D. J. DICKIE

W CANADA GREW UP

BOOK EIGHT

TORONTO

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CURRICULUM

BOOK VIII

HOW CANADA GREW UP

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HALIFAX HARBOUR.

HOW CANADA GREW UP

BY

D. J. DICKIE

TORONTO

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PREFACE

In concluding the series of Canadian History Readers, it seems worth while to repeat that the purpose which has guided the preparation of the books has been to build up in the minds of the children a picture of life as it was "in those days"; each little story has been intended to serve as a line in that picture. For the Readers from IV. to VIII. a good deal of research has been done in the archives of the Provinces; perhaps two-thirds of the stories are the result of that research. For the rest I am indebted to all the standard works upon Canadian history: *The Jesuit Relations*; Parkman; Bancroft (his volumes upon Canada); Kingsford's *History of Canada*; *The Makers of Canada* (The Morang Company of Toronto); *The Chronicles of Canada* and *Canada and its Provinces* (The Glasgow Brook Company, Toronto); besides many single volume histories. I owe inspiration as well as information to W. L. Grant, Oscar Skelton, Archibald Macmechan, Stewart Wallace, and Adam Short. Specific acknowledgments for pictures and quotations used in this book are made in the text.

For personal help I wish publicly to thank Mr. Jaffary, Provincial Librarian, Edmonton; the Honourable A. C. Rutherford, of Edmonton, whose magnificent collection of Canadiana, one of the largest private collections in Canada, has been freely opened to me; Mr. M. J. Hilton, of the Technical School, Edmonton, who prepared the new map for Reader VII.; and finally, Miss Genevieve Macdonald, Reference Librarian of the Calgary Public Library, who during three years has patiently collected material and read proofs.

D. J. DICKIE.

Calgary, *June* 1926.

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PUBLISHERS' NOTE

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HOW CANADA GREW UP

THE BEGINNING OF CANADIAN LITERATURE

No group of people really becomes a nation until it has a literature, and one of the most interesting ways in which to study the history of a country is to trace its development in its literature. Very little writing was done in British Canada between the Conquest and the American Revolution. The times were troubled, the people unsettled. There were printed in Halifax a few journals written by clergymen or travellers, a few volumes of sermons, prayers, and verse; nothing more.

The United Empire Loyalists who came to the Maritime Provinces were, generally, from the Eastern States. Many of them were educated men and women who belonged to the landlord and professional classes. They had been trained to express themselves and, presently, began to write. Those who settled in Upper Canada were business men and farmers. Their interests were less literary, and it was a little later before books began to be written in the "Upper Country."

Even in the Maritime Provinces, the newcomers were, for a time, overwhelmed with the difficulties and hardships of making new homes in the wilderness. The first letters, diaries, articles, and verses which appeared are full of complaints against Canada and homesickness for the familiar and beloved places they had left.

Early in the new century, however, a change begins to be noticeable. The roughest and hardest work of the settlers was done. The new houses and barns were being made comfortable; the fields blossomed; the towns and villages began to be homely places. The Revolution had left the Loyalists homeless and bereft; the war of 1812, in which they stood shoulder to shoulder

for Canada, bound them together, and taught them that they had once more a country. The young men and women now growing up had been born in Canada and knew no other home. The note of longing for the old home disappears from our literature, its place being taken by proud descriptions of the beauties of the new.

SUMMER EVENING

By Mrs. Leprohon

The rose-tints have faded out of the west,
 From the mountain's high peak,
 From the river's broad breast;
And silently shadowing valley and rill
The twilight steals noiselessly over the hill.
Behold, in the blue depths of ether afar,
Now softly emerging each glittering star;
While later the moon, placid, solemn, and bright,
Floods earth with her tremulous silvery light.

Hush! list to the whip-poor-will's strange plaintive notes,
 As up from the valley
 The lonely sound floats;
Inhale the sweet breath of yon shadowy wood,
And the wild flowers blooming in hushed solitude.
Start not at the whispering, 'tis but the breeze,
Low rustling 'mid maple and sighing pine trees,
Or the willows and alders that fringe the dark tide
Where canoes of the red men oft silently glide.

See, rising out of that copse, dark and damp,
 The fire-flies,
 Each bearing his flickering lamp!
Like meteors, streaming, gleaming, they pass
O'er hillside and meadow, and dew-laden grass;

Contrasting with ripple on river and stream,
Alternately playing in shadow and beam;
The fulness of beauty fills hearing and sight
Throughout the still hours of a calm summer night.

THE FIRST NEWSPAPER IN NEW BRUNSWICK

1783

The "spring fleet," carrying the first Loyalist party of three thousand, dropped anchor at the mouth of the St. John on May 10, 1783; the "fall fleet," with twelve hundred more settlers, arrived on October 4. Parrtown, now a part of the city of St. John, showed scattered groups of tents and log-houses in irregular patches of clearing. The streets were paths that wound about among the stumps; places of business were the roughest huts; but the settlement was already a town in size and with the brightest future before it.

When Parrtown was seven months old, William Lewis and John Ryan set up their press and printed the first New Brunswick newspaper. It was called the *Royal St. John's Gazette and Nova Scotia Intelligencer*. The new paper was a three-column weekly, eight by thirteen inches in size, compared with our modern dailies very small indeed. "It contained little, if any, local news; its columns were filled chiefly with European news, frequently months old. The advertisements then, as now, were an important feature.

"In the *Yarmouth Herald* of December 31, 1900, we find an excellent description of just such a press as probably graced the log-cabin press-room, editorial sanctum and dwelling combined of Lewis and Ryan at Parrtown in December, 1783. Here we learn that the method of working was as follows: the bed to roll in and out on a track, propelled by a pulley and belt turned by a handle; the 'sheet' was 'pinned' on the tympan, and a 'frisket' worked above the tympan kept the sheet clean and in place; the forms were rolled by hand, and the impression

was made by pulling over a long handle, working a lever, which forced the 'platen' down on the forms. By this process not over two hundred papers could be printed in an hour, and these only on one side.

"On May 18, 1785, Parrtown and Carleton were incorporated by Royal Charter as the city of St. John. Thus St. John is the oldest city in Canada, next in seniority being Toronto, which received its incorporation in 1834. Quebec and Montreal were incorporated in 1832, but four years later their charters were suspended until 1840." In the autumn of 1785, Christopher Sower was appointed King's Printer in New Brunswick. He took charge of the newspaper and changed its name to the *Royal Gazette and New Brunswick Advertiser*. The *Gazette* changed owners a number of times in the years that followed, and came finally into the hands of Jacob Mott. He died in 1814 and his widow, Ann Mott, took up the management of the *Royal Gazette*. The real management of the paper, however, was in the hands of Henry Chubb, who acted in behalf of Mrs. Mott.

Henry Chubb was born at St. John in 1787, and served his time as a printer's apprentice with Jacob Mott. Chubb was destined to play an important part in the affairs of the community. He was probably the first man in New Brunswick who displayed any real journalistic ability. In 1811, he began to publish the *New Brunswick Courier*. Its first issue contained nothing of local importance, not even a death or marriage notice, or a local of any sort. In the files of the *Courier*, therefore, we can watch the newspaper grow from an old-time sheet made up with paste and scissors to something approaching a modern journal.

Young Michael Ryan, son of John, before he was twenty-one began publishing the *New Brunswick Chronicle* at St. John. This paper did not succeed so young Michael packed up his printing outfit and went up the river to Fredericton. Here he began the *Fredericton Journal*, but it failed also, so he and his father joined forces and removed to Newfoundland. In the same year—1806—the first issue of the *Fredericton Telegraph* appeared, being published from the office near the church on Front Street.

JOSEPH STANSBURY

BEFORE the Revolution, Joseph Stansbury lived in Philadelphia. He was a skilful musician and quite a clever versifier. During the war he remained loyal to Britain, although he seems not to have been interfered with until after peace had been made. He was then thrown into prison and only released on condition that he should leave the state within nine days. He escaped to Shelburne, Nova Scotia. In Stansbury's verses, addressed to his wife, we hear the two common notes of Loyalist literature: dissatisfaction with Canada, and longing for home.

TO CORDELIA

BELIEVE me, Love, this vagrant life
  O'er Nova Scotia's wilds to roam,
While far from children, friends, or wife,
  Or place that I can call a home,
Delights me not:—another way
  My treasures, pleasures, wishes lay.

In piercing, wet, and wintry skies,
  Where man would seem in vain to toil,
I see where'er I turn my eyes,
  Luxuriant pastures, trees, and foil.
Uncharmed I see:—another way
  My fondest hopes and wishes lay.

MRS. SUSANNA MOODIE

On the other hand, Mrs. Moodie, who lived and wrote a quarter of a century later in Upper Canada, describes Canadian scenes and incidents with cheerful pride.

Canadian Hunter's Song

The Northern Lights are flashing
  O'er the rapids' restless flow;
But o'er the wild waves dashing
  Swift darts the light canoe,
  The merry hunters come,—
    "What cheer? What cheer?
    We've slain the deer!"
  "Hurrah! You're welcome home!"

The blithesome horn is sounding,
  And the woodman's loud halloo;
And joyous steps are bounding
  To meet the birch canoe.
  "Hurrah! the hunters come!"
    And the woods ring out
    To their noisy shout,
  As they drag the dun deer home!

The hearth is brightly burning,
  The rustic board is spread;
To greet their sire returning
  The children leave their bed.
  With laugh and shout they come,
    That merry band,
    To grasp his hand
  And bid him welcome home.

THE ICE BRIDGE ON THE ST. LAWRENCE

1792

MRS. SIMCOE, WIFE OF THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR OF UPPER CANADA

DURING the winter large masses of ice float down the river, and the people who come to market from the opposite shore pass in canoes, which they quit when they come to one of these large bodies of ice, and carry their canoes across on their shoulders, and launch them again in the water, and this is repeated several times before they reach Quebec, where they sell a fat turkey for fifteen pence, and provisions, all kinds, in proportion. The mode of crossing the river appears so difficult and dangerous that it seems hardly credible till it has been seen. This evening it was announced that "Le pont est pris" (The bridge has formed), that is, there is now a complete body of ice filling up the river and canoes will be no longer used, as carioles will drive across, which is very useful to the peasants and very pleasant to those who drive for amusement, and this year, the weather having been calm and the wind with the tide when it froze, the ice is very smooth. It is seven years since a bridge was formed.

Colonel Simcoe and I were going to walk on the ice bridge. As there was a narrow space containing water between the land and the ice, a plank was laid across, which Colonel Simcoe had passed, and stepping back to give me his hand, he slipped into the water, but luckily caught hold of the plank, which supported him until the Canadians who were near and on my screaming "Au secours!" (Help!) assisted him out. Had the plank given way he must have gone under the ice, and it would have been impossible to have got out. We walked to Monsieur Baby's, and I ran home to order dry clothes to be brought there.

Two days later, went across the river to Point Levy. The ice was excellent, and the sun excessively hot. We walked as far as the church. The firs looked beautiful among the snow

this bright day. We met the Prince (Prince Edward, Queen Victoria's father) in a cariole. I gathered bunches of berries from a low shrub Dr. Nooth called a clither. People cut holes in the ice and catch fish through them. Poisson d'or (gold fish) and pickerel are the most esteemed fish.

A JOURNEY TO MONTREAL IN 1793

Mrs. Simcoe

Friday, 8th June. At six this morning we left Quebec, walked through the Fort Louis Gate, and descended the hill to the river, where we embarked in a large bateau with an awning, accompanied by Lieutenants Grey and Talbot. Another bateau carried the children, and a third the servants and baggage. In three hours we reached Point aux Trembles on the north shore of the river, seven leagues above Quebec, landing a mile below the *maison de poste.* A small tent being pitched, we breakfasted, and afterwards went to see the church, which is a neat one, and contains a picture of Saint Cecilia, given by General Murray, which is highly esteemed.

We waited till nearly six o'clock for the tide, when we embarked. The evening was delightfully calm. My admiration of the setting sun on the unruffled surface of this wide river was interrupted by meeting a boat which brought English letters forward from Montreal. It was ten o'clock when we arrived at Cap Santé, on the north shore. The man who kept the *maison de poste* was so ill that we could not be admitted there, so we walked towards a cottage where the inhabitants were going to bed, but with all possible French *politesse* the woman removed her furniture and children, and presently accommodated us with two empty rooms, with a thousand compliments and regrets that the strangers should be so ill-lodged. The apartment was indifferent enough, but as we travel with a folding camp chair as large as a mattress, the "Triton's"

Courtesy of Religious Tract Society.

LUMBERING IN BRITISH COLUMBIA.

cot, blankets, and a mosquito-net tent to hang over the bed, we soon furnished a room comfortable enough for people whom a long day's voyage had given sufficient inclination to sleep. The gentlemen slept in a bateau. It was too late to get our provisions from the boat, and we supped on the bread, eggs, and milk the cottage afforded.

Saturday, 9th. We rose at six this morning, and walked on the hill which rises abruptly behind this house. To the east the view is finely terminated by the church, which is covered with tin, as is usual in this country. It is surprising to me that it does not rust. It proves the habitual dryness of the air. The effect of the tin roofs and steeples is very brilliant. Beyond Cap Santé the tide ceases. Colonel Simcoe wished to examine the ground at Deschambault with reference to it as a military position. I went on shore with him there, while the gentlemen proceeded in the boat. In about an hour we set out in a calèche — a small carriage, buggy, on two wheels with a hood, goes very fast, and is very light in weight, used in the Province of Quebec among the inhabitants—and drove nine miles through a beautiful woody country, over very rough roads, to Grondines, a village sixteen leagues above Quebec, where we dined and slept at the house of Madame Hamelin, the seigneuresse of this village, whom we saw in the evening sitting in the churchyard, amid a large audience of peasants, reading and commenting on some handbills dispersed by a Quebec merchant (Mr. McCord), a candidate to represent this county at the next election. The tone and air of the reader, the attention of the audience, and the Flemish appearance of their figures would have afforded an excellent picture. The

A STREET IN CHARLESBOURG

Canadian women are better educated than the men, who take care of their horses and attend little to anything else, leaving the management of their affairs to the women.

Monday, 11th. We rose at four and embarked, and went a league to Trois Rivières. We paid a great price for a bad breakfast at an inn kept by an Englishman, for we were not so lucky as to go to the French *maison de poste,* where we should have fared better and paid less.

. . . . . .

At eleven o'clock we arrived at Montreal, and after a little delay got into Government House, the Château de Ramezay, and I was delighted with the size and loftiness of the rooms. My joy was checked the next day by finding the heat more insufferable than I have ever felt. The thermometer continued at 96 for two days. In the town are abundance of merchants' storehouses the doors and windows of which are made of tin. By these I believe the heat is increased. The Government House is built on arches, under which are very large offices, which might be made very comfortable summer apartments.

LIFE AT NAVY HALL, NIAGARA, 1793

Mrs. Simcoe

Friday, 14th June. I am just returned to Navy Hall after spending a month with Mrs. Smith at the Fort. The cold I caught the 9th of May turned to dumb ague (that is, but little of the cold fit and a continual fever). With this indisposition I found myself extremely inconvenienced by the Commissioner's residence in our small house, and I accepted Mrs. Smith's friendly invitation to visit her, and her nursing and great attention to my health enabled me to recover as soon as I have done.

Wednesday, 26th. The Indian Commissioners went to

Fort Erie. Colonel Pickering gave me a receipt to make chowder of salmon, sea biscuit and pork; it is stewed for twenty minutes.

Thursday, 27th. We dined alone for the first time since we left Quebec. The Governor having no business to attend to, and the weather delightful, we crossed the water, and drank tea on a pretty green bank, from which there is a good view of Navy Hall, and we enjoyed the half-holiday amazingly.

Friday, 28th. We rode to Queenstown and slept there. The thermometer was 86 to-day.

Saturday, 29th. Breakfasted in the camp and rode on to the Falls, seven miles; dined there, and went to Burch's Mills, two miles above the Falls. We returned to tea in the camp, but the heat was so excessive we were obliged to stop on the road and drink milk and water and eat fruit at Mrs. Tice's, who lives at the Falls. I saw a stuffed rattlesnake which was killed near Queenstown in the act of swallowing a black squirrel. The snake measured five feet six inches long, and had seven rattles.

Friday, 5th July. Francis has been very ill, and the extreme heat of this place is thought to be prejudicial to him. It is, therefore, determined that I shall take him to the camp on the mountain. The Governor will come to see us whenever he has leisure; my dinner is to be sent every day from Navy Hall.

Tuesday, 20th May (1794). I am always glad to have large parties at dinner, for when I sit alone, I do nothing but think of the threatened war in this country.—On Thursday, the Governor and I dined alone. We fished near the wharf at Niagara.

Monday, 2nd June. The House of Assembly met to-day. We went to the garrison in the evening and drank tea with Mrs. Smith.

Wednesday, 4th. The ball was held in the Council Chamber. The Governor and I and Mr. Talbot went into the room after all the company were assembled. There were twenty-two couples. I did not dance. The ladies were all well dressed. We supped at twelve in a room as large as the ballroom, and came away at two o'clock. The whole was extremely well managed, as Mr. Talbot ordered it himself.

Thursday, 5th. I was tired with sitting up late, and went to take an early dinner at the Fort with Mrs. Smith. The Governor had a large party of gentlemen to dinner. Mr. Talbot came for me in the evening and it was so cold we were obliged to wrap ourselves up in greatcoats and tippets.

Saturday, 7th. Francis' birthday was not kept yesterday, as the Governor was from home. To-day the little cannon Mr. McDonell gave him fired a salute of twenty-one guns, and though they are not two inches long, made a loud report and pleased him much. Being three years old he was dressed in a "rifle" shirt and sash, which gave him somewhat the air of an Indian. He found a dead snake and gave it as a present to one of the gentlemen with us.

Monday, 23rd. A large party of the members of the House of Assembly dined here.

Wednesday, 16th July. The weather very hot. We went out in a boat. While we were walking in the garden this evening about fifty Indians, men and women, landed from their canoes and encamped outside the paling, brought on shore their luggage and made fires. All this passed with so little noise and bustle that we scarcely heard there were people near us. What a noise would the encampment of fifty Englishmen have made! We sent some bread and meat to the party. There is always an appearance of distinctions among these savages; the principal chiefs are usually attended by apparent inferiors, who walk behind them. I observe none but the chiefs shake hands with the Governor.

FIRST SNOWFALL

Although this land is very fair to see,
When garbed in all her springtime loveliness;
When meadow flowers caress
Her flying footsteps;—yet diviner still
She seems, when first her wintry cloak of snow
She softly wraps around her.

Elaine Catley.

Howard Chapman, Victoria

LOOKING NORTH TOWARDS NOOTKA

JOHN JEWITT

THREE YEARS CAPTIVE AMONG THE SAVAGES AT NOOTKA

1803

JOHN JEWITT was born at Boston, in England, in 1783. His father was a blacksmith who hoped his son would be a surgeon, but the boy preferred to follow his father's trade and became an expert in it.

At Hull, whither the family had moved, Mr. Jewitt did a good deal of work for the Americans who frequented that port. To Hull, in the summer of 1802, came the ship *Boston* of Boston, Massachusetts, Captain Salter, to load cargo for trade with the Indians of the North-West of America. The *Boston* having occasion for many repairs, Mr. Jewitt was called upon to do the smith's work. While the repairs were going forward, Captain Salter and the two young men, his first and second mates, used often to pass the evening at Mr. Jewitt's house. They were amiable, friendly fellows, with many a lively story to tell of voyages on far seas, and the upshot of it was that when they put out from Hull young John sailed with them as armourer.

The *Boston* sailed on September 3, and, after a few days

of seasickness, John kept very busy at his forge which had been set up on deck. He put the ship's muskets in order and began to make a supply of daggers, knives, and small hatchets for the Indian trade. After a pleasant passage of twenty-nine days, they reached the Island of St. Catherine, off the coast of Brazil, where vessels bound round Cape Horn were accustomed to take in wood and fresh water. The *Boston* was thirty-six days making the passage around Cape Horn, being repeatedly forced back by contrary winds and rough weather. At last, on Christmas Day, they were successful in doubling the Cape; with it bad weather vanished behind them and fair winds attended all their voyage to Nootka, which they reached on March 12, 1803.

The next day several natives, with their king, Maquina, came on board from the village of Nootka. Maquina was a very dignified savage, six feet in height, straight and well proportioned; his features were good; he had a large Roman nose, very uncommon among these people; his complexion was of a dark copper hue. His face, legs, and arms were covered with red paint; his eyebrows were painted black in two broad strips, and his long black hair, which shone with oil, was fastened in a bunch on the top of his head, and powdered all over with white down, which gave him a most extraordinary appearance. He wore a large mantle of black sea otter which reached to his knees, and was fastened round his middle with a belt of the cloth of the country which is made from the bark of a tree and looks like straw matting. His dress was by no means unbecoming but, on the contrary, had an air of savage magnificence.

There were seldom many furs to be purchased at Nootka; Captain Salter had put in there chiefly to lay in a stock of wood and water against the voyage up the coast. Each day, however, the natives came on board, bringing fresh salmon to trade; they were much interested in John, and, often crowding round his forge to watch him at his work, became quite friendly with him.

One day when Maquina was on board, Captain Salter invited him to stay and dine; the chief did so and they had much talk together. Maquina said the wild ducks were plentiful in Friendly Cove, so the captain presented him with a fine fowling-

piece. On the following day, Maquina came aboard with nine pairs of wild ducks as a present for the captain. At the same time, he brought with him the gun, one of the locks of which he had broken, telling the captain that it was "peshak"—that is, bad. Captain Salter, much offended at this, called the king a liar and tossed it in to John to be mended. Unfortunately, the king, who knew some English, understood the term Captain Salter had used and, though he said nothing, his countenance expressed the rage he felt.

Two days later, the *Boston* was ready to weigh anchor. Maquina came aboard with a number of his chiefs that morning and suggested that the sailors should go ashore and take salmon in Friendly Cove. Captain Salter thought it desirable to have a supply of fresh fish for the voyage and, after dinner, sent off the first mate with nine men in the jolly-boat and yawl to fish. The steward was ashore at the watering-place, washing the captain's clothes. John was at his vice bench in the steerage cleaning muskets. Suddenly there was a great running and bustle on deck. John ran up the steerage stairs. As his head rose above the deck a savage seized him by the hair. Fortunately for him, his hair was short, and the ribbon with which it was tied slipping, he fell from the Indian's hand into the steerage. As he fell, the savage struck at him with an axe which cut a deep gash in his forehead, so that he lay stunned upon the floor.

When he came to himself, John saw that the steerage hatch was shut; Maquina had ordered it closed, meaning to save the young armourer's life and make him his slave. The hatch was at length opened; the chief called John up and ordered a man to wash the blood from his face. Asked if he would be slave to the king and make daggers for him, John said yes, and was ordered to kiss the royal hands and feet, which he did. Meantime the people were very clamorous that he should be put to death, but the king saved him from them. He was then led to the quarter-deck and obliged to identify the heads of his former shipmates, which were all arranged there in a line. A tobacco leaf was now bound over the wound in his head and, at the chief's orders, he managed to get the ship into the Cove and ran her ashore on the sandy beach.

That evening the five hundred warriors of the tribe assembled at Maquina's house to rejoice over their success. They again asked that John be put to death, but the king refused. He told them that he had promised the young man his life and would not break his word; besides, he said, the white man knew how to make arms and would be of great use to them. As the people clamoured for his death, Prince Sat-sat-sik-sis, a boy of eleven years, came up to John, who took the child on his knee, and cutting the metal buttons off his coat tied them round his neck. At this the young prince was so delighted that he refused to leave John, and the king, much pleased, made him sleep at his side that night lest anyone should kill him.

At midnight, a native woke Maquina to say that the guards on the ship had discovered another white man alive. This turned out to be Thompson, the sailmaker, who had been below at work upon the sails when the Indians attacked the ship. In the morning the tribe assembled on the beach, and the king asked whether the white man should live or die. The savages voted unanimously for his death. John, who had thought of a plan, now came forward and, throwing himself at Maquina's feet, claimed Thompson as his father and begged the king, with tears, to spare his life. To his unspeakable joy, Maquina consented, and Thompson was brought ashore to share John's slavery.

For three years the two white men served the savages, faring as they did. They never wanted for provision when the natives had it, but they were obliged to eat it cooked in Indian fashion and with train oil as sauce. When not at work for Maquina the king allowed John to work for himself. He made bracelets and other ornaments of copper, fish-hooks and daggers to sell to other tribes or for their own chiefs, who gave him food in exchange or lengths of cloth out of which Thompson made clothes for them. Thompson, who was of a very violent temper and who hated the Indians intensely, was frequently left without food and was several times in danger of his life, but John, who continued in favour, always managed to save him.

Maquina presently informed John that the chiefs had held

council and decided that the white slave must marry one of their women. John remonstrated but was told that, should he refuse, both he and Thompson would be put to death. The next morning they loaded two canoes with cloth, muskets, and sea-otter skins and paddled over to a neighbouring village to choose a wife. Arrived there, they were feasted upon herring spawn and train oil, and John was invited to select his bride. He chose a young girl, the daughter of Chief Upquesta; the chests were brought in and the articles exhibited, the master of ceremonies explaining that all these riches belonged to John and were offered by him in exchange for the lady. Maquina then rose and spoke for half an hour in praise of his slave; the father of the bride, in like terms, praised his daughter, said he could not think of parting with her, and ended by agreeing to the marriage. Upquesta then directed his people to carry back the presents to John and added two young male slaves to assist him in fishing. The ceremony ended with a feast and war songs. In the morning John received the young woman from her father and returned with his party to their own village.

As the summers came and went, the two white men watched eagerly for the arrival of a trading ship, hoping in some way to make their escape to her. Again and again they were cast from the pinnacle of hope to the depths of despair, by rumours of ships which sailed by but did not enter Friendly Cove. It was past midsummer in 1806, and the hopes of the captives were again growing faint when, one morning, the natives came running to Maquina to report a vessel under full sail coming up the harbour. John repressed his own feelings and reminded Thompson to show no delight; they continued their work as if nothing had happened.

A council was immediately called to decide what should be done with the white men. Some were for putting them to death and pretending to the ship that it had been another nation which captured the *Boston*; others wished to send the white men fifteen or twenty miles back in the country, to remain till the ship should have gone; several of the chiefs advised releasing the prisoners. They all warned Maquina not to go on board. The chief, who was anxious to go, asked John's advice. Jewitt

assured him that white men did not harm those who had not injured them, and promised the chief that he might go aboard with perfect safety. Maquina at last decided to go, on condition that John would write a letter to the captain saying that the chief had saved his life and that of Thompson, and had always treated them kindly.

John hastened to write a letter in which he asked the captain to hold Maquina prisoner, that with his person they might bargain for their own release. On board ship, Maquina was invited into the captain's room, where he was given biscuits and a glass of rum, and presently informed that he was a prisoner. When the canoe returned without their king, the savages set up a loud howl and ran back and forth upon the beach like lunatics. Maquina's wives and little Sat-sat-sik-sis crowded round John, kneeling, and weeping, and begging him to save Maquina. The chiefs now quieted the people and asked John what they had best do to secure the release of their king. He advised them first to send Thompson aboard to desire the captain to treat Maquina well until John was released. Thompson demurred at leaving Jewitt alone, but finally went off in the canoe.

After some discussion, it was decided that John should send a letter to the captain asking him to send Maquina in a boat with three men to meet John in a canoe with three men, John to be exchanged for the chief half-way between ship and land. The natives were pleased with this and, as they were used to seeing John armed, paid no attention to the pistols he stuck in his belt.

As the canoe came within hail of the brig the Indians ceased paddling, and John, presenting his pistols, ordered them to carry him on board directly lest he shoot them down. He did this hoping to get on board before Maquina was released, in which case he thought they might recover the cannon and other property of the *Boston* before releasing the chief. The Indians, having no alternative, quickly put John on board. He found Maquina much alarmed for his own safety and very willing to order the guns and other articles to be delivered to Captain Hill. This done, the chief was liberated and with expressions

of good-will, exchange of presents, and promises of future trade, returned to his people.

Jewitt and Thompson were obliged to pass another year in trading up and down the coast, following the fortunes of the vessel which had rescued them. But all perils have an ending and they found themselves safely at home in the end.

THE LOYALISTS

By Anne Curzon

O ye who with your blood and sweat
  Watered the furrows of this land,
See where upon a nation's brow,
  In honour's front, ye proudly stand!

Who for her pride abased your own,
  And gladly on her altar laid
The bounty of the older world,
  The memories that your glory made.

And to her service bowed your strength,
  Took labour for your shield and crest;
See where upon a nation's brow,
  Her diadem, ye proudly rest.

THE COFFEE HOUSE

1803–1840

The first social club in St. John was established in 1803 and was housed in the Exchange Coffee House at the corner of King and Prince William Streets. The Coffee House, which was one of the first large buildings completed in Parrtown, was a low two-storey building with a shingle roof. One of the rooms

on the second floor was known as the Assembly Room; it was 50 × 25 feet, and was used for all important social functions.

One of the first entertainments held in the Coffee House was the Queen's Birthnight Ball given by Governor Carleton on January 18, 1785. There were between thirty and forty ladies present and nearly one hundred gentlemen; the ladies were of the best families only, but the gentlemen were of all parts. The ladies were in scarlet cloaks, carrying great muffs; in the ballroom they appeared in long narrow skirts and high waists with low round necks and small puffs for sleeves. Their little shoes were made of soft leather and fastened with two cross-over straps. The gentlemen wore knee breeches, frilled shirts and wigs or powdered hair. Hairdressers were few in those days and each man had to take his turn. Those who appeared rather stiff and tired at the dance were forgiven, for it was understood that they had been curled and powdered early in the morning and had had to sit idle, or to move very cautiously, all day long lest they spoil the work of art which crowned them.

Sandwiches and coffee, cake and ice-cream would have been sniffed at in those days. Our forefathers regarded the supper as an important part of the dance, and sat down to discuss fowl, game and sweets for an hour. Quadrilles, minuets, reels, jigs and country dances were danced, and the whole affair was managed with as much dignity as the largeness of the company and the smallness of the room allowed.

In 1800, the Coffee House was occupied by White Raymond who, when he petitioned for a licence to keep a house of public entertainment in Parrtown and to retail spirituous liquors, was certified as "an honest, good man, and one in a situation to accommodate the public." Mr. Raymond got his licence and advertised:

"Exchange Coffee House

"The Subscriber will open the coffee-room in the Exchange Coffee House for the reception of gentlemen merchants and others, and will engage to furnish, by every Packet, the London newspapers, as also the New York and Boston papers by every

opportunity, for their perusal, as soon as a sufficient number of subscribers shall appear to defray the expense of the room, fire, and candlelight."

The coffee and reading room seems to have been popular for a year later the owner advertised in the same paper:

"A Hint

"The Occupier of the Exchange Coffee House is under the disagreeable necessity of reminding those gentlemen who are in the habit of taking away newspapers belonging to the subscription room, that they must desist from the like practices in future as they are intended for the benefit of all the gentlemen subscribers, and such intrusions will not be allowed."

In 1803 the Coffee House was leased by William George Cady, who advertised entertainment, liquors, good board, and good stabling for horses. Mr. Cady was an enterprising person, and laid his plans to increase the already considerable popularity of the Coffee House by establishing a club there. It was to be called the "Subscription Room." None but subscribers, with their out-of-town friends, were to be admitted. Each subscriber paid twenty shillings a year; for this fee the room was to be furnished with Lloyd's List, a tri-weekly London paper, a New York and a Boston daily, a Halifax and a St. John weekly. The proprietor agreed to provide fuel, candle-light, a blank book for the insertion of news, and pen, ink and paper.

