department in 1796 was 503.

Analysis of the geographic location of the post offices in existence in 1790.

United States.....	75
New England states.....	22
Maine.....	2
New Hampshire.....	1
Vermont.....	1
Massachusetts.....	6
Rhode Island.....	4
Connecticut.....	9
Middle states.....	19
New York.....	1
New Jersey.....	5
Pennsylvania.....	10
Delaware.....	3
Southern states.....	34
Maryland.....	12
Virginia.....	15
West Virginia.....	1
North Carolina.....	4
South Carolina.....	2
Georgia.....	1
Kentucky.....	1
Southwest Territory.....	1

It will be observed that in 1790 just about half of the post offices were situated in the Southern states. An analysis of the larger number reported in 1796 shows a similar proportion, suggesting an apparent desire on the part of the Federal Government to maintain equal postal facilities in the various sections of the Republic.

INDUSTRIES.

During the period of constitutional government in the United States the inhabitants of the Republic have derived their support, and individuals and communities have accumulated wealth, principally from three main classes of industries—agriculture, manufactures, and mining. To these should be added the fisheries, and also commerce—both interstate and foreign; the last-named class, however, depends largely upon the products of the other callings.

The conditions which prevailed in 1790 in connection with each of these great industries were the beginnings of the operations which, steadily increasing in magnitude during the nineteenth century, have attained proportions that have attracted the attention and admiration of other nations.

Problems which were confronted at that period in connection with marketing foodstuffs and merchandise were entirely different from those which prevailed after the lapse of a few decades. In the interior, laborious journeys by horse or in stage or wagon, along newly broken highways, formed the sole means of communication by land. Water transportation was afforded by sailing vessels making trips which were usually without schedule and almost always uncertain. Hence, each state depended principally upon its own

products not only for food, but for most of the other requirements of its communities.

Merchandise and produce that could not stand a freight charge of \$15 per ton could not be carried overland to a consumer 150 miles from the point of production; as roads were, a distance of 50 miles from market often made industrial independence expedient. Where the produce of the farms could not be sold, where wood and lumber were not marketable, the people had no resource but to raise their own wool and flax, and spin and weave and make their own clothing. Other crafts felt these influences, although the working of wood and metals and leather fell to skilled artisans in the villages rather than to the household. The local store had a small traffic in articles that could not be produced, and in luxuries. Salt fish was widely distributed; rum went everywhere; salt was a universal necessity; tools and utensils and furniture were imported; a few articles of dress carried the style of the city to the hamlet, so insignificant was the traffic uniting the country town to the great world.¹

In all callings the changes which have been in progress from 1790 to 1900 have been in the direction of the utilization of the services of others and the employment of labor saving machinery to increase product and the profit of the employer. These changes have been particularly marked in connection with manufacturing and mining enterprises. In commerce—a calling in which the services of others were freely employed at the close of the eighteenth century—the change in this particular has been much less pronounced.

Although the commerce of the United States has assumed enormous proportions during the century or more which has elapsed since 1790, the greatest development of the nation has been in the three main classes of occupations—agriculture, manufactures, and mining. In fact, analysis of the population statistics of the United States in 1900 shows that of the 30,000,000 persons engaged in gainful occupations, approximately 20,100,000, or 67 per cent, claimed some connection with one of these three classes.

It is unfortunate that there are no industrial statistics for 1790. It is possible, however, to sketch with some degree of accuracy the relative importance to the community of each of the industries mentioned as a source of subsistence and wealth.

Agriculture.—The economic conditions which prevailed in 1790 present a marked contrast with those which have developed since and which prevailed universally in 1900. In 1900 the proportion of those engaged in agriculture was only about one-third of all persons gainfully employed. At the close of the eighteenth century the greater part of the inhabitants of the United States derived their support from this industry. It is probable that nine out of every ten breadwinners were engaged in some form of agriculture during the greater part of the year; indeed, in the Southern states the proportion was somewhat larger.

Horses, cattle, and swine, in numbers proportionate to the needs of the population, were raised in every

state. Sheep were raised principally in the New England and Middle states. The principal wheat producing state was Pennsylvania. The staple crop of Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina was tobacco, and that of South Carolina was rice. Cotton was but little cultivated. Some hemp and flax were raised in the New England and Middle states.

The more thrifty and capable citizens engaged in agriculture in 1790 were doubtless obtaining a modest return, but it is unlikely that any large fortunes were being amassed from distinctly agricultural operations. In the South, it is true, some planters owned very large plantations and large numbers of slaves; but it is probable that few individuals had acquired great wealth. In the North slave labor was unprofitable for numerous reasons; thus it came about that in the Northern states nearly every farmer tilled his own land, and, not being able to secure labor when he wanted it, was unable to accumulate wealth by utilizing systematically the services of others.

Manufactures.—During the Colonial period the mother country had discouraged the ambitions of the colonists in the direction of manufactures. At that time Great Britain was upon the threshold of the extraordinary industrial activity which developed during the nineteenth century; it was obviously to her advantage to prevent the colonies from securing independence in manufactures, in order to maintain and extend the market for her own products. During the Revolution this source of supply was suddenly cut off, and under the pressure of necessity many manufacturing enterprises sprang up in the rebellious colonies. Upon the conclusion of peace in 1783, however, the English manufacturers flooded the American market with their manufactured products. This state of affairs for a time embarrassed and discouraged native manufacturers.

At the period under consideration manufactures in the United States consisted almost entirely of neighborhood industries, or hand trades. The modern factory system, involving division of labor and the employment of labor saving machinery, was practically unknown. In several of the shoe shops of Lynn and other New England cities, some division of labor had been introduced, but for the most part each workman made an entire shoe. Practically the same conditions obtained in other branches of manufacture.

In January, 1790, when President Washington delivered his first annual message to Congress, he was clad in a suit made of broadcloth woven at Hartford, Conn. In this message the subject of the promotion of manufactures in the young Republic was commended to the attention of Congress, and in pursuance of this suggestion Congress requested the Secretary of the Treasury to prepare a report upon the state of manufacturing industries, in order to render the United States industrially independent of other nations, so

¹ Wilbert Lee Anderson: The Country Town, page 20.

far as practicable. In accordance with this request Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, in the following year (1791) submitted to Congress a report which added materially to his reputation as a statesman. This report was twice reprinted by order of Congress.

Already the ingenuity of the citizens of the United States had created, here and there in the New England and Middle states, infant industries which subsequently developed far beyond the dreams of that period. Indeed, the number of specific industries noted as in existence in 1790 was more than double the number of those which were known to have existed prior to the Revolution.

Mr. Tench Coxe, the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, estimated the value of manufactures in the United States in 1790 at more than \$20,000,000. Three years later he reported that the value of manufactures was, in his opinion, double the value of the exports of native commodities, and much greater than the value of all imports.¹

A large proportion of the manufactured goods included by Secretary Hamilton and Mr. Coxe was produced in households. In many villages and upon farms, during periods of the year in which their services were not actively required in agricultural pursuits, entire families devoted their time to spinning, weaving, and making up coarse cloths. It was estimated that in many localities from two-thirds to four-fifths of the clothing of the inhabitants was made by themselves. The primary demand for such products was of course domestic, but a large surplus found its way into the markets.

The textile industry had made but a small beginning in 1790. Because of competition with the factory product of England, where the making of textiles had already reached a high degree of perfection, the progress of the manufacturers in the young Republic was slow and discouraging. A cotton mill was established at Beverly, Mass., in 1787, but did not long survive. In Rhode Island, however, Samuel Slater, who had emigrated from England, constructed at Pawtucket a factory with machinery on the English plan. This establishment was a success from the outset, and formed the first successful cotton mill in the United States. Thereafter the growth of textile industries was steadily away from household toward factory product.

In 1790 the shipbuilding industry had attained considerable proportions. The success of this industry was, in large measure, due to the facilities for the construction of vessels and ships of all sizes, resulting from excellent harbors, with timber growing to the water's edge. Mr. Coxe observed in 1793 that the shipbuilding industry in the United States had grown more rapidly in 1792 than in any prior year since the settlement of the country. Generally speaking, shipbuilding had

never been better understood and had never been carried to greater perfection, than at that period and in the early decades of the nineteenth century.

Manufactures of iron, also, were of considerable importance. In 1790 this industry centered in the Middle states and Virginia, though considerable quantities of manufactured iron were produced in Massachusetts, where in 1784 there were 76 iron works—most of which, however, were small. In a debate in the House of Representatives in the First Congress, while a tariff upon spikes, nails, etc., was under consideration, Representative Ames, of Massachusetts, said: "This manufacture, with very little encouragement, has grown up remarkably. It has become common for the country people in Massachusetts to erect small forges in their chimney corners, and in winter, and on evenings when little other work can be done, great quantities of nails are made, even by children. These people take the rod iron of the merchant and return him the nails, and in consequence of this easy mode of barter the manufacture is prodigiously great. These advantages are not exclusively in the hands of the people of Massachusetts. The business might be prosecuted in a similar manner in every state exerting equal industry."

Paper making was pursued extensively in several of the states. In 1790 there were 53 paper mills within range of the Philadelphia market. In the First Congress it was stated in debate that the paper mills of Pennsylvania produced annually 70,000 reams of various kinds of paper, which competed favorably with the imported product.

Glass was manufactured in considerable quantities in several of the states, among which Virginia was prominent. The manufacture of boots and shoes, the curing and dressing of fish, the production of soap, of tobacco products, and of various articles of necessity, utility, or comfort were well under way. But at that period little or nothing was manufactured in the United States solely for luxury or elegance.

Mining.—At the close of the eighteenth century the mineral resources of the United States, as they are known to-day and have been known for many years, were practically unsuspected. Probably no section of the continent is richer in mineral resources than that including Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and portions of contiguous states; yet the inhabitants of the United States in 1790 had no knowledge of the great natural wealth of these areas. The existence of petroleum in Pennsylvania and of extensive deposits of coal and iron in that state and in Virginia was known, and iron works were numerous in many states; but little of the coal was mined, and the use and value of petroleum were unknown.

