

CHAPTER II

New Amsterdam—1627-74

PATROONS, TRADE, SMUGGLERS



NO GIFT of prophecy, however great, could have foreseen the future of the Port of New York at the time of its beginnings in the 1620s. To a lookout perched high on one of the two-masted galleons of that era, little that met his eyes would have been impressive. As his craft pushed slowly up the Lower Bay toward the island of Manhattan, he might have seen, far off to port, the desolate stretches of beach along Staten Island. He would have progressed through the Narrows and into the Upper Bay before he caught sight of an island famous in Dutch history for its nut trees—the one hundred and seventy acres of land known today as Governors Island.

Finally he would have arrived off the lower tip of Manhattan, which, like a gigantic arrowhead, splits the harbor into two parts. The jutting rocks of the corrugated shore line contained the area that was to emerge as Battery Park many years later.

Fort Amsterdam added an element of security to the ragged row of some thirty-odd rude huts which were strung along the edge of the East River. Somewhat later a reed-thatched roof topped the warehouse whose walls were constructed of Manhattan stone. A windmill stood close to the fort.

The island, narrower than it is today, was covered at its southern extremity with low wooded hills and grassy valleys. Where the Tombs prison now casts its shadow was a fresh-water lake, which drained into

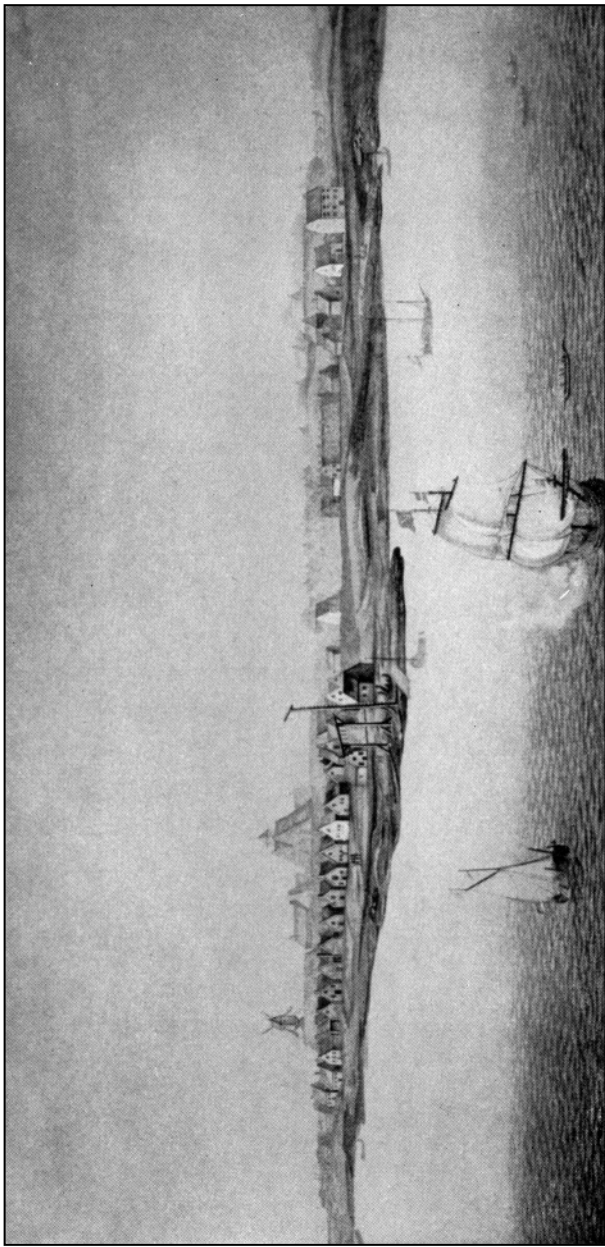
the East River by a stream the Dutch called the “Fresh Water” and into the North River by a stream that, in more modern times, gave Canal Street its name.