The "Subscription Room" opened with a membership of forty-one, and was a great success. Leading professional and business men met there socially; indeed, they often held business meetings there. Everyone who wanted reading, talk, news or political discussion went to the Coffee House for it. The Subscription Room became a little "hub of creation"; the Court House, City Hall, and Market were close at hand; the Post-Office was only a little farther south on King William Street; Chubb's printing office was just alongside. In it were held the annual anniversaries of the St. George and St. Andrew Societies. Civic, political and military dinners were given.

Large balls were held at Cady's, the grandest in many years being the one given in honour of Nelson's victory at Trafalgar.

The Coffee House was the regular meeting-place of the Masonic Lodge during ten years. The St. John branch of the Bible Society was founded in the old Subscription Room. The first meeting of the stockholders of the Bank of New Brunswick was held there in 1820. There, in 1822, a committee sat to consider the practicability of building a canal from the Bay of Fundy to Bay Verte. For years the Exchange Coffee House was quite the political and social centre of St. John.

From a print owned by the Hon. A. G. Rutherford

THE COFFEE HOUSE AND STREET IN PARRTOWN

THE "CHESAPEAKE" AND "SHANNON"

1812–1814

THE United States declared war on Britain in 1812. Orders had been issued early in the season to put the forts at Halifax in repair; the works on Citadel Hill having again fallen into a dilapidated condition. All able-bodied men between eighteen and fifty were to be balloted for service and a portion of them to be embodied immediately. The *Belvedere* escaped

from an American fleet which attacked her and afterwards captured three American merchant vessels which she brought in with her.

Halifax being the headquarters of the naval force under Admiral Warren, who had upwards of sixty pennants under his command, prizes now began to be brought into port. The Court of Admiralty under Judge Croke was in active operation, and the newspapers of the day appeared filled with advertisements of sales of prizes and prize goods. Cartels frequently came and went between Halifax and American ports for the exchange of prisoners. With all this bustle of business money became plentiful, and the foundations of small fortunes began to be laid by the Crown lawyers and the prize agents.

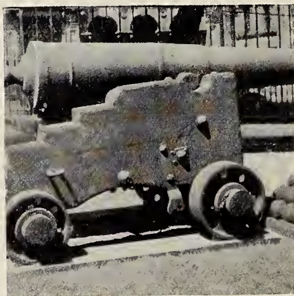
The presence of a large army caused much dissipation in the town. Festivities of all kinds prevailed. Subscription assemblies at Mason Hall were kept up during the winter under the management of the collector of customs, Captain Brenton of the navy, and Lieutenant-Colonel Robertson of the garrison. Dinner parties at Government House, and balls and levees on state days, with frequent rejoicings on the news of the successes of the British armies, both in Europe and America, completed the round of Halifax festivities.

On Sunday morning, June 6, 1813, the inhabitants of Halifax were surprised by the arrival of His Majesty's frigate *Shannon*, Captain Broke, with her prize, the United States frigate *Chesapeake*, Captain Lawrence. The engagement, which was said to have been the result of a challenge on the part of Captain Broke, took place off Boston Harbour a very short time after the *Shannon* left Halifax. The enemy surrendered after twenty minutes of fighting. Captain Broke ran his ship in upon the *Chesapeake* and captured her with his boarding party who, "rushing upon the enemy's deck, carried away everything before them with irresistible fury." Captain Lawrence and his first lieutenant, Ludlow, were killed; the latter died at Halifax on June 13. The engagement was one of the most bloody on record. When the ships came up the harbour the decks were being swabbed and the scuppers ran red. Mr. Provo Wallis, a Halifax man, one of the lieutenants of the *Shannon*, brought

in the prize. He received his promotion as commander soon afterwards, and later became a full admiral and Knight Grand Cross of the Bath.

The town and its vicinity had for the last two years abounded with French prisoners of war. Those taken from American prizes now increased the throng. A prison had been erected on Melville Island at the head of the north-west arm for their accommodation, and soon became crowded. Many of the French sailors were ingenious workers in wood and bone, and made various articles of use as well as ornament which they sold to the numerous visitors who were freely permitted access to Melville Island. It was the favourite resort of the young people on Sundays and holidays, where a pleasant hour could be passed in conversing with the French prisoners and examining their toys.[1]

[1] You should read this story as it is told in *Old Province Tales*, by Archibald MacMechan.



CANNON USED IN THE FIGHT BETWEEN THE "SHANNON" AND THE "CHESAPEAKE"

SUNDAY IN HALIFAX

1817

SUNDAY presented a gay scene at Halifax in those days. There being no garrison chapel for the troops, the regiments in garrison, preceded by their brass bands playing, marched in full dress to St. Paul's and St. George's Churches, amid the ringing of bells and the sounding of martial music. The carriage of the Governor (who was then always a general officer) in full military costume with his aide-de-camp drove up to the south door of St. Paul's, the whole staff having first assembled under the portico, which then ran along the southern end of the church. His Excellency, followed by a brilliant display of gold lace and feathers, the clank of sabres and spurs, and the shaking of plumed hats of so many officers, many of whom were accompanied by their ladies, on entering the church presented a most brilliant spectacle. All this was followed by the old Chief Justice Blowers in his coach and livery, the carriage of the Admiral, and those of several members of council.

All being seated and the body of the church full of dress and fashion, the peal of the organ began to be heard, and the clergy in surplice and hood (he who was about to preach, however, always in a black gown) proceeded from the vestry up the side aisle to the pulpit, preceded by a beadle in drab and gold lace, carrying a large silver-headed mace, who, after the clergy had taken their seats, deliberately walked down the aisle again to the vestry with the mace over his shoulder. The rector, Dr. John Inglis, usually preached in the morning, and the curate, Mr. J. T. Twining, performed the service.

The common was the usual resort of a large portion of the inhabitants on a Sunday afternoon during the summer months. The troops paraded there, the Governor and his staff attended, and the whole brigade with their regimental colours, and the artillery with their field-pieces, formed a line and were inspected by the Governor or Commander-in-Chief, after which they

marched round the drill-ground, passing before him at slow time, saluting him in open columns of companies. No booths, however, were allowed on the common for sale of refreshments, except on the King's and Queen's birthdays, when grand reviews took place.

"AGRICOLA"

During the war of 1812–13–14 there were large bodies of soldiers in the country to be fed, and the Government was constantly in the market for foodstuffs. During those years the farmer received high prices for almost everything he produced. After the Treaty of Ghent prices dropped to their natural level, and the people who had recently raised their standard of living felt the pressure of the hard times which always follow wars. As the products of the farm sold for less, the farm itself lost value, and the farmer who, in all agricultural countries, is the chief support of the State, sank into a position inferior in the public estimation to the merchant, tavern-keeper, or the pedlar.

In the midst of this period of business depression, a series of letters on agriculture, signed "Agricola," began to appear in the *Acadian Recorder*. They were so full of information and so well written that everyone read and talked about them. "Agricola" lamented the unnatural position of the farmer, and showed that the prosperity of the country must be built upon a solid base of thriving farms. The first letter recommended the formation of an agricultural society in every county to collect information, give prizes, and stimulate the farmers in every way possible. "Agricola" himself continued to publish every week articles full of information about tillage, vegetation, and the management of live-stock.

Lord Dalhousie, the Governor, was delighted with these letters, and wrote to "Agricola" encouraging him to continue publishing them. Indeed everyone fell in heartily with the idea

of establishing the Agricultural Society; so that in December "Agricola" announced that a meeting would be held on the following Tuesday to organise one.

The Earl presided at the meeting. In his address he thanked "Agricola" for the idea. Mr. Archibald moved a resolution that a Provincial Agricultural Society should be formed in Halifax. This was agreed to. Lord Dalhousie proposed that "Agricola" be secretary, and Brenton Haliburton consented to act until the unknown author revealed himself. "Agricola" was present at the meeting. While the many flattering speeches were being made he sat without moving a muscle of his face; but he admits that he started and flushed when he was appointed secretary of the new society. No one seems to have noticed this, however.

Public curiosity was now upon the stretch, and a thousand schemes were resorted to, to find out the secret. Each of the men capable of writing the famous letters was considered and one after another eliminated. Conjecture centred more and more around Mr. John Young and a clergyman who had long been suspected. One day the latter gentleman went out of town; that day "Agricola" received a letter which required an immediate answer. He replied at once. This proved that the clergyman was not "Agricola." Specimens of Mr. Young's writing were compared with that of "Agricola," and though the latter had disguised his hand, the likeness between the two partly let out the secret. Since his appointment as secretary, Mr. Young had felt that he ought to make himself known. A few days, therefore, before the meeting of the Provincial Society, he wrote to Lord Dalhousie and signed his real name. He was at once called to visit the Governor and his identity became public.

The first meeting of the Agricultural Society was held in April 1819, in the House of Assembly, with the Lieutenant-Governor in the chair. The meeting discussed plans for introducing summer fallow as a preparation for wheat, oat culture, use of lime, the clearing of land, ploughing matches, and the improvement of stock, seed and farm implements. The Assembly voted fifteen hundred pounds for the use of the Board of the Society. Fourteen county societies were organised under the

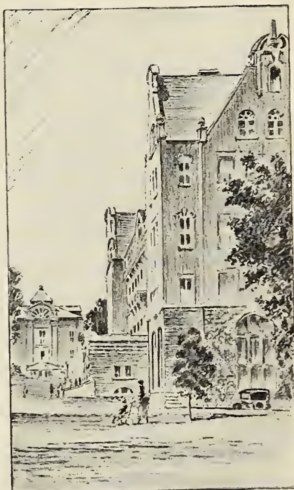
central association and the movement gave a great impetus to farming throughout the Province.

"Agricola" was a Scotsman, whose father had wished him to be a minister. He was educated at Glasgow University and made a name for himself as a classical scholar. The young man wished to be a doctor, and when he declined to enter the Church, his father refused to send him longer to college. Mr. Young therefore went into business in Glasgow, where he did very well, though he disliked the work. In 1814, he brought his family and a large stock of goods to Halifax, where he found a good market for his cargo. Five years later he bought Willow Park, a fine farm near the city, where he practised what he had preached about agriculture.

A good story is told of Mr. Young which shows his ready wit. Not long after the publication of the letters he was elected a member of the Legislative Assembly. A grant of money had been asked for the importation of a good breed of horses into the Province. In the debate Mr. Young said that he thought the money should be spent in improving the breed of farm horses; Mr. Uniacke, a city man, favoured importing half-blood horses, and in his speech made several jokes about the kind of horses Mr. Young kept at Willow Park to plough his fields and draw his cabbages to market. Mr. Young listened dreamily. It happened that Mrs. Uniacke, an excellent woman with a large fortune of her own, was not particularly handsome. When her husband had taken his seat, Mr. Young rose and said smilingly, "We in Scotland, Mr. Speaker, select our horses upon the same principle that *some* gentlemen choose their wives —not for their beauty but for their *sterling worth*."

Here, from my vantage-ground, I can see the scattering houses,
Stained with time, set warm in orchards, and meadows, and wheat.

In the early eighteen hundreds Montreal was a town of ten or twelve thousand inhabitants, most of whom were French. The town lay along the river, irregular blocks and narrow straggling streets. The ancient walls were gone, though some of the gates were still standing. The chief buildings were the Court House, College (St. Sulpice), English Church and Catholic Church. The markets which were held on Monday and Friday were said to excel any others in America. The price of bread was set by the justices of the peace, and each baker was required to mark his loaves with his initial. Mail to England went out once a month, via New York; incoming mail was put off the ship at Halifax and brought to Montreal overland. It required four months to write and receive a reply from Europe. As yet there were few ships which sailed up the river farther than Quebec; in 1813 only nine visited Montreal. At the end of the eighteenth century the exports of the whole Province, including furs, amounted to no more than half a million pounds.



Canadian National Railways

MCGILL

Prominent among the merchants of this long-ago Montreal was James McGill, a Scotsman who in his youth emigrated to the United States. Later, he and his brother Andrew moved to Canada, and were already doing a good business in Montreal before the Revolution. James McGill presently connected himself with the North-West Company. His fortune steadily increasing, he bought Burnside Manor, a beautiful estate of forty-six acres lying on the slope between Mount Royal and

the river. Burnside was then some distance west and overlooking the city, which has grown so as long ago to have enfolded it. Upon his new estate Mr. McGill built a handsome stone house and laid out a fine garden, and here, with his wife Charlotte, he passed the rest of his life.

James McGill was in figure "tall and commanding, handsome in youth and becoming somewhat corpulent in his old age." He had a large fresh-coloured face and merry eyes. He was "frank and social," and in his leisure time "much given to reading." Handsome, generous, agreeable, McGill was highly regarded by his fellow-citizens. He had married a Frenchwoman, who brought him in touch with and helped him win the confidence of the French circle. He raised a chanson and wielded a paddle with the Beaver Club. He held in turn several important civic offices, and was elected to represent the West Ward of Montreal in the first Parliament of Lower Canada, which met in 1792. During the war of 1812, Mr. McGill, though too old for active service, did much valuable administrative work. In short, he filled his long, active, and happy life full to the brim with unselfish service for his town, and untiring efforts to foster friendship between the French and English, whom he believed would some day form a united Canada.

Mr. and Mrs. McGill had no children, and, as they grew older, Mr. McGill began to consider how he should best dispose of his fortune. There was at that time no college, and, indeed, very few schools in the Province of Quebec. The importance of teaching the young French Canadians to speak English and to understand British ways had been pointed out to the Government often enough, but the conduct of one war after another had taken up the time and money, and very little had been done.

In 1801 the Government established the Royal Institution for the Advancement of Learning. The high-sounding title was well intended, but little money was provided to maintain the body, and it was not until seventeen years later that trustees were appointed to organise a system of education. In the meantime a few brave little schools of cedar logs were built; in them began the attempt to teach the French-Canadian children

English. The masters taught English free, but charged for instructing pupils in writing and arithmetic; in addition to this, they had small salaries, some receiving as much as £100 from the Government. They "boarded round," and so eked out their scanty living.

It was while on a visit to his friend Dr. Strachan of Cornwall, Ontario, that Mr. McGill at last decided to leave his manor of Burnside, together with a sum of money to endow it, as a college in which young Canadians might be educated. Soon after his return home, Mr. McGill made his will, bequeathing Burnside and £10,000 to the Royal Institution to establish a university, the only condition being that the university should be erected or established within ten years, and that one of the colleges should be called "McGill." Two years later, in 1813, Mr. McGill died.

The friends whom he had named as his executors were all keenly interested in establishing the college. Soon after Mr. McGill's death, they took steps to begin the work. One after another obstacles cropped up. The estate and fund were left in trust for the Royal Institution, and the Royal Institution was not yet organised. There was no money to erect new buildings; officials disagreed about this and that; matters were delayed again and again; the years slipped by and it began to look as if the splendid gift might be lost. When at last it seemed possible to go forward with the organisation of the university, Mr. McGill's wife's nephew had remained so long in possession of the estate that he did not wish to give it up. Lawsuits followed, one to secure Burnside, and a second to obtain the £10,000.

It was on Wednesday afternoon, June 24, 1829, that McGill University was at last opened. A large room in Burnside Manor had been fitted up for the occasion. Here, soon after one o'clock, the notables of the city assembled. The Royal Charter incorporating the Provincial University was placed on the table. The Bishop of Quebec spoke, and after the charter had been read, Mr. Mountain, the newly-appointed principal, addressed the company. Reading and prayer followed, and the people dispersed full of hope for the future of the new college.

Only twenty students attended the first year, seventeen taking classics and three medicine. Some books and equipment were brought over from the Normal School, which had just been closed, and at last, fourteen years after its formal opening, collegiate instruction began to be given in McGill. The college of which James McGill had dreamed so long ago was established; it had struggled to life through seas of bitter strife because the men who fought for it believed in it, glimpsed its future greatness, and refused to be discouraged. Years of poverty and hard work followed, but the college, though often threatened with extinction, weathered every storm.

College life was very different in those days. Men only were admitted; a large proportion of them being middle-aged. Members were required to dress in "plain, decent, and comely clothes, without superfluous ornament." No student in arts was allowed to appear in chapel, lecture- or dining-hall without his gown. No student was allowed to go to any tavern or place of public amusement without special permission from the vice-principal; they were not allowed to remain out of college or to entertain visitors in their rooms after ten o'clock. The vice-principal was chiefly responsible for the discipline of the college, but every professor had power to punish students by confinement and fine, the fine not to exceed five shillings. At meals members sat in certain places according to their standing, and all the juniors were required to behave respectfully to their seniors.

The college year ran from September till June, and three years' attendance was required to obtain a degree. The examinations for degrees were oral, each examiner interviewing the candidate for ten minutes. The janitor with watch and bell sat in the hall. At the end of each ten-minute period he rang his bell and each candidate moved on from one instructor to the next. When all the students had been examined by each of the examiners, the professors met and decided the fate of the candidates who waited about in painful suspense until the faculty meeting was over. Each was then called in to face the whole body of professors and to hear the result of his work pronounced.

We may be sure that in spite of strict rules and severe

discipline students enjoyed their college years then, as they do now. They had no athletic teams, no gymnasium, no fraternities, unions, or Y.M.C.A., but on spring and summer evenings the band played under the fine old trees on the campus, which the citizens of Montreal seem to have used as a park. There were long walks, excursions, "footing" parties, receptions and occasional dances. A "footing" party was a supper given by matriculants. Each newcomer was expected to invite his fellow-students to his room, where they ate biscuit, drank beer, smoked, sang, joked and teased each other.

UPPER CANADA IN 1825

By John Howison

The climate of Upper Canada is not yet as salubrious as it will be. Thick forests cover nine-tenths of the inhabited parts of the Province and these, by preventing the evaporation of water from the surface of the earth, produce marshes, swamps and collections of water which, in their turn, generate mists, chilly winds and agues. When the woods are cleared away, the air, though perhaps colder, will be even more dry than at present.

The soil is, in general, excellent and easy of cultivation; it is very favourable to the growth of fruit. Orchards, however, have hitherto been neglected. The kinds of fruit most common in the country are not well chosen, and they appear to degenerate from want of care. Wild grapes grow abundantly in the forests. Hickory nuts, walnuts, butternuts, plums, wild strawberries, cranberries are found in profusion, and might all be improved by cultivation.

Wheat is the grain that is raised in greatest quantity. A bushel and a half of seed is generally allowed to the acre, and return from twenty-five to thirty-five bushels. Buck-wheat is considerably cultivated; rye succeeds well; oats are very indifferent and much inferior to those raised in Europe; barley is little known; Indian corn is much cultivated in the western

parts of the Province, and yields largely if not destroyed by the late frosts; potatoes succeed well; turnips also form a profitable crop, and are used to feed live-stock during the winter; but the vegetable best adapted for this purpose is the squash, which affords an abundant crop, is liked by the cattle, and never communicates any unpleasant flavour to the milk, as turnips invariably do. In Upper Canada the land is scarcely ever made to produce as much as it would under careful cultivation. The Canadian farmers have no system in the management of their lands, and prepare the soil for the seed very imperfectly. This is generally the result of ignorance, but often arises from want of capital and the difficulty of securing labourers to help them.

In Upper Canada waste land varies in value according to its situation. Near villages and populous parts of the country its price is from £4 to £8 per acre; lying remote, it may sometimes be bought for two or three shillings an acre. Cultivated land sells much higher. In the Talbot settlement a two-hundred-acre farm, with thirty acres in cultivation, a log-house and barn, may be purchased for £250. A similar farm on the frontier between Niagara and Fort Erie would cost £800 or £900. In the villages half-acre lots sell for £50 or £60.

Waste land may be completely cleared and fenced for £4 per acre. The taxes are so trifling that they scarcely deserve notice. All rateable property, live-stock, houses, etc., is subject to a tax of one penny in the pound. Cultivated lands pay a penny per acre; waste lands one farthing. Every male is obliged to work three days annually upon the public roads, or employ a substitute, or pay 1s. 6d. to the pathmaster, the latter being the wages of a labouring man for three days. Heads of families and persons who keep teams are liable to a greater proportion of statute labour. Notwithstanding these regulations the roads of the Province are in general in very bad repair.

Farm-labourers receive from 3s. to 4s. 6d. a day, exclusive of board. A man's wages are £3 per month, besides board; but if he is hired by the year he receives less. Women servants can hardly be obtained, and they generally receive 18s. or a guinea a month. A moderately good horse costs £20 to £25; a yoke of oxen the same; a good cow from £5 to £7; a sheep 4s. 6d.; a

large sow £2. Wheat averages 4s. 6d. a bushel; Indian corn 3s.; potatoes 2s.; apples 2s. 6d.; hay, per ton, 2s. It will be seen that the necessaries of life can be obtained at small expense in Upper Canada; but that labour is very high, partly because labourers are few, and partly because money being scarce, the farmer has to pay his men in grain, which they must barter away at a loss.

The persons who may be inclined to emigrate to Upper Canada are of three descriptions: the poor peasant or day-labourer; the man of small income and increasing family; the man possessing some capital and wishing to employ it to advantage. Persons of the first class would never repent if they emigrated to this Province. The poorest, if he acts prudently and is industrious, and has a common share of good fortune, will be able to acquire an independence in the space of four or five years. He will have plenty to eat, a warm house to live in, and no taxes to pay. Men of small income and increasing family will find Canada, in many respects, an advantageous place to live. With £250 a year and fifty or sixty acres of land, one may support a large family in comfort. To men of capital Upper Canada offers few inducements. The Province requires such, and there are many ways of employing capital, but few which will ensure a speedy return.

Emigrants ought to sail in vessels bound for Quebec or Montreal. Those who have money to spare should lay in a supply of wearing apparel, as articles of this kind cost a great deal in Upper Canada. A stock of broad-cloth, cotton, shoes, bedding, can be brought out at trifling expense. But no one should take furniture, as the carriage into the backwoods costs far more than the value. A passage can now be obtained for about £7, provisions included; half-price is usually paid for children.

When the emigrant reaches York he should go to the land office there, where he will be informed concerning the steps that must be taken before he can get a grant of land. Government gives fifty acres to any British subject free of cost; but if he wishes more, he must pay fees. In Canada fifty acres is a very small farm; the emigrant should take twice as much if

he can possibly afford it. All lands are given under certain restrictions. The settler must clear five acres upon each hundred granted to him, open a road in front of his lot, and build a log-house of certain dimensions. These settling-duties, if performed within eighteen months after the location ticket has been issued, entitle the emigrant to a deed from the Government which makes the lot his forever.

Persons too poor to buy provisions, stock and implements must hire out until they have saved enough to make a beginning. While they work they will acquire a knowledge of the customs of the country, nature of the seasons, and manner of farming which will be very useful. Some people choose to clear a few acres and crop them before they build their house. Others build first and move their families at once upon the lot. The first is the pleasantest, the second the most advantageous way. If the emigrant reaches York in July, he will be in time to choose a good lot, build a house, clear a few acres and sow them with wheat or Indian corn before winter sets in; thus getting the start by a whole year of those who arrive late in the autumn.

Upper Canada is in many respects a delightful place to live. There is a freedom, an independence and a joyousness connected with the country. There beggary, want and woe never meet the eye. Europeans find themselves of much more importance there than they would be at home; for the number of respectable people in the Province is so small, that almost every person is able to obtain some attention. A person of respectability at once finds a place in the best company the Province affords; and neither ambition, jealousy, nor envy is excited among individuals, there being nothing greater to aspire to. This state of things is favourable to the existence of general harmony and good-will, but rather hostile to the cultivation and advancement of manners.

A FAMOUS DUEL

Duelling was still a common method of settling disputes between gentlemen a century ago. In the autumn of 1821, two young lawyers of Fredericton had hot words about a case upon which they were engaged. Mr. George Street said that Mr. George Wetmore's conduct had not been gentlemanly; Mr. Wetmore replied angrily; and Mr. Street "raised his hand to him." Mr. Street seems to have had some thought of challenging Mr. Wetmore then, but he abhorred duelling and decided that the blow he had struck was sufficient to vindicate his honour, and that anything further should come from Mr. Wetmore.

Next morning Mr. Wetmore sent his second, Mr. Winslow, to Mr. Street with an invitation to meet him a fortnight later at Robbinstown. Mr. Street refused, saying that he would never consent to let a matter of that sort lie over for a fortnight and then coolly go out to fight. Mr. Winslow, who said he had done his best to persuade Wetmore to drop the matter, but without success, then proposed that the meeting should take place at the Blockhouse on the Oromocto on the next Tuesday morning. Mr. Street objected that it would be rather difficult to get help in case of an accident, but said he would send his second to Mr. Winslow in the afternoon. Mr. Wetmore being the challenger was expected to provide the weapons, and Winslow said that he had secured the pistols with which Glenie and Coffin had fought; Mr. Street agreed that these would be quite satisfactory.

Mr. Davis, Street's second, did not see Winslow until the next (Monday) morning. Much of Monday was passed by the two seconds in trying to bring about a settlement between the principals. Mr. Wetmore said he would retract all he had said after Mr. Street's first remark if Mr. Street would explain that remark. Mr. Street said that he meant only that he thought that *particular* transaction in which Mr. Wetmore had been

engaged ungentlemanly, and that he had not meant to throw any reflection on Mr. Wetmore's general character. This explanation did not satisfy Wetmore, and it was agreed that the duel should be fought the next morning at Maryland, four miles from Fredericton. At the last moment there was a difficulty about the pistols, one of which was found to be a little more stiff in the cocking than the other. There was no difference in the going off, however, and the seconds agreed to use them.

Mr. Street and Mr. Davis arrived on the ground first the next morning, and waited about on the road for twenty or thirty minutes; then Wetmore and Winslow rode up. They all fastened their horses in the bushes and, retiring into the woods, found a piece of ground fit for their purpose. The ground was measured by the seconds; then Wetmore took his stand in Winslow's place, and Street stood where Davis had been. The seconds retired to draw lots for the pistols, and returned to say that the lot having fallen to Davis he had chosen the easy-cocking pistol. He put it into Street's hand and Winslow gave the other to Wetmore. The duellists were instructed to keep their hands down until the signal for firing was given, when they were each to raise one arm and fire as quickly as possible, without aim or cessation.

The gentlemen received the pistols at the full cock; they heard the instructions and stood rigid. There was a moment of tense silence; the leaves shivered in the early morning wind, a crow cawed loudly and close on the harsh sound came the signal. Both gentlemen raised their pistols and fired, Mr. Street's ball striking the ground a few yards in front of him. He had only half-raised his arm; as he says, he had gone only to defend his honour and had no desire to hurt Wetmore.

Both shots had missed and the seconds tried again to stop the duel, but Wetmore said he would have another shot and then he would stop and leave it to the professional men. Mr. Street now felt that Mr. Wetmore was trying to hit him and resolved not to throw away his second shot. The pistols were reloaded and again handed to the principals, the stiff one going this time to Mr. Street. The signal was given; both men raised their arms and fired straight ahead without aim and at hazard.

Wetmore fell. The ball had hit his pistol arm and, glancing, struck his temple. He never spoke again.

Poor Street was like one distracted. Winslow ran to a house near for help, and a boy hurried off to town for a surgeon. Street held Wetmore in his arms until the people from the house were heard approaching, then he and Davis retired into the bushes so as not to be seen. Wetmore was carried to the house, Winslow following to see that he was properly attended, after which he returned, all three mounted their horses, and rode swiftly away. "What I suffered that day in my own mind," writes Street, "was beyond what I can describe. The result was what I little expected, both from having no desire to take his blood, and from my own ignorance of the weapons we used, having never been concerned in such an affair and knowing that Wetmore had."

The three gentlemen fled from the place of the duel to St. Andrews, and crossed over to Robbinstown, in the state of Maine. They remained there for several months. Fredericton was greatly excited when it became known that Mr. Wetmore had been killed. The "hue and cry" was raised. It appeared in the *Royal Gazette* of October 9, 1821, as follows:

"Whereas, one George Ludlow Wetmore, of Fredericton, in the County of York, and Province of New Brunswick, Esquire, was murdered yesterday morning by one George Frederick Street, of Fredericton, aforesaid, Esquire, and

"Whereas, one Richard Davis of Fredericton, aforesaid, Lieutenant in His Majesty's 74th Regiment of Foot, and one John Francis Wetmore Winslow, of Kingsclear, in the County aforesaid, farmer, were aiding and abetting in the said murder, and

"Whereas, They, the said George Frederick Street, Richard Davis, and John Francis Wetmore Winslow, have since absconded and disappeared, 'hue and cry' is therefore levied and raised against them, the said George Frederick Street, Richard Davis, and John Francis Wetmore Winslow, and all His Majesty's peace officers and legal subjects, as well within the parish and county as elsewhere, are hereby called upon and

requested to make fresh pursuit and 'hue and cry' after them, the said George Frederick Street, Richard Davis, and John Francis Wetmore Winslow, from town to town, and county to county, as well by horsemen as by footmen; and if they, or either of them, shall be found, forthwith to carry him or them before someone of His Majesty's justices of the peace within the County wherein he or they shall be taken, to be dealt with according to law. And a reward of thirty pounds (£30) is hereby offered to any person who will apprehend and secure them, the said George Frederick Street, Richard Davis, and John Francis Wetmore Winslow, or ten pounds (£10) for either of them in manner aforesaid.

"Dated at Fredericton, the County of York, this third day of October, in the year of our Lord 1821.

"William Taylor,
"*Coroner*."

The friends of Mr. Street and Mr. Davis were very angry at the raising of the "hue and cry." The two gentlemen returned to Fredericton at once and surrendered themselves for trial. They were tried in February 1822 and acquitted. So ended a case which at the time raised very wide interest. Happily the times have changed. A man who sent a challenge in our time would gain no applause from public opinion, but instead, would be restrained by law.

THE VOICE OF NATURE

By Dr. W. A. Creelman

Her voice sounds through the world in divers tones
From all her pulsing life in lands and seas;
Where saltwinds whistle o'er the billowed zones,
Where brooks run babbling through the grassy leas;
In insect hordes that murmur round the leaves
And where in needled pines the feathered male
Warbles his love notes to the forest breeze;
Nor in the human soul doth Nature fail
A meet response to gain in all her sounding scale.

Board of Trade, Portage la Prairie, Manitoba
OX CART USED IN EARLY DAYS

KING'S COUNTY AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY

KING'S COUNTY AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY was organised in December 1789, and has continued down to the present day. The Society aimed to improve agriculture, encourage manufactures, cultivate the social virtues, acquire useful knowledge, and promote the good order and well-being of the community. Jonathan Crane was the first president.

The new Society began work at once. An agent was appointed to sell beef in Halifax and inspectors chosen to examine the cattle brought in by the county people to see that they were fit to be sent to the agent. When several men had stock ready to send, the animals were examined, divided into lots, and the lots sent to the city "by ballot in turn." The members of the Society imported improved stock and seed, experimented with marsh mud, lime, and plaster for fertilising, tested new and strange crops. The Society organised fairs and ploughing matches, fenced the burying-ground, bought a pall for use at funerals, instituted Sunday Schools and paid the teachers in the same, founded a circulating library, and recommended needed reforms to the town meeting and court of sessions.

In 1820 the Earl of Dalhousie imported for the Society the famous "Bluenose potato." From this circumstance Nova Scotians are humorously called "Bluenoses." Potato-growing

proved profitable and increased rapidly. By the time the Society was a century old, hundreds of thousands of bushels were being grown in the county. They were shipped chiefly to the West Indies, from which the ships returned with cargoes of molasses, sugar and rum. In 1889 Gaspereau raised and made into pickles 15,000 bushels of cucumbers. Hundreds of barrels of cranberries were presently shipped from the cultivated bogs of Aylesford Township. Hay, live-stock, dairy produce, fruit and wheat were bringing in large sums annually. The potato

Canadian National Railways

A NOVA SCOTIA VALLEY

was presently superseded by the apple as the chief export of the county.