This ignorance concerning the mineral resources of the country, however, is not surprising; the territory containing the greatest mineral wealth was either thinly settled or an unexplored wilderness. Nor is it surprising that the mineral resources known to exist

¹First Century of the Republic (Harper's), page 161.

were not developed. Mining operations as understood to-day were unknown, and the mining and treatment of ores was conducted in the most primitive fashion. The steam engine had not yet become the servant of the miner, either at the mine or upon rails. Indeed, the cost of transportation was so great that mining was unprofitable unless conducted near large cities or waterways.

Coal was consumed in the United States in very small quantities. Ignorant of the vast stores of this mineral which underlie entire counties, those who required coal imported it. The quantity brought into the country during the year ending September 30, 1790, was 183,677 bushels. But bituminous coal was being mined at Spottsylvania, in the Richmond basin, in Virginia, and by 1789 some of this found its way into the northern markets; in 1789 Virginia coal sold in Philadelphia at 1s. 6d. a bushel. Bituminous coal was mined, or rather shoveled, from the earth, also, in the Pittsburg district in Pennsylvania; but none of this found its way across the mountains. Seams of anthracite had been discovered at Wilkes-Barre, Plymouth, Kingston, and Exeter, in Luzerne county, and at several places in Schuylkill county, Pa., and along the Hudson river, in New York. Some smiths are said to have used this material in their forges, but the value of anthracite as a fuel was practically unknown.¹ A newspaper of the time stated that these seams might some day become valuable on account of the possible existence of fossils embedded in them.

Iron ore was mined in the American colonies as early as the seventeenth century. Practically all of the American product was made with charcoal. In 1790 the production of iron in this country appeared to be fully equal to the consumption. The exports of pig iron in that year amounted to 3,555 tons.

Iron was mined in nearly every state. Bog and pond ores were obtained in eastern Massachusetts; rich iron ore was mined at Cumberland Hill, R. I., at Lime Rock and other places in Connecticut, in Orange county, N. Y., and in many places in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia.

Morris county, N. J., was particularly prominent in the production of iron. Mr. J. M. Swank quotes from Jedediah Morse the following record of iron enterprises which were in existence in New Jersey between 1790 and 1795:

The iron manufactories are, of all others, the greatest source of wealth to the state. Iron works are erected in Gloucester, Burlington, Morris, and other counties. The mountains in the county of Morris give rise to a number of streams necessary and convenient for these works, and at the same time furnish a copious supply of wood and ore of a superior quality. In this county alone are no less than seven rich iron mines, from which might be taken ore suffi-

¹In 1812 Col. George Shoemaker, of Pottsville, Pa., loaded nine wagons with coal from his mines at Centreville and hauled it to Philadelphia, where with great difficulty he sold two loads at the cost of transportation and gave the other seven loads away. He was by many regarded as an impostor for attempting to sell stone as coal.—*J. M. Swank: Iron in All Ages, page 474.*

cient to supply the United States; and to work it into iron, are two furnaces, two rolling and slitting mills, and about thirty forges, containing from two to four fires each. These works produce annually about 540 tons of bar iron, 800 tons of pigs, besides large quantities of hollow ware, sheet iron, and nail rods. In the whole state it is supposed there is yearly made about 1,200 tons of bar iron, 1,200 ditto of pigs, 80 ditto of nail rods, exclusive of hollow ware and various other castings, of which vast quantities are made. Steel was manufactured at Trenton in time of the war, but not considerably since.²

In Pennsylvania rich deposits of iron were known to exist in at least 11 of the 22 counties, and considerable quantities of pig iron were produced in Berks, Chester, Dauphin, Franklin, Lancaster, Mifflin, and Washington counties.

In "Notes on the State of Virginia," written in 1781 and 1782, Thomas Jefferson mentioned several iron mines on the south side of the James river and at other places in the state, and estimated the annual output of the mines of that state at approximately 5,000 tons.

Lead was found in Herkimer county, N. Y., and in the mountains of Virginia, but the quantity produced was small. The area which is now southwestern Missouri, but which in 1790 was not a part of the United States, contained lead mines of considerable importance at that period; from about the middle of the eighteenth century to the year 1800 the output of these mines is said to have aggregated 8,000 tons.

Several attempts had been made to mine gold, silver, and copper in different states; but for the most part they were financial failures and were soon abandoned. Copper mines in Connecticut, New Jersey, and Maryland had been worked intermittently during the eighteenth century; but none were in operation in 1790, with the possible exception of one at Belleville, N. J.

Montgomery county, N. Y., supplied small amounts of sulphur, and caves of Virginia considerable quantities of saltpeter.

Fisheries.—In 1790 the United States had 539 vessels and 3,287 seamen engaged in the cod fishery, all in Massachusetts—Marblehead and Gloucester being the leading towns in this industry.

The whaling industry, also, was confined almost entirely to Massachusetts. Whaling operations were carried on principally in the waters of the North Atlantic, as far as Greenland. The sperm whale of the South Atlantic was but little hunted at this period. It was not, indeed, until a few years later that the whaling industry assumed large proportions.

Only about 40 whaling vessels were fitted out each year, most of them from Dartmouth (which then included New Bedford), Wellfleet and other Cape Cod ports, and Nantucket. Probably less than 1,000 seamen were employed; but the industry gave rise to dependent industries, which afforded employment to a considerable number in addition.

²J. M. Swank, *Iron in All Ages*, page 162.

The cod and whale fisheries represented almost the whole fishing industry in 1790, though herring were caught on the New England coast, and oysters were gathered in the South for local consumption.

The total tonnage of the fishing vessels of each state is given in Table 5, on page 30.

Commerce.—Attention has already been called to the fact that by 1790 the shipbuilding industry had attained considerable proportions in the United States. At first the ships constructed were disposed of in England. In time, however, the colonies awoke to the possibilities of profitable trade, and a maritime class arose, bringing about an extensive interchange of products between the inhabitants of North America and those of other lands.

In 1790 commerce offered the most promising field for the profitable investment of capital, and was the chief outlet for business ability and capacity. It also afforded the principal opportunity for the accumulation of great individual wealth. John Jacob Astor had already acquired, in the fur trade, a fortune (amounting to \$1,000,000) of great magnitude for that period. In all the large seaboard towns were to be found merchants who owned vessels plying to foreign ports. In these ships they transported merchandise, either on their own account or on that of others. Many of the merchants in Boston, New York, and Philadelphia had amassed fortunes which enabled them to live in a style of luxury and elegance; John Hancock, of Boston, and Stephen Girard, of Philadelphia, were examples of this class of citizens.

The prosperity of the mercantile and commercial interests of the colonies had not been viewed with favor in England. Many restrictions were placed by the British Government upon the commerce of the colonies. But in the face of these restrictions—many of which were often disregarded—the colonies had succeeded in maintaining a considerable commerce up to the beginning of the Revolutionary War. This contest brought disaster to the commercial interests of the country, especially to the commercial state of Rhode Island and to many ports in other New England states. After the conclusion of peace, the volume of commerce grew rapidly, but the centers of commercial prosperity did not continue the same as they were before the war.

By the close of the eighteenth century the commerce of the young Republic had greatly increased. American vessels had pushed to the Orient and to the coasts of Africa, and had established a profitable trade with those regions.

The following extract affords an idea of the commercial activities of the time:

Our public papers vaunt the magnificence of the European nations, who make discoveries and voyages round the world; the Americans do the same thing; but they boast not of their exploits with so much emphasis. In September, 1790, the ship *Columbia*,

Captain Gray, sailed to discover the northwest of this continent; this is his second voyage round the world; the brig *Hope* has sailed for the same object. Our papers have resounded with the quarrels of the English and Spaniards for the commerce of Nootka Sound. The Americans make no quarrels; but they have already made a considerable commerce on the same coast in furs and peltry. They were there trading in the year 1789, in good intelligence with both parties. In the same year no less than forty-four vessels were sent from the single town of Boston to the northwest of America, to India, and to China. They bound not their hopes here; they expect, one day, to open a communication more direct to Nootka Sound. It is probable that this place is not far from the headwater of the Mississippi; which the Americans will soon navigate to its source, when they shall begin to people Louisiana and the interior of New Mexico.¹

According to American State Papers, the imports into and exports from the United States for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1790, were each valued at a little over \$20,000,000, or about \$5 per capita. Exports to the value of \$6,888,978.50 were sent to Great Britain and Ireland; to the value of \$2,077,757.50, to the British West Indies; and to the value of \$3,284,656, to the French West Indies.

The principal imports into the country subject to duty during the same period, in order of value, were distilled spirits, wines, molasses, sugar, coffee, tea, salt, nails and spikes, steel (unwrought), candles, cheese, and soap.

The principal articles of export for that year, arranged according to value, were flour, tobacco, rice, wheat, corn, dried fish, potash, indigo, staves and heading, horses, meal, beef, and boards.

The changes in the value of foreign commerce between 1790 and 1907 are indicated in the following table:

YEAR.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	Total.	Per capita.	Total.	Per capita.
1790 ¹	\$20,000,000	\$5.09	\$20,205,156	\$5.14
1907.....	1,434,421,425	16.55	1,880,851,078	21.60

¹ August, 1789, to September 30, 1790.

² The value of imports subject to ad valorem duties was \$15,388,409.11. The American State Papers do not give the value of those which were subject to specific duties and those which were free, but responsible historians have stated that the value of the total imports for 1790 was slightly in excess of \$20,000,000.

³ Tench Coxe, the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury under Washington, in making his report on the value of the exports for the fiscal year 1790, says: "In addition to the foregoing, a considerable number of packages have been exported from the United States, the value of which, being omitted in the returns from the custom-houses, could not be introduced into this abstract."