Beyond the modest settlement the virgin forest screened the view of Manhattan’s twenty-two thousand acres of rock, lakes, and rolling tableland, which rose in spots to an altitude of one hundred and thirty-seven feet. In its early days the visiting sailor might have landed, by flatboat used to discharge crews and cargoes, by Indian canoe, or by one of the ship’s dinghies, at a small dock at the end of the rudimentary street that began at the fort. Here the commercial center of the town had been established—with hardly a shift of the historic locality up to the present day.

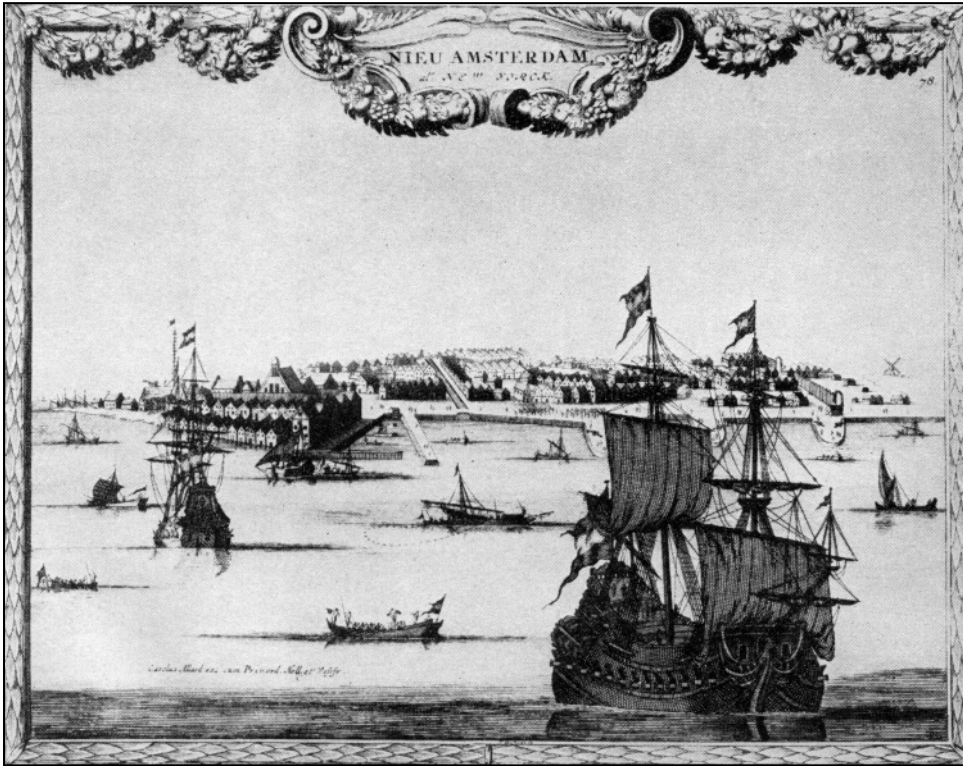
The geographic uniqueness of the Port gave it an advantage at the outset, as the logical place for the shipment of furs collected in the interior. Creeks, bays, rivers, and inlets afforded inland commerce with the Indian settlements. The East River joined the Upper Bay with Long Island Sound. Long Island offered a shelter from the full brunt of the ocean waves, all along the Connecticut coast, and was to afford an ideal “back door” to New England.

The sweep of the North River was such that it was less protected than the landlocked lower reaches of the East River, the infant community’s main anchorage. For more than two centuries the North River was to be limited mainly to traffic with the upper Hudson region, while incoming ships sought the natural protection of the smaller waterway. Ocean fogs seldom penetrated the inner harbor.

At the beginning the Dutch West India Company gave only grudging attention to the primitive trading outpost. Progress generally was slow, although by 1628 a wind-driven sawmill was being built at the water’s edge, and a windmill north of the fort furnished power for a gristmill. By 1639 the number of farms on Manhattan Island had increased from seven to thirty.