"The Annapolis Valley is one of the favoured regions of the world for fruit culture. It is sheltered from the cold north winds by a range of hills, while a parallel range, some eight or ten miles distant, shuts out the fogs of the Atlantic from this charming country." Two little rivers with hundreds of springs and brooks water the fruitful vale, the soil of which is so remarkably adapted to the growth of fruit. "All up and down the valley, orchards of apple, plum and pear trees with occasional peach and quince cluster round the cosy farmhouses, while strawberries, raspberries, blackberries, and every other variety of small fruit and berry grow plentifully." In June the valley

from end to end is a sea of blossom and the perfumed air vibrates with the hum of bees.

Mr. Prescott removed from Halifax to Starr's Point in the Annapolis Valley in 1812. Here he laid out beautiful gardens and orchards. He cultivated fifteen different kinds of apple, many of which have since become famous. Plums, pears and cherries shared in his attention, and many of the fine varieties now grown in the Province were first tested in his orchards.

In those early days the farmer's great difficulty lay in getting his crop to market. There were no railways and all poultry, pork, eggs and butter, vegetables and small fruits had to be trucked to Halifax by the producer himself. He had his own expenses and those of his team to bear for the trip there and back, as well as during the three or four days required to market his little load. The cost of delivery absorbed nearly all the profit. During each five years after the railway to Halifax was opened, trade increased fifty per cent.

THE GREAT FIRE ON THE MIRAMICHI

By R. Cooney

The summer of 1825 was unusually warm. During July and August extensive fires raged in different parts of Nova Scotia. In Miramichi and throughout the northern part of New Brunswick scarcely any rain had fallen and fears were entertained for the crops. Very extensive fires were observed along the south side of the Bay Chaleur, in Gaspé and in Richibucto. From October 1 to 5 an unnatural heat prevailed. On the 6th the fire approached the settlements on the Miramichi. The heat on the 7th became intolerable; the district was now ringed with fire. About nine o'clock a succession of loud and appalling roars thundered through the woods; the earth seemed to stagger; the river, tortured into violence by the hurricane, foamed with rage and flung its boiling spray upon the land; thunder pealed; lightning rent the firmament; and suddenly

Newcastle, Douglastown, the whole north side of the river for a hundred miles, became enveloped in an immense sheet of flame. The consuming fire swept over forests, towns, villages, hamlets, rooting up trees, ploughing the earth, destroying everything.

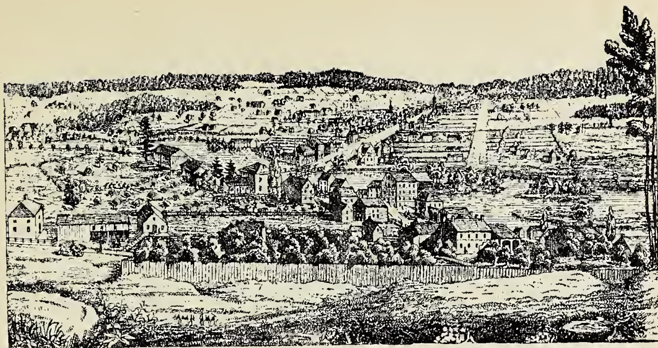
Next day the country appeared smitten and blasted. Newcastle and Douglastown, yesterday flourishing towns, had become heaps of smoking ruins. Hundreds of people were left houseless, naked, famishing. A hundred and sixty persons were burned or drowned, and nearly six hundred buildings were destroyed. In a few hours the fruits of the settlers' years of toil were swept away. Nova Scotia, Canada, Britain and the United States hastened to send help to the stricken district; the people who remained went bravely to work again; but many millions of feet of the best timber had been destroyed and it was years before Northern New Brunswick recovered.

THE TURN-VEREINE

By Dr. Otto Klotz

The Turn-Vereine which existed in a number of places where Germans were numerous were conducted in the same way as those in Germany. Montreal, Toronto, Hamilton, Berlin, Waterloo, New Hamburg, Baden, Elmira and Preston had Turn-Vereine. The motto of the Turners was "Gut Heil" (Good Hail). Each Verein had its banner. The dress when on parade was white—white coat, white trousers, white shirt, no vest. Most of the members wore a wide belt, on which was embroidered "Gut Heil" within a wreath of oak leaves. There were two classes of members—the men and youths; the latter were called "Zöglinge."

During the summer months we practised on the Turn-Platz twice a week under the supervision of a Turnwart. The exercises were on the horizontal bar, parallel bars and the "horse," a stuffed leather figure on legs that could be raised or lowered. Then there was the pole for climbing, and the swing having two leather-covered iron rings. The principal feat to



Waterloo Historical Society

PRESTON IN EARLY DAYS

perform was while swinging to somersault backwards or forwards, also to rise in the swing as if standing. There was also the swing with four ropes suspended from a high wooden column. There was a short crossbar at the end of each rope. One grasped the bar in the arm and started running in a circle, hanging on to the rope. With increasing speed the centrifugal force carried one outward, making great strides or swings. Four generally engaged at the same time in this particular exercise.

Every year there was a Turn-Fest, generally of a day's duration. Every few years there was a Turn-Fest of the Vereine, when the festivities extended over two days. The Turners, all dressed in white, gathered and formed a procession. Headed by the village band they paraded the main street and then assembled at the Turn-Platz for the opening address. The athletic exercises followed. The masterpiece on the "horse" was the "giant's swing," which consisted in making continuous swings or turnings on the horse with arms stiff and fully extended. At times there would be a Vögel-Schiessen (Bird-shooting). A huge bird formed of detachable pieces of wood, each having a value, was constructed. The bird was erected on a high pole and, at a suitable distance, the archers took their stand, and with uplifted cross-bow let fly the bolt,

The bird was painted appropriately, the "heart" constituting the "bull's-eye."

Of games, we boys played football mostly with a small ball. Now and then a collection was made to pay our local shoemaker for covering an inflated pig's bladder. Sometimes we used the pig's bladder without the covering. A straw or reed was used for inflation. One boy blew until his eyes bulged, then another boy tied the bladder with a string. The tension never lasted long, and the bladder was very eccentric in its movements on account of the neck. The other game was "German Ball." The boys seldom had a rubber ball. If anyone was fortunate enough to get hold of an old rubber shoe, he cut the sole in strips, and wound them tightly with woollen yarn to the required size, when the shoemaker would cover it with leather, cut in six lunes like the parings of an orange. The bats were mostly broomsticks. The game was a primitive form of baseball, with two bases instead of one. There was a pitcher and a catcher, with a player at the bat. What counted "out" was to be hit by the ball when running between the two bases. Sides were chosen at the beginning of the game. There was no limit to the number of players in any of these games. The whole crowd took part.

When exercises and games were over the prizes were given out. There was invariably "Theatre" in the evening of the Turn-Fest, which was followed by a dance. The dramas were presented (in German, of course) very creditably by local talent. The wardrobe which the Turn-Verein had acquired for these theatricals was quite extensive, and met the demands for kings, queens, princes, princesses, courtiers, artisans and villagers; in general all the needs of the play.[1]

[1] Arranged from the Waterloo Historical Society Report, 1921.

From a print owned by the Hon. A. C. Rutherford

VIEW OF FREDERICTON IN 1837

PETER FISHER'S BOOK

1825–1838

Peter Fisher was the first historian of New Brunswick. His parents came to St. John with the "fall fleet" of 1783; Peter was then only sixteen months old. The children of the pioneers had not many opportunities for education, but Peter seems to have had quite good instruction. He studied with an English schoolmaster, Bealing Stephen Williams, who was a fine penman and an expert in arithmetic. Peter was a clever boy who grew up to be an intelligent and useful citizen. He was a famous walker, thinking nothing of a fifty-mile tramp. He married Susanna Williams and had a large family, seven sons and four daughters, several of whom afterward held important public positions. Mr. Fisher did an extensive business in lumber; his spare time he passed in collecting facts about the history of New Brunswick. His first book, *Sketches of New Brunswick*, was printed by Henry Church in 1825; his second, *Notitia of New Brunswick*, in 1838. These little books are very rare now and very valuable. They tell us many interesting things about those long-ago days.

The first census of New Brunswick was taken in 1824; the population was then 17,176. This did not include the Indians

nor the Madawaska Settlement. Ten years later the population was 119,457; it had increased 10 per cent. in the decade. The people averaged 6.51 to a family, and there were nearly two thousand more families than there were houses.

St. John was a flourishing town. The old, low wooden houses were being replaced by fine new buildings of stone or brick. The town had a handsome court-house, city hall, four banks, a grammar school and two Madras schools; there were cholera and marine hospitals, a jail, a poorhouse, nine churches and two markets. Just before Mr. Fisher's book came out a fire destroyed 115 houses and stores, many of them being new ones, but the town was growing and they were soon replaced. The business of the city included a bridge company, stage-coach company, the St. John Mills and Canal Company, a whale-fishing company and an insurance company. The business men supported a chamber of commerce. Societies of St. George, St. Andrew, St. Patrick, Albion, British American, Friendly Sons of Erin, and Temperance helped to make the social life of the city gay. They had a St. John Society Library and a circulating library. In 1837 provision was made for building a penitentiary and a lunatic asylum.

The city was governed by a mayor, recorder, six aldermen and six assistants. The public interest was guarded by a sheriff, coroner, chamberlain, high constable and six inferior constables and two marshals. The annual income of St. John was £5000. A new market-house being required, there was a hot dispute in the city as to whether or not it should be built on the site of the old building which had been used as court-house, council chamber and market. The old building stood on the city square; the more advanced citizens contended that no large building should be permitted on the square, and that it would be much better for the public health if the filthy sewage from the butchers' stalls were not allowed to drain down into the market slip.

The rich plain about Fredericton was filling up with settlers and the capital itself was growing. In 1816 the Province bought the handsome house built by Governor Carleton for a Province House; it was burned in 1825. King's College, situated on the

slope of the hill behind the town, was the finest building in the Province; it was of dark grey stone. There were twenty rooms for students in the college, a chapel and two lecture-rooms, beside accommodation for the vice-president and professors, in all forty-two rooms in the two main storeys. In 1836 the courses were given by the vice-president and two professors. The day began and ended with divine worship. The Oxford system of logic and the Cambridge course in mathematics were used. Every Saturday the vice-president posted a subject for an essay in the hall, which at the end of the following week every student was required to present. The students were admitted without any religious test, and attended four years for their degrees.

St. Andrews was at this time the third largest town in the Province, but its trade was already dwindling, and the border towns of St. Stephen, Calais and Milltown were rising in importance. At Indiantown, a little above the Falls, all vessels waited for the proper tide to pass the Falls. Timber was laid up in the coves there till it was wanted, when it was taken through the Falls in small rafts and run into ponds to be properly squared and made ready for shipment. Near Indiantown was the first sawmill in the Province for sawing deals. Moncton was a small trading place with a few stores, houses, mills and a wharf where ships came to load lumber; it was then called "The Bend."

When the English came to the St. John, most of the old French settlers moved farther up the river where they were joined by numbers from Canada. Madawaska, as they called their new home, was about half-way between Fredericton and Quebec, and soon became a flourishing settlement. The soil was rich and easily tilled; the people orderly and contented, lively in their manners and very hospitable. They were always obedient to the British Government and lived so peaceably together that for a long time no magistrate was required among them.

In 1833 the New Brunswick and Nova Scotia Land Company bought 500,000 acres on the east side of the St. John River in the county of York. In the two years that followed the

company worked hard to build up a settlement. They founded Stanley Village on the Nashwaak as the centre of their district. By 1838 it was surrounded by a tract of cleared and cultivated land occupied by several hundred farmers. The village had good saw- and grist-mills, a school, several stores and a number of picturesque dwelling-houses after the style of the Swiss chalet. Unfortunately, some of the settlers brought out were gentlemen, unfitted to farm, much less clear land in the forest. Such families suffered many hardships before they were able to establish themselves. In 1836 the Land Company laid out Campbelltown on the Miramichi. An enterprising American built a town of his own about four miles from Campbelltown. He had a store, a tavern, a shop, good mills, every kind of building needed for good trading; he provided also a schoolmaster and a church.

When Peter Fisher wrote, comparatively little wheat was being raised in New Brunswick; rust was very prevalent and the yield uncertain. Indian corn was more cultivated than now. It was usually planted at the end of May or beginning of June. The Indians used to say, "When a maple leaf is the size of a squirrel's foot, it is time to plant corn." Potatoes were widely grown, those from New Brunswick being considered even finer than the Nova Scotia potato. Potatoes produced from 130 to 300 bushels per acre, and were considered a sure crop. They had failed only twice—in 1816, and again in 1836. Beech-nuts were much used to fatten hogs; the animals laid on flesh quickly, but the pork was soft and oily.

Lumbering has always played an important part in the development of New Brunswick. Most of the men who settled in the wilderness had little to depend on except their own labour; most of them had small families. Clearing a little field and building a log hut frequently exhausted the settler's funds. If he was in a settled part he could earn a little by working for the neighbours; but if, as often happened, he had taken up a lot distant from any settlement, he was glad to turn to his woodland. During the winter he and his axe could manufacture from twenty to fifty tons of timber. If he had no team he had it hauled to the water on shares. The money he got for it bought

groceries for the summer, implements, nails for the barn, and enabled him to continue work on his land.

In 1825 spruce lumber began to be exported. The first spruce deals cut in New Brunswick were sawn in 1819, and the first cargo was shipped to England in 1822. By 1824 the port of St. John was shipping millions of feet of pine and birch timber, boards, planks, shingles, staves, masts, spars and oars. Large quantities were shipped also from Miramichi, St. Andrews, Richibucto and Bathurst, though the Miramichi fire caused a falling-off in the north-shore shipments. By 1838, Mr. Fisher says, "Scarcely a stream or lake suitable for the purpose but has its mills in operation."

Shipbuilding was another important industry. Seventy fine ships were built by St. John firms in 1836; vessels owned in that city numbered 410. Shipbuilding was going forward briskly at Miramichi, at Richibucto, at Black River and at the mouth of the Oromocto. Fishing was then, as now, an important source of revenue. Cod, haddock, pollock abounded in Passamaquoddy Bay. Grand Manan was unrivalled as a fishing station, though not more than twenty ships engaged in it yearly. Trade with Britain, which began to flourish in 1808, had grown steadily. As the pine became exhausted, spruce took its place. Spruce grew in great abundance, and as one growth was cut another succeeded, so that it seemed as if the supply should be perpetual.

As the country grew in material wealth the people became anxious that their children should have better opportunities for instruction. Education was still in a very elementary state. Most of the schools were conducted on either the National or the Madras plan. The idea of employing women as teachers was just beginning to spread. Dr. Morice, the secretary of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, wrote in 1799 that he highly approved of women teachers, especially for girls. He had inquired in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia for women who were competent and willing to undertake the work, but without finding any. "In this country," he says, "few women are competent for the employment, and those who are disdain it. Such is the temper and spirit of the inhabitants."

A VISIT FROM THE COUNTRY DOCTOR

By John Howison

In this house there was a woman afflicted with acute rheumatism. She had tried the mineral oil without receiving any benefit from it, and consequently had been induced to put herself into the hands of one of the doctors of the settlement. This gentleman happened to make his daily visit when I was present, and entered the room carrying a pair of saddlebags, in which phials and gallipots were heard clattering against each other in a most formidable manner. He did not deign to take off his hat, but advanced to his patient and shook hands, saying, "How d'ye do, my good lady, how d'ye do?"—"Oh, doctor," cried the patient, "I was wishing to see you very bad —I don't calculate upon ever getting smart again."—"Hoity-toity!" returned the doctor, "you look a thundering sight better than you did yesterday."—"Better!" exclaimed the sick woman. "No, doctor, I am no better—I am going to die in your hands."—"My dear good lady," cried the doctor, "I'll bet a pint of spirits I'll raise you in five days, and make you so spry that you'll dance upon this floor."—"Oh!" said the woman, "if I had but the root doctor that used to attend our family in Connecticut; he was a dreadful skilful man."

Here they were interrupted by the entrance of her husband, who was a clumsy, credulous-looking person. "Good-morning to you, doctor," said he, "what's the word?"—"Nothing new or strange, sir," returned the doctor.—"Well, now, doctor," continued the husband, "how do you find that there woman? No better, I conclude? I guess as how it would be as well to let you understand plainly, that if you can't do her never no good I wouldn't wish to be run into no expenses—pretty low times, doctor, money's out of the question. Now, sir, can you raise that there woman?"—"Yes, my good sir," cried the doctor confidently—"yes, I can. I offered to bet a pint with her this

moment, and I'll make it a quart if you please, my dear friend." —"But, doctor, are you up to the natur' of her ailment?" inquired the husband.—"Oh, perfectly," said the other. "Nothing more simple: it arises entirely from obstruction and constitutional idiosyncrasy, and is seated under the muscular fascia. Some casual excitement has increased the action of the absorbent vessels so much that they have drawn the blood from the different parts of the body, and occasioned the pain and debility that is now present."

"Well, now, doctor," cried the husband, "I swear you talk like a lawyer, and I begin to have hopes that you'll be pretty considerable apt to raise my woman."

The doctor now opened his saddlebags and, having set forth many small parcels and dirty phials upon the table, began to compound several receipts for his patient, who, when she saw him employed in this way, put out her head between the curtains of the bed, and cried, "Doctor, don't forget to leave something for the debilitation."

When he had finished he packed up his laboratory, and ordered that something he had left should be infused in a pint of whiskey, and that a tablespoonful of the fluid should be taken three times a day.

"Will that raise me slick (quickly)?" said the woman. "I guess I had as well take it four times a day."

As the doctor was mounting his horse, I heard the farmer say, "Doctor, don't be afeard about your pay; I'll see you satisfied: money, you know, is quite out of the question, but I've plenty of good buck-wheat."

GOD'S TEMPLES

By Dr. W. A. Creelman

Where landward billows roll God's temples stand
In crags and cliffs that tower high and steep
O'er broad foundations far along the deep
Under the great seas roaring on the strand.

JOSEPH HOWE

THE TRIBUNE OF THE PEOPLE

ENTRANCE TO JOSEPH HOWE'S HOME

In the new movement in Canadian literature Joseph Howe led the way. Howe was a Nova Scotian. The best of his life was lived in the days before Confederation, but he was so brilliant a man, so widely known, so public-spirited, so well beloved, that all Canada claims him. He loved his Province of Nova Scotia with his whole heart, and spent his life in her service; what is, perhaps, even more important, he taught his fellow-countrymen to love and serve her. When Joseph Howe was young, Nova Scotia was made up of scattered settlements knowing little and caring less for each other. Howe saw them as one people with a rich and beautiful inheritance to enjoy. He talked about the people, their kindness, their hospitality; he talked about the country, its waters full of fish, its highlands rich in minerals, its valleys brimmed with apple blossoms; talked and boasted in his thrilling, enthusiastic way until the people caught his vision. They began to believe what he said of them and, believing it, they became a people.

Howe was born in 1804. His father was a United Empire Loyalist, a large, kind, very devout man. He was not a minister, though he often preached to little groups of people and, on Sunday afternoons, went to the jail, where he talked to the prisoners, who were very roughly lodged and treated in those days. Mr. Howe was King's Printer and Postmaster-General of Nova Scotia, but the salaries from the two positions together did not make a very large income. Joseph left school at

thirteen and went into the printing office. He did not stop studying, however; he continued to read until he was thoroughly familiar with all the best English literature; the classics formed his mind and trained his tongue. For the rest, his education came from his cultured father, expeditions in the woods and upon the "Arm," and in brave strife upon the battlefield of life.

As he grew up Howe discovered a gift for versification, and began to send contributions to the newspapers. He continued to write throughout his life. He was not a great poet, but he had many noble thoughts and the gift of expressing them in fine, flowing, musical language. Howe's poetry will always hold a dignified place in the history of early Canadian literature.

In 1828, when he was twenty-four, Howe married Catherine McNab, a gentle little woman who mothered her highly-strung, extravagant husband. In the same year he bought a newspaper, the *Nova Scotian*. He was obliged to incur a debt to pay for it, but that did not worry him. He believed in himself, his wife believed in him, together they had faith to remove mountains.

At first Howe himself wrote nearly all the articles in his paper. Joyfully he tramped the long roads, first of western, then of eastern Nova Scotia, feasting his beauty-loving eyes upon the incomparable scenery. Every mile of it filled him with pride and hope for the future. No toil seemed too heavy, no sacrifice too great to offer to this his country. He was the gayest and friendliest of men, this young editor. He visited the farm-houses, talked with everyone he met, learning at first hand both the possibilities and the needs of the country. Then he returned to his office to write the charming sketches in prose and verse which first caused Canadian literature to be noticed abroad. The circulation of the *Nova Scotian* increased rapidly. Hundreds of copies were subscribed for in New Brunswick, the Canadas, in the New England States, and even in Britain. Howe's early writings set a new standard for Canadian writers.

He published books also. For Nova Scotia's sake he risked bankruptcy to bring out Haliburton's history of the Province, and eight other books of law and literature. He and his friends formed a little group which they called "The Club." They met regularly at Howe's house to discuss literature and politics.

Thomas Haliburton was, perhaps, the most famous member of "The Club," but several of the little group made names for themselves.

In 1835 Howe published in the *Nova Scotian* a letter which accused the magistrates of Halifax of corrupt practices in carrying on the business of the city. No one knew whether or not Howe had written the letter, but as the publisher he was responsible, and he was notified that he would be prosecuted for libel. He consulted lawyers, but they assured him that he had no case, so he determined to defend himself. For a fortnight he studied the law of libel and thought out his speech.

His trial was held in the Province Building, in the room which is now the Provincial Library. The books, the beautiful old furniture which make the room so charming to-day are new upon the scene, but the walls, the floor, the windows remember that day. They echoed the magic of the voice, that of an orator newly born. The court was crowded and the sympathy of the audience was entirely with Howe. He spoke for six hours and a quarter. The jury acquitted him, the crowd carried him from the room upon its shoulders. That speech made him famous. The next year he was elected a member of the Assembly for Halifax.

When he took his seat in the House, Howe was almost at once acknowledged as the leader of his party. He led the Reformers of Nova Scotia in their fight for responsible government, and won it without the bloodshed which embitters the memory of victory in the Canadas.

Howe's work for responsible government was followed by a number of years in which he strove to win for the Maritime Provinces railway connection with the Canadas and with the United States. He it was who suggested that the people should look to their governments to provide such conveniences. When Britain refused to help in building the railway planned, Howe went to England and by his writings and speeches persuaded the Imperial Government to guarantee a loan for the Provinces. Later Britain broke her promise and again refused to help. It was a bitter disappointment to Howe, who all his life had idealised Britain even as he had idealised Nova Scotia.

Then came a long, unhappy struggle against Confederation. He who had so often thrilled his hearers with descriptions of a great Imperial federation of all the British peoples of the world took up the case against Confederation. He was thrust into the ranks of the opposition partly by chance, partly by his fear that Nova Scotia would not be fairly treated in a union with the Canadas. His fight was embittered by a kind of half-knowledge that he was mistaken, that the course he was pursuing led nowhere.

When that fight was lost and won, Howe came home to Nova Scotia to die. He was an old man now, weary with forty years of public service. He had lost many of his oldest and best friends during the Confederation contest, but Nova Scotia loved him still, loved him as she has never loved anyone else.

They made him Lieutenant-Governor, and he passed his last days in Government House, a few blocks away from the Province Building where he had been so long and gloriously "The Tribune of the People." His friends came to see him, old men bent and white, who shook his hand and could not speak, remembering the days that had been. He lived just a month, and they laid him to sleep in the bosom of the mother he loved, Nova Scotia.

OUR FATHERS

By Joseph Howe

Room for the Dead! your living hands may pile
 Treasures of art the stately tents within;
Beauty may grace them with her richest smile,
 And genius there spontaneous plaudits win.
 But yet, amidst the tumult and the din
Of gathering thousands, let me audience crave—
 Place claim I for the dead—'twere mortal sin
When banners o'er our country's treasures wave,
Unmarked to leave the wealth safe garnered in the grave.

Look up, their walls enclose us. Look around,
Who won these verdant meadows from the sea?
Whose sturdy hands the noble highways wound
Through forests dense, o'er mountain, moor, and lea?
Who spanned the streams? Tell me whose works they be,
The busy marts where commerce ebbs and flows?
Who quelled the savage? and who spared the tree
That pleasant shelter o'er the pathway throws?
Who made the land they loved to blossom as the rose?

Who, in frail barques, the ocean surge defied,
And trained the race that lived upon the wave?
What shore so distant where they have not died?
In every sea they found a watery grave.
Honour, forever, to the true and brave,
Who seaward led their sons with spirits high,
Bearing the red-cross flag their fathers gave;
Long as the billows flout the arching sky,
They'll seaward bear it still—to venture or to die.

THE POTTEN FEMALE BENEVOLENT SOCIETY

THE FIRST WOMEN'S CLUB

The women of Potten Township, Brome County, Quebec, organised a Benevolent Society in 1823. Its object was "the exercise of Christian Liberality." The "Book of Records" is still preserved and shows that the society continued to carry on its work until 1848, probably longer. The first meeting was held on May 23, and elected Mrs. Fullerton president, Mrs. Blanchard treasurer, and Miss Garland secretary. The ladies also appointed "directresses" to arrange their work, and "collectresses" to gather the funds.

Two meetings were held during the first year; in later years three, four, or more gatherings were convened. All meetings opened with prayer. Business was then conducted, contributions

received and plans made. "At early candlelight" the ladies came to order to hear a sermon preached by some favourite clergyman.

One meeting agreed to manufacture a piece of fulled cloth; in 1836 the society donated $2 to the Sabbath School Library; the next year they paid $14.27 on the account of the sacramental dishes. The ladies repaired the old government school house at an expenditure of $25. In 1839 the society bought a tablecloth to be used at the Communion services in the church, and Mrs. Elkins was paid $3 for spinning. At this time the society owned a cow which they hired out to Mrs. Hannah Perkins at the rate of $3.75 a year. Later they considered buying another cow. Flannel was bought to make garments for the poor; yarn was donated and knit into useful articles.

In 1840 the ladies were excitedly discussing the building of a "Meeting House"; later they chose the site upon which the church was eventually built. In 1843 the word "female" in the Record Book was changed to "ladies," and the society held a kind of tea-meeting, for "refreshments" were furnished by the ladies and "tea was served at four o'clock."

A TRAIN OF DISASTERS

1826

1826 was a disastrous year; one of the most fatal, both to life and property, that ever befell Red River. The disasters began in December. About the 20th, there was a fearful snowstorm, such as had not been witnessed for years. This storm, which lasted for several days, drove the buffalo beyond the hunter's reach and killed most of his horses.

As the buffalo disappeared almost simultaneously, no one was prepared for the inevitable famine which followed. The hunters were so scattered that they could render each other no assistance, nor could they discover each other's whereabouts. Some were never found. Families here and families there, despairing of life, huddled themselves together for warmth,

and in too many cases their shelter proved their grave. At first the heat of their bodies melted the snow; they became wet, and being without food or fuel, the cold soon penetrated, and in several instances froze the whole body into solid ice. Some, again, were found in a state of wild delirium, frantic, mad; while others were picked up frozen to death in fruitless attempts to reach Pembina. One woman was found with an infant on her back within a quarter of a mile of Pembina.

Reports that the hunters were starving reached the colony in January; such reports being common, and often false, passed for some time unheeded. About the middle of February, however, the officials awoke to the situation, and Mr. Mackenzie, who was Governor and head of the Hudson's Bay Company, sent out party after party with provisions and clothing. The conveyance was by dogs; the labour was great and the task difficult; but everything was done that either man or beast could do, and such despatch and diligence used that it was the means of saving the lives of hundreds of the people. Private individuals likewise contributed. Sympathy for the plain hunters was universal. Everyone lent a willing hand.

Hardly had the colonists recovered themselves after these exertions, when they were visited by another great calamity. The winter had been unusually severe; the snow averaged three feet deep and in the woods four or five feet. The colonists felt no dread until spring was well advanced, when the flow of water from the melting snow became really alarming.

On May 2, the day before the ice started, the water rose nine feet perpendicularly in twenty-four hours; such a rise had never before been noticed in Red River. Even the Indians were startled. On the 4th the water overflowed the banks of the river and spread so fast that almost before the people were aware of the danger it had reached their dwellings. Terror was depicted on every countenance, and so level was the country, so rapid the rise of the waters, that on the 5th all the settlers abandoned their homes and sought refuge on higher ground.

At this crisis every description of property was involved in one common wreck or abandoned in despair. The people fled from their homes for dear life, some of them saving only the

clothes they had on their backs. The shrieks of children, the lowing of cattle and the howling of dogs added terror to the scene. The company's servants exerted themselves to the utmost and did good service with their boats. Mr. Mackenzie sent his own boat to the assistance of the settlers, though he and his family depended on it for their safety, as they were in an upper storey, with ten feet of water rushing through the house. With much difficulty the families were all conveyed to places of safety, after which the first consideration was to secure the cattle by driving them many miles off to the pine hills and rocky heights.

The ice now drifted from point to point, carrying destruction before it. While the frightened inhabitants collected on any dry spot that remained visible above the waste of waters, their houses, barns, carriages, furniture, fencing, might be seen floating along to be engulfed in Lake Winnipeg. Hardly a house of any kind was left standing in the colony. Many of the buildings drifted along whole and entire; and in some were seen dogs, howling dismally, and cats, that jumped frantically from side to side of their precarious abode. The most singular spectacle was a house in flames drifting along in the night. On the 22nd of the month the waters appeared to stand, and after a day or two began gradually to fall.

When the water began to rise, Mr. Ross drew his boat up to his house door to be ready in case of need. Surprised by the rush of water, he ran to lock a store door a few yards off; before he could get back the water was knee deep. Embarking, they rowed to a neighbour's barn where, with fifty others, they passed a miserable night. Next day the waters drove them from the barn. They erected stages four or five feet high, upon which they piled what goods they could not keep in the boats and canoes. This refuge served them for two days. The wind blowing a gale, the waters gained so fast, they boated off to another spot. Here the water disturbed them in the night, and they rowed over to the banks of the Assiniboine. On a patch of high ground they found a dense crowd, and among others the "rascally de Meurons," who, it was well known, hardly possessed an animal of their own, and yet were selling cheap beef all the time.

A. J. Cotton, Swan River

PIONEER BRIDGE OVER THE SWAN RIVER

Disgusted with them, Mr. Ross moved his family to Sturgeon Creek, where they remained in peace till the water began to fall.[1]

TRAVELS THROUGH LOWER CANADA

By Thomas Johnson

1827

On the first day of July, 1814, we went aboard the brig *Emily* at Greenock, bound for Quebec and Montreal, in which we found sixteen passengers, including four children, all busy arranging their affairs for the voyage. On the 30th, when at supper below, we were alarmed by a loud cry of "All hands on deck." Terror-struck, we hastened up the hatchway, but our panic still increased on beholding our captain and whole crew in a state of agitation, and a large ship less than a league to the leeward, which they supposed to be a French privateer. She fired twice, but our captain showed no inclination to strike. Having passed us she fired a third time, and then began to tack about. Expecting to be made prisoners, the passengers put themselves in their best apparel that they might appear respect-

[1] Arranged and partly quoted from *The Red River Settlement*, by Alexander Ross.

able before the enemy. The enemy's vessel, in endeavouring to tack, missed her stays, fortunately for us. We immediately set every sail, and being favoured with a good breeze and approaching night, escaped.

Quebec, when viewed from the River St. Lawrence, a mile distant, wears a most romantic appearance. The rock, upon which part of the city fronting the river is built, is so rugged and steep that the houses appear as if standing one upon the top of the other. The streets are irregular, some of them remarkably steep and crooked. Mountain Street which connects the Upper with the Lower Town is formed from the solid rock, o difficult access, especially in winter.