It will be observed that the changes in per capita averages in a century amounted to a threefold increase in imports and more than a fourfold increase in exports.

The following data as to the tonnage of American and foreign vessels entering the ports of the United States in 1790 are taken from Burnaby's Travels:²

¹ M. de Warville, Travels in North America, 1791.

² Burnaby's Travels through North America, third edition, Appendix No. 2.

A CENTURY OF POPULATION GROWTH.

TABLE 5.—TONNAGE OF VESSELS WHICH ENTERED THE PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1790, BY STATE OF ENTRY.

STATE.	Principal ports.	TONNAGE OF VESSELS BELONGING TO—								
		All nations.	United States.				United States with some foreign country.	Foreign countries.		
			Total.	Vessels in the over-sea trade.	Coasting vessels of over 20 tons.	Fishing vessels.		Total.	Great Britain and Ireland.	All other.
United States.....		766,091	502,526	363,093	113,181	26,252	651	262,914	225,495	37,419
New Hampshire.....	Portsmouth.....	17,011	13,519	11,376	1,670	473		3,492	3,459	33
Massachusetts.....	Boston, Salem.....	197,368	177,022	99,123	53,073	24,826		20,346	19,493	853
Rhode Island ¹	Newport.....	9,842	9,526	7,062	1,626	838		316	96	220
Connecticut.....	New Haven, New London.....	33,173	30,617	24,287	6,330			2,556	2,556	
New York.....	New York.....	92,114	48,274	42,071	6,203			43,840	36,917	6,923
New Jersey.....		5,861	5,514	2,085	3,429			347	267	80
Pennsylvania.....	Philadelphia.....	109,918	56,997	50,942	6,055		651	52,270	42,604	9,666
Delaware.....		5,924	4,142	2,681	1,461			1,782	1,782	
Maryland.....	Baltimore.....	88,255	55,431	39,272	16,099	60		32,824	23,340	9,484
Virginia.....	Norfolk, Alexandria.....	103,893	43,529	33,560	9,914	55		60,364	56,273	4,091
North Carolina ²	Wilmington, Newbern.....	35,126	29,941	24,218	5,723			5,185	4,942	243
South Carolina ³	Charleston.....	40,361	17,380	16,872	508			22,981	18,735	4,246
Georgia.....	Savannah.....	27,245	10,634	9,544	1,090			16,611	15,041	1,570

¹ Returns from June 21, 1790.
² Returns from March 11, 1790.
³ Returns for Charleston are for three-fourths of the year only.

The ports of Massachusetts show a larger total tonnage and also a larger tonnage of United States vessels (both over-sea and coastwise) than those of any other state; and to this large proportion should be added nearly all the vessels engaged in the fisheries.

The countries owning the foreign vessels for which the tonnage is included in Table 5, and the tonnage brought in the vessels of the different countries, arranged in the order of their importance, were as follows:

COUNTRY.	Total tonnage.
All foreign countries.....	262,914
Great Britain.....	222,347
Ireland.....	3,148
France.....	13,435
Netherlands.....	8,515
Spain.....	8,551
Portugal.....	2,925
Denmark.....	1,619
Germany.....	1,369
Prussia.....	394
Sweden.....	311

Most of the imports and exports were landed in or sent from a few ports. The most important of these were Salem, Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Charleston. About one-fifth of the value of imports was landed in New York, while about one-third of that of exports was shipped from Philadelphia.

Salem was the headquarters for the Pacific ocean and East Indian trade. More than forty ships were employed in this trade, principally from that port. The exports were ginseng, shipped direct to China, and beef, pork, flour, and wheat, generally disposed of at intermediate ports, on the outward passage.

From Boston the principal articles of export were rum, potash, pearlash, lumber, fish, and the products of the fisheries, particularly whale oil, whalebone,

soap, and candles. Rum was sent everywhere, but principally to Africa and its islands; most of the potash and pearlash, to Great Britain; lumber, principally to Great Britain and the West Indies; dried and pickled fish, to the French and Dutch West Indies; and whale oil, principally to France.

The shipping from Newport, New Haven, and New London was carried on principally with the West Indies, and was not extensive. The exports were lumber, live stock, grain, and other farm produce. From New Haven occasional cargoes of flaxseed were sent to Ireland.

Much of the commerce of New York was carried on with the West Indies. The principal exports from this city were wheat, flour, lumber, beef, pork, and live stock.

The exports from Philadelphia exceeded in value those from any other port, largely because of the great quantities of flour and wheat exported. The West Indies afforded the principal market for flour, most of which was carried in American bottoms; Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal consumed the greater part of that sent to Europe. Nearly all of the wheat was sent to Europe. Other important exports were Indian corn, meal, live stock, beef, and pork.

The chief exports from Baltimore were tobacco, Indian corn, wheat, and flour. The tobacco trade was conducted principally by foreign agents, with European capital, and largely in foreign shipping; most of the tobacco was sent to Great Britain and Holland. Wheat went in large quantities, in foreign vessels, to Spain and Portugal. Indian corn went chiefly to Portugal, though much of the corn was sent in American craft to the Eastern and Southern states.

Charleston was by far the most important port of the South. The foreign commerce was large, and

about three-fifths of it was carried in foreign vessels. From Charleston was sent nearly all the rice and indigo exported. Great Britain, Germany, Holland, France, and the West Indies took most of the rice, and Great Britain and Holland nearly all the indigo. Other exports were tar, pitch, turpentine, tobacco, lumber, and cotton.

The exports from Savannah were much the same

as those from Charleston, and were carried principally in foreign vessels.

The following table, from American State Papers; shows whence the incoming tonnage came. The data do not agree with those shown in Table 5—Burnaby's table having been compiled later, and probably from revised figures.

TABLE 6.—TONNAGE OF VESSELS WHICH ENTERED THE PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEAR¹ ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1790, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO COUNTRY BY WHICH OWNED AND TRADE IN WHICH EMPLOYED.

OWNED BY—	Total tonnage.	TONNAGE IN OVER-SEA TRADE, FROM PORTS IN—						TONNAGE OF COASTERS.			Tonnage of foreign vessels (included in the foregoing) from ports into which vessels of the United States are not admitted.	
		All foreign countries.	Europe and its islands. ²	Asia and its islands. ³	Africa and its islands. ^{2,3}	Foreign America.		Total.	Licensed.	Un-licensed.		
						South of the United States.						
						West Indies.	All other.					
All countries.....	726,561	542,962	240,485	4,842	384	268,735	4,632	23,884	183,599	113,181	70,418	115,428
United States.....	457,468	287,616	113,203	4,667	305	167,400	281	1,760	169,852	113,181	56,671
United States with some foreign country.....	964	964	964
Foreign countries.....	268,129	254,382	126,318	175	79	101,335	4,351	22,124	13,747	13,747	115,428
United Kingdom.....	229,893	220,116	103,993
Great Britain.....	226,747	217,183	101,605	92,876	1,260	21,987	9,777	9,777	110,952
Ireland.....	3,146	2,933	7,512	92,331	1,260	21,987	9,564	9,564	110,407
France.....	13,802	11,875	2,388	545	213	213	545
Netherlands.....	6,941	6,332	4,508	175	79	4,075	34	1,927	1,927	34
Spain.....	8,772	8,582	3,996	1,764	609	609
Portugal.....	2,850	2,850	2,432	1,565	2,918	103	190	190	4,269
Denmark.....	2,416	1,749	1,067	245	173	667	667	173
Hanse towns.....	1,948	1,948	1,948	682
Prussia.....	394	394	394
Sweden.....	311	183	183
All other.....	802	802	802	128

¹ Returns for North Carolina, from March 11, 1790; those for Rhode Island, from June 21, 1790.

² Madeira, Canary, and Cape Verde islands are included with Europe, instead of with Africa.

³ Cape of Good Hope and islands of Bourbon, Mauritius, and St. Helena are included with Asia, instead of with Africa.

The countries shown in the foregoing table as owners of the foreign shipping are the same, and are in the same order, as those given in the tabular statement on page 30, except that Germany in the statement mentioned is replaced by the Hanse towns in Table 6. Of the over-sea commerce of 542,962 tons, more than half was carried in ships belonging to the United States (most of them being owned in Massachusetts), and the bulk of the remainder in British vessels. Nearly one-half of the imports from Europe were brought in vessels belonging to the United States.

Particularly noticeable is the fact that nearly one-half of all imports were from the West Indies, and that much more than one-half of the West India imports were brought in vessels belonging to the United States, chiefly from the French West Indies. Most of the remainder was brought in British vessels, from British West Indian ports into which the ships of the United States were not allowed to enter; it was in consequence of this fact that in 1790 measures were being agitated in Congress with a view to discriminating duties on cargoes of British vessels.

EDUCATION.

In all of the Northern states, laws were in force in 1790 which provided for the education of children in

the rudiments of knowledge. In New England nearly everyone possessed a common school education, and a person of mature years who could not read and write was rarely to be found. Every Massachusetts town having 50 householders or more was required to maintain a schoolmaster to teach children and youth to read and write; and every town that had 100 families was required to maintain a grammar school.¹

In the Middle states there were fewer state laws relating to compulsory education, but public schools were common. There were very few freeborn illiterates in these states. In Pennsylvania and parts of New Jersey there were large numbers of Germans, and in isolated localities the German language was in com-

¹ "A few academies with limited resources prepared lads for Harvard or Yale. The great body of the people were educated in the district school, two months in the winter by a man, two months in summer by a woman. The three R's were taught there by a poor scholar generally, or by a youth who was earning means to complete his own education. The range of books was very limited. Stout old Ezekiel Cheever's Latin Accidence had held the ground during the century for the upper class of pupils. Noah Webster's spelling book was just coming into use, with Webster's Selections, Morse's Geography, and the Youth's Preceptor. The Bible was the groundwork of all reading. The helps to the pupils being few in comparison with modern resources and methods, the self-help and reliance developed by this crude system of education was something remarkable. This appeared in average characters and ordinary minds."—Weeden: *Economic and Social History of New England, 1620-1789*, Vol. II, page 861.

mon use and was taught in the schools. It would appear, however, that the literacy was quite as high among the Germans as among the English.