Nieuw Amsterdam, 1650-53



The Carolus Allard view of New York, 1673

Coastwise Traffic

In 1627 Director-General Minuit had the provincial secretary, Isaac de Rasiere, write to Governor Bradford of the Plymouth Colony, offering to barter Dutch goods “either for beaver or any other wares or merchandise you should be pleased to deal for.” In reply, Governor Bradford warned Minuit of “divers others besides” the New England colonists who would not hesitate to expel or “make prize of any, either stranger or English, which shall attempt either to trade or plant within their limits.” “Yet for our parts,” he wrote, “we shall not go about to molest or trouble you in anything,” although “we desire that you forbear to trade with the natives in this bay and river of Narragansett and Sowames, which is (as it were) at our doors.” Minuit answered in a friendly letter but firmly maintained their “right and liberty to trade in those parts” and pointed out that, if the English had their authority from the King, the Dutch had a similar right from the States-General of Holland and would defend it. Three months later, having received no answer from Bradford, Minuit dispatched a messenger with another letter, inviting Bradford to send a special representative to New Amsterdam to confer on the trade problem. As a further evidence of good will he sent along a “rundlet of sugar and two Holland Cheeses.” Governor Bradford, in a letter acknowledging the presents, requested that Minuit send a delegate to Plymouth, saying that “one of our boats is abroad and we have much business at home,” and therefore he could not send a representative at the time. Accordingly Minuit dispatched De Rasiere, who, Bradford wrote, was “a man of fair and genteel behavior.” De Rasiere won over the Puritans by his polished manners, and his efforts led to the first regular coastwise traffic out of the Port of New York.

The passing of ships trading between New England and Virginia brought English visitors to the settlement. In order to accommodate them, a stone tavern was built in 1642 at the head of Coenties Slip; in 1653 this became the Stadt Huys or City Hall. It was a three-story

structure, higher than the surrounding houses, which could be seen by all incoming ships from the anchorage at the foot of Whitehall Street.

The fort was replaced in 1635 by a larger fortress, two hundred and fifty by three hundred feet, which enclosed the Governor's house, the barracks, and the church. In 1653 a palisade was erected on the outskirts of the town, which later gave its name to Wall Street. Thirty years after the founding of the settlement the first census showed one hundred and twenty houses and one thousand inhabitants.

Waterfront—Harbor

In the seventeenth century the shore line was naturally quite different from that of today. What are now Front, Water, and South streets were then covered with water at high tide. At one time high tides threatened the foundations of the Stadt Huys, so a protecting stone wall was placed before the structure. What is now Broad Street in the early days was an inlet used as a canal, named by the Dutch De Heere Gracht. Extending from the East River to Wall Street, it was crossed by several footbridges and one broad bridge at Hoogh Straat.

In 1654 the shore, from the Stadt Huys to the "corner of the ditch" (De Heere Gracht), was planked up and filled in with earth and rubbish—probably the first land fill made for the improvement of the city's waterfront. It is not surprising that colonists from Holland, where land fill is almost a tradition, should have extended the shore line and widened the island, even at this early period.

The Patroons

To stimulate the growth of population in the colony, the directors of the Dutch West India Company devised the patroon system. A charter of liberties and exemptions granted the patroons freedom in trade except for furs and eternal possession of "fruits, rights, minerals, rivers, and fountains." Any director could become a patroon by subscribing a million guilders (about four hundred thousand) and agreeing "to plant

there a colony of fifty souls upwards of fifteen years old” and “may where they wish to settle their colonies” purchase from the Indians land extending “sixteen miles along the coast on one side of a navigable river, or eight miles along both sides of a river, and as far inland as the situation of the occupants will permit.” Although the patroons were restricted to the parts of the colony outside Manhattan Island, their influence extended into the life of New Amsterdam.