A Canadian seldom takes any step of importance without consulting his wife, by whose opinion he abides. At a farmhouse where we stopped, the people had cooked some fish, and everything being ready, we sat down to supper by the light of a lamp which was suspended from the ceiling; the glimmering light, however, scarcely enabled us to see what was on the table. We complained of it to the man of the house; it was trimmed, replenished with oil, taken down and set on the table, still the light was very bad. "Sacre Dieu, but you shall not eat your fish in the dark," said the man and, stepping to a small cupboard, took out a candle and, having lighted it, placed it beside us. Now all was going well when the wife, who had been absent for a few minutes, suddenly returning, poured forth a volley of the most terrible execrations against her poor husband for having presumed to have acted as he had done. Unable to answer a single word, the fellow stood aghast, ignorant of what he had done to offend her. We were quite at a loss to know what had given rise to such a sudden storm.

The wife, however, snatched up the candle and, hastily extinguishing it, in a plaintive voice explained the whole affair. It was the holy candle which her giddy husband had set on the table. It had been consecrated at a neighbouring church, and supposing there should be a tempest at any time, with thunder and lightning ever so terrible, yet if this candle were but kept burning while it lasted, the house, the barn, and everything belonging to it, were secured from all danger. If any of the

family happened to be sick, the candle was to be lighted, and they were instantly to recover. It had been given to her that morning by the priest of the village.

On the 20th of May I embarked on board a small sloop for Montreal. Nothing is more pleasant than a voyage up the St. Lawrence at this season of the year; Nature was now lavishing her beauties upon the wondering eye, and everything bespoke the approach of summer. Pulling ashore one day we landed near the foot of a precipice; here we were met by a young man and two young women, Canadians, one of whom played a sort of tambourine; they conducted us to their cottage. While we were partaking of what the house afforded, the neighbouring peasantry flocked in and gazed with looks of admiration, minutely inspecting us one by one. They showed us every attention, conversed with freedom, and, so far as I could judge, were honest, industrious people. Their houses were clean, and everything neat, considering their furniture, which seemed to be chiefly of their own manufacture. Later we entered the forest and employed some time in gathering what the Yankees call Canadian balsam, which bursted from some of the trees like large drops of gum.

Having a fair wind, next day we reached Trois Rivières, or Three Rivers, a small town upon the west bank of the St. Lawrence at the confluence of three rivers. The Indians come down these rivers in July and August, bringing furs which they sell and barter with the merchants. In exchange they receive clothes, hardware, rum and trinkets, of which they are extremely fond. The situation of Three Rivers is pleasant, easy of access, and it carries on a good trade; the inhabitants are mostly Canadians and some English. A manufactory of carron ware is carried on here. The number of the houses may be estimated at nearly three hundred.

On the 5th of June, about noon, we arrived at Montreal, and just in time to see the *Dunlop*, a beautiful merchantman, launched. The town is one mile in length, and the inhabitants are estimated at ten thousand. The streets are open and regular, compared with those of Quebec, and during the summer are kept remarkably clean. The markets are said to excel any in

Canadian Pacific Railway

MAKING MAPLE SUGAR IN QUEBEC

America. These hold on Monday and Friday, but the latter is the principal day. The two squares in which they hold are called the Upper and Lower Market-place. In the first of these is sold firewood, hay, etc. The wood which meets the readiest purchaser is maple, ash, elm and oak; no person will purchase fir for fuel. For a cart-load they commonly ask 5s., but the price depends much upon the present demand. The Canadian will not sell his hen on a rainy day.

Before you can reach the centre of the lower market, by St. Paul Street, you must press through between two long granges of carts, loaded with the production of the country. Wheat, flour, Indian corn, potatoes, pork, mutton, live sheep, geese, turkeys, ducks, chickens, etc., with a nameless variety of articles of country manufacture. Amongst these, rush-bottomed chairs, for which they charge 5s. for half a dozen, and plaster laths, of which I saw a cart-load sold at 2s. 6d. per thousand. Approaching the square, the next scene is the vegetable market. Here are cabbages, melons, cucumbers, fruits in their season, apples, pears, currants, cherries, etc. Around the square the butchers retail their meat in open sheds.

On the east, toward the river, is the fish market, but salmon

and trout are rarely to be met with. Amongst the various other kinds of fish which come here in plenty, the shad claims the preference. It resembles the salmon, and in June and July, the only months in which it is to be caught, is remarkably cheap. A fish weighing six, seven or eight pounds may be bought for 3d.; it is excellent eating, and many barrels of them are put up for winter. They are caught in nets in the river, and are brought in by the country people in carts, covered with green branches. There is also a plentiful supply of cod.

The leather merchants and the shoemakers from the country stand by the wharf. The leather is much inferior in quality to that manufactured in England. The shoes are mostly of the light kind, and are sold about 4s. a pair. Mogozeens, which are only worn by Canadians, are cheap. Besides these the Indians furnish a superior kind, beautifully indented with porcupine quills. They also bring to market a variety of birch vessels, of curious workmanship. Among other varieties exhibited in Montreal markets, we may remark what is there called bear beef. Butchers purchase bears in the fall, and bury them under snow during the winter. Their method is this: a box or puncheon is provided, large enough to hold the animal and allow him to rise and turn at pleasure. Being placed in a convenient place in the court-yard, the bear is put in, chained, and a little straw thrown in as bedding; a hole is bored to admit air from the top, into which a stick is thrust, and the whole buried beneath eight or ten feet of snow, which being firmly beat together, the stick is drawn up, and there the animal is lodged for at least three months, and when taken out is fat and fit for market.

In winter milk is brought to market in small ice cakes, packed in baskets or boxes; in purchasing 2d. worth, you are complimented with a little straw to keep it from slipping through your fingers. I purchased a dressed mutton which weighed about thirty pounds for a dollar, and, following the example of other people, hung it in a situation exposed to the air to save salting; in a short time I found it quite hard, so that I had to saw it like a board, piecemeal. The taverns contiguous to the market are generally crowded, the chief drink is grog. Canadian sugar, which is drawn from the maple tree, is brought

to the market in cakes, and sold at 5d. and 6d. per pound. Tobacco, sold in the leaf, but twisted like ropes of straw and coiled up, may be purchased very low; I saw a coil weighing eight pounds bought for 6d.

Strolling round the market one day I saw a crowd of people round an Indian boy who, with a bow of the description used by those of the upper country, showed his dexterity as a marksman; at the distance of about twenty yards he split an apple which was stuck upon a rod; this he did repeatedly, when several of the lookers-on gave him a halfpenny and a loud cheer.

Before I proceed further I shall notice a strange spectacle which happened a short time before. A roving Yankee brought down a young lady from one of the neighbouring states to see Montreal. After they had spent the day in dashing about, he mounted his horse to return home, but his partner found herself at a loss, as no person volunteered his services to assist her in getting up behind him. Spying a large cask near, she mounted upon it, but while the Yankee was employed in turning in his crazy horse, down went the end of the cask, and in a moment the poor unfortunate creature was immersed to the middle in treacle—then ran the laughing crowd from every direction. The Yankee, alarmed and fearing the consequences, for the liquid flowed over copiously, clapped spurs to his horse and rode off, upon which the woman raised a lamentable cry. He was stopped by some persons, returned, and after a squabble with the merchant, with the kind aid of some bystanders the lady was extricated, and a porter prevailed upon to carry her upon his back to the next public-house. She was followed by a large assemblage of roguish boys, who licked their lips as they went along.

The dress of the Canadians is coarse grey cloth, undressed and of their own manufacture. The coat is long and wide, which they lap over and tie about their middle with a sash of red, green and yellow; trousers of the same, and brown mogozeens. Instead of a hat, they wear a red cap falling to the shoulders. The women are very careful to cultivate the growth of their hair, which they plait up double and fix with a comb. Whatever pride they may have it does not appear in fine clothes. In winter

the common people wear great-coats, large mitts, and socks over their shoes. Those in a superior station walk abroad in furs. A gentleman in his great-coat, muff and tippet, with socks over his shoes, or wrapped up in a bear-skin, dashing along the street in his cariole, might draw the attention of the crowd in Edinburgh, but in Montreal or Quebec nothing is more common.

The children are healthy; being inured to the climate, they bear the extremes of heat and cold much better than the emigrant. Their diet is Indian flour boiled with milk for breakfast, fresh soup with bread at mid-day, and tea or coffee toward the evening. They rise betimes; at five in the morning I have frequently seen some of them, almost naked, sitting at the door, devouring bacon and garlic with greediness. Labourers, who are sometimes at a distance from home, often make a dinner of bread, maple sugar and butter.

NOVA SCOTIA

1827

Nova Scotia in 1827 was a prosperous colony. Her fertile lands had been noted, and settlers were rapidly filling them up. The production of grain, hay and fruit, potatoes and dairy produce was increasing each year. Coal mines were being opened up. The timber trade had flourished until Britain lowered the duties on foreign timber in 1819; competition hurt Nova Scotia for a time, but she still continued to export a great quantity of birch. Shipbuilding, for which the province was to become so famous, had already begun.

Fishing was then, as now, one of the most important industries in Nova Scotia. "The fisheries of Chedabucto Bay were as productive as any in the known world. Cod and pollock or scale-fish were taken early in the season near the shores, and even within the harbours. Herrings of superior quality were abundant in summer and the early part of autumn. But the shoals of mackerel that traversed the coast in spring and autumn

were immense, sometimes entering Guysboro' harbour in such quantities that several thousand barrels were caught in one day." In the years 1824–25 the catch at Fox Island amounted to upwards of twenty thousand barrels. They were either sold fresh to traders who resorted thither in great numbers with supplies for the fishermen, or were cured and sold to the merchants, or shipped to Halifax and the West Indies. Seventeen districts engaged extensively in the fishing industry.

In those days Nova Scotia had above twenty little towns. Everywhere throughout the province roads were being opened. An excellent stage-coach ran three times a week from Halifax by Windsor and Cornwallis Townships to Granville. A canal to connect the Bay of Fundy with the Gulf of St. Lawrence was projected at a point where the isthmus is only eleven miles wide. It was thought that this canal would bring Gaspé, Bay Chaleur, Prince Edward Island, the Restigouche and the Miramichi, which were at that time little known, into touch with the rest of the province. A canal to connect Halifax with the Basin of Minas was planned and partly built, but never completed.

THE PROVINCE BUILDING, HALIFAX

A STRANGER turned into Granville Street one pleasant August morning. The pavements were wet and cool from their early morning wash-down; the carts and cars rattled briskly on their way to the business of the new day. The stranger hesitated on the threshold of the Province Building, peering within. It was cool inside, the walls high and dusty, the treads of the stairs which went up on either hand worn thin with the passing of countless feet. At the top of the short flight an unlatched door drew the eye; the stranger rapped. "Come in," said a fresh young voice.

The stranger entered and stood; closed the door, and stood and gazed. The light fell in long green and gold shafts through the leaves without and the high dusty windows; it

THE PROVINCE BUILDING, HALIFAX

moved in running patterns on the deep cherry-red of the old, soft carpet; the room was walled with book-shelves, wine-dark old mahogany, picked out and panelled with wood of warm gold. The shelves sagged restfully back against the walls; the books, in a thousand softly faded shades, sank back upon the shelves. Two little curved stairways, wine-red and gold, gave access to the balcony, from which rose the upper tiers of books. The room swam in colour incredibly old, soft and rich.

The fresh young voice inquiring at his elbow brought the stranger to himself. He asked at random for a book, and when it was placed before him opened it; but his eyes saw visions and his mind whirled with the memories that peopled the kind old room. Here walked the noble Earl of Dalhousie, planning the university that bears his name; Uniacks, Knowltons, Parkers, Blanchards, Winslows, used these books; in this room Joseph Howe defended himself in the famous libel suit.

The Province Building, Halifax, was first thought of in 1787; in that year the Legislature passed an Act authorising the sale of certain government properties and the use of the money for building a gaol and a building adapted for the public use. Nothing was done, and ten years later the Act was repealed. In 1797 a new Act appointed commissioners to buy land and begin building; £3000 was granted as a beginning. The com-

missioners bought land at the south end of Hollis Street. The next lot had been laid off as a school lot; it was, presently, acquired also; upon these two lots Government House stands.

Building materials had been ordered when a difficulty arose. The Governor, Sir John Wentworth, then lived in a house which stood on the site of the present Province Building. It was old and decayed. Sir John complained that it was unhealthful and unfit to live in. He begged the Legislature to let the Province Building wait in the meantime and to build, first, a new Government House. This was done. It was 1809 before the question of a new Province Building was again taken up, and 1811 before the building was really put in hand. Sir George Prevost was then Governor.

August 12, 1811, was an eventful day in Halifax. It was the birthday of Prince George, then Regent, and was observed with royal honours. From early morning, flags were seen floating from the ships in the harbour, the forts and public buildings. Sir George was about to leave the Maritime Provinces for Quebec, having recently been appointed Governor-General of Canada. In the morning he received an address in which the citizens congratulated him on his promotion. At noon he received the troops on the common. After the usual speech and a royal salute from the ships of war, Sir George went back to Government House to receive and shake hands with all Halifax at a levee held in honour of the day.

The afternoon saw yet another important function, the laying of the corner-stone of the new Province Building. The *Royal Gazette* of August 14 described the ceremony as follows:

"Monday being appointed for laying the corner-stone of the Provincial Building, at 3 o'clock His Excellency Sir George Prevost, attended by Rear-Admiral Sawyer, Major-General Balfour, Commissioner Inglefield, and the different officers of the Staff and Captains of the Navy, were received at the eastern gate of the enclosure by the Grenadiers and Light Infantry. The band played 'God Save the King' and the crowd cheered the Governor heartily. The vice-regal party was met by the commissioners for the building, who conducted them to a marquee provided for their reception, and where they were

received by the Grand Master and officers of the Grand Lodge of Free and Accepted Masons, the Brethren surrounding the excavation for the building. After partaking of the refreshments provided for the occasion, the ceremony commenced by a benediction from the Reverend Mr. Gray, Grand Chaplain. His Excellency, Sir George Prevost, then assisted in laying the corner-stone, and depositing in the cavity made for that purpose a number of coins, and the inscription which was enclosed in a bottle decorated with the crest of His Royal Highness the Prince Regent, and the date of the period of the ceremony, and also a small leaden box containing copper coins of the present reign. After the stone was laid and plumbed, levelled and squared by the different grand officers, the Grand Master then presented the corn, wine and oil which were poured upon it by His Excellency, symbolical of the increased prosperity of the province, and the ceremony closed with His Excellency giving three strokes of the hammer and making a speech."

CANADIAN CANALS

When the United Empire Loyalists began to settle in Upper Canada it became necessary to improve the means of transportation to the new province. The St. Lawrence River system which connects the heart of the continent with the ocean is one of Canada's most valuable assets; in those days it was the only road to the upper country. While the Loyalists were coming in, crude locks were built to enable the bateaux and Durham boats to pass the Cascade, Côteau and Long Sault Rapids. In 1804 these locks were enlarged and improved by the Government.

As long as canoes were used to carry goods up and down, rapids were overcome by portages; but, as population and trade increased, canoes gave way to bateaux, bateaux to Durham boats. These long, shallow, flat-bottomed craft were poled and towed up the rapids. Schooners soon replaced the bateaux on the Great Lakes. Cargoes were brought up the St. Lawrence in river boats; transhipped at Kingston into

schooners which carried them to York or to Queenston where, if destined for the Upper Lakes, they were portaged to Chippewa above the Falls. In 1797 as many as sixty wagons were engaged in the carrying trade between Queenston and Chippewa.

This slow and expensive method of transportation sufficed as long as there was little to be brought in but people, and little to be taken out but furs; when the settlers began to export timber, potash and grain, something better was required. In 1817, too, the Americans began to build the Erie Canal, connecting Buffalo with New York. It looked as though the trade of the upper country would pass to the great American city. At once the Government of Upper Canada called for tenders for the improvement of the waterways between Montreal and Kingston, and a company was formed the next year to do the work.

In 1824 the Imperial Government offered £70,000 to aid the Government of Upper Canada in building a canal to connect Kingston with Ottawa by way of the Rideau River. This, the Rideau Canal, was undertaken partly because of its military importance. The cost was estimated, the route surveyed. Lieutenant-Colonel By began the work in 1826 and carried it through during the following years. Nicholas Sparks, one of Philemon Wright's men, had taken up the land at the point where the Rideau flows into the Ottawa; he was able to sell part of his holding to the Government at a good price; the remainder he divided into building lots for the town which has become the city of Ottawa.

The Rideau Canal, which was opened in 1832, attracted a good deal of trade from the St. Lawrence. The business of the town of Brockville suffered a good deal, and the citizens urged that a canal be built on the St. Lawrence between Cornwall and Dickenson's Landing. This, the Cornwall Canal, was opened in 1843; it further improved the navigation of the St. Lawrence, and helped to bring trade back to the great river.

Meantime, in 1817, a still more ambitious project had been mooted. In that year William Merritt published an article in the press advocating a canal to connect Lakes Ontario and Erie, avoiding the great fall at Niagara. Mr. Merritt had himself

made a rough survey of the ridge between Twelve Mile Creek and the Welland River, and believed that a canal might be carried through it. He persuaded the Government to pay for a survey. The surveyor laid out a fifty-mile route between the Grand River and Burlington Bay. Merritt and his friends thought this route unnecessarily roundabout, and they clubbed together to pay for a survey of the route they favoured. Mr. Tibbets, an engineer who had made a reputation in connection with the Erie Canal, assured them that their plan was feasible and, in 1824, the Welland Canal Company was incorporated. Mr. Merritt went to Montreal and New York to obtain subscriptions to the stock of the company.

The canal, as at first planned, was to be four feet deep and to connect Lake Ontario with the Welland River. A tunnel was to carry it through the ridge, and an inclined railway was to be provided to drop the goods from the upper to the lower level. This scheme was impracticable on the face of it. New engineers were called in; they planned to build a canal with locks from Lake Ontario to the Welland River, which would carry ships into the upper waters of the Niagara River and so into Lake Erie. This seemed possible and, late in 1824, the first sod was turned.

The engineers promised that the canal should be ready in 1828. The work was pushed vigorously; it never ceased for a day during the years that followed. By the autumn of 1828 the great ditch was nearing completion. Directors and workmen were already planning the ceremonies of the opening day when suddenly, on November 19, the banks of the Deep Cut fell in. The Deep Cut was the part of the ditch which traversed the ridge, and the engineers had excavated to a depth of fifty feet without taking any steps to retain the banks.

The fall of the banks was a disaster indeed. The funds of the company were nearly exhausted and indefinite delay seemed probable. The British Government, however, came forward with a loan of £50,000, and the work was completed a year later. On November 27, 1829, two vessels pushed through the rapidly gathering ice from Port Dalhousie to Buffalo.

From the first, the ice in the upper reaches of the Niagara

Canadian National Railways

PEACH ORCHARD IN NIAGARA DISTRICT

proved a serious drawback to the usefulness of the canal. The company did not rest until the canal had been carried through from Port Dalhousie on Lake Ontario to Port Colborne on Lake Erie. Since that day it has been widened, deepened and improved every few years to accommodate the ever-increasing size of the ships using it.

THE NEW HOUSE

By the time the farm was cleared and money began to come in from crops and stock, the children were growing up and a larger house was needed. The old log house had done yeoman service; it began to sag in one corner, the roof leaked past patching, sometimes the old logs became infested with vermin. The good wife insisted that she must have a better cellar and some store closets; the young folk begged for a parlour; the master pictured a fine frame house and balanced the cost against the increased value of the "place." All winter, while the boys

TYPE OF END-ENTRY HOUSE

hauled logs to the saw-mill and brought home the lumber, the family discussed and planned. At last the farmer gave the order to the carpenters. There was a jolly dance at the "raising"; a much grander party at the "house-warming"; and another Canadian family had established itself.

The earliest kind of frame house built by the prosperous pioneers was a low, steep-roofed, storey-and-a-half building. It had a narrow entry at one end, and two rooms opening out of one another on the ground floor. A steep and narrow staircase led to the low-eaved, often unplastered bedrooms above. Two or three small-paned windows divided the wall below and, if the house was a two-storey one, an equal number were set in above.

As the years passed and the people grew richer, a more elaborate style of house was built. Houses were nearly all two-storey now, sometimes even three-storey ones were seen. The end entry gave place to a wide door in the centre with two, or three, green-shuttered windows on either side and a row of the same above. The front door opened into a hall, which ran straight through to the back of the house, having the kitchen and dining-room on one side, the parlour and spare bedroom on the other. The chimneys in these houses were at first in the end walls and later

Courtesy of Religious Tract Society.

MONTREAL, FROM THE LOOK-OUT.

TYPE OF CENTRAL-ENTRY HOUSE

between each pair, making one chimney do for each pair of rooms. Thrifty householders moved the log or earlier frame house up to the back of the new one, so as to form an **L**, and provide a summer kitchen and winter store-room. The roofs were flatter and occasionally a narrow verandah broke the plain line of the building.

In 1830, what is known as the Greek Revival spread through the New England States. This style of house never became common in Canada, though many of the richer Canadians followed the fashion. The Colonial House, as it was called, had two or three storeys; the wide central door had a handsome fan-light and side windows; a porch with tall white pillars covered the door.[1] Painted white, with its rows of green-shuttered windows, set on a slope of lawn among magnificent old trees, the Colonial House was a gracious and beautiful thing, a fitting background for the leisured gentility which crowned the honourable labour of the second generation of the pioneers.

Our forefathers set their houses a very short distance off the main roads; they planted flower gardens in front and vegetable gardens in the rear. In pioneer gardens, stocks and pinks and lilies of the valley grew beside sweet-william,

[1] It seems a pity that Government House, Charlottetown, one of the most beautiful examples of this style of house remaining in Canada, should be allowed to fall into ruins.

GOVERNMENT HOUSE, CHARLOTTETOWN

foxgloves, asters and blue bachelor's buttons. Mignonette and southernwood perfumed the air. Mistresses cherished cabbage and blush-rose bushes; purple lilacs and acacia grew beside the porch and beneath the window. Towns and villages were not built according to carefully-laid-out plans in those days. Here a house stood directly on the village street; a second was placed at the end of a lane, a third in a meadow by a brook, and others were scattered over the hillside. As the years passed, a winding street developed along which were ranged the store, blacksmith shop, tavern, cooper shop and possibly a second blacksmith shop. To this centre the villagers made their way by footpaths which led directly from each door.

Dr. George Hill says that the furniture in Halifax houses early in the nineteenth century was more substantial and more expensive than that now used, but that the householder was content with fewer pieces. It was usually made of mahogany, rich and dark in colour. The dining-room table was plain but massive, and supported by heavy legs. Extension tables were already used. Sideboards were high and narrow; the secretary or writing-desk was bound with numberless brass plates at the edges and corners. The cellaret which stood in the corner and held the day's supply of wines and liquors was also bound with brass plates.

The drawing-room was supplied with a set of cumbersome straight-backed chairs, covered with black horse-hair cloth, at once smooth and prickly; they were delightful things to slide off, but uncomfortable to sit on. The sofa, which matched the chairs, was bare and hard but roomy, with a gracefully-curved and carved back. The great arm-chair was wide and deep enough to hold the father and several of his children besides.

Bedrooms were furnished in the same wood and style. The bedsteads were four-posted and curtained with a heavy canopy, falling curtains and valance, drapery which nowadays we should consider most unsanitary. The frame of the bed had an interlacing of rope to support the lower straw and upper feather ticks. This rope lacing gave place to wooden slats, which in turn were replaced by springs; the straw and feather ticks, which made the bed so high that in some houses a small step-ladder was kept beside it to help the guest to bed, have been superseded by the modern mattress. Chests of drawers and ladies' wardrobes were decorated with the admired brass plates; the great bureau with its capacious drawers had brass handles. With its voluminous curtains, its huge heavy ticks, and many brass plates, the old-time bedroom made a great deal of work for the housewife. Indeed, the women complained that it required the whole time of one servant to keep the mahogany rubbed and the brass polished.

A tall grandfather clock stood in almost every hall. The kitchen had a wide-mouthed fireplace, with a crane and baker. The brass warming-pan hung by the chimney; the spinning-wheels for wool and flax stood in their corners; in keen winter twilights, when the fire shone delightfully over the clean yellow-painted floor, the kitchen was the pleasantest place in the pioneer house. Rough tables and benches for common use were made by the village carpenter. Rush-bottomed chairs were manufactured in Hollis Street, Halifax, but it was necessary to speak to the proprietor some months before the chairs were needed, lest the good man be found out of rushes and the purchaser be obliged to wait till they grew, were cut down and dried.

In 1820, "men, old and young, had a decent coat, vest and small clothes and some kind of a fur hat. These were for holiday

use and would last half a lifetime. Old men had a great-coat and a pair of boots; the boots generally lasted for life. They had flannel shirts and stockings and thick leather shoes. A silk handkerchief for holidays would last ten years. In summer they had a pair of wide trousers, reaching half-way from the knee to the ankle. As for boys, as soon as they were taken out of petticoats they were put into small clothes summer and winter. These lasted till they put on long trousers, which they called 'tongs.' They were but little different from the pantaloons of to-day. These were made of linen or cotton, and soon were used by old men and young through the warm season. Later they were made of flannel or cloth and were in general use for the winter. Young men never thought of great-coats; overcoats were unknown. Until near the middle of the nineteenth century the dickey and large black stock were commonly worn. For Sundays and state occasions good black broadcloth, both for trousers and long frock-coats, was almost invariably used. On weekdays men wore grey homespun."

Women wore long softly-gathered skirts and short waists, draped with a fichu. The neck of the dress was much higher toward the middle of the nineteenth century, and the short puffed sleeves gave way to long close-fitting ones. The poke bonnet was replaced by a flat hat trimmed at the back. Cloaks were worn for many years and "from 1790 to 1820 great muffs never went out of fashion." White stockings were usual and soft little slippers with cross-over straps, which the women sometimes made for themselves. An old lady tells of having been invited to a dance in her youth, and finding herself without shoes, or leather from which to make them, she took the cape of a heavy old cloak, cut herself a pair of slippers, made them up and danced as gaily as though shod from London.

MAIL IN 1830

By Canniff Haight

Fifty years ago the Post Office Department was under the control of the British Government, and Thomas Stayner was Deputy Postmaster-General of British North America. There were ninety-one post offices in Upper Canada, and the gross receipts were £8029 2s. 6d. On the main line between York and Montreal the mails were carried by a public stage, and in spring and fall, owing to the bad roads, and even in the winter with its storms and snow-drifts, its progress was slow, and often difficult.

There are persons still living who remember many a weary hour and trying adventure between these points. Passengers, almost perished with cold or famished with hunger, were often forced to trudge through the mud and slush up to their knees because the jaded horses could barely pull the empty vehicle through the mire or up the weary hill. They were frequently compelled to alight and grope around in the impenetrable darkness and beating storm for rails from a neighbouring fence, with which to pry the wheels out of a mud-hole, or to dig themselves out of snowbanks in which both horses and coach were firmly wedged. If they were so fortunate as to escape these mishaps, the deep ruts and corduroy bridges tried their powers of endurance to the utmost, and made the old coach creak and groan under the strain. Sometimes it toppled over with a crash, leaving the worried passengers to find shelter in the nearest farm-house until the damage was repaired.

With good roads and no breakdowns they were able to spank along at the rate of seventy-five miles in a day, which was considered rapid travelling. Four and a half days were required, and often more, to reach Montreal from York. A merchant posting a letter from the latter place, under the most favourable circumstances could not get a reply from Montreal

in less than ten days, or sometimes fifteen; and from Quebec the time required was from three weeks to a month. The English mails were brought by sailing vessels; the other parts of the province were served by couriers on horseback, who announced their approach by the blast of a tin horn.

THREE UNIVERSITIES

The three little provinces by the sea have a proud reputation for intellectuality. Nova Scotia, especially, has long been renowned for her scholars, who fill important positions in every part of Canada and the United States. Good blood went to the building of all the Loyalist provinces: old and honourable families, whose members had been leaders for centuries; the pick of the workers, fine high-spirited men and women who achieved their great adventure in founding British Canada. The majority of these people lived clean and quiet lives, worked hard, thought much, reverenced books. Of such, scholars are born.

From the beginning Nova Scotia has been careful of the education of her children, but she is a small province and it surprises strangers to learn that she supports three universities. Most Nova Scotians think it would have been better to have put all together and built one large university. Even in the beginning they wished to do so, but some perverse imp of fortune seemed ever to prevent them. This is how it happened:

When King's College was established at Windsor in 1790, it was arranged to receive there only the sons of Anglicans. Lord Dalhousie, who was Governor of Nova Scotia from 1816 to 1819, did his best to have the troublesome rule in the King's College law repealed. He failed, but the British Parliament granted him power to establish a non-denominational college in Halifax. He planned to found one on the principle of the Scottish universities, where young men of any Church might be educated.

During the American Revolution the town of Castine, in

From a print owned by the Hon. A. C. Rutherford

THE TANDEM CLUB ASSEMBLING IN FRONT OF DALHOUSIE COLLEGE, HALIFAX

Maine, had been captured by the British. The money which came in from duties amounted, when all expenses had been paid, to £10,750. The Earl proposed that £3000 of this should be used for building the college and £6750 for its endowment. This was agreed to, and the House of Assembly voted about £8000 more to help in the building. Before the new college was begun, another attempt was made to bring King's College in, but again the movement towards union failed.

The Governor laid the corner-stone of Dalhousie College in May 1820. The ceremony was a grand affair. The new college stood at the west end of the Grand Parade in the centre of the city. "The Free Masons under their Grand Master stationed themselves in a square on the site. The troops in garrison, with their colours, formed a lane from the west front of the Province House to the entrances of the enclosure for the building. A few minutes before two o'clock p.m., His Excellency, accompanied by the Rear-Admiral, the members of Council, the Justices of the Peace, Commandant of the Garrison, and chief officers of the Army and Navy, went to the spot. Mr. Twining, the Grand Chaplain, made a prayer. A brass plate with an inscription and a bottle with coins were put in a cavity in the stone. The Earl then made a speech, pointing out the

objects of establishing the college—'Its doors will be open to all who profess the Christian religion.' 'It is particularly intended for those who are excluded from Windsor.' He then laid the stone with the Masonic ceremonial, and the Chaplain made another prayer. A royal salute from the guns and the cheers of the lookers-on concluded the business. In the evening Lady Dalhousie gave a ball and supper to a large party."

At this time Dr. Edmund Crawley was the pastor of the Granville Street Baptist Church in Halifax. He was a very learned gentleman, and his people admired and loved him devotedly, as did all the Baptists throughout Nova Scotia. To eke out his small salary, and because he loved teaching, he held classes in advanced subjects in Dalhousie College building. About 1838 he suggested a plan for opening Dalhousie. His plan was adopted and he himself was promised by the governors a place on the faculty. When the college was opened, however, Dr. Crawley was not appointed. All his friends, the whole Baptist Church of Nova Scotia felt itself insulted. They founded a college for themselves at Wolfville, where already there was a Baptist Academy or High School.

Everyone felt the founding of a third small college to be a mistake. For two years the Legislature refused to grant the Baptists a charter, but they gave way and, in 1840, Acadia University was born. Dr. Crawley and the Rev. John Pryor, principal of the academy, were the only professors at first. In the years since it was built on a gentle slope, among the lonely elms of Wolfville, its upper windows catching the glint of sunlight on the waves of Fundy, Acadia has been a gracious mother to many a well-known son.

Now at this season the reels are empty and idle; I see them
Over the lines of the dikes, over the gossiping grass,
They swing in the long strong wind.