In the Southern states there were but few free public schools, because of the dispersed situation of the inhabitants; and in the larger towns there were but few academies. Education was confined largely to the wealthier classes. Wealthy men were accustomed to send their sons to the colleges in the Northern states or to Europe to complete their education. In the thinly settled western sections a large proportion of the people were illiterate. Among the slaves, illiteracy was almost the universal condition.

Higher education in the United States in 1790 consisted largely in the study of the classics. The graduating classes of 1789 in all the colleges aggregated only about 170. The following list shows the most important colleges and universities in the United States in 1790, and in most instances gives the approximate number of students.

INSTITUTION.	Location.	Date of found- ing.	Students in 1790.
Dartmouth College.....	Hanover, N. H.....	1769	152.
Harvard University.....	Cambridge, Mass.....	1636	120 to 150.
Rhode Island College (Brown Uni- versity).....	Providence, R. I.....	1764	About 60.
Yale College.....	New Haven, Conn.....	1700	150 to 250.
Columbia College.....	New York, N. Y.....	1754	30 to 40.
Nassau Hall (Princeton University).....	Princeton, N. J.....	1746	About 70.
Queens (Rutgers) College.....	Brunswick, N. J.....	1763	30 to 40.
University of Pennsylvania.....	Philadelphia, Pa.....	1740	
Dickinson College.....	Carlisle, Pa.....	1783	About 80.
Franklin College.....	Lancaster, Pa.....	1787	
Washington College.....	Chestertown, Md.....	1782	
St. Johns College.....	Annapolis, Md.....	1784	
Georgetown University.....	Georgetown, Md.....	1789	
William and Mary College.....	Williamsburg, Va.....	1693	About 30.

Law, theology, and medicine were about the only professions in the United States in 1790. New England was the seat of learning in law and theology; and Philadelphia—through the influence of Franklin—in medicine¹ and science. Some of the colleges doubtless offered professional courses; but there were only two medical schools in the country, and no regular school of law. At that period it was customary to acquire a professional education by a period

¹ "The physician had not then become the priest and natural confessor of the American household, as he is to-day; but he was of great importance in the social system. His education through books was scanty, judged by modern standards, while a large knowledge of human kind drawn from direct observation served to bring him into close accord with his patients. Apothecaries were hardly known outside the largest towns; for the doctors' saddlebags carried the simple pharmacy to the remotest hut. Cheerfully those public servants toiled over the hardest roads, in every season and in all weather, to attend rich and poor alike; the country doctor could not choose his patients if he would. A rigid standard of custom gave his services to all who needed them, fees being hardly considered when anyone needed medical attendance.

"The fees were very modest. Even in Boston, prior to 1782, the ordinary visit was charged at 1 shilling 6 pence to 2 shillings. Half a dollar was only charged 'such as were in high life.' In that year a club of the leading physicians fixed the common fee at 50 cents, in consultation at \$1. Night visits were doubled; midwifery was at \$8; capital operations in surgery, at £5 lawful money; medicines were charged at very high prices, comparatively."—Weeden: *Economic and Social History of New England, 1620-1789, Vol. II, page 863.*

of study in the office of some one who had become eminent in law or medicine, as the case might be.

NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS.

The newspapers and periodicals known to have been published in the United States during some part of the year 1790 number 103. This number comprises those publications which are fully authenticated, and of which a complete list will be found on page 33. It is believed to include all publications issued in several of the states, and the more influential and important newspapers and periodicals published in the remaining states. The list, however, is probably incomplete. It is not to be doubted that there were a considerable number of publications of which, after the lapse of more than a century, all record has vanished. In some instances, indeed, references are made by local historians to publications which were evidently in existence in 1790, but of which no further trace can be found.

The following table analyzes, by period of issue, the publications in each state in 1790:

Newspapers and periodicals published in the United States in 1790, classified by period of issue.

STATE.	Total.	Daily.	Semiweekly.	Weekly.	Monthly.	Bimonthly.	Unknown.
United States.....	103	8	12	73	6	1	3
New England states.....	37		3	32	2		
Maine.....	2			2			
New Hampshire.....	6		1	5			
Vermont.....	2			2			
Massachusetts.....	14		2	10	2		
Rhode Island.....	4			4			
Connecticut.....	9			9			
Middle states.....	42	7	6	22	4	1	2
New York.....	14	3	4	4	1		2
New Jersey.....	3			3		1	
Pennsylvania.....	23	4	2	14	3		
Delaware.....	2			2			
Southern states.....	24	1	3	19			1
Maryland.....	9		2	7			
Virginia.....	9			9			
North Carolina.....	1						1
South Carolina.....	2	1	1				
Georgia.....	2			2			
Kentucky.....	1			1			

Of the 103 publications reported, 96 were newspapers and 7 were periodicals. More than one-third of the whole number were published in New England, and two-fifths in the Middle states. Most of the newspapers published south of the Potomac are credited to Maryland and Virginia.

An examination of the proportions of daily, semi-weekly, weekly, and monthly publications in 1790 naturally suggests the following comparison with the corresponding proportions of the immense volume of publications issued in 1900. The most striking fact revealed by this comparison is the growth of the daily

paper and the monthly periodical at the expense of weekly and semiweekly papers.

PERIOD OF ISSUE.	1790	1900
Daily.....	7.8	13.2
Semiweekly.....	13.6	2.5
Weekly.....	68.9	34.9
Monthly.....	5.8	34.6
All other.....	3.9	14.8

In 1790 the contents of newspapers were chiefly advertisements, notices of auction sales, shipping news, short clippings from papers in other states, letters from places in the West and from the West India Islands, and extracts from European newspapers. There were also a few broad jokes and anecdotes scattered through the pages. Events of local interest were seldom published, and editorial remarks were few in number, although sometimes vigorous in expression.

During the sessions of Congress the debates were published at length in all the daily papers, and important bills were given in full, even to the signatures of the President and Vice-President. But there were no news collecting agencies, and little of the news published seems to have come to the knowledge of the editors through any systematic efforts of their own. Very few, if any, of the papers had correspondents in different sections of the country.

The weekly paper was in many cases the only

outlet for literary activity. There were long disquisitions on religious and political topics, and essays after the manner of the Spectator were frequent. There were also numerous communications from local writers. These were never signed by the writer, but with some such classical pseudonym as Publicola, Nestor, or Cicero; they usually abounded in classical allusions and quotations, and were on all subjects—religion, politics, law, medicine, and morals.

In no instance was the circulation of a newspaper published in 1790 very large; it probably did not exceed 1,000 copies per issue in the case of the most prosperous publication. In 1789 not less than 30,000 copies of newspapers were printed every week in New England;¹ they circulated in almost every town and village.

Newspapers were usually distributed by newsboys, or by postboys who made long trips through the rural districts on horseback, performing other errands along their routes. Drivers of stagecoaches sometimes received subscriptions for papers, and distributed them on regular trips.

Some of the newspapers published in 1790 have survived to the present time; but most of those which are still published are issued under names which have been partially or completely changed, and some have been merged in other publications.

¹ Gazetteer of the United States, Jedediah Morse.

Newspapers and periodicals published in 1790.

PLACE OF PUBLICATION AND TITLE IN 1790.	Period of issue in 1790.	Date when established.	First publisher.	Publisher in 1790.	Remarks.
MAINE.					
Portland: The Cumberland Gazette.....	Weekly.....	Jan. 1, 1785.....	Benjamin Titcomb and Thomas B. Wait.....	Thomas B. Wait.....	Consolidated Sept. 3, 1796; in existence in 1895.
Gazette of Maine.....	Weekly.....	Oct. 1, 1790.....	Benjamin Titcomb.....	Benj. Titcomb.....	
NEW HAMPSHIRE.					
Concord: The Concord Herald and New-hampshire Intelligencer.	Weekly.....	Jan. 6, 1790.....	George Hough.....	George Hough.....	Discontinued Oct. 30, 1805.
Dover: Political and Sentimental Repository, or Strafford Recorder.	Weekly.....	July 15, 1790.....	Eliphalet Ladd.....	Eliphalet Ladd.....	Discontinued in 1829.
Exeter: New Hampshire Gazetteer.....	Weekly.....	Aug. —, 1789.....	Henry Ranlet.....	Henry Ranlet.....	Discontinued in 1797.
Keene: The New Hampshire Recorder and the Weekly Advertiser.	Weekly.....	Aug. 7, 1789.....	James D. Griffith.....	James D. Griffith.....	Discontinued in 1792.
Portsmouth: The New-Hampshire Gazette, and the General Advertiser.	Weekly.....	Oct. 7, 1756.....	Daniel Fowle.....	John Melcher.....	Became weekly edition of Daily Chronicle in 1861. In existence in 1895.
Osborne's New Hampshire Spy.....	Semiweekly...	Oct. 24, 1786.....	Geo. Jerry Osborne.....	Geo. Jerry Osborne.....	Discontinued in 1793.
VERMONT.					
Bennington: The Vermont Gazette.....	Weekly.....	June 5, 1783.....	Anthony Haswell and David Russell.	Anthony Haswell and David Russell.	In existence in 1879.
Windsor: Vermont Journal and Universal Advertiser.	Weekly.....	Aug. 7, 1783.....	George Hough and Alden Spooner.	George Hough (?) and Alden Spooner.	Vermont Journal in 1900.
MASSACHUSETTS.					
Boston: The Boston Gazette and the Country Journal.	Weekly.....	Apr. 7, 1755.....	Benjamin Edes and John Gill.	Benjamin Edes and Benj. Edes, jr.	Discontinued Sept. 17, 1798.
Independent Chronicle and the Universal Advertiser. ¹	Weekly.....	Aug. 2, 1768.....	Samuel Hall.....	Thomas Adams.....	Merged in Boston Daily Advertiser in 1831.
American Herald: And The Washington Gazette.	Weekly.....	Oct. 27, 1781.....	Edward E. Powars.....	Edward E. Powars.....	Probably consolidated with the Herald of Freedom in 1791 or 1792.
The Columbian Centinel.....	Semiweekly...	Mar. 24, 1784.....	William Warden and Benjamin Russell.	Benjamin Russell.....	Merged in Boston Daily Advertiser, May 1, 1840.