For the most part the directors presented the gifts and blessings of the patroon system to themselves. Through his agent in New Netherland, Kiliaen Van Rensselaer secured large grants of land on both sides of the North River, above and below Fort Orange, which stood a few miles north of the abandoned Fort Nassau. This venture prospered and became a sort of government within a government. Kiliaen remained in Holland, but his factors cleared land for farms, built flour mills with wind sails, and carried on a profitable trade with friendly Iroquoian tribes. For more than a century they were able to control traffic on the upper Hudson by their imposts and restrictions.

Closer to the port, Michael Pauw purchased Staten Island from the Indians. Later other purchases of the same land were made by one David Pietersen de Vries, known as a mariner, and by Cornelis Melyn. After a dispute over rights of possession, Governor Kieft persuaded De Vries to allow Melyn to establish a plantation on a large tract of land near the Narrows. Still later Melyn received a patent from the West India Company, granting him the patroonship over the whole of Staten Island, except for the portion reserved for De Vries.

Van Rensselaer was so influential that when Pieter Minuit was disposed in 1632 he was replaced by the patroon’s nephew, “tippling, potbellied” Wouter Van Twiller. Van Twiller, who arrived from Holland in 1633 (Bastiaen Jansz Krol having served as Director- General from 1632 to 1633), soon became the richest landowner on Manhattan and purchased Indian rights to Governors, Wards, and Blackwells (Welfare) islands, where he grew tobacco and raised cattle.

Fur Trade

The *Wapen van Amsterdam* (*Arms of Amsterdam*), sailing September 23, 1626, left the first-known manifest of a vessel clearing from the Port. Listed were 7246 beaver skins, 853 otter, 48 mink, 36 wildcat, 34 muskrat pelts, and “many logs of oak and nut wood.” The whole cargo was valued at around \$25,000, according to today’s monetary standards.

The Dutch West India Company, chiefly interested in furs, maintained a strict monopoly on all trade and fixed prices on exports and imports.

Although New Amsterdam had been founded as a fur-trading post, this trade proved less profitable than the directors had expected. While the annual exports of the colony had more than doubled between 1624 and 1635, the total trade of 705,000 guilders barely paid a profit on the company’s investment. A peak figure for the fur trade had been given as 85,000 skins a year. This was a poor enterprise when compared with the company’s lucrative ventures in Brazil and elsewhere. The capture in 1628 of seventeen Spanish galleons alone brought them loot worth 12,000,000 guilders.

The company was sharply criticized both in Holland and in New Netherland. The militant clergyman, Everardus Bogardus, who had come over on the same ship with Van Twiller, now turned on the Governor and attacked him from the pulpit. Discontent became general, and prominent citizens wrote to the company, accusing Van Twiller of using his office to promote his own interests while he neglected those of the colonists.

Van Twiller was recalled in 1637, but his successor, Willem Kieft, was not appointed until 1638. Kieft arrived in New Amsterdam aboard the *Harnick* (*Herring*). He wrote to his superiors that the fort was unfit for defense; the mills were idle; the warehouse disintegrating; cattle escaped to the woods, and “every vessel unserviceable, the yacht *Prince Willem* alone being fit for use, and only one new one on the stocks.”

In an attempt to remedy conditions, Kieft introduced sumptuary laws—a nine-o’clock curfew and a prohibition against “the harboring of sailors on shore overnight”—assuming apparently that the devasta-

tion he found was the work of drunken seamen. Two outraged sailors, who tore the proclamation from the mainmast of their ship, were sentenced to three months at hard labor.

Smuggling

Because of the unreasonably strict maritime regulations imposed by the various governors, most of the colonists were engaged in smuggling. British vessels, Dutch sloops trading in Virginia, and even the company's own ships, without knowledge of their owners, carried on an illicit trade. Drastic but ineffectual regulations were also drawn up against "Scotch traders" and others who sought profit at the company's expense. Smuggling, a direct result of the monopoly in fur trading, always remained.

The company directors complained in 1638 that "several persons" were in the habit of acquiring the best furs for themselves and reserving those of inferior quality for shipment to the company. The guilty persons then exchanged their own furs for merchandise, which they sent out "in the Company's own ships clandestinely, secretly and without knowledge of the Company."