ONE OF THE FIRST WOMEN TEACHERS: E. M. TAYLOR

ONE of the most efficient of the early women teachers, who died in 1897 at the age of ninety-four years, taught school for four livres (a livre is about 16½ cents) a week, and worked for her board. A short time before her death she assured me that the highest wages she ever received as a teacher in the township of Sutton were paid her about 1834; she then received about $1.00 a week beside her board. Even after the establishment of a regular system of public instruction, the teachers nearly always boarded around from house to house, dividing up the number of school days by the number of pupils; hence it often happened that the burden of boarding the teacher fell upon those who could least afford to bear it.

FARMING IN RED RIVER

BY ALEXANDER ROSS

1831

To help the colonists, Governor Simpson promised to buy all the Company's supplies from the farmers of Red River. The settlers roused themselves, broke new land, bought implements and were soon supplying all the demands of the Company. But the flour, butter, cheese and meat had no sooner reached the Company posts than a great cry went up against its quality. The flour was said to be heated, sour, only fit to poison pigs; the butter was pronounced mouldy, rancid, scarcely fit to grease cart-wheels; the cheese could not be eaten. Even the beef and pork, at 3d. a pound, were found fault with. English produce was again called for and imported. The settlers were left worse off than if they had never extended their farms.

The apology for this state of things must be sought for in the circumstances of the colony at that time. The necessary conveniences for successful agriculture did not exist there. In

the whole colony there was not a smut-mill or fanning machine to clean the grain, and but few barns to thresh it in, and still fewer kilns to dry it. Much of the grain was threshed on an ice-floor, in open air, in all weathers, and the ground in a frozen state, and immediately packed in casks of green wood furnished by the Company. Of all this the Company was cognisant; in fact it was done under their own orders. Little wonder if the flour turned out to be of bad quality: heated, sour, and even rotten.

With butter it was even worse. The settlers brought it to the Company's store in small quantities, some more, some less; not in firkins, tinettes or kegs, but in open dishes, covered with a towel, a napkin or a cabbage leaf; in hot, windy, or rainy weather, just as it happened. Some in spring, when it is pale; others, according to the state of the grass, of a high colour; some well salted, some ill; some made by skilful persons, some by natives. Then all these colours and qualities of different periods were thrown together in large open casks, where they lay till the packing season. The whole was then mixed together and packed by the Company into kegs of green wood, incapable of holding brine. The butter was then shipped to the remotest parts of the country, hundreds or thousands of miles, exposed for months together to a burning summer's sun. Had buyer and seller conspired together to ruin the character of Red River produce, they could not have hit upon a surer plan for effecting their object.

The Governor, always interesting himself in the prosperity of the colony, then resolved upon buying up the wheat and getting it dried and milled according to the Company's own liking. The harvest of the year was an average crop, and got in somewhat late in the season; yet the grain was, in general, good. The Company bought in from 8000 to 10,000 bushels to be kept in their own granaries over winter. Their buildings were too small; it had to be heaped up four or five feet deep, and so remained till it got almost baked together; it was neither dry nor free from smut. Again, large quantities of buffalo meat had been stored in the same buildings, the daintiest fragments of which were carried off by the mice and mixed up with the

wheat, making a combination of wheat, smut, icicles, dried meat, mice and mice nests, all more or less heated together. The smell was absolutely disgusting. In this state, despite all advice to the contrary, and the certainty of bringing disgrace upon the colony, the wheat was ground, and the flour shipped off to the different trading posts. The writer having a mill, was among those patronised, and can bear witness that the smell was intolerable.

The dampness of the wheat and the particles of ice mixed up with it in the Company's granaries arose from the slovenly and dirty habit of threshing the grain on an ice-floor, in the open air, chiefly by an indolent and wretched class of squatters, who raised just sufficient to poison the good grain and destroy the market of the Red River colonists. To some extent, this practice could not be avoided by the most painstaking farmers, but the evil was greatly increased by the policy of the Company, who, to please all parties, took their supplies from all who presented themselves in the market.

The class to which we particularly allude have already been described as the paupers of Red River. They are voyageurs, hunters, trip-men, lake-frequenters, fiddlers, idlers, and last of all, they are farmers. To exemplify the case, the writer will describe a visit to an old acquaintance, who had left the service of the Company with £4000 and had settled himself on an extensive farm, among the half-breeds of the place.

This man, who had not his superior for wealth and influence in the parish, showed me over his establishment. We went to see a miserable hovel, with the snow drifting through the roof, which he called his barn. It was just large enough for two men to work in, but they preferred the ice-floor outside as being safer and hardly more exposed. Lying in our way as we entered was a pile of old harness and broken boxes, which in a manner shut up the entrance. At one end were a few boards on which lay eight bags of pemmican and some bales of dried meat, near to which in a heap lay some barley in the chaff. In the other end were a few loads of unthreshed oats, peas and barley, lying heads and tails together. Across the plating of this strange building were two rough beams, on which were laid two raw hides on

cross-sticks, holding up some half-cleaned wheat, in a frozen mass, thickly covered with snow. I observed to my friend that the wheat would be spoiled.

"Oh, no," said he, "it is for the Company."

"It is very good of the Company," I replied, "to take such wheat as that."

"Yes," said he, "the Company take from us everything we have for sale."

Leaving the barn we went to one of the stables close by; but I saw enough of it from the outside to satisfy me without going in. The door had first been on the east side of the building; but when that got choked up with manure, one had been cut out on the west side, then on the north, and as a last make-shift, when I was there, one was cut out on the south, fronting the dwelling-house door, and not many yards from it; at the same time manure was piled so high all round that nothing of the building, except the roof, was to be seen. To reach the door the animals had to slide down and get out on their knees.

From the stable we proceeded to the corn-yard, fenced round with a sort of temporary railing, enclosing five half-made ricks of wheat, a little higher than a man's head. As we approached, the cattle that had been regaling themselves among the stacks took fright, and roused a nestling of pigs which were burrowing under the ricks. Instantly all were in motion, and the scene became one for a Hogarth's pencil. My friend laughed heartily on seeing the cattle throw the squealing pigs in the air, and said, "What we lose in wheat we gain in pork."

After clearing the yard we returned to the house, where we found two of my friend's sons (he had four or five married and living about the place) rattling away at the fiddle. Instead of rebuking them for neglect, or complaining of the damage done in his corn-yard, he enjoyed the glee, remarking with an air of self-satisfaction that all the half-breeds had a great genius for music. I asked why his sons did not keep things in better order.

"Why," said he, "they take no interest in such matters, and besides, they are now off on their own and live by the plains. I have spent £2000 on them, chiefly in horses, and yet

Courtesy of Hudson Bay Company.

DOMINION HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, OTTAWA.

Howard Chapman, Victoria

OLD-TIME SOD STABLE

they are as poor as when they got the first shilling. Like their countrymen (the Indians) they are above the drudgery of farming."

With such farmers, patronised so impartially by the Company, can it be a matter of surprise that a universal cry was raised against the produce of Red River?

COON HUNTING

By Canniff Haight

One of our favourite sports in those days was coon (short for raccoon) hunting. This lasted only during the time of green corn. The raccoon is particularly fond of corn before it hardens, and if unmolested will destroy a good deal in a short time. He always visits the cornfields at night; so about nine o'clock we would set off with our dogs, trained for the purpose, and with as little noise as possible make our way to the edge of the corn, and then wait for him.

If the field was not too large he could easily be heard breaking down the ears, and then the dogs were let loose. Cautiously and silently they crept towards the unsuspecting foe. But the sharp ears and keen scent of the raccoon seldom let him fall into the clutch of the dogs without a scamper for life. The coon was almost always near the woods, and this gave him a chance of escape. As soon as a yelp was heard from the dogs, we knew the fun had begun, and, pushing forward in the direction

of the noise, we were pretty sure to find our dogs baffled and jumping and barking round the foot of a tree up which Mr. Coon had fled, and whence he was quietly looking down upon his pursuers.

Our movements now were guided by circumstances. If the tree was not too large, one of us would climb it and dislodge the coon. In the other case we generally cut it down. The dogs were always on the alert, and the moment the coon touched the ground they were on him. We used frequently to capture two or three in a night. The skin was dressed and made into caps, or robes for the sleigh.

On two or three of these expeditions our dogs caught a tartar by running foul of a coon not so easily disposed of—in the shape of a bear; then we were both glad to decamp, as he was rather too big a job to undertake in the night. Bruin was fond of young corn, but (by 1830) he and the wolves had ceased to be troublesome. The latter occasionally made a raid on a flock of young sheep in the winter, but they were watched pretty closely, and were trapped or shot. There was a government bounty of $4 for every wolf's head.

Another, and much more innocent sport, was netting wild pigeons after the wheat had been taken off. At that time they used to visit the stubble in large flocks. Our mode of procedure was to build a house of boughs under which to hide ourselves. Then the ground was carefully cleaned and sprinkled with grain, at one side of which the net was set, and in the centre one stool pigeon secured on a perch was placed, attached to which was a long string running into the house.

When all was ready we retired and watched for the flying pigeons, and whenever a flock came within seeing distance our stool pigeon was raised and then dropped. This would cause it to spread its wings and then flutter, which attracted the flying birds, and after a circle or two they would swoop down and commence to feed. Then the net was sprung, and in a trice we had scores of pigeons under it. I do not remember to have seen this method of capturing pigeons practised since. If we captured many we took them home, put them where they could not get away, and took them out as we wanted them.

THE "ROYAL WILLIAM"

By M. J. Patton

The first ship to cross the Atlantic, propelled all the way by steam, was a Canadian vessel, manned by a Canadian crew. This was the *Royal William*, built in the yards of Campbell and Black at Quebec in 1831. The *Royal William* made her memorable voyage across the Atlantic in 1833, sailing from Pictou, Nova Scotia, on August 18, and reaching London after a passage of about twenty days. During the whole voyage she was propelled by steam generated by Pictou coal. As a memorial of this accomplishment there rests to-day in the corridor of the library of Parliament at Ottawa a brass tablet bearing this inscription:

"In honour of the men by whose enterprise, courage and skill the *Royal William*, the first vessel to cross the Atlantic by steam power, was wholly constructed in Canada and navigated to England in 1833, the pioneer of those mighty fleets of ocean steamers by which passengers and merchandise of all nations are now conveyed on every sea throughout the world."

Lower Canada had long felt the need, both from a political and commercial point of view, for a closer relationship with the Maritime Provinces. In 1825, therefore, the Government of Quebec offered a subsidy of £1500 currency "to the first person or company that shall cause a steam vessel of not less than 500 tons' burthen to be built and regularly navigated between the ports of Quebec and Halifax, during four years." This sum, however, was insufficient to tempt anyone to incur the hazard of this new venture, so, in 1830, the subsidy was doubled. This had the desired effect. The next year the Quebec and Halifax Steam Navigation Company was incorporated.

The Company entered into a contract with John Saxton Campbell, a merchant, and George Black, a shipbuilder, to build the *Royal William*. She was designed by the foreman of the contractor's shipyard, James Goudie, a Canadian of Scottish parentage, who had learned his trade on the Clyde. Her keel

was laid on September 2, 1830, in the yard at Cape Cove, above which stood the monument marking the spot where Wolfe fell. The launching, which took place on April 27 of the following year, was a gala event. Craft of all kinds gathered on the river around the shipyard, and on one of these, the steamer *Richelieu,* was the band of the Thirty-Second Regiment. Lord Aylmer, the Governor-in-Chief of Canada, was there to grace the occasion with his presence. The ceremony of naming the vessel was performed by Lady Aylmer, in the presence of an immense crowd. As the *Royal William* trembled on the ways and glided into her element a ringing cheer was sent up, while the cannon boomed a salute of welcome to Canada's first ocean-going steamship.

After the launching the *British America* towed the *Royal William* to Montreal, where she was fitted with her engines at Bennet and Henderson's foundry. Like all steam vessels of that time she was a side-wheeler. She had 160 feet length of keel, 28 feet breadth between the paddle-boxes, and a tonnage of 1370. She was a three-masted vessel, with standing bowsprit, and was schooner rigged. The under-deck cabin contained some fifty berths, besides a splendidly furnished parlour.

The *Royal William* left Quebec on August 24, 1831, on her first trip to Halifax, completing the voyage in six and a half days, including two days' detention in the Miramichi River. The return trip was made in nine days, from which four days must be deducted for stops at ports and for detention due to fogs. Three round trips were made during this season, on all of which the vessel was well patronised with respect to both cargo and passengers.

In 1833 her owners decided to send her to England for sale, and fitted her out for a voyage to London. She was detained for several days at Pictou, coaling, repairing her boilers and awaiting passengers from Prince Edward Island. On August 18, under the command of Captain John McDougall, she steamed out of Pictou Harbour to test the power of steam against the waves of the Atlantic. There were on board seven passengers and a miscellaneous and interesting cargo, consisting of 254 chaldrons of coal, six spars, a case of stuffed birds, some house-

hold furniture, and a harp. On reaching the Grand Banks of Newfoundland she experienced a terrific gale, which disabled one of her engines and caused the engineer to report that the vessel was sinking. She weathered the storm, but was compelled to proceed for several days with only one engine working.

Ten days after her arrival in London she was sold for £10,000 and chartered to the Portuguese Government to transport troops for Dom Pedro's service. Captain McDougall sailed her to Lisbon, where she was unsuccessfully offered for sale to the Portuguese Government. In 1834, after making a trip to Oporto, Lisbon, and Cadiz, she was sold to the Spanish Government and converted into a war steamer, the first that Spain ever owned, her name being changed to the *Ysabel Segunda*. She was then employed against Don Carlos on the north coast of Spain, where she had the added distinction of being the first steam war vessel to fire a shot in action. The event took place in the Bay of San Sebastian, in 1836, during the action on land between the British Legion under De Lacy Evans and the Carlists, who were well entrenched behind a series of field works. The Carlist sharpshooters, who, protected by these works, were fast picking off the officers and men of the Eighth Highlanders, were dislodged and dispersed by the guns of the *Ysabel Segunda*.

She was employed in the coastguard service in Atlantic waters, and later in the Mediterranean, until 1840, when she was sent to Bordeaux, France, to have her hull repaired. It was then found that her timbers were hopelessly rotten, and she was converted into a hulk, and a new vessel built to receive her engines. The new war vessel into which her engines were transferred and which received the same name was wrecked in 1860 in a fierce storm off the coast of Algeria. Thus with her hull rotting in Bordeaux Harbour, and her engines sunk in the shifting sands of the Mediterranean, the *Royal William*, the first ship to cross the Atlantic by steam power and the first steam war vessel to fire a shot against an enemy, ended her varied career.

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THE GOOD TEMPLARS

Drunkenness seems to have been the principal vice of Canadians during the first half of the nineteenth century. A great many of the travellers who visited Canada in those days and who have left descriptions of the country as it was then, marvelled at the amount of drinking done, and lamented its evil effects.

The sons and daughters of the first settlers were now in possession of the land; the hard rough work of pioneering was done; the people had some leisure and some wealth, but had not been educated to use either. Everyone kept liquor in store; it was offered as a matter of course to every caller. Master workmen kept barrels of beer and kegs of whiskey on tap for their men; farmers provided a special barrel of liquor for their harvesters; their grain would have remained in the field had they failed to do so. Amusements were few and expensive, liquor was cheap, and the tavern offered a friendly, if low, society. "When I was in Upper Canada," says Mrs. Jameson, speaking of the years 1836 and 1837, "I found no means whatever of social amusement for any class, except that which the tavern afforded; taverns consequently abounded everywhere."

In describing London Mrs. Jameson says, "The population consists principally of artisans—as blacksmiths, carpenters, builders, all flourishing. There is, I fear, a good deal of drunkenness and profligacy. Besides the seven taverns, there is a number of little grocery stores which are, in fact, drinking-houses. And though a law exists which forbids the sale of spirituous liquors in small quantities by any but licensed publicans, they easily contrive to elude the law; as thus: a customer enters the shop and asks for two or three pennyworth of nuts, or cakes, and he receives a few nuts and a large glass of whiskey. The whiskey, you observe, is given, not sold, and no one can swear to the contrary. It appears to me that the Government should be more careful in the choice of district magistrates. While I

was in London, a person who acted in this capacity was carried from the pavement dead drunk."

Of Niagara Mrs. Jameson says, "The land all round Niagara is particularly fine and fertile. The country, they say, is most beautiful in summer, taxes are trifling, scarcely felt, and there are no poor-rates; yet ignorance, recklessness, despondency and inebriety prevail. A—— who has been settled here for five years, and B——, himself a Canadian, rate the morality of the Canadian population frightfully low; lying and drunkenness they spoke of as nearly universal."

The means of education and of Christian teaching improved slowly; by the middle of the century the thinking people of the country were strong enough to begin to make a stand against the evil. People were no longer thought inhospitable when they did not offer liquor to their guests. The better class of citizens stopped keeping it in their houses. An occasional farmer, more intelligent and having higher principles than his neighbours, refused to give his harvesters whiskey. Complaints were loud at first, but they soon died away. The work was found to be better and more quickly done; others followed so good an example. Slowly public sentiment turned against drunkenness; it began to be regarded as a disgrace to a man to be found drunk.

The temperance societies which sprang up throughout the country played an important part in bringing about this salutary change in the public life. There were several of these; they differed in detail, but worked toward a common end. Branches were organised in the country districts as well as in the towns. The interest of the young folk was enlisted and a campaign against drinking begun.

The Good Templars, one of these societies, held its meetings once a month, in the village or country church or school. The chairman called the meeting to order; the secretary read the minutes. When the business meeting was over, a programme was presented. Songs, dialogues, readings were given and temperance plays were acted by the members. It was the preparation of these programmes which the young people enjoyed most. This involved executive meetings; "practices" of the music, dialogues and plays at one farmhouse or another

There was much consultation about this and that; much driving to and fro. The temperance societies brought a new quality into rural and village life. The young people had something interesting to do; they found they could have a good time without drinking; the evil lessened rapidly.

A FIRE IN TORONTO

1836

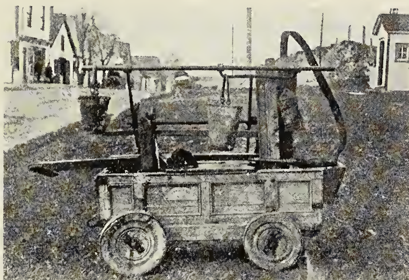
By Mrs. Jameson

The monotony of this, my most monotonous existence, was fearfully broken last night. I had gone early to my room, and had just rung for my maid, when I was aware of a strange light flashing through the atmosphere—a fire was raging in the lower part of the city. I looked out; there was a full moon, brighter than ever she shows her face in our dear, cloudy England. On the other side of the heavens all was terror and tumult—clouds of smoke, mingled with spires of flame, rose into the sky. Far off the garrison was beating to arms—the bells tolling; yet all around there was not a living thing to be seen, and the snow waste was still as death.

Fires are not uncommon in Toronto, where the houses are mostly of wood; they have generally an alarm once or twice a week, and six or eight houses burned in the course of the winter; but it was evident that this was of more fearful extent than usual. Finding that all the household had gone off to the scene of action, I prepared to follow. The fire was in the principal street (King Street), and five houses were burning together. I made my way through the snow-heaped, deserted streets, and into a kind of court or garden at the back of the blazing houses. There was a vast and motley pile of household stuff in the midst, and a poor woman keeping guard over it, nearly up to her knees in the snow. I stood on the top of a bedstead, leaning on her shoulder, till the whole row of buildings had fallen in. The Irishmen (God bless my countrymen!) risked their lives

most bravely. I was myself so near, and the flames so tremendous, that one side of my face was scorched and blistered.

"But this is dreadful!" I remember saying to the woman, "to stand by and look on while one's home and property are destroyed!" And she replied quietly, "Yes, ma'am; but I dare say some good will come of it. All is for the best if one but knew it; and now Jemmy's safe, I don't care for the rest." Now Jemmy was not her son, as I found, but a poor little orphan of whom she took charge.



By courtesy of the Hon. A. C. Rutherford

FIRE ENGINE

Said to have been presented by King George to Shelburne in very early days.

A PIONEER LETTER

BLANDFORD, UPPER CANADA,
September 20, 1835.

DEAR BROTHER AND SISTER,

This comes with our love to you, hoping it will find you all well, as, thank God, it leaves us all. Cornelius has still a wound in his leg, but he is a great deal better. We all like Canada very much, it is a pleasant country, particularly Blandford. There is a many settled round here, most English.

We had a good passage over and reached here June 21. We were all put up in the Squire's barn while our houses were

building. Our houses were built with round trees laid one on the other, with a few boards for the roof, without any door or window or fireplace. We had to do the rest as we could. Our land was full of large high trees. We were in the barn just one month, and some were longer.

William and John went out the next day to get some work and got work for all. We get six shillings three pence a day, English money. We were glad to begin work as we had but three sovereigns. We soon earned some money and then we all went to work at our house and land. We have a new brick chimney and oven, two pairs of sashes, a front door and a back, and a good roof shingled. We have cleared our five acres of land.

I have got four cows and four calves that I am raising up; I have four sows and twenty young hogs. There are plenty of beech nuts, we are hoping they will be good pork without any more fatting. We have about one hundred fowls, little and big, besides geese and turkeys. We sell none but eat them all, for they are very cheap here. Your sister is making twenty pounds of butter a week. We have a good garden, plenty of potatoes, and we have all sorts of vegetables; cucumbers and melons grow on the ground the same as cabbages. Our cows and hogs cost nothing in the summer, they run in the woods and keep themselves. I only wish you had been here to see your sister and the girls making sugar in the woods, sometimes up to their knees in snow, but they made one hundred and fifty pounds of sugar and sixty pounds of treacle. Your sister has learnt to make her own soap and candles. So I must conclude with all our loves to you, and all your family.

CORNELIUS AND ELIZABETH VOICE.

Provincial Archives, Victoria

DRAWING OUT TREE STUMPS WITH CATTLE

SOCIETY AT PETERBOROUGH

1839

By the Wife of an Immigrant Officer

We have experienced some attention and hospitality from several of the residents of Peterborough. There is a very genteel society, chiefly composed of officers and their families, besides the professional men and storekeepers. Many of the latter are persons of respectable family and good education. Though a store is, in fact, nothing better than what we should call in the country towns at home a "general shop," yet the storekeeper in Canada holds a very different rank from the shopkeeper of the English village. The storekeepers are the merchants and bankers of the places in which they reside. Almost all money matters are transacted by them, and they are often men of landed property besides, and not unfrequently fill the situations of magistrates, commissioners, and even members of the provincial parliament.

As they maintain a rank in society which entitles them to equality with the aristocracy of the country, you must not be surprised when I tell you that it is no uncommon circumstance

to see the sons of naval and military officers and clergymen standing behind a counter, or wielding an axe in the woods with their fathers' choppers. Nor do they lose their grade in society by such employment. After all it is education and manners that most distinguish the gentleman in this country, seeing that the labouring man, if he is diligent and industrious, may soon become his equal in point of worldly possessions.

THOMAS CHANDLER HALIBURTON

1796–1865

Joseph Howe's fame as a writer was surpassed by that of his friend "Tom," Thomas Chandler Haliburton. Haliburton was the only son of the Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas. At the Windsor Grammar School, and afterwards at King's College, he received what is called a sound classical education. As his father's son he was born into the most aristocratic society of the exclusive little university town. With his handsome person and fine mind he seemed to have the world at his feet. Like Howe he turned early to thoughts of public service. He chose the law as his profession, and after being called to the Bar practised in Annapolis. Like Howe, too, he was elected to the Legislature while still a young man. He was a Tory, a conscientious and effective one, who inaugurated more than one important movement towards freedom. He soon wearied of the political battle, however, and turned back to literature.

He was made a judge, and travelling about the country on circuit, he gathered the ideas, characters and incidents for his famous book, *Sam Slick, the Clockmaker*. In the story Sam is a shrewd Yankee pedlar who wanders about Nova Scotia selling clocks and other small wares to the people. He meets the judge and tells him many amusing stories about his customers. Sam says that Nova Scotia is a rich and "privileged" province, but that the people are too lazy and ignorant to make the best of

their inheritance. In this way Haliburton, while writing very entertainingly, tries to rouse the inhabitants to shake off their easy-going ways and begin to develop the resources of their land.

Sam Slick became famous at once. It was recognised abroad as being an entirely new and non-European type of literature. Haliburton had invented the "Yankee" of literature and the stage; the type of humorous story which has ever since been distinguished as "American." He wrote several other books describing the further doings of Sam, but none of them is quite so good as the first one.

A CURE FOR SMUGGLING

By Thomas Haliburton

"Wherever *natur' does least, man does most,*" said the Clockmaker. "Jist see the difference atween these folks here to Liverpool and them up the Bay of Fundy. There natur' has given them the finest country in the world—she has taken away all the soil from this place, and chucked it out there, and left nothin' but rocks and stones here. There they jist vegetate, but they go ahead like anything here. I was credibly informed, when Liverpool was first settled, folks had to carry little light ladders on their shoulders to climb over the rocks, and now they've got better streets, better houses, better gardens, and a better town than any of the baymen. They carry on a considerable of a fishery here, and do a great stroke in the timber business.

"I shall never forget a talk I had with Ichabod Gates here, and a frolic him and me had with the tide-waiter. Ichabod had a large store o' goods, and I was in there one evenin' a-drinkin' tea along with him, and we got a-talkin' about smugglin'. Says he, 'Mr. Slick, your people ruin the trade here, they *do* smuggle so; I don't know as I ever shall be able to get rid of my stock of goods, and it cost me a considerable of a sum too. What a pity it is them navy people, instead of carryin' freights

of money from the West Indgies, warn't employed more a-protectin' of our fisheries and our trade.' 'Why don't you smuggle then, too,' says I, 'and meet 'em in their own way? —tit for tat—diamond cut diamond—smuggle yourselves and seize *them*;—free trade and sailor's rights is our maxim.' 'Why,' says he, 'I ain't jist altogether certified that it's right; it goes agin my conscience to do the like o' that 'are, and I must say I like a fair deal. In a gineral way a'most, I've observed what's got over the devil's back is commonly lost onder his belly. It don't seem to wear well.' 'Well, that's onconvenient too, to be so thin-skinned,' said I; 'for conscience most commonly has a hide as thick as the sole of one's foot; you may cover it with leather to make it look decent-like, but it will bear a considerable hard scrubbin' without anythin' over it. Now,' says I, 'I will put you on a track that will sarve you without bringin' corns on your conscience nuther. Do you jist pretend to smuggle and make believe as if you were a-goin' the whole hog in it. It's safer and full out as profitable as the raal thing, and, besides, there's no sort o' risk in it in the world. When folks hear a thing is smuggled they always think it's cheap, and never look into the price; they bite directly—it's a grand bait that. Now always onload your vessels at night, and let folks hear a cart a-goin' into your place atween two and three o'clock in the mornin'; fix one o' the axles so it will squeak like a pig, and do you look suspicious, mysterious, and oneasy. Says you (when a chap says, I guess you were up late last night), ax me no questions, and I'll tell you no lies. There are so many pimpin' eyes about now, a body has to be cautious if he don't want to get into the centre of a hobble. If I'm up late, I guess it's nobody's business but my own I'm about anyhow; but I hope you won't make no remarks about what you see'd or heerd.

"'Well, when a feller axes arter a thing, do you jist stand and look at him for a space without sayin' a word, inquirin' like, with a dubersum look, as if you didn't know as you could trust him or no; then jist wink, put your finger on your nose, and say mum is the word. Take a candle and light it, and say, foller me now, and take him into the cellar. Now, says you, friend, don't betray me, I beseech you, for your life; don't

let on to anyone about this place; people will never think o' suspectin' me, if you only keep dark about it. I'll let you see some things, says you, that will please you, I know; but don't blow me—that's a good soul. This article, says you, a-takin' up one that cost three pounds, I can afford to let you have as low as five pounds, and that one as cheap as six pounds, on one condition—but, mind you, it's on them tarms only—and that is, that you don't tell anyone, not even your wife, where you got it; but you must promise me on the word and honour of a man. The critter will fall right into the trap, and swear by all that's good he'll never breathe it to a livin' soul, and then go right off and tell his wife; and you might as well pour a thing into a filterin' stone as into a woman's ear. It will run right thro', and she'll go a-braggin' to her neighbours of the bargain they got, and swear them to secrecy, and they'll tell the whole country in the same way, as a secret, of the cheap things Ichabod Gates has. Well, the excise folks will soon hear o' this, and come and sarch your house from top to bottom, and the sarch will make your fortin; for, as they can't find nothin', you will get the credit of doin' the officers in great style.'

" 'Well, well,' said Ichabod, 'if you Yankees don't beat all natur'. I don't believe on my soul there's a critter in all Nova Scotia would 'a thought o' such a scheme as that; but it's a grand joke, and comports with conscience, for it paralls pretty close with the truth: I'll try it.' 'Try it, 'says I, 'to be sure; let's go right off this blessed night and hide away a parcel of your goods in the cellar—put some in the garrat and some in the gig-house. Begin and sell to-morrow, and all the time I'm in Liverpool I'll keep a-runnin' in and out o' your house; sometimes I'll jist come to the corner of the fence, put my head over and draw it back agin, as if I didn't want folks to see me, and sometimes I'll make as if I was a-goin' out, and if I see anyone a-comin' I'll spring back and hide behind the door: it will set the whole town on the lookout—and they'll say it's me that's a-smugglin' either on my own hook or yourn.' In three days he had a great run o' custom, particularly arter nightfall. It was fun alive to see how the critters were bammed by that hoax.

"On the fifth day the tide-waiter came. 'Mr. Slick,' says he, 'I've information th——' 'Glad to hear it,' says I; 'an officer without information would be a poor tool—that's a fact.' Well, it brought him up all a-standin'. Says he, 'Do you know who you are a-talkin' to?' 'Yes,' says I, 'I guess I do; I'm talkin' to a man of information, and that bein' the case, I'll be so bold as to ax you one question—have you anything to say to me, for I'm in a considerable of a hurry?' 'Yes, 'said he, 'I have. I'm informed you have smuggled goods in the house.' 'Well, then,' says I, 'you can say what many gals can't boast on, at any rate.' 'What's that?' says he. 'Why,' says I, 'that you are *miss*-informed.'

Dominion Archives

THOMAS CHANDLER HALIBURTON

"'Mr. Gates,' said he, 'give me a candle—I must go to the cellar.' 'Sartainly, sir,' said Ichabod, 'you may sarch where you please. I've never smuggled yet, and I am not a-goin' now to commence at my time of life.' As soon as he got the candle, and was a-goin' down to the cellar with Gates, I called out to Ichabod. 'Here,' says I, 'Ich, run quick, for your life—now's your time'; and off we ran upstairs as hard as we could leg it, and locked the door; the sarcher heerin' that, up too and arter us hot-foot, and bust open it. As soon as we heerd him a-doin' of that, we out o' the other door and locked that also, and down the back stairs to where we started from. It was some time afore he broke in the second door, and then he follered us down, lookin' like a proper fool. 'I'll pay you up for this,' said he to me. 'I hope so,' said I, 'and Ichabod too. A pretty time o' day this, when folks can tare and race over a decent man's house, and smash all afore him this way for nothin', ain't it? Them doors you broke all to pieces will come to sunthin', you may

depend; a joke is a joke, but that's no joke.' Arter that he took his time, searched the cellar, upper rooms, lower rooms, and garrat, and found nothin' to seize; he was all cut up, and amazin' vexed and put out. Says I: 'Friend, if you want to catch a weasel, you must catch him asleep; now, if you want to catch me a-smugglin', rise considerably airly in the mornin', will you?' This story made Ichabod's fortin a'most; he had smuggled goods to sell for three years, and yet no one could find him in the act, or tell where onder the sun he had hid 'em away to. At last the secret leaked out, and it fairly broke up smugglin' on the whole shore. That story has done more nor twenty officers—that's a fact."