¹ Established at Salem.

A CENTURY OF POPULATION GROWTH.

Newspapers and periodicals published in 1790—Continued.

PLACE OF PUBLICATION AND TITLE IN 1790.	Period of issue in 1790.	Date when established.	First publisher.	Publisher in 1790.	Remarks.
MASSACHUSETTS—continued.					
Boston—Continued.					
The Gentlemen and Ladies' Town and Country Magazine.	Monthly	May, 1784	Job Weeden and William Barrett.	Nathaniel Coverley	Discontinued in December, 1790.
The Herald of Freedom	Semiweekly	Sept. 15, 1788	Edmund Freeman and Loring Andrews.	Edmund Freeman	In existence June 28, 1793.
The Massachusetts Magazine, Or Monthly Museum.	Monthly	Jan. —, 1789	Isaiah Thomas and Ebenezer T. Andrews.	Isaiah Thomas and Ebenezer T. Andrews.	Discontinued in December, 1796.
Newburyport:					
The Essex Journal and New Hampshire Packet.	Weekly	Dec. 1, 1773	Isaiah Thomas and Henry W. Tinges.	John Mycall	Became the Morning Star in April, 1794. Discontinued before 1800.
Northampton:					
The Hampshire Gazette	Weekly	Sept. 6, 1786	William Butler	William Butler	Berkshire County Eagle in 1900.
Pittsfield:					
Berkshire Chronicle and Massachusetts Intelligencer.	Weekly	May 8, 1788	Roger Storrs	Roger Storrs	In existence in 1900.
Salem:					
The Salem Gazette	Weekly	Oct. 14, 1786	John Dabney and Thomas C. Cushing.	Thomas C. Cushing	In existence in 1895.
Springfield:					
The Hampshire Chronicle	Weekly	Mar. 1, 1787	Zephaniah Webster	Ezra Waldo Weld	In existence in 1795.
Stockbridge:					
The Western Star	Weekly	Nov. —, 1789	Loring Andrews	Loring Andrews	In existence in 1898.
Worcester:					
Thomas's Massachusetts Spy; or The Worcester Gazette. ¹	Weekly	July 17, 1770	Isaiah Thomas	Isaiah Thomas	The Massachusetts Spy in 1900.
RHODE ISLAND.					
Newport:					
The Newport Mercury	Weekly	Sept. —, 1758	James Franklin, jr.	Henry Barber	In existence in 1900.
Newport Herald	Weekly	Mar. 1, 1787	Peter Edes	Peter Edes	Discontinued in 1791.
Providence:					
The Providence Gazette and Country Journal.	Weekly	Oct. 20, 1762	William Goddard	John Carter	Merged in Rhode Island American in October, 1825.
United States Chronicle	Weekly	Jan. 1, 1784	Bennett Wheeler	Bennett Wheeler	Discontinued in 1802.
CONNECTICUT.					
Danbury:					
The Farmer's Journal	Weekly	Mar. 18, 1790	Nathan Douglas and Edwards Ely.	Nathan Douglas and Edwards Ely.	Republican Farmer (Bridgeport) in 1900.
Hartford:					
The Connecticut Courant and Weekly Intelligencer.	Weekly	Oct. 29, 1764	Thomas Green	Barzillai Hudson and Geo. Goodwin.	In existence in 1900.
The American Mercury	Weekly	July 12, 1784	Joel Barlow and Elisha Babcock.	Elisha Babcock	Merged in the Independent Press in 1833.
Litchfield:					
The Weekly Monitor; and American Advertiser.	Weekly	Dec. 21, 1784	Thomas Collier and Copp	Thomas Collier	Discontinued in 1806.
Middletown:					
Middlesex Gazette or Federal Advertiser.	Weekly	Nov. 8, 1785	Woodward and Green	Moses H. Woodward	Discontinued in May, 1834.
New Haven:					
Connecticut Journal	Weekly	Oct. 23, 1767	Thomas and Samuel Green	Thomas and Samuel Green	Connecticut Herald and Weekly Journal in 1900.
The New Haven Gazette	Weekly	Jan. 5, 1790			Discontinued June 29, 1791.
New London:					
Connecticut Gazette	Weekly	Aug. 8, 1758	Timothy Green	Timothy Green	Discontinued in 1844.
Norwich:					
The Norwich Packet and the Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island Weekly Advertiser.	Weekly	Dec. 16, 1773	Alexander Robertson & James Robertson and John Trumbull.	John Trumbull	Discontinued in 1804.
NEW YORK.					
Albany:					
The Albany Gazette	Semiweekly	May 28, 1784	Charles R. Webster	Charles R. Webster	Discontinued Apr. 14, 1845.
The Albany Register	(?)	—, 1788	Robert Barber	John and Robert Barber	Merged in New York Standard.
Goshen:					
The Goshen Repository		—, 1788	David Mandeville		Discontinued in 1804.
Hudson:					
Hudson Gazette	Weekly	Apr. 7, 1785	Charles R. Webster and Ashbel Stoddard.	Charles R. Webster and Ashbel Stoddard.	In existence in 1900.
Lansingburg:					
Federal Herald	Weekly	May 5, 1788	Babcock and Hickok	Babcock and Hickok	In existence in 1890.
New York:					
The New York Journal and Patriotic Register.	Semiweekly	May 29, 1766	John Holt	Thomas Greenleaf	Discontinued in 1810.
The Argus, or Greenleaf's New Daily Advertiser.	Daily	May 29, 1766	John Holt	Thos. Greenleaf	Discontinued in November, 1810.
New York Packet	Semiweekly	Jan. 4, 1776	Samuel Loudon	Samuel Loudon	In existence in 1835.
The Daily Advertiser	Daily	Mar. 1, 1785	Francis Childs	Philip Freneau	Merged in Express in 1836.
The New York Daily Gazette	Daily	Dec. 29, 1788	John and Archibald M'Lean	Archibald M'Lean	In existence in 1828.
Gazette of the United States ²	Semiweekly	Apr. 15, 1789	John Fenno	John Fenno	Merged in North American in 1847.
New York Magazine	Monthly	Jan., 1790	Thomas and James Swords	Thos. and Jas. Swords	Discontinued in 1797.
Weekly Museum	Weekly				In existence in 1816.
Poughkeepsie:					
Poughkeepsie Journal ⁴	Weekly	—, 1784	John Holt	Nicholas Power	United with Poughkeepsie Eagle in 1814. In existence in 1850.
NEW JERSEY.					
New Brunswick:					
The Brunswick Gazette	Weekly	Sept. —, 1786	Shelly Arnett	Abraham Blauvelt	In existence in 1816.
Elizabethtown:					
New Jersey Journal, and Political Intelligencer.	Weekly	—, 1779	Shepard Kollock	Shepard Kollock	Elizabeth Daily Journal in 1900.
The Christian's, scholar's, and farmer's magazine.	Bimonthly	Apr. —, 1789	Shepard Kollock	Shepard Kollock	Discontinued in March, 1791.

¹ Established at Boston.² Weekly in 1792.³ Removed to Philadelphia Oct. 13, 1790.⁴ Established in New York City.

Newspapers and periodicals published in 1790—Continued.