A law was passed providing that no resident of New Amsterdam was to export any merchandise not properly declared, "on pain of confiscation." But all laws remained ineffectual so long as the company officials shut one eye. Trading sloops continued to ply stealthily between New Amsterdam, Plymouth, and Virginia. Even Negro slaves got tobacco money by bootlegging furs.

Kieft tried without success to halt the smuggling with a new code of laws. Soon the Amsterdam chamber voluntarily relinquished its trade monopoly. In 1639 the fur trade was "thrown free and open to everybody." All merchants of Holland and other friendly nations were invited to convey to New Netherland any cattle or merchandise they desired, provided they used the company's ships.

Slave Trade

As a final inducement to the patroons, in efforts to increase colonization, the company undertook to supply them with "Negro servants." This seems to have been the origin of the New Amsterdam slave trade. The first Negro slaves were introduced into the colony about the year 1626, but it was not until the 1640s, when the colonists began to take up agriculture in a serious way, that large numbers of slaves were required. Negroes were purchased for the equivalent of sixty dollars in Curacao and sold here for one hundred to one hundred and fifty dollars apiece, although Van Twiller paid forty guilders each for three Negroes in 1636. Later the price of slaves rose to a figure as high as two hundred and seventy dollars. The first were reported as sold for "pork and peas."

Most of the slaves were Negroes, but a few Indians were taken from foreign shores and pressed into service. In 1641 Dutch men-of-war took Loango Sao Paulo in West Africa from the Portuguese, and the company became increasingly active in the world's slave markets. Three years later Governor Kieft granted manumission to nineteen elderly slaves and their wives because of their eighteen years of faithful service to the company. In 1646 the first cargo of Negro slaves to be sold in New Netherland arrived from Brazil; the first cargo imported directly from Africa arrived in 1655.

This traffic in the early period did not prove profitable. Colonists who had rashly invested in slaves, in the belief that they "could work more and at less expense than farm servants," soon had cause for complaint. "Great things were to be done with these slaves," they wrote to the States-General, "but where are they? They have slipped through our fingers." Many slaves had escaped to the woods; some were welcomed into Indian communities.

Indians

During Van Twiller's administration Raritan Indians attacked the colonists. The warfare thus begun soon became chronic. When Kieft

was Governor his chief innovation was to tax the Indians “for protection”—a curious analogy to the present-day rackets of New York City. Even his language has a contemporary ring: “If there be any tribe that will not willingly contribute, we shall induce them to do so by most suitable means.” His means, including the massacre in 1643 of eighty upriver Indians who had taken refuge at Pavonia (site of Jersey City), were so “suitable” that for the next two years the colony enjoyed little peace. During this time nearly all the outlying white settlements were wiped out. More than once the entire population of New Amsterdam was forced to remain within the fort.

Peter Stuyvesant

The peg-legged Peter Stuyvesant, a former Governor of Curacao appointed to succeed Kieft, arrived in New Amsterdam during the month of May 1647, with a fleet of four vessels. “I shall govern you as a father governs his children,” said the stern old martinet.

The new Director-General spent a large part of his time fighting the constant smuggling. He forbade all vessels, “Dutch, English, French, Swedish, and others,” to use “other roadstead than in front of the City of New Amsterdam between Capske Point and Guide Board near the City Tavern” or “to land, remove, or transship any wares until the vessels are visited and the goods entered with the Honorable General.” No vessel might clear “without first being visited.” No cargo might be unloaded “after sunset and before sunrise.” It became a crime “to conceal, carry away, or transport” out of the colony any of the colony’s servants, free traders, or inhabitants without a pass signed by the director. Each year saw a new set of edicts, the contents of which only prove that the inhabitants continued to engage in smuggling on a large scale.