THE FIRST TRAIN IN CANADA

Margaret Doyle was a little girl whose parents came from Ireland to live in Nova Scotia about 1830. The story does not tell what happened to her parents: but Margaret was soon afterwards adopted by Patrick Kerwin. It was through him that she came to be the first child who ever rode on a train in Canada.

When the Albion coal mines in Pictou County were first opened, the coal was hauled on carts to the loading ground where vessels waited to take it aboard. It was a long haul and the roads were bad, so the directors arranged to bring an "iron horse" from England to do the work. In 1836 they began building the track, and the next year the rolling-stock was brought over in a sailing vessel. In this vessel there were the several parts of three engines, the names of which were the Samson, the Hercules, and the Hibernia. The Samson was named for Scotland, the Hercules for England, the Hibernia for Ireland.

The Samson was the first one set up, and the one that made the first trip. David Floyd was the fireman, George Davidson the engineer, and Patrick Kerwin the conductor. As the match was applied, all gazed at the snorting "iron horse." Among the rest stood little Margaret, the conductor's adopted daughter.

Waldron, New Glasgow

FIRST ENGINE USED IN NEW GLASGOW

That was the day the engine first moved in Canada (some say in America). On the following day it was to make its trial trip to the loading ground. Before it started the conductor ran into the crowd and seizing his little girl carried her into the car, saying, "We will give Margaret the honour of taking the first ride on the road." They went down to New Glasgow and back and proved the Samson worthy of the name.

The next day was one of the great days in Pictou County. The train was to be run free to the loading ground. People came from all parts of the province. Many were invited. Thousands came to see the sights, chief among which was the steam engine which could haul thousands of pounds. All that could took advantage of the free trip. On their return a great dinner and a public entertainment were provided for them. A large brick oven was erected near where the electric-car barns now stand, and the carcass of a large fat ox, well stuffed like a turkey, without a bone of him being broken, was roasted in this oven. The ox, while roasting, was suspended by the feet and men kept turning him constantly on a swivel so that all parts should be well cooked. Barrels of butter were melted, and used with drippings for basting. To pour the basting on the ox, two men had to climb ladders on either side and use long-handled ladles

prepared for the occasion. When cooked the ox was rolled out on a large table, carved, and served free to the invited guests and then to the general multitude. Also many of the farmers brought cooked food and meats to assist the company in making this great day in Pictou County a marked success.

In the evening there was an immense ball in the tavern that then stood near the place where the Anglican Church now stands. There, as well as at the dinner, the ladies, dressed in their best silks and satins and the latest styles of the day, vied with each other in making the day ever memorable.

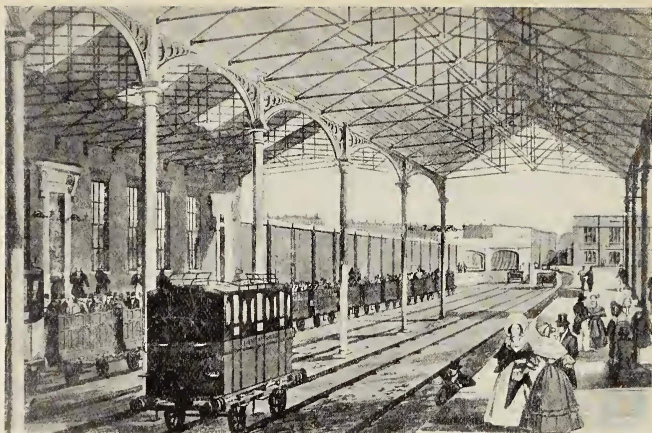
THE FIRST RAILWAY

1836

SOON after Canada began to improve her waterways, the question of railways came to the front, and long before she had completed her canal system, she found it partly superseded by the railways in the building of which she became deeply involved. As early as 1824 the Montreal *Gazette* stated that it preferred railways to canals, and advocated the building of a railway from the St. Lawrence to Lake Champlain, which would give Canada direct connection with New York. Some people thought that this might prove to be a dangerous connection in time of war; but it was pointed out, on the other hand, that it would be a simple matter to pull up the rails.

By 1830 all Lower Canada was discussing the Champlain and St. Lawrence railway. Many suggestions which seem to us now very amusing were offered. A wooden railway along which the cars would be drawn by horses was proposed. Someone advised that, to overcome the difficulty of deep snow, the railway should be elevated two feet above the ground and built in the direction of the prevailing winds. Ten or twelve miles an hour was considered "unparalleled speed."

The charter provided that the maximum rate for freight over the sixteen miles of road should be 7s. 5d. per ton; for



Canadian Pacific Railway

EUSTON STATION, LONDON, ENGLAND, IN 1837, SHOWING OPEN CARRIAGES THEN IN USE

passengers, 2s. 4d. each. The maximum rate was to be charged until the railway was in a position to pay a twelve per cent. dividend; after that it was to be reduced. It was arranged that the province, if the people so desired, should be allowed to buy the railway.

The charter stipulated that the road should be completed within three years; as a matter of fact it was three years before construction was begun, and it was not until 1836 that it was opened for traffic. It was built on a gauge of five feet six inches. The rails were of wood with flat bars of iron spiked on top. The first train was made up of four cars drawn by horses. Steam locomotives were introduced the next year, and, ten years later, the wooden rails were replaced by iron ones.

In 1828 New Brunswick began to discuss a railway to connect St. Andrews and Quebec. This necessitated a long road, and years of discussion followed. Such a railway would give Upper and Lower Canada a winter port, would hasten the settlement of the intermediate country, and increase the value of all the farms along the route by bringing them nearer to

market. For political reasons, also, it was felt that it would be wise to so connect the British provinces in America. A survey was made in 1836, the surveyors reporting that the line would be about three hundred miles long and cost a million pounds. Nothing daunted, a company was formed, and £10,000 was granted by Britain to aid in surveying the line. New Brunswick was enthusiastic, Nova Scotia and Quebec keenly interested, but the project halted. It really was too big an undertaking for the times; the line fell within territory which, at that time, the United States claimed. Nothing could be done until the boundary line was finally settled; so the matter rested.

In the meantime the population of Upper Canada was increasing rapidly. In 1831–32 more than a hundred thousand settlers landed in Quebec, most of them bound for the Upper Country. The Coburg Railway, the first in Upper Canada, was chartered in 1832. Anxious to open up the rich lands between Lake Ontario and Lake Huron, the Legislature granted charters to several railway companies planning almost parallel lines. Luckily, the charters were only on paper. The people had very little money and funds were not forthcoming to begin any of the lines. The rebellions interrupted business, immigration lessened, and the "hard times" which began in 1837 kept railway building at a standstill for a time.

After the Union of 1840 it was hoped that railway building would go forward again. Upper Canada believed that the Great Western line, proposed to connect London with Lake Ontario, would capture the traffic of the North-Western States; but Lower Canada objected to the heavy debt involved. Canadian trade suffered severely when Britain abolished her tariff, which had been arranged to favour the colonies. Conditions grew worse and worse. In 1848 people talked of repudiating debts. Railway construction proceeded slowly during the forties.

CANADIAN SPORTING

1833

By a Backwoodsman

In hunting the bear take all the curs in the village along with you. Game dogs are useless for this purpose; for, unless properly trained, they fly at the throat, and get torn to pieces or hugged to death for their pains. The curs yelp after him, bite his rump, and make him tree, where he can be shot. The bear of Canada is seldom dangerous.

When once a bear has killed one of your pigs, if you do not manage to kill the bear, you will never keep a pig for long; for they will come back till they have taken the last of them—they will even invade the sacred precincts of the hog-sty. An Irishman in the Newcastle district once caught a bear dragging a hog over the walls of the pen. Pat, instead of assailing the bear, thought only of securing his property; so he jumped into the sty and seized the pig by the tail. Bruin having hold of the ears, they had a dead pull for possession, till the whillilooing of Pat joined to the plaintive notes of the pig brought a neighbour to his assistance, who decided the contest in Pat's favour by knocking the bear on the head.

THE STORY OF ROBERT GOURLAY

During the first twenty years after settling in Upper Canada, the pioneers were too busy building homes and making a living to pay much attention to the affairs of the country. When the first rough work was done, the war of 1812–14 over, and the people had time to look about them, they were dismayed to find the government of the Province almost wholly in the hands of the Lieutenant-Governor and his Councils. The Lieutenant-

Governor was appointed by the King, to whom alone he was responsible for his acts; the members of the Councils were chosen by the Lieutenant-Governor and were responsible only to him. The people had no control over these gentlemen. They neither appointed them nor paid their salaries; they could not dismiss one of them no matter how badly he behaved.

Being safe from all attack, the councillors soon formed a small, close group, helping each other to secure and hold all the important offices in the Province. As soon as a position became vacant, they made haste to give it to one of their friends. When public lands were granted, the associates of the councillors secured the lion's share. When public money was to be expended, the councillors gave the contracts. These men were not really related, but they stood so strongly together that the people nicknamed them "The Family Compact."

Mrs. Jameson, who visited Toronto in the thirties, says, "Toronto is like a fourth- or fifth-rate provincial town. We have a petty oligarchy, a self-constituted aristocracy based upon nothing real. There reigns here a hateful factious spirit in politics. For the present there is no public or patriotic feeling. Canada is a colony, not a country; their love, their pride is not for poor Canada but for high and happy England."

The people were represented by the Assembly, whose members they elected. The electors expected the Assembly to make the laws, the Governor and his Councils to see that they were enforced. As matters stood, if the Governor and his Councils did not like a law which the Assembly had passed, they simply threw it out. Being uncontrolled, no one could tell how much harm they might do. Indeed, they soon showed that they would stop at nothing to preserve their power.

The Family Compact had ruled ten years almost unopposed when, in 1817, Robert Gourlay came to Canada. He was a young Scotsman, well born and well educated, a graduate of the University of St. Andrews. When he was thirty-seven he lost his money, and he came to Canada hoping to rebuild his fortunes. Here he set up in business as a land agent. He had studied the conditions of the poor in Britain, and believed that the best way to relieve their suffering was to bring them to

Canada, where there was employment for all. He began to work out a plan for systematic emigration from Britain to Canada.

In connection with his scheme Gourlay sent about the Province a circular letter containing thirty-one questions. He thought of nothing but getting information which would help him in his work. The last question on the list was: "What in your opinion retards the improvement of your township in particular, and the Province in general, and what would most contribute to the same?"

In answering this question the people showed themselves thoroughly dissatisfied with the way in which the public lands had been granted. In every township two-sevenths of the land had been reserved for the Crown and the clergy, while large blocks of the remainder had been given to speculators. The settlements were divided one from the other by these wild lands. The population was so scattered that it was difficult to build the roads, schools and churches that were needed. Moreover, these vacant lands were not taxed; the actual settlers had to pay all the taxes.

Gourlay was an impulsive fellow. Roused by what he had learned, he attacked the Government in speech and in the press. He said and wrote many bitter and violent things about the different members of the Family Compact. In 1818 he called together at York a convention of farmers that they might discuss their grievances. The convention was a great success, and Gourlay became the hero of the hour. A petition was drawn up and forwarded to the Crown; it complained of several abuses in the management of the country, and begged that a Royal Commission should be sent out to investigate the affairs of Upper Canada.

These proceedings greatly incensed the Family Compact, and the Government prepared to prosecute Gourlay for libel. He was tried at Kingston and, of course, acquitted; no jury in the Province would have convicted him.

Six months later Gourlay was again taken. This time he was charged with sedition and a violation of the Alien Act. He was not an alien; everyone knew he was a loyal British subject. But he was brought before Dickson and Claus, two members

of the Council, who went to the length of using perjured evidence to convict him. He was sentenced to leave the Province within ten days.

To leave would have meant business ruin, so he remained where he was. At the end of the ten days he was arrested and cast into gaol, where he was detained until the following August. The long months of confinement affected his mind. He appeared at the trial white and thin, seeming to be only partly conscious of what was going on. It was pitiful to see him, yet the Family Compact knew no mercy. John Beverley Robinson, who had personal reasons for hating Gourlay, prosecuted him, and he was sentenced to leave Canada within twenty-four hours on pain of death without benefit of clergy. The injustice of the affair was evident to everyone. The whole Province knew that the Government had entered into a conspiracy, had tampered with the law, in order to ruin an innocent man. So shameful a proceeding has seldom been heard of in Canada.

Gourlay went to the United States and later to Britain. He recovered his health and his mind, and wrote a very useful book containing much information about Upper Canada. After Upper and Lower Canada had united, Gourlay's case came up in the Union Parliament, and his arrest and sentence were declared "illegal, unconstitutional, and without possibility of excuse or palliation." When an old man he returned to Canada to live; a pension was granted him, but he never drew it.

ISABELLA VALANCY CRAWFORD

Isabella Valancy Crawford was one of the first Canadian women to write really fine poetry. She was born in Dublin, Ireland, but came to Canada with her parents when she was eight. Her father, who was a doctor, settled at Paisley. Her life was a sad and hard one. The family was not suited to pioneer life; her father and nine of her brothers and sisters died. Isabella and her mother moved to Toronto, where for ten years Isabella earned a living by writing. She died in 1887 when only thirty-seven.

The Pioneer

The mighty Morn strode laughing up the land,
And Max, the lab'rer and the lover, stood
Within the forest's edge beside a tree—
The mossy king of all the woody tribes—
Whose clattering branches rattled, shuddering,
As the bright axe cleaved moon-like through the air,
Waking strange thunders, rousing echoes linked,
From the full lion-throated roar to sighs
Stealing on dove-wings through the distant aisles.
Swift fell the axe, swift followed roar on roar,
Till the bare woodland bellowed in its rage
As the first-slain slow toppled to his fall.
"O King of Desolation, art thou dead?"
Cried Max, and laughing heart and lips, leaped on
The vast prone trunk. "And have I slain a king?
Above his ashes will I build my house;
No slave beneath its pillars, but—a king."
Soon the great heaps of brush were builded high,
And, like a victor, Max made pause to clear
His battlefield high strewn with tangled dead.
Then roared the crackling mountains, and their fires
Met in high heaven, clasping flame with flame;
The thin winds swept a cosmos of red sparks
Across the bleak midnight sky; and the sun
Walked pale behind the resinous black smoke.

THE story of the Reformers of Upper Canada is an interesting one because it shows how a great idea grows. Someone thinks of it vaguely or thinks of part of it; he talks about it. Then other people think and talk about it, adding little ideas till the great one stands forth clear and useful. The great idea which was worked out in the quarrels between the Family Compact and the Reformers in Upper and Lower Canada was that the Government of a colony may be made responsible to the people of the colony without giving up its allegiance to the Mother Country.

For years the Government of Great Britain had been a "responsible one"; that is, the King chose the Cabinet members from the party which had a majority in the House of Commons. If, at the next election, the people elected a majority of another party, the King dismissed all the old Cabinet Ministers and chose new ones from the new party in power. Ministers had to be very careful what they did, for if they displeased the people they were promptly dismissed from their positions.

In Canada the difficulty was that the Lieutenant-Governor was appointed by the King and felt himself responsible for his acts only to the British Government. He did not choose his Executive Councillors (his Cabinet Ministers) from the party having a majority in the House of Assembly; he chose whomsoever he wished. As these men were not elected by the people and could not be displaced by the people, they did as they wished without caring whether it pleased the people or not. The people of Canada said, "Make our Cabinet Ministers responsible to us instead of to the British Government." The British Government said, "If the ministers of a colony are not responsible to the Mother Country, the colony will separate from the Mother Country." The question was, How were the ministers to be made responsible to the people of Canada and to the British Government at the same time? A man cannot serve two masters. It was largely because they did not know the answer to this question that the United States broke away

from Britain. Finding the answer to it has made possible the British Empire of to-day. This very great idea, one of the greatest in the world, was thought out here in Canada. It seems simple enough now that we know how to handle the situation, but it was very puzzling then. It took a great deal of thinking, talking, arguing, quarrelling, and a little fighting; in the end our fathers found out the answer to the question. You are eager to know the answer, but first you must hear the story of the Reformers.

THE REFORMERS OF UPPER CANADA

At first the Assembly submitted tamely enough to the dominance of the Lieutenant-Governor and his Councils. Then, as the irresponsible councillors grew bolder, seizing offices, granting wild lands unwisely, there were protests. The affair of Robert Gourlay showed just how autocratic the Family Compact had become; it made a great stir in the Province. When the Government asked for money to pay the bills, the Reformers persuaded the House to appoint a committee to investigate the state of the Province first. The committee brought forward so many grievances that to prevent worse the Governor prorogued the House. In 1818 there was another deadlock over the money, and again the Government prorogued the House. In 1821 the Compact succeeded in having Barnabus Bidwell, a friend of Gourlay's, expelled from the House. The people of Lennox and Addington promptly elected his son who was, however, kept out of his seat for two years.

As the Family Compact became more arbitrary the Reformers became stronger; each year the contest between the two parties became more equal. Lady Sarah Maitland, wife of the Lieutenant-Governor, reigned queen of Toronto society. But Lady Mary, wife of Judge Willis, was also the daughter of an earl and felt herself entitled to equal deference; the two ladies ceased to be friends and Judge Willis joined the Reformers. Personal grievances brought in some; the dawn of the new ideas attracted others. The Parliament of 1825 included such

men as Marshall Spring Bidwell, Peter Perry, John Rolph and John Matthews. Dr. Baldwin had been in the previous Parliament but was not elected to this one. Each of these men was to make his contribution to the growth of the great idea.

Outstanding among the Reformers was William Lyon Mackenzie, a young Scotsman who had come to Canada in 1820 and started a newspaper. Mackenzie was a small man with a large head and very bright blue eyes which attracted everyone. He was a hot-tempered little man, clever, brave and honest. No one worked more eagerly for the establishment of popular government in Upper Canada than Mackenzie; but he was rash in action and he had a bitter tongue which inflamed his enemies and sometimes alienated his friends. He seems to have had a kind of genius for stirring up trouble. When only a little boy, having been punished by his mother as he thought unjustly, he gathered a group of boys round him and led them off to take possession of a ruined castle where they remained for two or three days.

Mackenzie had not long been settled in Canada before he began to attack the Family Compact. Not content with condemning their political principles, Mackenzie heaped personal abuse on outstanding officials and their families. Angered by this, a group of young men entered Mackenzie's office when he was out of town, upset his type and threw parts of his printing press into the lake. It was a foolish thing to do, for it made all the people sympathise with Mackenzie. He had been on the verge of bankruptcy, but he brought suit for damages and got £625, which enabled him to carry on the paper for a long time.

At last, in 1828, the Reformers secured a majority in the Assembly. Sir John Colborne, the new Lieutenant-Governor, seemed inclined to favour them and everyone expected great things. But they frittered away their time, attacking this and that abuse without accomplishing much. The truth was they had no plan of reform ready. The new ideas were only beginning to be thought of; the Reformers had hardly advanced beyond the point of realising that the ministers *should* be responsible to the people in a colony as well as in the Mother Country. They had scarcely begun to think of how they were to be made

responsible. As the Reform Party accomplished little, the people did not give them a majority at the election of 1830.

The new Assembly was strongly Tory. The British Government now gave to the Assemblies in Upper and Lower Canada control of most of the revenues, asking in return that the Assemblies should vote a certain set sum which would be available each year to pay the "Civil List,"—that is, the salaries of Government officials and clerks. By passing a Bill which provided a permanent supply of money for the upkeep of the Government, the Reformers saw that the Assembly would relinquish its strongest hold over the Councils. The Lower Canadian Assembly refused to pass such a Bill. In Upper Canada the Reformers called it the "Everlasting Salaries Bill" and tried to block it, but it passed.

Finding Mackenzie and his paper more and more troublesome, this Tory Assembly expelled him for having published the journals of the House without the appendices, an absurd reason. He was re-nominated for his home county of York, and at the by-election his opponent received just one vote. Mackenzie was escorted to the poll in procession, and afterwards presented with a gold medal and chain. He was expelled a second time and a second time was re-elected. He now went to England, where he was received by Lord Goderich, the Colonial Secretary, and permitted to explain the grievances of the people of Upper Canada. Goderich afterwards wrote to the Lieutenant-Governor saying that Britain was willing to redress these grievances.

When the Family Compact heard that Mackenzie had been received in London, they were furious. He was again expelled from the House and again elected. This time his friends went down to the Assembly Hall with him, crowding the galleries. They made so much noise that the Speaker ordered the galleries cleared. The sergeant-at-arms asked Mackenzie to leave the floor of the House. Mackenzie refused. The officer seized him by the collar and dragged him toward the door. At that moment his friends burst in and a general struggle ensued. Five times in all was Mackenzie expelled and re-elected.

By this time the fiery-tongued little man was the hero of

the people. He held meetings, addressed audiences, wrote in his paper, talked, argued, and abused the officials. Other Reformers may have contributed more toward the growth of the new ideas, but Mackenzie spread them abroad through the Province. He roused the people and made them feel that they must make a stand for their liberties. The exciting things which happened to him were useful because they helped him to spread the new ideas. When Toronto was incorporated in 1834 he was chosen as its first mayor. He organised the system of municipal government, introduced sidewalks, and behaved heroically in an epidemic of cholera which fell upon the city.

The Reformers had a majority in the Assembly of 1835, and Mackenzie was made chairman of a committee instructed to report upon the grievances of the people. The committee published a very long report of which they sent copies to the Members of Parliament in England. The report asked that the Legislative Council should be elected by the people as the Assembly was. This suggested a way in which at least part of the Government could be made responsible to the people. The new ideas were growing.

In 1836 the British Government sent out a new Governor, Sir Francis Bond Head, with instructions to conciliate the Reformers. Head was himself a strong Tory, but he chose three leading Reformers, Baldwin, Rolph and Dunn, as members of the Executive Council. The people felt that now at last their representatives had been admitted to power. But the Lieutenant-Governor soon undeceived everyone. He had appointed a Reformed Council, but he consulted them only when he felt like it; much of the time he acted quite alone. When the Council protested, the Lieutenant-Governor explained that he was responsible to the British Government; while they were responsible to the people of Canada, he could not ask their advice because if he did he would be trying to serve two masters. The Canadian people might wish him to do something which the British Government had forbidden him to do.

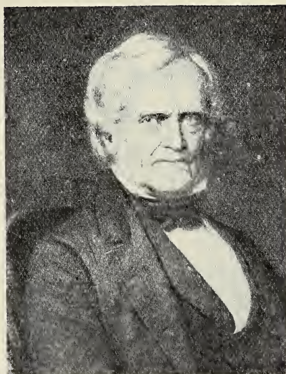
This seemed worse and worse. The Executive Council resigned in a body; Sir Francis appointed a new one. When the House protested, he first prorogued and then dissolved it. He

entered eagerly into the election of 1836, doing his best to make the people think that the Reformers were disloyal to Britain.

The Reformers for their part organised a Constitutional Reform Society which demanded that the Legislative Council should be elected by the people; that the Executive Council should be responsible to the people; and that the whole of the Provincial revenue should be placed under the control of the Assembly. At last the Reformers had a definite platform; the new ideas had been worked out; the leaders of the people knew now exactly what they wanted. The election of 1836 was very bitterly contested, and the Tories won. When the demands of the Reformers were laid before the British Government they were refused. The Queen and her ministers felt that if so great a measure of responsibility were granted, Canada would very soon secede from the Empire.

Mackenzie and the extreme Reformers felt this refusal to be the last straw laid upon the burden of their grievances. They separated themselves from the Constitutional Society. Meetings were held. Men began arming and drilling in secret; arms were manufactured in blacksmiths' shops, ammunition was smuggled in from the United States. Mackenzie was the head and front of the movement. Most people knew what was going on; the Lieutenant-Governor was warned that Mackenzie meant mischief, but he refused to believe it or to take any precaution. He even sent the regular troops to Lower Canada to help the Government against the rebels there.

Mackenzie assembled his little army at Montgomery's Tavern on Yonge Street a few miles north of Toronto. Colonel Fitzgibbons who, almost in spite of Bond Head, collected some troops, soon scattered the rebels, many of whom did not really wish to fight. During several days there were skirmishings; then the men stole off to their homes; the leaders fled. Matthews and Lount were caught and hanged; Mackenzie escaped to the United States. It was a pitiful and an unfortunate affair, but it made the British Government realise that something must be done, and done at once.



WILLIAM LYON MACKENZIE
From the Makers of Canada Series, by permission of the Oxford University Press.

As the fight at Montgomery's Tavern drew to a close, Mackenzie realised that all hope of success for the rebels was over. He knew that a reward would be offered for his capture and he determined to escape if possible. The story of his flight has come down to us in his own words.

"Perceiving that we were not yet pursued, I passed on to Yonge Street, and the first farmer I met, being a friend, readily gave me his horse — a trusty, sure-footed creature, which that day did me good service. At the 'Golden Lion,' ten miles above the city (Toronto), I overtook Colonel Anthony Van Egmond. He agreed with me that we should at once make for the Niagara frontier, but he was taken almost immediately after by a party who had set out from Governor Head's camp to gain the rewards offered then and there.

"Finding myself closely pursued and repeatedly fired at, I left the high road with one friend and made for Shephard's Mills. The fleetest horsemen of the official party were so close upon us that I had only time to jump off my horse and ask the miller (a Tory) whether a large body of men, then on the heights, were friends or foes, before our pursuers were climbing up the steep bank almost beside me.

"When I overtook Colonel Lount, he had, I think, about ninety men with him, who were partly armed. We took some refreshment at a friendly farmer's near by. Lount was for dispersing. I proposed that we should keep in a body and make for the United States via the head of Lake Ontario, as our

enemies had the steamers; but only sixteen persons went with me. I had no other arms than a double-barrel pistol, taken from Captain Duggan during our Tuesday's scuffle, and we were all on foot. Some of my companions had no weapons at all.

"We made for Humber Bridge, through Vaughan, but found it strongly guarded; then went up the river a long way, got some supper at the house of a farmer, crossed the stream on a foot-bridge, and by two in the morning reached the hospitable mansion of a worthy settler on Dundas Street, utterly exhausted with cold and fatigue.

"Blankets were hung over the windows to avoid suspicion, food and beds prepared, and, while the Tories were carefully searching for us, we were sleeping soundly. Next morning, those who had arms buried them, and after sending to inquire whether a friend a mile below had been dangerously wounded, we agreed to separate and make for the frontier two and two together. Allan Wilcox, a lad in his nineteenth year, accompanied me, and such was my confidence in the honesty and friendship of the country folks, that I went undisguised, my only weapon at the time being Duggan's pistol, and that not loaded.

"We proceeded a long way west before danger approached. At length, however, we were hotly pursued by a party of mounted troops. I took the reins and pushed onward at full speed over a rough hard-frozen road without snow. Our pursuers gained on us. Sixteen-Mile Creek swells up at times into a rapid river; it was now swollen by the November rains. What was to be done? Young Wilcox and I jumped from the wagon, made toward the forest, asked a labourer to put our pursuers off the track, and were soon in the woods near the ravine in which flows the creek.

"There was but one chance for escape, surrounded as we were, and that was to stem the stream and cross the swollen creek. We stripped and with the surface ice beating against us, and holding our garments over our heads, in a bitterly cold December night, we buffeted the current and were soon up to our necks. I hit my foot against a stone, let fall some of my clothes (which my companion caught), and cried aloud with pain. The cold in that stream caused me the most cruel and

intense sensation of pain I ever endured, but we got through, though with a better chance for drowning, and the frozen sand on the bank seemed to warm our feet when we once more trod upon it. In an hour and a half we were under the hospitable roof of one of the innumerable friends I could then count in the country. I was given a supply of dry flannels, food, and an hour's rest.

"We crossed Dundas Street about eleven o'clock, and the Twelve-Mile Creek I think, on a fallen tree, about midnight. By four on Saturday morning we reached Wellington Square. Believing it safest, we went behind our friend's house to a thicket. As my companion was not known, and felt the chill of the water and the fatigue, he was strongly advised to seek shelter in a certain house not far off. He did so, reached the frontier safely, and continued for four months thereafter very ill.

Provincial Archives, Victoria

CROSSING A RIVER ON A FELLED TREE

"At dawn of day it began to snow, and, as I was leaving foot-marks behind me, I concluded to go to a farm near by. Its owner thought I would be quite safe in his barn, but I thought not. A pease-rick, which the pigs had undermined all round, stood on a high knoll, and this I chose for a hiding-place. For ten or twelve days I had slept, when I could get any sleep, in my clothes, and my limbs had become so swollen that I had to discard my boots and wear a pair of slippers; my feet were wet, I was very weary, and the cold and drift annoyed me greatly; breakfast I had had none. In due time Colonel McDonell, the high sheriff, and his posse stood before me. House, barns, cellars and garret were searched, and I the while quietly looking on.

"When the coast seemed clear, my terrified host came up the hill as if to feed his pigs. He brought me two bottles of hot water for my feet, a bottle of tea and several slices of bread and butter; told me that the neighbourhood was literally harassed

with bodies of armed men in search of me, and advised that I should leave the place at dark, but where to go he could not tell me."

Mr. Mackenzie, now accompanied by Mr. Chandler, walked toward the head of Lake Ontario. About dawn on Monday the 10th they reached Crowland, on the banks of the Niagara River. "On inquiry, Mr. Chandler found that all the boats on the river (except those at the ferries, which were well guarded) had been seized and taken possession of by the officers of the Government. There was but one exception. Captain M'Afee, of Bertie, who resided on the banks of the Niagara, opposite the head of Grand Island, was believed to have kept one of his boats locked up beside his carriages. About nine," says Mackenzie, "we reached his farm, one of the finest on the river. An excellent breakfast was prepared for us, but, before sitting down, I thought it safe to step out and see if the coast was clear. Well for me it was that I did so. Old Colonel Kerby and his dragoons were so close upon us that had I not then observed them they would have caught us at breakfast.

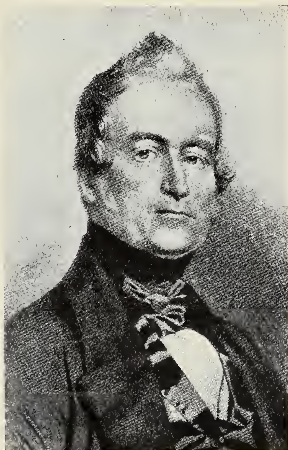
"Captain M'Afee lost not a moment. His boat was hauled across the road and launched with all possible speed. He and Chandler and I were scarcely afloat in it, and out a little way below the bank, when the old Tory Colonel and his green-coated troop of horse were parading in front of M'Afee's."

THE STRUGGLE IN LOWER CANADA

1837–38

As long as the war continued the French Canadians supported Montcalm, fighting loyally to save Canada. Peace being signed and the country ceded to Britain, the habitants returned quietly to their farms and villages. They were a gay and gentle people, contented, industrious. The treaty promised they should not be disturbed in their lands or their Church; this satisfied them. They began eagerly to till the neglected fields and build again the homes which the war had destroyed.

In 1774 Governor Carleton persuaded the British Parliament to pass the Quebec Act. This Act secured to the French Canadians not only their lands and their Church, but French civil law as well. It arranged that the Province should be governed by a Governor, and a Council which he should choose. As it was still considered "inexpedient to call an Assembly," the Governor and Council were to make the laws and to see that they were enforced. The Quebec Act pleased the French Canadians well enough. They were glad to have the use of French civil law, which they understood; and they did not care about electing an Assembly because they had never had a Parliament in the old days and knew little of the uses of one.