PLACE OF PUBLICATION AND TITLE IN 1790.	Period of issue in 1790.	Date when established.	First publisher.	Publisher in 1790.	Remarks.
PENNSYLVANIA.					
Carlisle: The Carlisle Gazette, & the Western Repository of Knowledge.	Weekly	Aug. 10, 1785.	Kline and Reynolds.	Kline and Reynolds.	In existence June 9, 1790.
Chambersburg: Western Advertiser and Chambersburg Weekly.	Weekly	June —, 1790.	William Davison.	Wm. Davison.	Franklin Repository in 1900.
Germanstown: Die Germantanner Zeitung.	Weekly	Aug. 20, 1739.	Christopher Saur.	Michael Billmeyer.	Discontinued in 1809.
Harrisburg: The Oracle of Dauphin.	Weekly	—, 1789.	T. Roberts and Co.	T. Roberts and Co.	Discontinued about 1832.
Lancaster: Neue Unpartheyische Lancaster Zeitung und Anzeigs-Nachrichten.	Weekly	Aug. 8, 1787.	Stiemer, Albrecht, and Lahn.	Johann Albrecht & Co.	Discontinued in 1794.
Philadelphia: ¹ The Pennsylvania Gazette.	Weekly	Dec. 24, 1728.	Samuel Keimer.	David Hall and William Sellers.	Became Saturday Evening Post in 1821. In existence in 1900.
The Pennsylvania Journal and Weekly Advertiser.	Semiweekly	Dec. 2, 1742.	William Bradford.	William and Thos. Bradford.	Discontinued in 1797.
The Pennsylvania Packet and Daily Advertiser.	Daily	Oct. 28, 1771.	John Dunlap.	John Dunlap and David C. Claypoole.	Merged in the North American in 1840. In existence in 1900.
The Arminian Magazine.	Monthly	Jan. —, 1778.	Prichard and Hall.	Francis Bailey.	In existence in 1790.
The Freeman's Journal, or the North American Intelligencer.	Weekly	Apr. 25, 1781.	Francis Bailey.	Francis Bailey.	Discontinued in 1792.
Gemeinnützige Philadelphische Correspondenz.	Weekly	May 21, 1781.	Melchior Steiner.	Melchior Steiner.	Discontinued in 1810.
Independent Gazetteer, or the Chronicle of Freedom.	Daily	Apr. 13, 1782.	Eleazer Oswald.	Eleazer Oswald.	Discontinued in 1799.
Pennsylvania Mercury and The Universal Advertiser.	Weekly	Aug. 20, 1784.	Daniel Humphreys.	Daniel Humphreys.	
Universal Asylum and Columbian Magazine.	Monthly	Sept. —, 1786.	Matthew Carey, T. Siddons, C. Talbot, W. Spotswood, & J. Tronchard.		Discontinued in December, 1792.
The American Museum; or Universal Magazine.	Monthly	Jan. —, 1787.	Matthew Carey.	Matthew Carey.	Discontinued Dec. 31, 1792.
The Federal Gazette and Philadelphia Daily Advertiser.	Daily	Mar. 8, 1788.	Andrew Brown.	Andrew Brown.	Merged in North American in 1840.
Der General-Postbothe an die Deutsche Nation.	Semiweekly	Nov. 27, 1789.	Melchior Steiner.	Melchior Steiner.	Discontinued about July, 1790.
Die Chesenthiller Wochenschrift.	Weekly	Oct. 8, 1790.	Samuel Saur.	Samuel Saur.	In existence in 1794.
The General Advertiser and Political, Commercial, Agricultural and Literary Journal.	Daily	Oct. —, 1790.	Benjamin Franklin Bache.	Benjamin Franklin Bache.	Merged in Pennsylvania Gazette in 1828.
Farmers' Weekly Museum.	Weekly	—, 1790.			In existence in 1790.
Pittsburg: Pittsburg Gazette.	Weekly	July 29, 1786.	John Scull and Joseph Hall.		Commercial Gazette in 1900.
Reading: Neue Unpartheyische Readinger Zeitung und Anzeigs-Nachrichten.	Weekly	Feb. 18, 1789.	Johnson, Barton, and Jungmann.	Barton and Jungmann.	Discontinued in 1816.
York: Pennsylvania Herald and York General Advertiser.	Weekly	Jan. 7, 1789.	James Edie, John Edie, and Henry Wilcocks.	James Edie, John Edie, and Henry Wilcocks.	In existence in 1799.
DELAWARE.					
Wilmington: Wilmington Gazette.	Weekly	—, 1784.			In existence in 1880.
The Delaware Gazette.	Weekly	Mar. —, 1785.	Peter Brynberg and Samuel Andrews.	Peter Brynberg and Samuel Andrews.	In existence in 1894.
MARYLAND.					
Annapolis: Maryland Gazette.	Weekly	Jan. 17, 1745.	Jonas Green.	Frederick and Samuel Green.	Discontinued in 1839.
Baltimore: The Maryland Journal and Baltimore Advertiser.	Semiweekly	Aug. 20, 1773.	William Goddard.	Wm. Goddard and James Angell.	Baltimore American in 1900.
The Maryland Gazette; or the Baltimore Advertiser.	Semiweekly	May 16, 1783.	John Hayes.	John Hayes.	In existence in 1791.
Easton: Maryland Herald and Eastern Shore Intelligencer.	Weekly	May 16, 1790.	James Cowan.	James Cowan.	In existence in 1804.
Frederick: The Maryland Chronicle and the Universal Advertiser.	Weekly	Jan. 4, 1786.	Matthias Bartgis.	Matthias Bartgis.	In existence in 1824.
The Maryland Gazette and Frederick Weekly Advertiser.	Weekly	Mar. 1, 1790.	John Winter.	John Winter.	In existence in 1791.
Georgetown: ² The Times and the Patowmack Packet.	Weekly	Feb. —, 1789.	Charles Flerer.	Charles Flerer and Thos. N. Fosdick.	In existence in 1791.
Georgetown Weekly Ledger.	Weekly	Mar. —, 1790.	Day and Hancock.	Day and Hancock.	In existence in 1793.
Hagerstown: Washington Spy.	Weekly	Jan. 1, 1790.	Stewart Herbert.	Stewart Herbert.	In existence in 1797.
VIRGINIA.					
Fredericksburg: The Virginia Herald and Fredericksburg Advertiser.	Weekly	—, 1787.	Timothy Green.	Timothy Green.	In existence in 1836.
Martinsburg: Potomac Guardian and Berkeley Advertiser.	Weekly	Nov. —, 1790.	Nathaniel Willis.	Nathaniel Willis.	In existence in 1896.
Norfolk: The Norfolk and Portsmouth Chronicle.	Weekly	Aug. 29, 1789.	Prentis and Baxter.	Prentis and Baxter.	In existence in 1793.
Petersburg: The Virginia Gazette and Petersburg Intelligencer.	Weekly	July —, 1786.	Miles Hunter & William Prentis.	William Prentis.	In existence in 1800.

¹ See also Gazette of the United States, which was published in New York city until Oct. 13, 1790, when it was removed to Philadelphia.
² Now in the District of Columbia.

Newspapers and periodicals published in 1790—Continued.

PLACE OF PUBLICATION AND TITLE IN 1790.	Period of issue in 1790.	Date when established.	First publisher.	Publisher in 1790.	Remarks.
VIRGINIA—continued.					
Richmond: Virginia Gazette and Independent Chronicle. ¹	Weekly.....	Aug. 6, 1736.....	William Parks.....	John Dixon.....	In existence in 1793.
The Virginia Gazette and Weekly Advertiser.	Weekly.....	— —, 1782.....	Thomas Nicolson and William Prentiss.	Thomas Nicolson.....	In existence in 1793.
The Virginia Independent Chronicle and General Advertiser.	Weekly.....	— —, 1786.....	Augustine Davis.....	Augustine Davis.....	Discontinued in 1809.
Winchester: The Virginia Gazette, and Winchester Advertiser.	Weekly.....	July 11, 1787.....	Bartgis & Willcocks.....	Bartgis & Co.....	In existence in 1790.
The Virginia Centinel; or the Winchester Mercury.	Weekly.....	Apr. 2, 1788.....	Richard Bowen and Co.....	Richard Bowen and Co.....	In existence in 1800.
NORTH CAROLINA.					
Fayetteville: The Fayetteville Chronicle or North Carolina Gazette.					In existence in 1790.
SOUTH CAROLINA.					
Charleston: The State Gazette of South Carolina.	Semiweekly...	Apr. —, 1777.....	Peter Timothy.....	Ann S. Timothy.....	Discontinued in 1800.
The City Gazette or Daily Advertiser.	Daily.....	Mar. —, 1783.....	John Miller.....	Markland and M'Iver.....	In existence in 1817.
GEORGIA.					
Augusta: The Augusta Chronicle and Gazette of the State.	Weekly.....	Oct. 2, 1789.....	John E. Smith.....	John E. Smith.....	In existence in 1900.
Savannah: Georgia Gazette.....	Weekly.....	Apr. 17, 1763.....	James Johnston.....	James and Nicholas Johnston.	Discontinued in 1802.
KENTUCKY.					
Lexington: Kentucke Gazette.....	Weekly.....	Aug. 11, 1787.....	John Bradford.....	John Bradford.....	Discontinued in 1848.

¹ Established at Williamsburg.

SLAVERY.

Slavery was introduced into the colonies in August, 1619, when 20 African negroes were brought to Jamestown by Dutch traders and sold to the planters of Virginia. At that time the sale of Africans who had been captured or purchased was sanctioned by the leading European nations, and formed a very profitable business. The slave traders, taking advantage of the new field opened to them by the colonization of the coast of North America, introduced slavery into most of the colonies soon after they were founded. The only colony established with ordinances against this institution was Georgia; and this state also was soon forced, by social contact and business competition with the neighboring settlements, to legalize the holding of slaves.

The actual importations of slaves can only be estimated. Mr. Carey, author of a work on the slave trade, is the authority for the following estimate of the number of slaves imported:

PERIOD.	Number of slaves.
Total.....	333,000
Prior to 1715.....	30,000
1715 to 1750.....	90,000
1751 to 1760.....	35,000
1761 to 1770.....	74,000
1771 to 1790.....	34,000
1791 to 1808.....	70,000

It is claimed, however, that this total is too small, and that a closer estimate would bring the number to 370,000 or even 400,000. Mr. Carey's figures indicate that the average annual importation was about 2,500 between 1715 and 1750, and 3,500 for the period from 1751 to 1760. The following decade was the period of greatest activity, the importation reaching an average of 7,400 a year. For the twenty years from 1771 to 1790 the average fell to 1,700, but for the period immediately preceding the legal abolition of the slave traffic in the United States it was more than double that number. By 1790 the survivors and descendants of the African slaves imported numbered 757,208, according to the Federal census of that year.

Early in the history of the Southern colonies the planters realized that slave labor could be utilized to good advantage in the cultivation of tobacco and some other crops.¹ At the beginning of the eighteenth century negro slavery was considered by the settlers of all of the colonies as a usual and routine matter, and in the New England and Middle colonies, as well as in the South, the possession of slaves was generally

¹ The cotton crop, which later furnished an extensive field for slave labor, did not assume great importance until the invention of the cotton gin in 1793. After that date the employment of slaves in the cultivation of cotton became especially profitable, since this crop furnishes work for a considerable portion of the year, and makes it possible to utilize to advantage the services of women and children.

accepted as an evidence of wealth and of importance in the community.

By 1750 negro slavery was recognized by law in every North American colony. At the time of the Declaration of Independence the British possessions had local enactments protecting slave property and providing special codes and tribunals for slaves. Some of the slave codes were extremely severe, because of the fear of negro insurrections.

Although slavery became the presumptive status of every negro, most of the colonies recognized the status of free negroes. But the presence of a free negro was believed to have an unfavorable influence on the slaves in the neighborhood, and hence many of the colonies made the conditions surrounding manumission so exacting that slave owners seldom took advantage of the legal right to free their slaves. There are, however, numerous instances of negroes who were freed by their masters, and some cases of negroes who were given their freedom by the state on account of some public service performed by them; but no data are available as to the aggregate number of slaves manumitted.