Stuyvesant and the Slave Trade

In 1648 a committee appointed by the States-General made a report on the affairs of the West India Company, in which they referred to the

slave trade as having “long lain dormant to the great damage of the company.” “With a view to encouraging agriculture and population,” the committee declared, “we should consider it highly advantageous to allow them to export their produce even to Brazil in their own vessels, under certain duties and conditions, to trade it off there and to carry slaves back in return; which privilege of sailing with their own ships from New Netherland to Brazil should be exclusively allowed to patroons and colonists, who promote the population in New Netherland, and not to interlopers who only carry goods to and fro, without attending to agriculture.” But the New Amsterdam slave trade was beset with difficulties. It was seven years before another slave ship, the *Witte Paert* (*White Horse*), brought a new cargo. These slaves were sold at public auction and shipped out of the colony. Outraged by this interference with his plans to increase the colony’s population, Stuyvesant declared that, whereas “the negroes lately arrived here from the bight of Guinea in the ship *Witte Paert* have been transferred hence without the Honorable Company or the Inhabitants of the Province having derived any revenue or benefit there from, there shall be paid at the General Treasury ten per cent of the value or purchase money of the negroes who shall be carried away or exported from here elsewhere beyond the jurisdiction of the New Netherlands.”

In the years that followed four slavers discharged cargoes at New Amsterdam. Typical of conditions aboard slavers at that time is an account of the slave ship *St. Jan* (*St. John*), which sailed from Almina, on the African Gold Coast, to Rio del Rey, a port on the African Slave Coast, where two hundred and nineteen Negroes were taken aboard. Although there is no account of the accommodations provided for the Negroes on this ship, it may be assumed that they were similar to those aboard other slavers. Negroes were usually consigned to the hold, where they were chained to the deck and made to lie shoulder to shoulder in rows, in order to conserve space. Hatches were battened down in bad weather; the air was foul, and, even when no epidemic of cholera,

plague, or blackwater fever broke out, a captain expected to lose twenty-five or fifty per cent of his cargo by death. Aboard the *St. Jan* foul water and lack of food brought on the bloody flux. Before the vessel was wrecked and captured by an English privateer, one hundred and ten men, women, and children died, “the greater portion of the slaves having died from want and sickness.”

Although the slave trade never became the source of real profit at this period, and Dutch farmers were unwilling to pay the price a good plantation hand would command in the Southern market, slaves were always considered good currency in trading for Virginia tobacco or West India rum.

Shipbuilding

The great years of Manhattan’s shipbuilding lay far ahead, but in 1631 a timid beginning was made when the *Nieuw Nederlandt* was constructed on the banks of the East River. Prior to that only a few sloops and shallops had been built, the timber having been brought down from the upper Hudson. Captain Block’s *Onrust* was an exception and a product of circumstances rather than a planned attempt.

Compared with those of other nations, all Dutch vessels were small, owing to the shallow canals and coastal waters of the mother country for which they had been constructed. The builders of the *Nieuw Nederlandt* (called Belgians by some authorities, Swedes by others) decided to build their vessel bigger and better than was customary at the time. Accounts disagree as to the actual size of the ship; one gives six hundred tons, another eight hundred. When the *Nieuw Nederlandt* reached Holland, she was greatly admired for her soundness and beauty of construction, but the company directors complained that her great size led to excessive operating costs. The builders did not repeat the venture.

Once, about 1658, Dutch shipbuilders refused a contract to build a galiot, saying: “We are not yet in condition to build such a craft here.” But along Pearl Street, which then fronted the East River, there were a

number of yards building smaller craft. A twenty-eight-foot canoe was built for the equivalent of eleven dollars, while a sloop cost five hundred and eighty dollars.

Save for vague tradition and a few rude engravings, there is little detailed knowledge now obtainable as to models or rigs of the American merchant craft of the years before the Revolution. Among the venturesome traders, the ketch and the sloop predominated. The sloop had a one-masted rig, carrying sometimes on the larger craft a square topsail. The ketch was a two-master but very different from the two-masted rig of a later period. One square-rigged mast was stepped aft from the bow, and a smaller mast, sometimes square-rigged, was erected near the stern. The schooner came into vogue in the first half of the eighteenth century. It was the characteristic vessel of American coasting trade for one hundred and fifty years and supplanted the ketch and brig for coastwise voyages. The size of ships in 1641 was comparatively small. The *Mayflower* was only one hundred and eighty tons; a ship built in Salem was three hundred tons; and of more than twelve hundred in the British navy, only two hundred and seventeen were of more than eighty tons. But altogether not more than five were over two hundred tons.