United States Publishers' Association

LOUIS JOSEPH PAPINEAU

On the whole things went smoothly enough until after the American Revolution, when the disbanded soldiers and United Empire Loyalists came to settle in Quebec. Then little by little trouble began to brew. The British immigrants settled chiefly in the towns. They were a small group compared with the French Canadians, but they were traders and merchants, professional men; they had money and education, and soon made their influence felt. These Britishers were accustomed to elect their own Parliament and manage their own affairs. They had not been long in the country when they petitioned the Crown for an Assembly. The French Canadians did not want an Assembly; they did not know much about one, but they knew they would have to pay for it.

The Constitutional Act of 1791 granted the Assembly. This Act erected Upper Canada into a separate province and gave it an Assembly; it was only fair, therefore, to give Lower

Canada one also. Quebec was divided into twenty-one counties which elected fifty members. The first election was held in 1792. The habitants now felt the interest and importance of it and entered into the campaign eagerly. Most of the members elected were very able men.

As in the other provinces, it soon appeared that the Assembly was expected not to think and act for the country, but to obey the Governor and his Councils. These gentlemen had been making and executing the laws for a number of years, and had no intention of giving up the privilege. The situation, serious enough in the other provinces, was complicated in Quebec by the fact that the Governor and his Councils were British, the Assembly French. Race-feeling, always a very heating and dangerous factor, promised to enter into all disputes.

The first trouble arose over the public lands. A group of capitalists planned to get control of large blocks of waste land for purposes of speculation. They promised two hundred acres to any poor man who would apply for a large grant and then hand it over to them. The people were very indignant when they learned of this, and there was a hot fight over it in the Council.

In 1805 a very simple matter caused a much more serious trouble. Gaols were to be built in Quebec and Montreal. Everyone agreed that the gaols were needed; they disagreed about the way in which they were to be paid for. The traders and merchants wished the money to be raised by a tax on the land; the farmers wanted a duty on imports. Now the traders were British, the farmers French; the two races placed themselves in opposite camps and trouble began, trouble which lasted long and carried far.

Each Assembly elected was more strongly French than the last, the Councils continued determinedly British, and the two fought for control of the country. Governor followed Governor, each one trying to make peace between the two parties. Sir James Craig upheld the Council, Sir George Prevost conciliated the Assembly; he invited the popular leaders to sit in the Council and begged the Assembly to co-operate in passing needed laws. The Lower House might have accepted this offer and worked slowly towards full control, but the

members would not; they went on quarrelling about the judges, the schools, and the control of the funds.

It was early seen that the way to make the Councils responsible to the people for their acts was to give the Assembly, whose members were elected by the people, control of the money. As long as the Councils had power over the funds they could pay the salaries of all the officials and govern as they pleased. At first the case of the Assembly was weakened by the fact that the people did not pay in taxes enough money to keep up the Government. The Imperial Government supplied a large sum each year. This money was under the direct control of the Governor and Councils, and though it was not enough to pay all the bills, it enabled the Councils to carry on government for a long time in spite of the Assembly. In 1808 the Assembly addressed the King, offering to pay all the expenses of the Government if the Crown would grant them control of expenditure; but the offer was not accepted.

During the war of 1812–14 many of the French Canadians fought bravely for Canada, and the feeling between the two races in Quebec became more friendly. Governor Sherbrooke, who came out in 1816, thought that the reason why the French Canadians were so bitter was that they had no confidence in the Councils. He made Louis Papineau, Speaker of the Assembly and a popular leader, a member of the Council. This was a beginning in making the Executive responsible to the people and was good as far as it went.

Meantime the Governor and Councils had been carrying on the Government with the money given by the Imperial Parliament. It was not enough to pay the bills, and the debt grew larger each year. When Lord Dalhousie came up from Nova Scotia in 1820 to be Governor of Lower Canada he was advised to ask the Assembly to vote a fixed sum of supply—that is, to pass an Act saying that a certain sum should be paid every year for the upkeep of the Government. This would have given the case into the hands of the Councils, and the Assembly resolutely refused to vote it. The Assembly would grant money, they gave more than they were asked to give, but they would give it for only one year at a time.

As the years went on the French Canadians became more and more impatient and angry. Louis Papineau, who was a great speaker, led them in their fight for responsible government. At first he behaved reasonably, but by and by he began to make bitter personal attacks upon his opponents. As he grew more angry, his speeches became more extravagant. He lost all faith in the British Government and came to think that annexation to the United States was the only hope for Quebec. He carried the people with him so far; at this point the tide began, very slowly, to turn against him. The priests and bishops had a very great influence over the people of Quebec, and they did not approve of a republic; they would not support a movement the object of which was to place their people under that form of government. In the end the opposition of the priests did much to bring about the downfall of Papineau.

Meantime, however, he and his followers went about the country holding meetings, talking angrily, and inflaming the minds of the people. In 1831 the British Government handed over to the Assembly control of all the provincial revenues, asking in return that the Assembly provide for the civil list during the life of the sovereign. The Assembly simply ignored the offer. Instead of a conciliating reply they forwarded to Britain "The Ninety-two Resolutions." This long paper contained some real grievances, but also much that was absurd.

By this time the Assembly party had divided. Nielson and the more moderate men wished to work for responsible government in quiet and constitutional ways. Papineau and the extremists were ready to fight for what they wanted. And fight they did in 1837. Had they made proper preparations and had the whole Province behind them, it might have been a great civil war. As it was there were a few small battles, a few men on both sides were killed and wounded, a good deal of property was destroyed, but the troops quickly put down the rebellion which never spread beyond the Montreal district. Papineau and most of the other leaders escaped to the United States, whence they made another raid upon Canada in the following year. It too failed and the rebellion was over.

LORD DURHAM

1839

THE news that Upper and Lower Canada were in revolt caused great alarm in Britain. Half a century had passed since the American Revolution, but it was still fresh in the minds of the British people; they did not want a repetition of that long and bitter struggle. The Government decided to send out to Canada a High Commissioner with power to govern in the meantime, and authority to investigate fully the causes of the late trouble with a view to suggesting a form of government which should suit the Provinces. The man chosen for this important position was John George Lambton, first Earl of Durham.

Lord Durham was the head of a very old family; Lambton Castle and the family estates came down to him in unbroken male succession from the twelfth century. He was educated at Eton and Cambridge, passed three years in a crack cavalry regiment, travelled abroad, eloped with an heiress, fought a duel and, when barely twenty-one, entered Parliament as the Liberal member for the county of Durham. The young Earl was exceedingly handsome; he had wealth, position, power, everything to encourage him to live an aristocrat of the aristocrats. In his mode of life he was a very great lord indeed, but in politics he was a sincere radical.

His father-in-law, Earl Grey, was the author of the great Reform Bill of 1832 which gave votes to thousands of the poorer men in England who had never before been allowed to exercise the franchise. There was a long fight in the House and in the country over the Bill; Lord Durham worked for it with all his strength. He sympathised with all oppressed peoples and was an ardent advocate of reform along many lines; yet he was so haughty and quick-tempered that other men often found it difficult to work with him. The Cabinet sighed with relief when he accepted the post of Ambassador-Extraordinary to

St. Petersburg. Durham did not like Russia, however, and soon returned. Sending him as High Commissioner to Canada was another ingenious scheme to get rid of him. If he succeeded in making peace among the warring colonial parties, the ministry would have the credit of his success; if he failed, his failure would ruin him politically.

Durham sailed from Plymouth in April with his wife, family and an imposing vice-regal suite of twenty-two military aides, secretaries and servants. The voyage occupied a little over a month, and during every day of it Durham worked steadily for many hours studying papers, making notes, drafting plans, and discussing important points with his secretaries.

He landed in Quebec on May 29 and was received by Sir John Colborne, whose troops escorted him up Mountain Street to the Castle of St. Louis. Here he set up a princely establishment. His chivalrous enthusiasm for "the under-dog," his splendid hospitality, won him many friends, while his arrogant temper lost him others.

He was sworn in and issued his first proclamation at once. In it he announced to the people of Canada that all "honest and conscientious advocates of reform" should find in him a friend; but that "disturbers of the public peace, violators of the law, enemies of the Crown and of the British Empire" would have enforced against them all the powers he possessed.

He then dismissed the existing Councils and appointed a new one. He chose to serve on it members of his personal staff, military officers, judges and several provincial officials. The outsiders, he felt, would help to keep the discussions cool. Gathering these men together he appealed to them to help him to find out what really were the grievances of the people and to devise remedies. He found his new Council both able and willing to help, the public eager to co-operate, and "he set to work in the most thoroughgoing and systematic fashion to gather further knowledge. He appointed commissions to report on all special problems of government—education, immigration, municipal government, the management of the Crown lands. He obtained reports from all sources; he conferred with men of all shades of political opinion; he called representative deputations from

the uttermost regions under his sway; he made a flying visit to Niagara in order to see the country with his own eyes."

First of all the problem of the rebels pressed for solution. The prisons were full of men of all degrees of guilt. Some were only suspected of having taken part in the rising; others had been seen in the rebel army; still others were known as leaders of the rebellion and were charged with treason. In the country some thought these men misguided and pardonable; others cried out for their blood. The state of the country prevented any possibility of a fair trial for these prisoners; "no French jury would condemn, no English jury would acquit, a Frenchman charged with treason. What was to be done?"

As luck would have it, the coronation of the young Queen was to be celebrated on June 28, 1838. To liberate prisoners on such an occasion is an ancient custom; Durham seized the opportunity and emptied the prisons of the hundreds who had been suffering there. Eight of the leaders, whose offence could not well be passed over, he banished to Bermuda; not one was put to death. This happy conclusion of a most unhappy affair pleased nearly everyone. Men held up their heads again and breathed freely; it was all over, and would soon be forgotten. Congratulating himself on having got well out of a very difficult situation, Lord Durham turned again to the collection and discussion of information about the country.

Alas, the matter was not yet settled. Durham's enemies in England heard of his success with dismay. They said he had overstepped his powers in liberating without trial those confined as rebels; especially it was held that he had no right to banish men to another colony over which he had no jurisdiction. The men who had appointed him High Commissioner now failed to support him; they agreed that he had exceeded his powers and disallowed his ordinance.

To a man of Durham's temper this was an insupportable affront. He resigned at once and, having issued a proclamation to explain why he did so, left Canada immediately. He reached England at the end of November, and within six weeks had finished his famous Report. It was printed and presented to the members of the House of Commons in February. Lord

Durham had never been a strong man. His exertions in Canada aggravated his disease. The treatment he had received preyed upon his mind, and he died a year later. "Canada," he said when he knew that he was dying—"Canada will one day do justice to my memory."

Canada does indeed hold him in reverence. His Report is one of the greatest public documents ever published. To it Canadians look back as the foundation of their present system of government. In it Lord Durham describes clearly the various faults and needs of government in Canada. He suggested: The Union of Upper and Lower Canada into one Province, so that Quebec might feel itself once and for all a part of the British Empire; that the Executive Council should be made responsible to the Assembly; and that a railway should be built to bind the scattered Provinces together. Upon these foundations modern Canada has been built up.

GOING TO MARKET IN EARLY DAYS

Getting to market was often a difficult and lengthy task a hundred years ago. The farmers who had settled in the Eastern Townships took their produce to Montreal. While they were clearing their land, potash, which was made from the ashes of the trees felled and burned, commanded a good price, and many a farmer made a good sum each year by the sale of it. The potash was carried to town in barrels placed upon sleds drawn by oxen. The farmer drove his slow-moving equipage to the Yamaska River, where he had often to wait some hours for the ferry. The barrels of potash were carried across upon scows to the Montreal road. Another drive brought them to the Chambly River, over which they were ferried by other scows. At Longueuil they were placed in bateaux which transported them to the landing at Montreal. Truck men now carried them to the inspection office and, having been inspected, the potash was ready for market. In spite of the cost and labour of such a journey, the price of potash was so good that the farmer made a considerable profit.

Canadian Pacific Railway

GATHERING DULSE IN MARITIME PROVINCE

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

1839

By Lewellin

The appearance of Prince Edward Island from the water is extremely inviting, being surrounded with red cliffs from thirty to a hundred feet in height as it is. The pale green of farm lands and the deep green of the forests run down to the very brink of the cliffs or to the water's edge about the rivers and bays. The coast is indented with fine bays, the interior intersected with rivers. The island is divided into three counties, with three principal roads traversing them: St. Peter's road runs from Charlottetown northward across the island, and is settled on both sides for twelve or fourteen miles; the Prince Town road, which runs west, is settled for nine or ten miles; the George Town road runs east. Besides these there are new branch roads opening yearly in all directions as the settlements increase in number and importance.

Charlottetown is the seat of government and contains about three thousand inhabitants. It is admirably planned, and laid out in streets running at right angles with several squares, but as yet only partially built. It is subdivided into half-acre lots to each of which is attached a pasture lot of twelve acres. The public buildings are a court-house, used by the two branches of the Legislature, a college and a gaol. There are four churches. The houses are generally of wood and painted straw colour or white, but several brick houses have lately been erected which give a more substantial air to the town. Many of the houses have gardens; and as there is a total absence of the mean and dirty habitations which skirt the waterfront of European towns, the view of the capital is extremely agreeable. Upon a beautiful site on the west side and within a mile of the town stands the new Government House.

If farmers find it difficult to supply the wants of their families, or have hard landlords to deal with; if they are daily seeing their possessions grow less, and are fearing lest they may come to the poorhouse, let them gather up the fragments of their property and commence farming in the fertile colony of Prince Edward Island. Young men who have a little capital and have been looking for a land to settle in with the object of their affections are also invited. 'Tis sure a hundred pounds here will accomplish as much as three hundred in the Old Country. Industrious labourers, too, who have no prospect of becoming master-men in their native land may become farmers and landowners in the colonies.

The general mode of farming is slovenly, often wretched. Cattle, sheep and pigs are turned into the woods or upon the shore. A patch is ploughed here for wheat, another there for oats, and yet it is astonishing what returns are obtained. But there are many exceptions to this cobbling sort of system. Many farmers manage excellently and these with the help of the Agricultural Society are bringing about a very satisfactory change.

If a piece of land be moderately dressed with manure it will produce three hundred bushels of potatoes; seventy bushels per acre of oats have been reaped from new land. Timothy—the most useful grass—and very large hay crops are produced

from it. Horned cattle are wintered on straw. Butter sells from sixteen to twenty-four cents per pound; cheese twelve to sixteen cents; potatoes one shilling; wheat, four and six; beef, five cents to ten cents. Hay £2 to £3 per ton. Labour is still high as it ever will be when land is cheap. Men-servants get thirty shillings a month; girls twelve to fifteen shillings. Dry goods may be obtained very reasonably in Charlottetown for prompt cash payment.

Many of the settlers live very much upon fish (herring, cod, mackerel, lobsters) and potatoes, oatmeal porridge and milk, but people are already getting into more expensive habits in food, dwellings and furniture. . . . Verily, this is a good poor man's country.

Bayer, Charlottetown

FISHERMAN'S TRAPS AND FISH HOUSES

A PIONEER LETTER

ERAMOSA, *November* 8, 1840.

DEAR SIR,

. . . I came to Upper Canada in the fall of 1823 as my object was to get land for myself and my family. My means being only 200 pounds I found I must settle in some very new township, and go far back, to make my little money go as far as I could. I first bought the 100 acres I live on, part of my present farm in Eramosa, for the sum of thirty-five dollars. I next

bought the lot my son George settled on for the same money. I then applied to the government for land in Eramosa, proved to them I had 200 pounds, six sons, and now four daughters; they granted for myself 500 acres, and set 400 acres apart for my two eldest sons; so now I had in Eramosa 1100 acres.

In the spring of 1824 we came and began on our new farm, twenty-five miles from a grist-mill and a bad road, twenty-five miles from a post office or a shop of any kind, but being determined to conquer or die in the attempt, I never gave way to despair not for an hour.

We now have been about sixteen years on our farm, have eight children married off and settled on land close round us; we have given five of our sons 100 acres apiece, a yoke of oxen in value at the time of giving about 100 pounds each. The three girls we have given 25 pounds each. We are now called father by forty children—grandchildren, sons-in-law, daughters-in-law included—so we are become a great band, and Mrs. Parkinson and myself are only fifty-five years old.

We have still a good farm of about 250 acres in our own hands; have a boy and girl at home with us, and about 120 acres in good improvement. Our buildings are good. We have over a hundred head of stock. Our tax-gatherer comes only once a year; and for all my property I pay only about one pound sterling. We have no rector coming to demand his tenth of our grain, no covetous landlord to satisfy for rent.

These facts are hastily thrown together; if you think they will be of any use to the Emigrant Society you are at liberty to make what use of them you please. I remain, my dear Sir, Yours, &c.

Joseph Parkinson,
From Lancashire, Old England.

JOHN GRANT'S

In 1840 and for many years before and after, John Grant's Tavern in St. Henry Street, Montreal, was the great meeting-place of the Scots in Lower Canada. In Glengarry, Argenteuil, the Scots parts of Chateauguay, the farmers arranged to meet for business or pleasure at Grant's. Friends in Scotland addressed letters to their relatives in Canada at John Grant's, Montreal; they never failed to reach their destination safely, for John Grant and his wife knew everyone.

The old house was the town meeting-place of the gentlemen of the Hudson's Bay Company. Sir George Simpson's gig or calèche, during his stay at Lachine, could be seen twice a week, Tuesdays and Fridays, entering the inn-yard regularly at ten, and leaving punctually at three. Grant's was also the Montreal headquarters and meeting-place of the Scots lumberers from the Ottawa. They were noisy boys and made things lively on their annual escape from their backwoods to civilised life. They were known in those days as the Grand River Roarers.

During the troubles of 1837 and 1838, John Grant's was the Montreal headquarters of the two Glengarry regiments then serving on the Phillipsburg and Napierville frontier, and also of the Lachine brigade; during the winter of 1838 it was the most noted military resort in Montreal.

Time has changed everything in and around that old house. The dignity of the military bearing of the veteran officers of the Glengarry Highlanders, the dash and swagger of the young blades of the Lachine troop of cavalry, with their fierce-looking bearskin helmets, and the noisy but innocent revelries of the Scots lumberers are no longer seen or heard there. For several years before 1890, the old house was the resort of horse-dealers. The Canadian trader in horses and the American buyer met there.[1]

[1] Arranged and partly quoted from *Canadian Pen and Ink Sketches,* by John Fraser, 1890.

HOW THE FIGHT WAS WON IN NOVA SCOTIA

JOSEPH HOWE

NOVA SCOTIA was the first of the Provinces to secure representative government. Her Assembly was elected and met for the first time in 1760. This Assembly discussed the doings of public officials freely; it did not hesitate to express its disapproval of many of them. The Assembly also raised the money needed for carrying on the Government, but it had no control of the expenditure of that money.

The Council was the really important part of the Government. Its twelve members were appointed by the King and, as a rule, held their offices for life. The Council acted in several capacities. It formed the Upper House, or Senate, of the Parliament, receiving bills passed by the Assembly and allowing them or disallowing them as it pleased. It acted as the Cabinet, the different members being heads of different departments in the management of public affairs and uniting to advise the Governor as to his course. Again, the Council sometimes sat as a Supreme Court of Justice. As these men could not be removed from their positions by the Assembly, they paid little attention to the wishes of that body. The Council sat with closed doors, and conducted the government of the Province as it pleased.

Among the councillors were many officials whose private business made it impossible for them to be disinterested advisers of the Governor. The Bishop of the Anglican Church was a member of the Council and was able, for a long time, to keep King's College (at first the only college in the Province) closed

to the members of all other Churches. The Chief Justice also sat in the Council, thus both making and interpreting the law. The heads of the Halifax Banking Company were councillors, and for seven years prevented any other bank from being founded in the Province. The remaining members were men sent out from England who had no real interest in Nova Scotia. The Governor, who was also an Englishman, worked, took his pleasure and naturally sympathised with the members of the Council and their families. Thus this Province also was governed by a kind of Family Compact.

In spite of this, Nova Scotia was fairly well governed. As it happened, most of the councillors were able and honest men. They believed that responsible government was not suited to a colony. To place supreme power in the hands of the Assembly was, they contended, to place it in the hands of uneducated and inexperienced men who were certain to misuse it. The Council, they said, was made up of trained men of note and weight in the community. Men who had been successful in conducting their own business must be best fitted to manage the affairs of the country. As for asking that the Governor be made responsible to the Assembly, that, of course, was absurd. If he were guided by their wishes, he might be forced to act in opposition to his instructions from Britain. With good men in charge the system worked satisfactorily enough.

We have read of some early attacks upon the Council. After Joseph Howe made his great speech at the trial for libel, he was acclaimed as the leader of the Reform Party in the House of Assembly. Their first attack was directed against the Council's habit of sitting behind closed doors. To this protest the Council replied that their procedure was their own affair. Howe then led the Assembly in a demand for an elective Council. An address was sent to Lord Glenelg, the Colonial Secretary, praying that either the Council be made elective, or that the Cabinet and Council be separated, and prominent members of the People's Party be chosen to serve in both. Lord Glenelg believed that to grant full responsible government to a colony would be a prelude to that colony's separation from the Mother Country, but he advised the Governor to have the Council of

Twelve serve as a Cabinet, to appoint a new Legislative Council of nineteen members, and to include representatives of the people in both.

During the rebellions in Upper and Lower Canada, the Reformers of Nova Scotia remained firmly determined to win their case by constitutional means. Lord Durham's Report advocated the granting of fully responsible government. Lord John Russell, the new Colonial Secretary, approved many features of the Report, but, in a famous speech, held that the Colonial Governor must still be responsible to the Crown lest the colony become an independent state. Howe answered this speech in several brilliant letters which repudiated the thought that the people of Nova Scotia were animated only by forced loyalty. It is love of England and pride in her greatness that bind the colony to the Mother Country; respect for a Governor, however popular, has little or nothing to do with it, he said.

Nova Scotia's next Governor was Sir Colin Campbell, a famous soldier and a brave man. He was opposed to responsible government, however, and when the Assembly voted want of confidence in the Cabinet, he told them that he was quite satisfied with his advisers. This angered the Assembly which, in the end, went so far as to ask the British Government to remove Campbell. This was done. Howe and the Governor had fought steadily over public matters, but, when leaving, the great soldier shook hands with the leader of the people.

Lord Falkland, who followed Campbell, was a very proud man. He began well, dismissing four members of the Cabinet, and giving Howe, Uniacke and another Liberal three of the places. The displaced members were very angry. They organised the social leaders of Halifax against Howe. They cut him in public and talked scandal about him in private. The young ladies drew their skirts aside when he passed; young men planned to horsewhip him, to call him out.

Falkland, like Sydenham, acted as his own Prime Minister, and governed by the advice of a mixed Tory and Reform Cabinet. As the members differed widely as to the method of procedure, they continually quarrelled over small matters. Feeling in the Cabinet grew more and more strained; by the

autumn of 1842 it was plain that things could not long continue as they were.

The break came over the question of a non-denominational university. King's College was still closed against all who were not Anglican. Dalhousie was Presbyterian in sympathy; the Baptists had founded Acadia; the Roman Catholics had built St. Mary's. In 1843 a member brought into the Assembly a resolution praying that the Government cease to make grants to all these different colleges and found one large, non-denominational university in Halifax. It was a very sensible idea. Howe and the Reformers supported it warmly; the Tories opposed it with equal heat. The dispute grew louder and louder; at last the Governor dissolved the House. A hotly contested election returned almost equal numbers of Reform and Tory members.

The Reformers had felt for some time that a mixed Cabinet could never hope to work peaceably. Howe now offered Lord Falkland either to resign and let the Tories form a unanimous Cabinet, or himself to organise a unanimous Reform Cabinet. Falkland refused. A few days later he appointed another Tory member. Howe and his colleagues instantly resigned. Week by week the dispute grew more bitter and more personal. Lord Falkland and his friends did many arbitrary and unjust things. The Tories looked down in haughty scorn upon the Popular Party, refusing to mix with them socially. Howe and his friends made fun of the Tories in speech and article. At last, Falkland, having behaved very unwisely, was recalled and Sir John Harvey took his place.

Harvey was an amiable gentleman anxious for peace. He invited Howe into the Cabinet, but the leaders knew now what the country needed. Howe refused. Harvey inquired of the Colonial Office what he should do. He received instructions to carry on the government of Nova Scotia upon fully responsible lines. In the election of 1847 the Reformers had a large majority. The Governor invited Mr. Uniacke to form a Government, which he did, Howe being made Provincial Secretary in the new Cabinet. Responsible government was in operation; the victory had been won in Nova Scotia.

LORD SYDENHAM

A PLEASANT TALKATIVE LITTLE MAN

1841

The Ryerson Press, Toronto

CHARLES THOMSON (BARON SYDENHAM)

For us who live in this modern, orderly, well-governed country it is difficult to imagine how bewildered was that poor Canada of a hundred years ago. The attacks of the Hunters' Lodges were followed, in the summer of 1838, by invasions planned by the rebel leaders who had taken refuge in the United States. Many of the men were captured and the gaols were again filled with prisoners. This time there was no Durham at hand to banish them, and twelve in Lower Canada and two in Upper Canada were hanged. The fighting, captures, trials and hangings kept the people restless and excited; they scarcely knew what to think or what to do.

Lower Canada had no Government; a Council of fourteen prominent men did what was absolutely necessary in the meantime. Upper Canada had a Legislature, but it was split up into factions, none of them strong enough to govern. There were no township or county councils in those days; local affairs were managed by the Central Government; when the latter halted, everything went awry. There was no school system; only a few of the children were being educated. The wild lands of the Clergy Reserves separated the farmers and hindered progress. Worst of all, Upper Canada had spent far more than she could

afford in building the Cornwall and Welland Canals, and was on the verge of bankruptcy.

Into this welter of unhappy confusion Britain sent Charles Poulett Thomson. The Imperial Government had determined to follow Lord Durham's advice and unite the two Canadas; they wished the two Provinces to consent to this, and Thomson was sent to win this consent. He was a delicate-looking but very handsome man, an agreeable, talkative person with a genius for managing men. He was a skilful business man, had travelled much abroad, and spoke several languages. He knew exactly what he had to do and he went busily about it.

He arrived in October 1839, and began at once to make himself acquainted with the country and the people. He issued conciliatory proclamations, made tactful public statements, entertained and was entertained, bowed, shook hands, laughed, talked, and talked, and talked. Everyone liked this gay, witty, friendly Governor.

In Quebec the people were bitterly opposed to union with Upper Canada. They believed that Lord Durham had advised the union in the hope that British Upper Canada should some day absorb French Lower Canada. This was exactly what Lord Durham had hoped. The French Canadians resented it extremely; they resolved to hold to their nationality with all their strength. Unfortunately, at this time they had no means of making their wishes effective. The Committee of Fourteen consented to the Union, and Thomson went on to Toronto.

Here he found the Legislature divided, factious and inefficient. As usual he began to talk, suave, pleasant talk to this one, to that one. He explained, he cajoled, he urged. He won the support of the Constitutional Reform Party. There was really not much opposition. Upper Canada had little to fear, little to lose and much to gain. She consented to unite with Lower Canada on certain conditions, one of which was that although she had a smaller population she should have an equal number of representatives in the Union Parliament.

Having won the consent he wanted, Thomson turned promptly to other matters. He taught the Upper Canadian Legislature the procedure of responsible government. It is

simple enough; the Reformers had already thought it out for themselves, all they needed was someone to coax them all into putting it into practice. In the Assembly there should be, not a dozen, but two parties, each organised under a leader. The party which had the largest number of members was said to be "in power." Its leaders occupied the principal offices, brought in Bills, and, in general, conducted the business of the country. If the next election gave a majority in the Assembly to the second party, the members of the first party gave up their offices and went into Opposition, while the second party appointed officials, prepared Bills and managed the country's business.

The advantage of this system is that even while a party is in power it is constantly under the critical eye of the Opposition; while at the election, if it has not pleased the people, they can turn it out of power by giving a majority to the other party. The Upper Canadians were not used to the system, it creaked and groaned a good deal as it got under way, but Governor Thomson did get it under way. He persuaded the people, too, that the remainder of the Clergy Reserves had better be sold and the money divided between the Anglican and Presbyterian Churches. In this way a thorny subject was laid to rest for a time.

Thomson now returned to Lower Canada and on his own initiative introduced many much-needed reforms. "Nothing but a despotism could have got them through," he writes; "a House of Assembly would have been ten years at them." During July 1840 he visited Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, where responsible government had been peacefully won by Joseph Howe. He put himself into personal touch with all the chief officials, made friends everywhere, and then hurried back to take charge of the election in the Canadas.

During the campaign Thomson forgot that he was Governor. The question of Union and organised government, the system he had built up so painstakingly, was at stake. He cared for but one thing: to secure a majority in the United Parliament. The French of Lower Canada were hotly against the Union; the Tories of Upper Canada were equally opposed to it. Thomson chose candidates, travelled, spoke, electioneered, used means scrupulous and unscrupulous; rioting and bloodshed marked

the election night; but the "agreeable little man" won. Twenty-four of Thomson's candidates were elected, giving the Government a majority of four.

Kingston had been chosen as the capital of United Canada, and Parliament met in the hospital which had been hastily made ready for the purpose. The Governor lived at Alwington, a beautiful old house by the lake. Day after day through the hot summer weather of 1841 he rode back and forth, making peace between this one and that, talking away opposition, pressing important measures through the House with his unstable majority.

He felt that he had done what he had been sent to do and yearned for September, "beyond which I would not stay though they made me Prince of Canada," he wrote. Then, one afternoon as he rode up the hill to Alwington, his horse stumbled and threw him; his right leg was broken. He had never been strong, and he was worn out with work and worry. He was attacked by lockjaw and died after some days of great suffering. They buried him in old St. George's at Kingston.

Thomson (he had been made Baron Sydenham for his part in bringing about the Union) did great things for Canada; he did everything that most needed doing at that time except one thing. He taught her how to carry on the business of a responsible Assembly and how to secure a responsible Executive; but he did not give her a responsible Prime Minister. The important and valuable legislation passed by the Parliament emanated from the Governor, not from the Assembly. Baldwin tried to persuade him to choose a Prime Minister from the party which had the majority in the Assembly and to place the final power in his hands. Sydenham refused. He felt, and Britain felt with him, that if final power were placed in the hands of a Canadian, Canada would soon cease to be a colony of Britain.

Far-sighted as he was, Sydenham had not learned the answer to the great question: How can the Governor be responsible to people of the colony and to the Mother Country at one and the same time? His idea was that the Governor of a colony should be his own Prime Minister; that he should choose his Cabinet from the party in power and be guided by them when

he felt the need of their advice, or when that advice did not conflict with the instructions he received from Britain. He wished Canada to be well governed, to be governed in accordance with the wishes of her people, but he believed the Governor should govern.

It is plain to us now—it was plain to many people then—that such a system is just as good or as bad as the Governor. As the people cannot appoint, dismiss, or in any way punish the Governor, they must perforce take the kind of government he wishes to give. If he were a good and wise man, it might be a good government; if he were bad and stupid, great harm might befall. The people of Canada had demanded and won "responsibility" first in the Assembly, next in the Legislative Council, then in the Executive Council or Cabinet; it needed to be pushed just one step farther.

OLD-TIME ELECTIONS

LORD SYDENHAM left Canada not only on her feet but beginning to move slowly forward. There were still five parties in the House of Assembly, but, by combining, the French and Moderate Reformers could easily command the House; such a scheme had already been suggested.

The Moderate Reformers of Upper Canada were led by Robert Baldwin. He was the grandson of an Irish gentleman who had come to Canada to take up land. Robert was born in York and had been a pupil of Strachan's. He studied law and became his father's partner. He was a man of the highest principle and a sound, if slow, statesman.

Francis Hincks was another important member of the party. He was an Irishman born, well educated, and soundly trained in business, for which he had a capacity almost amounting to genius. In Toronto he was at once manager of a bank and secretary of an insurance company; he also published a paper and carried on a business. He won a name for himself as a

financial expert in connection with the affairs of the Welland Canal, of which he had been appointed one of the inspectors.