Free negroes were allowed property rights, and consequently some of them became slave owners. Often a manumitted negro would purchase the freedom of the members of his family or of friends, and unless he went through the formality of manumission these persons were legally his slaves.

The growth of the antislavery movement forms an interesting phase of the history of the Colonial, Continental, and early Federal periods. The antislavery sentiment which existed in the Southern colonies in the early part of the eighteenth century was, as a rule, the result of economic causes; when these colonies feared the growth in the number of negroes, or desired more revenue, attempts were made by the legislatures to cut off or to tax the importation of slaves. On the other hand, in the North the feeling of antagonism toward human slavery, which grew rapidly and was voiced by men of high principle and strong religious belief, was based largely on moral grounds. The claim is often made that this attitude of the Northern colonies in connection with the slave problem did not become general until after these communities had disposed of all of their slaves. But, while there is an element of truth in this, the fact remains that from a condition of dependence upon slaves for menial services of various kinds, the people of the New England and Middle states steadily and completely changed their point of view, taking the position that slavery was both unwise and immoral, and disposed of their slaves. The demand for labor was supplied mainly by apprentices and by "redemptioners"—men and women who, being unable to pay the expenses of their passage to this country, were "bound" to persons buying their services for a period usually lasting from three to five years.

The first petition against slavery recorded in American history was made in 1688, by Friends, in Germantown, Pa. The agitation against slavery was continued by other Quakers, by the Puritans, and by groups of individuals here and there. As the direct result of this movement, prohibitive duties on the importation of slaves were imposed by Pennsylvania in 1712, and also by other colonies from time to time.¹

Since the slave trade was a source of revenue to British merchants, and even to the Crown, legislation against it was distasteful to the British Government, and objections were raised on account of the legislative action of the colonies. The governors sent to South Carolina in 1756 and 1761 bore instructions prohibiting the enactment of any law imposing duties on imported negroes.

By 1778 legislative measures prohibiting the slave trade had been passed by all of the New England and Middle states, and by Maryland and Virginia; by 1798, similar action had been taken by every other state, although the trade was afterwards revived in South Carolina.

The first assumption of national control of the slave trade came in 1774, when the Continental Congress passed a resolution to abolish it. In 1789 the convention that framed the Constitution made plans for the abolition of this traffic in 1808, and later the first day of 1808 was chosen as the time when the slave trade should become illegal.

The first action against the ownership of slaves was taken by Vermont. In its Declaration of Rights, in 1777, this colony declared for the freedom of all persons at the age of maturity; a few years later it took a more definite stand, abolishing slavery outright. By 1783 slavery had been prohibited in Massachusetts and New Hampshire. Gradual emancipation was provided for in acts passed by Pennsylvania in 1780 and by Connecticut and Rhode Island in 1784. In 1787 slavery was forbidden in the Northwest Territory by congressional legislation, although the courts held that the ordinance did not free the slaves already held in the territory. By the date of the first Federal census laws providing for the extinction of slavery had been put into operation in all states north of Maryland, with the exception of New York and New Jersey.

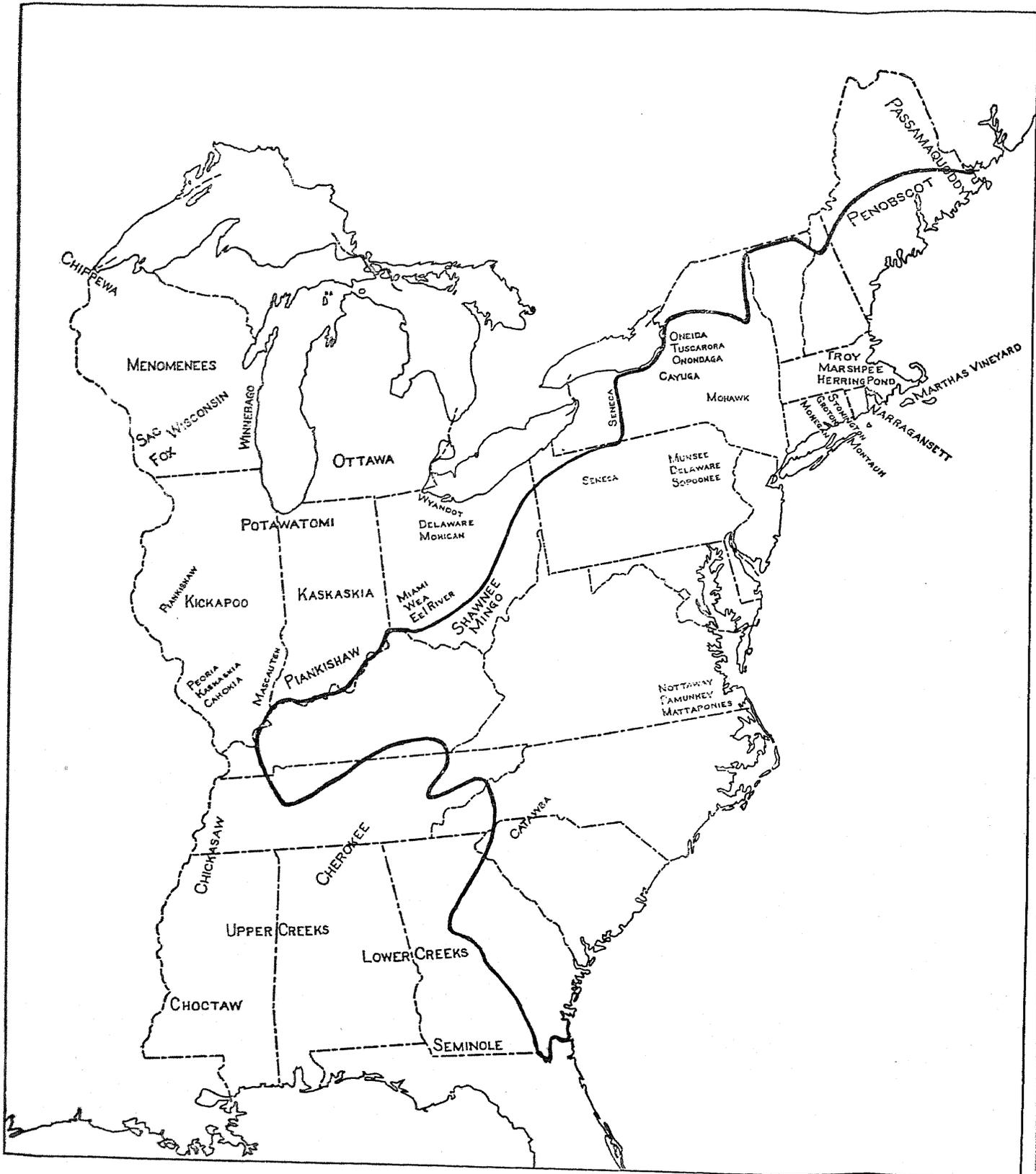
INDIANS.

In 1790 the Indian had ceased to be a factor of any consequence in the affairs of the states enumerated at the First Census. The Indians living in the area enumerated consisted of a few scattered remnants of once powerful tribes. Frequent conflicts

¹ In some colonies the duty on a slave brought from another colony was several times that on a slave imported directly from Africa or from the West Indies; the impression appears to have existed that slaves were sent from one colony to another because of undesirable qualities, or because they had committed crimes, and that the colony which deported them was taking this way of ridding itself of their presence.

LOCATION OF INDIAN TRIBES: 1790.

[The heavy line marks the division between the area free from hostile Indians and that still in possession of Indians.]



with the white settlers, and the adoption of all of the vices and few, if any, of the virtues of the newcomers upon their soil, had reduced the number of Indians east of the Allegheny mountains to a few thousands. Remnants of the original tribes still remained in 4 New England states, and in New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and South Carolina; but in most instances—especially in New England—they were reduced to small villages or even to a few wanderers (for the most part half-breeds), whose numbers may be accepted as almost a negligible quantity. Only in New York and Pennsylvania—upon reservations established in those states—and in the lands to the west of the frontier settlements, were the Indians still sufficiently numerous to maintain tribal relations or to occupy any considerable extent of territory.

From time to time futile attempts were made to civilize and educate the Indians in the East. Indeed, provision was made for their education at Harvard University early in its history. Several Indians entered that institution, but nearly all of them died before they had been long in attendance.

West of the Alleghenys the white man had established a few settlements, especially in Kentucky and eastern Tennessee; but for the most part the country was a wilderness, still in the undisputed possession of Indian tribes. In this area the Indians still maintained their independence and a considerable strength in numbers—sufficient, indeed, to present to the officials of the young Republic a problem of some magnitude, and to exercise a decidedly deterrent effect upon immigration. But since, in the desultory warfare which they maintained against the whites, the Indians were the principal sufferers, their numbers were constantly diminishing.

Only a small part of the territory occupied by white men had been acquired from the Indians by actual purchase. In the early history of the colonies, purchases of land from the Indians, and treaties made with them, appear to have resulted from a desire to obtain immunity from the uncertainties of Indian warfare and depredation, rather than from any recognition of the right of the Indians to the soil of which they were being deprived. The pioneer settlers habitually disregarded Indian treaties, and in general the Indians derived little benefit from them; even where purchases of land were negotiated by treaty, in many cases this action was not taken until after the land had been settled. In general, the Indian had received but small consideration from the white man during the entire Colonial period, being regarded merely as a dangerous incumbrance upon fair regions which it was the purpose of the white man to occupy as speedily as his numbers permitted.

In 1795, shortly after the First Census, in an attempt to put an end to the continued warfare with the Federal Government and doubtless also for the purpose of encouraging settlements in that region, General Wayne

negotiated a treaty with the Indians living in what was then called the Northwest Territory.¹ The developments resulting from this policy were similar to what had previously occurred east of the Alleghenys—the Indians retreated step by step before the advancing pioneers, more and more of their territory was occupied by white settlements, and their numbers were constantly decreased by contact with the whites and by warfare among themselves.