Port Improvements

A great many improvements in the equipment of the Port came with the increase of trade. Before Stuyvesant's term all incoming ships had anchored in the East River roadstead under the guns of the fort. Passengers were transferred to small boats and scows, then rowed to a small floating dock on De Heere Gracht, which was navigable for small boats as far as the present Exchange Place. In 1647 Stuyvesant's council recommended the construction of a small wharf, and in the next year the first pier in New Amsterdam was erected on the East River at Schreyer's Hook. A second and larger pier, called the "Bridge," was built in 1659 near the foot of the present Moore Street.

In the spring of 1654 a weighhouse, with scales for the proper regulation of weighing and measuring, was built upon the wharf; and a collector was appointed to collect the duty, which was paid always according to weight. In 1656 Isaac de Foreest, the brewer, was appointed "Master of the Weigh House." When New Amsterdam was surrendered to the British in 1664, this weighhouse was confiscated, and the building became the customhouse of the new administration. By an edict of 1656 farm produce, formerly hawked through the streets, was concentrated on a beach at what is now the intersection of Pearl and Whitehall streets. This inaugurated the first city market. Another Port improvement was the first "marine telegraph" on a hill opposite the Narrows. A white flag hoisted on a pole informed New Amsterdam merchants that a vessel was approaching.

The company wanted a solid town, easily defended, and gardening on city lots where houses might otherwise be built was discouraged. The inhabitants were urged to live close together like the New Englanders, who were concentrated within comparatively small areas and "who do not suffer these horrible massacres." The company declared that no houses were to be built outside the city walls until all the lots within had been occupied. However, a number of colonists were engaged in farming in the outlying settlements in Long Island, Staten Island, and New Jersey, whose market was in Manhattan. This meant ferries. The first ferry was established sometime between the years 1638, when the Brooklyn colony was begun by Governor Kieft, and 1642. The first ferryman, Cornelis Dircksen, ferried passengers from the foot of the present Fulton Street in Brooklyn to Peck Slip on the Manhattan shore. Rowboats, canoes, and other small craft were used at first; later flat-bottom boats for the accommodation of passengers and cattle were propelled by sail. In 1661 provisional permission was granted to William Jansen by the schouts and schepen of the village of Bergen in New Jersey "to work a ferry between Bergen and the Island of Manhattan." There was a Harlem River ferry in 1667; its price card for meals and

lodgings decorates many a museum and history book. The South Ferry-Stapleton (Staten Island) run did not open until 1713, but there is a clear record of a rowboat service to New Jersey, soon to be supplanted by horsepower (using windlass and sweeps), that began in 1661, crossing the Hudson squarely at South Ferry.

At this time there were many different types of ships and many new types of cargoes coming into the Port. More and more vessels anchored in the East River roadstead. Sloops, yachts, and ketches brought tobacco from Virginia and fish from New England. Pinks laden with sugar and molasses came from Barbados. Galiots from Curacao carried rum, dyestuffs, and salt. From Holland, often by way of the West Indies, came settlers, cotton prints, liquor, wine, and cattle; while the colony exported grain, timber, pelts, and pot ashes.

New Fortunes

Several fortunes were made in the coastwise trade and in that with the West Indies and Brazil. Among the leading merchant traders were Isaac Allerton, an Englishman from the Plymouth Colony, whose trading ventures brought him to New Amsterdam in 1638, where in the year 1647 he built a great warehouse at the present site of Fulton Fish Market; Pieter Cornelissen van der Veen, and Gouvert Loockermans, who made a fortune in gun running, selling liquor to the Indians, and, when necessary, in legal trade.