Indians in the United States in 1790.

STATE OR TERRITORY AND TRIBE.	Number.	Place of residence.
Maine:		
Passamaquoddy.....		Near the waters of Passamaquoddy bay.
Penobscot.....	400	On Penobscot river, from head of tide water northward.
Massachusetts:		
Herring Pond.....	1120	Sandwich, on Cape Cod, 59 miles south of Boston.
		Troy, Bristol county, 50 miles south of Boston.
Wampanoag.....	2280	Marshpee, on Cape Cod, 78 miles southeast of Boston.
	400	Marthas Vineyard Island.
Rhode Island:		
Narragansett.....	500	Charlestown, 40 miles southwest of Providence.
Connecticut:		
Mohegan and other tribes.....		Stonington, southeast corner of Connecticut.
		Groton, adjoining Stonington.
		Between Norwich and New London.
New York:		
Montauk.....		Montauk Point, east end of Long Island.
Six Nations—		
Cayuga.....	500	Reservation of 1,000 square miles at northern end of Cayuga Lake.
Mohawk.....	(8)	Fort Hunter, on Mohawk river.
Oneida.....	700	Oneida reservation.
Onondaga.....	500	Reservation of over 100 square miles on Onondaga Lake.
Seneca.....	2,000	Chiefly on Genesee river; also a town on Buffalo creek, and 2 small towns on Allegheny river.
Tuscarora ⁴	400	On Tuscarora or Oneida creek.
Pennsylvania:		
Delaware, Munsee, and Saponnee.....	1,300	On north branch of Susquehanna river.
Virginia:		
Mattaponi, Nottaway, and Pamunkey.....	100	Southampton county, southeastern Virginia.
Seneca.....	150	Two towns on French creek.
South Carolina:		
Catawba.....	450	At Catawba, on Catawba river, on the boundary line between North Carolina and South Carolina.
Northwest Territory:		
Chippewa.....		Coasts of Lake Superior.
Delaware, Mohican, and Wyandot.....		Northern Ohio.
Illinois, Kaskaskia, and Peoria.....		Near Kaskaskia river, Illinois.
Kickapoo.....		Central Illinois.
Mascouten.....		Neighborhood of Piankashaws.
Menomenee.....		Around Green bay.
Miami, Wea, and Eel River Indians.....		Vicinity of Miami river.
Ottawa.....		Southern peninsula of Michigan.
Piankashaw.....		Wabash river and branches, and Illinois river.
Potawatomi.....		Southern shores of Lake Michigan.
Sac and Fox.....		Mouth of Wisconsin river.
Shawnee.....		Southern Ohio, on Scioto river and a branch of the Muskingum.
Winnebago.....		Around Winnebago bay.
Wisconsin.....		On Wisconsin river.
Southwest Territory: ⁵		
Cherokee.....	3,000	Northern Georgia and southern Tennessee.
Chickasaw.....		Western Tennessee.
Choctaw.....		Between Alabama and Mississippi rivers.
Creek nation.....	22,000	
Upper Creek.....	11,000	On upper waters of Alabama river.
Lower Creek.....	11,000	On Apalachicola river and its two branches—the Chattahoochee and the Flint.
Seminole.....		

¹ Half were of mixed blood.

² Only about 40 or 50 were pure Indian.

³ Only one family in the United States.

⁴ Migrated from North Carolina in 1715, and adopted by the Oneidas, a related tribe.

⁵ Including the area of Alabama and Mississippi.

¹ The Indian tribes with whom this treaty was negotiated were the Wyandots, Delawares, Shawnees, Ottawas, Chippewas, Potawatomis, Miamis, Eel River Indians, Weas, Kickapoos, Piankashaws, and Kaskaskias.

The names of the Indian tribes in each state and territory in 1790, together with the approximate numbers in the various tribes, so far as they can be determined, are shown in the list on page 39.

The law authorizing the first Federal census made no provision for the enumeration of any Indians except those who were taxed; and there were probably but few who were included in that category. The best information available concerning the number of Indians within the United States in 1790 is the estimate of Gen. Henry Knox, Secretary of War under President Washington, who placed the total Indian population in 1789 at 76,000. Of this number he located 20,000 between the Great Lakes and the Ohio river, and 56,000 south of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi. The warriors—or gun men, as they were termed at that time—were assumed to represent one-fourth of the total Indian population.

The following paragraphs present, for some of the states and territories, facts which are of interest but could not readily be incorporated in the foregoing list:

Maine.—The Provincial Congress of Massachusetts had reserved to the Penobscot tribe a tract of land 12 miles wide, intersected by the Penobscot river. The tribe, numbering about 100 families, was settled along the banks of the river from the head of tide water northward. Their principal town was Indian Old Town, situated on an island of about 200 acres in the Penobscot river, 12 miles north of Bangor. It is probable that the vast wilderness in that part of Maine north and west of the narrow inhabited strip along the coast supported numbers of Indians, many of whom doubtless roamed at will across the Canadian border, as whim or scarcity of food determined.

Massachusetts.—In this state there were still a few hundred Indians. Along the coast of Cape Cod they remained, notwithstanding their small numbers, in comparatively undisturbed possession of considerable areas.

New York.—From the Mohawk valley westward, some remnants remained of the once powerful Six Nations of the Iroquois. The state authorities of New York had made treaties with these Indians, and had reserved to them certain restricted areas. The Oneidas were located on Oneida creek, 21 miles west of Fort Stanwix; with them resided the remnants of the Tuscaroras and Mohegans. Most of the Senecas dwelt along the Genesee river. One family only of the Mohawks was known to be living in New York in 1790, the remainder of the tribe having migrated to Canada. The Onondagas were located on Onondaga Lake, the Cayugas on Cayuga Lake, while the Delawares, like the Mohawks, were practically extinct in this state.

New Jersey.—In this state there were probably not more than one hundred Indians all told. About half of these were located on a state reservation at Eve-sham, called "Brotherton;" the remainder were scat-

tered through the state, many of them being held as slaves. In 1801 the Brotherton Indians were invited by the Mohegans to locate with them at Stockbridge, near Oneida Lake, New York, and the invitation was accepted.¹

Pennsylvania.—In addition to the remnants of three tribes living on the north branch of the Susquehanna river, there were probably roving bands from the Iroquois tribes in the northwestern portion of the state.

South Carolina.—The Catawbias, descendants of a once powerful tribe, had become degenerate from contact and association with the whites. They owned a tract 15 miles square, lying on both sides of the Catawba river; a part of this land they had leased to the whites for a period of ninety-nine years.

Northwest Territory.—W. Winterbotham, in a "View of the United States of America" (1796), estimated the number of Indians in this territory in 1792 at 65,000. The tribes inhabiting the territory he enumerated as "the Piantias, on both sides of the Mississippi; the Casquerasquias, on the Illinois; the Piankashaws and other tribes, on the Wabash; the Shawanese, on the Scioto; the Delawares, the Miamis, the Ouiscons, Mascoutens, Sakies, Sioux, Mekekonakis, Pilans, Powtowatamis, Messagues, Ottawas, Chipewas, and Wiandots."

Incited by the British and French on the north, these Indians kept up almost continual warfare against the settlers. In the vicinity of the Wabash were several warlike tribes which made frequent incursions across the Ohio into Kentucky, killing cattle and horses and murdering the inhabitants; by their hostile attitude these Indians deflected southward, to the valley of the Ohio and especially to Kentucky, the stream of migration from New York and Pennsylvania to the West.

Southwest Territory (including area of Alabama and Mississippi).—As already stated, the tribes of greatest numerical importance in 1790 inhabited the southern and southwestern portion of the Republic. Among these were the Creeks, Cherokees, Choctaws, and Chickasaws.

The Upper Creeks dwelt principally on the upper waters of the Alabama and the Lower Creeks on the Apalachicola and on its two branches, the Chattahoochee and the Flint; the Seminoles, a branch of the Lower Creeks, extended into Florida. In 1789 the number of warriors in the whole Creek nation was estimated not to exceed 4,500, and the number of women, children, and old men 18,000; the Lower Creeks were rather more numerous than the related Seminole tribe, and these two together about equaled the Upper Creeks in number. The towns or subtribes of the Creeks, including both divisions of the nation, were about eighty in number, but differed widely in population and importance. A few towns,

¹ William Nelson: Indians of New Jersey, pages 118 and 119.

called "mother towns," had the principal direction of affairs.

Though the Creeks were in a great measure hunters, they possessed cattle, horses, and a few slaves, cultivated some Indian corn and potatoes, and in some instances had introduced the plow. Being nearer to the settlers in the Southern states than any other tribe, they had awakened to the value of their lands, and under the leadership of a shrewd half-breed, Alexander McGillivray, they kept up a fitful war against the advance of the settlers. On August 7, 1790, they concluded a treaty with the United States which clearly defined the boundary of the Indian lands, beyond which the white settlers should not pass. Article 6 of this treaty reads:

If any citizen of the United States or other person, not being an Indian, shall attempt to settle on any of the Creeks' land, such person shall forfeit the protection of the United States, and the Creeks may punish him or not, as they please.

North of the Creeks were the Cherokees. They were located principally on the headwaters of the Tennessee river, but their hunting grounds extended from the Cumberland river along the frontiers of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and part of Georgia. Commissioners sent to treat with them in 1785 estimated that they could muster 2,000 warriors. In 1789 the number had decreased to about 600, undoubtedly as a result of wars with the whites.

West of the Creeks, and within the confines of the present state of Mississippi, was the populous nation of the Choctaws. Being far removed from the settlements on the Atlantic, they were of little concern to the white inhabitants. In 1789 they were estimated to number about 15,000, as compared with nearly 30,000 a few years earlier.

The Chickasaws, in western Tennessee, numbered about 3,500.