Colorful figures around the Port in the 1650s were Jan Peeck, an Indian trader, and his wife, Long Mary, who kept a tavern on the Great Highway at Smit's Valey. She was the widow of Cornelissen Volkertsen, one of the owners of the ship *Fortyn*, and married Peeck shortly after the death of Volkertsen in 1650. The list of their conflicts with the New Amsterdam authorities is interminable. On one occasion Peeck was charged with maintaining at his house "drinking clubs on divers nights . . . with dancing, jumping, and entertaining of disorderly people; also tapping during preaching, and that there was a great noise made by

drunkards.” Peeck was fined and his license annulled, but shortly afterward tapping privileges were restored in consideration of his being an “old burgher” and “burthened with a houseful of children and more besides.” Locked up two years later for felonious assault on a soldier in his tavern, he protested that he was illegally held, as he had “only defended his house and wife against the soldier’s violence.” In 1664 Long Mary was fined five hundred guilders and sentenced to banishment for selling liquor to the Indians, an offense “for which she had long been famous.”

Seafaring Stock

The ebb and flow of commerce fortunately devolved upon the Dutch, who both by inheritance and environment were sailors and shipbuilders from the world’s best seafaring stock. Conditions were such as to intensify this maritime instinct. The sea played a large part in the thought of the early settlers. In these times the sea was the best and surest highway between the colonies. For passenger or freight traffic between New York, Massachusetts, and Virginia, the main reliance was the handy ketch or pinnace. Their stout shallops had nothing to fear from the fragile canoe of the Indians. The perils of the ocean then were far greater than now—coasts were not charted and buoyed, and the waters were always dangerous to small ships navigating among reefs in fogs and storms. When the English were ready to dominate New York, they found that the sturdy Dutch had laid solid foundations upon which to rear a mighty maritime superstructure.

English Rule Begins

Since the founding of the Plymouth Colony, the English had theoretically laid claim to New Netherland. During the term of Willem Kieft, English settlers had drifted into the vicinity of New York. Englishmen had occupied farms at Heemsted (Hempstead) on Long Island, and some had established themselves in the Connecticut River Valley.

In 1635 a company bark was sent out to dislodge several Englishmen from the Virginia Colony who had settled at Fort Nassau on the South (Delaware) River, and the settlers were taken prisoners. In the next year Charles I of England issued a patent to the Earl of Stirling, granting him the whole of Long Island.

When in 1664 four British men-of-war, under the command of Colonel Richard Nicolls, entered the harbor, the people of New Amsterdam, chafing under Stuyvesant's harsh rule, had little desire to defend the city. The English immediately changed the name of the fort to Fort James. When Nicolls was proclaimed deputy Governor for James, Duke of York, he ordered that the city's name be changed to New York.

Governor Nicolls kept his promise not to interfere with the trade of the Dutch colonists with Holland, although from the start commerce was encouraged with England and the British colonies.

A persistent legend has it that James, Duke of York, attempted to define the boundaries between New York and New Jersey and ruled that all islands in New York Harbor which could be circumnavigated in a day should belong to New York. Captain Christopher Billopp resolved to win Staten Island, geographically part of New Jersey, for New York. He lightened the sloop of nearly all ballast, to avoid running aground on the Raritan River sandbanks, and covered the deck with empty barrels, to catch the least breath of breeze. He completed the circuit in twenty-three and one half hours. Yet, despite Captain Billopp's feat, Staten Island remained a subject of intercolonial dispute until the American Revolution.

In 1673, when England and Holland were at war, a Dutch fleet appeared in New York Harbor, and the Dutch regained temporary control. But New Orange, as the colony was renamed, was to survive for less than a year. In October, 1674, the *Muyll Tromp* (*Jew's Harp*) brought the news that hostilities had ceased and that the Treaty of Westminster had ceded the province to England. The new Governor, Major Edmund Andros, arrived in November of the same year.