Louis Lafontaine was the leader of the Popular Party in Lower Canada. He, too, was a lawyer. At first he supported Papineau, but when a rebellion was mooted he withdrew from the party. He was opposed to the Union of the two Provinces, because he feared that the French-Canadian nationality would be lost. Seeing, however, that Union was not to be prevented, he planned, very sensibly, to win every possible concession for his people.

Sir Charles Bagot, Sydenham's successor, reached Kingston early in 1842. He was middle-aged and a Tory, but a diplomatic one. Acting as his own Prime Minister he tried to form a Coalition Cabinet. He offered posts in it to Hincks, the Reformer, and to Cartwright, a Tory. Cartwright would not act in a Cabinet of which Hincks was a member. There were many difficulties, but a Cabinet was at last mustered under William Draper who had helped Sydenham.

When the House met in the autumn of 1842, the vote on the address from the throne showed that Draper and his ministers had not the support of the House. They resigned, and Baldwin and Lafontaine came in together. Thus, for the first time, the system worked properly. It is a rule that a man who is appointed to a Cabinet position must return to his constituency and be re-elected. The Reform ministers-elect did this with rather amusing results.

In those days elections were not by ballot but by open voting. One polling booth was named in each district and to it every voter had to go to record his vote. He walked into the polling booth and told the returning officer verbally to whom he wished his vote to be credited. Such an election lasted for days, often for weeks. A crowd hung round the booth waiting to hear for whom each man voted. Feeling was hot over the issues of those times; liquor flowed freely; naturally, there was seldom an election without an "election row." Parties sometimes hired a band of rough men to go down to the polling booth and ill-treat those who voted against them. The soldiers had frequently to be called in to restore peace.

In the election of 1841 Lafontaine was defeated in his own riding—unfairly defeated, he believed. Baldwin and his friends were elected in Upper Canada. Seeking always to strengthen the forces of responsible government, Baldwin thought of a clever thing to do. He had a "pocket borough," as it was called, a "safe" Reform seat in the fourth riding of York. He invited Lafontaine to come to Toronto and stand for it. The Frenchman did so, was elected, and took his place in the House.

When Bagot's new Cabinet ministers returned to their constituencies for re-election just the opposite happened. Baldwin was defeated in Hastings; he stood for the second riding of York and was again defeated. Then Lafontaine came forward. The French member for Rimouski resigned his seat, Baldwin stood for it and was elected. Having treated each other in so gallant a fashion the French and English leaders became fast friends and faithful allies.

The first session in which Parliament was led in the modern fashion by leaders chosen from the majority in the House lasted only a month. The Tories raged furiously. Here was the country governed by men only lately ready to take up arms against the Queen. Because he had called the majority leaders to form a Government, Bagot was roundly abused both in Canada and Britain. Never strong, his health gave way. He, too, died at Alwington.

Sir Charles Metcalfe, who succeeded him, was a stout, jolly, generous Englishman who had spent his life and made his mark in India. He was accustomed to the despotic rule common there in those days and he had no thought of being anything but a Governor in the fullest sense of the word. Baldwin and Lafontaine carried on the Government for some months in spite of many little differences with the new Governor. At last he began to appoint men to important offices in the public service without consulting them. This was contrary to the principle of "responsibility" so lately and hardly won. The two leaders remonstrated and, as the Governor would not give way, resigned.

With the greatest difficulty Metcalfe managed to get a

Cabinet together under Draper and dissolved the Assembly. As Sydenham had done on a former occasion, Metcalfe threw himself into the contest. He persuaded men to stand for Draper and in every possible way used his influence to have them elected. The election was a particularly violent one; there were riots in several places. Lafontaine was returned with a strong following in Quebec, but the Governor won in Upper Canada.

The Tories had a very small majority, but Draper managed to keep his position by introducing Bills which the French-Canadian members had themselves intended to bring in. At this point Metcalfe asked to be recalled because of ill-health; he died before the year was out.

EXPENSES OF A PASSAGE TO CANADA

1843

"The passage to Canada may be made either direct to Quebec and Montreal, or by New York and the Erie Canal. By the former route the voyage is longer, and the passage of the River St. Lawrence is difficult and tedious. It has, however, the advantage of being cheaper than by New York; and it affords to emigrants a better opportunity for making observations on the country. The passage to Quebec may be engaged either including or excluding provisions. Emigrant vessels are bound to provide water, cooking-hearth, fuel and medicine for the use of the passengers, but it is not incumbent on them to find a surgeon. The charge for children under fourteen years of age is one-half of the full fare; for those under seven, one-third; and for children under a twelvemonth no charge is made. When a family, going out together, happens to be large, a considerable saving may sometimes be effected by making a bargain with the captain for the whole.

"Ships may be found clearing for Canada from almost every port of importance in England, Scotland and Ireland. From London the fares to Quebec will be found nearly as follows:

In the cabin, bedding and provisions provided, from £20 to £25. Intermediate, with sleeping berth and provisions, £8 to £10; with sleeping berth alone, £5 to £6. Steerage, with provisions but no bedding, £5 16s. to £6 10s.; without provisions or bedding, £3 5s. to £4 5s. Emigrants can generally victual themselves for £2 10s. to £3. Usual length of the voyage from six to seven weeks; usual seasons for emigration, spring and autumn.

"Avoid old and crank vessels, and select one well manned, high and roomy between decks, with plenty of upper-deck accommodation, and the berths well ventilated. If the berth is intended to hold four persons, cause a board to be run down the centre, as they will then be found to be about the size of a common mattress (which steerage passengers should provide). Children's berths should be well protected in front. In large vessels berths are sometimes erected in the centre of the steerage —these are always to be preferred. Never pay for a berth until you have seen it and had it secured; and never engage a berth but from the captain on board, or from the principal agent; and if there be any speciality in the bargain, get the particulars in writing, to which obtain the captain's signature before you go aboard.

"Emigrants who victual themselves should, if possible, lay in a moderate supply of the undermentioned articles—corned or dried beef, pork, bacon, red herrings; eggs packed in salt; tea, coffee, sugar; Scotch barley, oatmeal, rice, sago. Milk boiled with loaf sugar, a pound to a quart, will keep during the voyage. Porter and ale in bottles; a little brandy; pepper, salt, mustard, vinegar, pickles, lemons, or lemon juice; candles, ship-biscuit; some hard loaves rebaked; flour, and suet for puddings; onions, carrots and potatoes. Use no crockery or glass, but tin. For instance, a water-can, to hold the supply of water, a gallon a day to each person; a wash-hand basin, baking-dish, a pot to fit into the ship's stove for broth; a can for drinking from, a pot to hang on the stove for heating water; tin plates for meals; small tin cups for tea and coffee; table- and tea-spoons; knives, forks. All should be marked, and all packages should not only have locks but should be kept locked and the keys taken out.

"Emigrants of the labouring class should take out with them bedding, blankets, and as good a supply of warm clothing as they can afford, also their implements of trade if not too bulky; but they should encumber themselves with as little luggage as possible. Tools of various sorts are cheaper in England and Scotland than in Canada; but the carriage out adds immensely to their original cost. Agricultural labourers need take nothing with them but requisites for the voyage and as much warm clothing as they can afford. They cannot know what implements they may require before they are employed, and they may speedily obtain them."

TRACADIE

1844–63

TRACADIE lies on the north-eastern shore of New Brunswick. Like many other settlements in that part, it was founded by the Acadians. After years of exile Michael Bastarash and Joseph Saulnier made their way back from Carolina to their beloved Acadia. In 1785 they brought their families from Memramcook and built their houses near the spring on the shore, Saulnier on the north and Bastarash on the south. Other French families soon joined them, some from the districts round about, some from Quebec, and later other Acadians.

The British were not long behind the French. The very next year, 1786, three disbanded soldiers, William and Thomas Ferguson from Ireland, and Charles McLaughlin, a Highlander, settled at the mouth of the Little Tracadie. Tradition says that McLaughlin, and perhaps also the Fergusons, belonged to the 42nd Highlanders, the famous Black Watch, which at the close of the Revolution was disbanded and assigned lands on the Nashwaak River. Thomas Ferguson soon moved to Restigouche, but the other two remained, and between 1800 and 1830 many families from England and Scotland moved in. Since then Tracadie has grown steadily, if slowly. No large

Canadian Pacific Railway

LUMBER MILLS AT CHIPMAN, N.B.

movement came to this river of the lovely name; settlers came in small groups or singly, but having come they cleared land, built homes and remained, they and their children after them.

Lumbering began in Tracadie soon after 1800. At first the people worked at preparing white pine tow timber. This could not be shipped from Tracadie, but had to be formed into rafts and towed along the shore to Miramichi to be exported. As the white pine became exhausted the lumber trade declined, but after a few years a fine trade in spruce deals sprang up, and mills were built at Tracadie Village.

THE PLAGUE IN RED RIVER

1846

THE sixes seem to have been Red River's unlucky years. The colony suffered a massacre in 1816, a flood in 1826, a crop failure in 1836 and an epidemic in 1846.

"During this pest, for we can give it no other name, the colony was overwhelmed with terror. The winter had been uncommonly mild. In January the influenza raged, and in May the measles broke out; but neither of these visitations proved very fatal. At length in June the bloody flux began its ravages among the Indians of the White Horse plains, and spread with fearful rapidity and fatal effect among the whites. 'In Rama there was a voice heard; lamentations and weeping and great mourning.' In Red River that voice was heard this year, like the great cry in Egypt, for there was not a house where there was not one dead.

"In no country either of Europe or America, in modern times, has there been so great a mortality as in Red River on the present occasion. Not a smiling face to be seen in a summer's day. Hardly anything to be seen but the dead on their way to their long home. Nothing to be heard but the tolling of the bell, and nothing talked of but the sick, the dying and the dead. In other more populous places such things might be more common and less horrifying, but in a country hitherto so healthy and a population so scanty, it was a new and awful sight.

"From June 18 to August 2 the deaths averaged seven a day, or 321 in all; being one out of every sixteen of our population. Of these one-sixth were Indians, two-thirds half-breeds, and the remainder whites. On one occasion thirteen burials were proceeding at the same time. Many houses were closed altogether; not one of the family, old or young, being left in them."

CANADA'S TRADE IN 1846

By Eliot Warburton

At this moment opinion in Canada is very much divided on the subject of the probable loss of their exclusive advantages in the English corn-market. The farmers are generally much alarmed; fearing a great fall in prices at home, they talk of ruin. Again, some of the timber merchants in breathless terror cry out that the relaxation of duties on foreign timber must at once drive them to bankruptcy, altogether forgetting their increased prosperity since the late change.

The present is, beyond all doubt, the time of Canada's greatest prosperity; from the highest to the lowest—merchant, farmer, tradesman, labourer, their hands are full of business; their profits and wages ample; there is scarcely a shadow for the discontented to lay hold of. The country has now begun to arrive at that degree of maturity when trade takes its great start. English Canada is nearly a century younger than the trading portions of the United States; it is unfair to compare the progress of the two in commerce hitherto. Till recently people in this country were busied in the support of life. As numbers increased wealth and intelligence were brought to bear, and the last five, ten, fifteen years show a change in these provinces almost incredible.

Within the longest of these periods Quebec and Montreal have nearly doubled in population; numbers of humble people have risen to affluence; handsome shops with plate-glass windows adorned with costly goods replace the small and obscure stores of an earlier time. Roads, bridges, canals, ships and steamers have improved and multiplied in a most extraordinary manner. This is but the commencement; the impulse is only now fairly at work; a few years hence the progress will be far greater; the feeble time of infancy is past, the first difficulties over, and this vigorous people start, confident in their resources and energy, every sail filled with the favouring breezes of prosperity.

THE INVENTION OF SIDEWALKS AND PLANK ROADS

1846

There were now four or five different kinds and grades of roads in Canada. The most primitive, the bush path, was still common in many parts of the province. A bush track was often so slight as to be followed with difficulty. The traveller had to keep his eyes open for branches broken from the trees, for bark scraped, for felled logs, and for the often slight traces of feet in the grass.

When the settler began to live upon his new farm he soon found it necessary to widen the bush path between his clearing and the nearest village, town or main road into a cart track. He cut down the trees and cleared away the brushwood, but did not wait to take out the stumps or drain the swampy places. Such a road was far from straight and usually very uneven. The gnarled roots of the great trees rose above the ground; the soft earth sank away from between them. The wheels alternately bumped over hummocks and sank into the mud. The worst parts of these cart tracks were presently corduroyed—that is, the holes and wetter parts were made passable by laying trees side by side across them.

Another kind of road was the cleared concession line or Queen's highway. The country had been surveyed into large blocks of land, several miles square, called townships; each township was divided into concessions, each concession into lots or farms. The concessions were separated from one another by long lines of land, twenty-two yards wide, which were not granted to any person, but were reserved to form the public roads of the province. Each settler was allowed to cut down the timber on that part of the line which adjoined his lot; when many settlers were on one line they cleared it together. Sometimes the Government opened the line in a certain district in order to induce people to settle on the land there. Opening the line usually meant nothing more than cutting down most of the timber to within a foot or two of the ground and clearing off the underbrush.

The great public roads built by the Government were "turnpiked." In building a turnpike the road allowance was cleared and the stumps removed, sometimes by a machine worked by horses. Ditches were dug on either side and the earth thrown up on the road to form a causeway; the surface was then levelled in a rude way. Drains were built where the ground was swampy and streams were spanned by bridges; hills were cut through, or sloped gradually into valleys; and no expense was spared to make a passable road. In some districts gravel was thrown down and rudely packed as a further improvement.

It was Judge Powell of Toronto who invented board or plank sidewalks. He lived in a cross-street leading down to King Street; the footway was then paved only with a few irregular stones, so that in muddy weather people were obliged to leap from one to another. Judge Powell laid down planks supported by sleepers from his own door to King Street. A year or two later William Lyon Mackenzie, who was then mayor, extended Judge Powell's system to all the thoroughfares of the city. The planks laid down were two inches thick, one foot broad, and laid longitudinally, each causeway being four planks broad and secured by nails: at the crossings thicker planks were used, the edges being taken off to smooth the way for carriages.

Planking made a great improvement in the roads. "A new plank road," says Mr. Beaven, "covered lightly with sand or gravel as is the custom, is the pleasantest road for wheels that can well be imagined. You bound along over it with an ease and quietness which is luxury itself after the noise of one of our ordinary carriages over the macadamised road, to say nothing of the awful jolting and shaking of those in a less advanced state." "New roads are formed upon better principles than the old," continues Mr. Beaven, "and the old ones are daily more or less improved; so that I do not despair of even passing down the whole of King Street without any danger to the springs of my wagon or any inconvenience to my rheumatic limbs." On the other hand, the plank road was not very durable. When it had been in use six or seven years it gave way in places and dangerous holes were broken out.

Courtesy of Re.igious Tract Society.

QUEEN'S PARK, TORONTO.

From a print owned by the Hon. A. C. Rutherford

CANADIAN MINUETS

A BALL IN QUEBEC

1846

By Eliot Warburton

Having discovered that ten o'clock was the proper hour to go, I presented myself at that time at the door of the barracks, and with a crowd of other guests, walked upstairs. The rooms were ornamented with flags, and stars of swords, bayonets and ramrods arranged about the walls in a very martial manner; but the passages had an air of rural simplicity, being carpeted with green baize and overhung with boughs of trees; little side-rooms also were turned into bowers, so far supplying the place of rustic seats, and waxlights of sunshine. Though the passages did not appear to lead anywhere, they seemed to be much frequented by some of the couples after the dances, and the bowers were never unoccupied.

At one end of the ballroom was the regimental band, whence the lungs of some dozen or so strongly-built soldiers, assisted by the noisiest possible musical contrivances, thundered forth the quadrilles and waltzes. It was a very gay sight; about eighty

dancers were going through a quadrille as I entered the room. The greater number of the gentlemen were in handsome uniforms of red, blue and green; good-looking, with light hair, fresh complexions, and the free and honest bearing of Englishmen. Some were mere boys, having just joined from school, with very new coats and very stiff collars and manners. Then there were the Canadian gentlemen with their white neck-cloths and black clothes, generally smaller and darker than their English fellow-subjects, and much more at home in the dance.

On a range of sofas at one end of the room sat the mammas and chaperons, attended by the elderly gentlemen; here also were the young ladies who were not dancing, but they were very few. The young ladies were nearly all clad in white muslin, very simply but very tastefully; I do not think I ever before saw so many so becomingly dressed in proportion to their numbers. The fashions were much the same as in England, perhaps a little older in date. Most of them had dark eyes and hair, and complexions tinted with the burning summer sun; their figures were light and graceful, their manners peculiarly winning. There is one thing in which Canadian ladies certainly excel, that is dancing. I never saw one dance badly, and some of them are the best waltzers and polkists I have ever seen in a ballroom.

AN ADVENTURE WITH WOLVES

In March the "boss" lumberman sent a messenger two hundred miles to Ottawa to report to the agent of the Company the quantity of timber that had been taken out, and to bring back money to pay off a number of the lumbermen. The men were prejudiced against paper money and the messenger was instructed to procure gold and silver.

The messenger rode to Pembroke, the half-way post, and leaving his horse, went on to Ottawa by stage. He delivered his message, drew the money from the bank, and returned to Pembroke safely. Having placed the gold in a belt round his

waist, and the silver in two leather bags in the holsters of the saddle, he mounted and set out on his hundred-mile ride to camp.

Towards the close of the second day he was approaching the end of his journey. As he neared a slight clearing he saw two long, lithe animals spring out of the woods towards his horse. He thought them deerhounds and looked about for the hunter. Instead of the deep-mouthed bay of hounds he was surprised to hear a guttural snarl. At the sound the mare gave a convulsive shiver and set off at a gallop. But her best speed could not outstrip the creatures bounding in long leaps by her side, springing at her haunches, their white teeth glistening in the moonlight, snapping when they closed like a steel trap.

The first glimpse of the fiery eyes told the messenger that these were wolves. Tales of lone hunters lost in the woods, their gnawed bones being discovered in the spring, flashed through his mind. He knew his only safety to be in the speed of his horse. Seeing her flag, he dropped the five and twenty pounds of silver that he carried in each holster. The wolves stopped to tear at the leather bags and the mare sprang forward. He began to hope he had distanced the enemy. But, no! the horrid yelp and melancholy howl grew stronger on the wind, and soon they were again abreast of the mare.

He now threw down his thick leather gauntlets, but gained only a few moments as the wolves devoured them in gulps. He was now nearing camp. If he could keep them at bay for twenty or thirty minutes more he would be safe. As a last resort he drew his heavy Colt revolver, scarcely hoping in his headlong pace to hit the bounding, leaping objects at his side; moreover they both kept on the left of the mare which lessened his chance. If he should miss and be dismounted he knew that in five minutes the maw of the ravenous beasts would be his grave.

One of the wolves made a spring for the horse's throat, but failing, fell on the right side of the animal. Gathering himself up, he bounded in front of her and made a dash at the rider, catching and clinging to the mare's right shoulder. The rider could feel the hot breath on his naked hand. The supreme moment had come. The muzzle of his revolver almost touched

the brute's nose. He pulled the trigger. A flash, a crash—the green eyes blazed with tenfold fury, the huge form fell heavily to the ground, and in the same moment the mare reared almost upright, nearly unseating her rider and shaking his pistol from his hand, and then plunging forward, rapidly covered the road in her flight. The other famishing beast remained to devour its fellow.

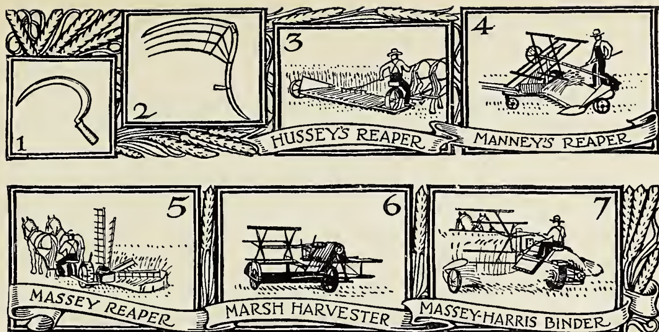
The rider galloped into camp, fell from his mare, which stood with a look of human gladness in her eyes, and staggered to the rude log shanty, where the blazing fire and song and story beguiled the winter nights, scarcely able to tell his story of peril and escape.

THE STORY OF THE BINDER

1847

Daniel Massey settled on a farm near Cobourg early in the nineteenth century. He was an ambitious, energetic man. When he had cleared his farm and brought his fields under cultivation he set up a little shop at Bond Head, near Newcastle, on the north shore of Lake Ontario. Here he made ploughs, scufflers, sugar kettles and repairs for threshers. He did so well that, in 1847, he built a small factory at Newcastle. This first factory consisted of two one-storey buildings: a machine shop and foundry.

Four years after the factory was built Daniel's eldest son, Hart Massey, came home to learn the business. He was a tall, powerful youth of twenty-eight, who had driven oxen, cut and hauled cordwood, tramped three miles to a log school-house in the bush, teamed in the lumber woods, hauled logs to the lake front and the mill, fired in the Cobourg tannery, and attended Victoria College. At twenty-one he had been put in charge of his father's farm, which he managed successfully until 1851. It did not take long for such a man to learn the new business. In a year he became a partner and manager of the business—a position which he held for forty-one years.



Massey-Harris Company

THE EVOLUTION OF THE BINDER

During those forty-one years many new farm implements were invented or improved in the Massey factory. The first was the "Ketchum" mower, the first mowing-machine made in Canada. "This was followed by the 'Burrell' reaper, a rudimentary invention made to be drawn behind the fore-wheels of a wagon. In 1855 the 'Manney' combined hand-rake reaper and mower was placed on the market." The times were good. As the farmers brought more and more of their land under cultivation the demand for labour-saving implements steadily increased. This demand was a strong stimulant to invention. Every three or four years new and improved mowers, rakes and reapers were produced.

These years saw also the gradual evolution of the self-binder. Grain was cut with the sickle from the days of the patriarchs until after the Loyalists settled in Canada. Then some inventive person fashioned a wooden frame to catch the grain, fastened it to a scythe, and so produced the cradle which laid the grain neatly in a swath, heads all one way, for the men who followed to rake and bind by hand. The cradle was superseded by a knife bar in sections, with a table attached to catch the grain; men walked behind the machines with rakes and drew the grain off the table in bundles. A reel to knock the grain down against the cutting-bar was the next improvement; they had now what

was known as "Manney's reaper." The driver of this machine rode one of the horses, and the raking and binding were still done by hand.

Now came a genius who invented the automatic self-rake reaper. He devised "the rake-stand with its four rotating rakes that knocked the grain on to the knives, leaving its heads lying one way upon the table till this fourth rake came round and by the use of a 'trip' travelling on a track lower than the others, kept its teeth pointed down and so swept the bundle off the table for men to bind with straw." The driver of a self-rake reaper rode the machine, not the horse.

After some years of use, the self-rake reaper was improved. The rakes were done away with and the old reel used to knock down the grain. "Instead of the bundles being laid off in the stubble at the rear of the machine for hand binders following to bind, the grain was elevated on a chain of carriers running round the table up an incline, landing it on a side platform where two men stood and bound by hand." It remained but to invent the mechanical knotter to take a man's place in binding the grain on the platform and the sheaf-carrier to drop the sheaves in groups for the stookers, and the modern "binder" was complete.

A PICNIC IN QUEBEC IN 1846

By Eliot Warburton

It was a beautiful September day; a fresh breeze blew from the river, rustling cheerfully among the varied leaves of the trees by the roadside, and chasing the light clouds rapidly over our heads, while the landscape lay in alternate light and shade. The road was a very rough one; every here and there crossing little streams by bridges made of loose planks or logs of timber, over which the active little ponies trotted without a false step. The country was rich but carelessly cultivated for two miles, and then we entered the bush; for about the same distance we continued through it till we arrived at the halting-place.

The younger people of the expedition had managed to get the fastest ponies, and were far ahead of us; the lady who had asked me was my travelling companion, and our united weight kept us last in the race. We found all waiting patiently for our arrival, and the partnerships seemed much the same as at the ball the night before. It was the custom of the country.

When we had for some time gazed on the fair scene, we and the mosquitoes began to dine; the plethoric baskets yielded up their stores; a white deal box produced a dozen of bottles, which were cooled under a shady rock in the waters of the Chaudière. There was a great deal of innocent mirth, and the fun arising from such things as a scarcity of drinking glasses and of knives and forks; a servant tumbling while coming down the steep path, and breaking half the plates; and a lean dog darting off with a fine fowl; accidents which are to be expected in picnics in all parts of the world.

We recrossed the St. Lawrence in row-boats, walked to a friend's house in a beautiful little nook under a high headland, where everything was prepared for the party—tea, lights, fritters and an empty room. No one appeared at all tired; those who had walked the farthest in the woods danced the longest, and it was some time after midnight when we were rattling along the moonlit road to Quebec.

Such was a day's amusement in Canada; and I do not envy the man who could not be infected with the good-humour and innocent mirth of such kind and friendly companions, nor moved by the beauty of such scenery.

EGERTON RYERSON

Government was not the only sphere in which the people of Upper Canada had to fight for their freedom. Many of the members of the Family Compact were honourable as well as able men; they honestly believed that the common people were not capable of governing. They thought placing the supreme power in the hands of the people would ruin the country, and

that it was their duty as patriots to prevent this. They believed that the official class should control not only the Legislature, but the churches and schools as well.

During early years, while the people were engrossed with their private affairs, the officials made good their position. Then came the war of 1812–14. Fighting together in defence of their new homes taught the pioneers that they were "a people," and that they had again a country which they loved. Without their realising it, regret for the old home had given place to pride in the new. Exalted by the victory which they had won largely by their own efforts, conscious of themselves as citizens of no mean country, they turned to consider the condition of the State.

In whose hands they found it, and of how they freed themselves from that control, you have read. Church and school systems also, they discovered, had been carefully planned by the Family Compact. While John Beverley Robinson consolidated the position of the Legislative Council, Archdeacon (afterwards Bishop) Strachan arranged to make the Anglican the State Church of Canada, and to develop the school system of the province in connection with it.

The Constitutional Act of 1791 granted its accustomed tithes to the Roman Catholic Church of Lower Canada; in Upper Canada it set aside one-seventh of the Crown lands for the support of a Protestant clergy. These lands, the Clergy Reserves as they came to be called, amounted to 2,400,000 acres. As the Anglican was the State Church of England, it was taken for granted that the word Protestant in the Act meant Anglican. Dr. Strachan planned with these lands to endow rectories in each township, and to establish an Anglican clergy throughout the country.

Believing as they did that final power must remain in the hands of the upper classes, it was natural that the officials should plan to impose a system of education as well as of religion from above. Governor Simcoe set apart 550,000 acres of the public lands for the establishment of a university and four royal grammar schools. The university was to be located at York, the grammar schools at Cornwall, Kingston, Newark and

Sandwich. No provision whatever was made for public schools. In 1807 the Lieutenant-Governor was empowered to appoint trustees to establish eight instead of four of these grammar schools. In the end twenty-five such schools were organised; and there were, in 1845, less than eight hundred children being educated in the whole number.

To the great body of the people these schools were of no use whatever. Each school was situated in the centre of a large district. Children could not attend unless their parents were able to pay their board, tuition and general expenses. The subjects taught, Latin principally, were profitable only for those boys who looked forward to a professional career. Forced to help themselves, the middle and poorer classes established private and subscription schools in which their children might be taught to read, write and figure. This was most unfair, as it meant that the poor paid out of the public lands for the education of the sons of the rich, and out of their own pockets for the education of their own children.

While the Assembly was still Conservative, the pressure of public feeling forced the Common School Bill of 1816 through the House. This Act authorised the inhabitants of any locality to meet and appoint trustees to erect and organise a school. £6000 a year was granted in support of these schools. The trustees were placed under a Board of Education for each district, which, in turn, was responsible to the Lieutenant-Governor. In 1820 the annual grant was reduced to £2500; in 1823, a General Board of Education with Dr. Strachan at its head was established for the province.

The fight for responsible government had already begun when Dr. Strachan, preaching at York the funeral sermon of the late Lord Bishop of Quebec, said that a State Church was a necessity and the Government morally bound to support one; that the Anglican, the State Church of England, was, naturally, the State Church of Canada; and that it alone lawfully claimed the Clergy Reserves. It is said that he also referred in disparaging terms to other churches. These unwise remarks angered the members of other Churches, as the Gourlay affair roused the reforming politicians.

Dr. Strachan's sermon was read in the monthly social meeting of the Methodist people of York. They were, by this time, a large and influential body, having in Upper Canada nearly twice as many ministers as any other denomination. They had long felt restive under the imperious claims of the Anglicans. Strachan's arrogant remarks were too galling to bear; accordingly they appointed Egerton Ryerson, the young minister of the York and Yonge Street circuit, to answer them.

Ryerson was then only twenty-two years old. His father had been a soldier, and, after the Revolution, had obtained a grant of 2500 acres near Vittoria, Upper Canada. As Egerton grew up he became an adept at all the rough tasks of a pioneer farm. While still quite young, he was converted by one of the itinerant Methodist preachers who, in those days, brought the services of the Church to the isolated settlers. Mr. Ryerson was an Anglican, and when he learned that his son intended joining the Methodist Church, he turned him out of doors.

Up to this time young Ryerson had had very little education, but he had used to the utmost the means within his reach. He now taught for two years, paying a hired man to take his place at home; at the end of that time his father begged him to return and he did so. But his heart turned back to his books, he felt called to the ministry. With the assistance of his elder brother, George, he went to Hamilton and passed a year in the Gore District Grammar School. He studied so hard that he became ill with brain fever and barely escaped with his life. He had a mission among the Indians for a time, but in 1825 was appointed an itinerant preacher on the York and Yonge Street circuit.

At the request of his friends, Ryerson wrote a reply to Dr. Strachan's remarks in which he questioned the value of a State Church. He did not claim that the Methodist ministers were highly-educated men, but he compared their industrious, self-sacrificing lives favourably with those of the easy-living, State-supported Anglican clergy. A long controversy in the press ensued. In 1854 the long quarrel was finally laid to rest. The Clergy Reserves were secularised. The Anglican rectories which had already been built and endowed were left untouched, and the remaining money derived from the lands was divided among

the municipalities to be used for the schools or other local improvements.

During the stormy years before the Rebellion, Dr. Ryerson gradually withdrew his sympathy from the Reform Party. He became a friend of Sir Charles Metcalfe and, in 1844, was appointed Superintendent of Schools for Upper Canada. The public schools had been partly organised in 1841, but the system was not working very well. The trustees had power not only to select the teacher, but also to assign the subjects to be taught and to choose the text-books. In the hands of uninterested or parsimonious people such a system meant poor schools.

Dr. Ryerson spent two years in visiting the schools of the United States and Europe. On his return he chose from the systems he had seen the features which seemed most likely to suit Canada. He worked out a system and embodied it in the Common School Act of 1846. Under the old system the province doled out the funds, but left the individual school to take care of itself; under the new, the province was given power to enforce a high standard of efficiency. A normal school to train teachers, a staff of inspectors to bring central and local authorities together helped to make the new scheme a success. Modified and developed as the years have passed, Dr. Ryerson's Common School Act has given Ontario a public school system long considered as a model.

Dr. Ryerson lived to see his system working successfully; lived to know that he had done an inestimable service to his country. He remained a trusted leader in church and school matters until his death in 1882.

In storm or sunshine life must ever be
Its own exceeding great reward to thee.

LORD ELGIN

A KNIGHTLY GENTLEMAN

1848

The Morang Company, Toronto

LORD ELGIN

LORD CATHCART, who came out in Metcalfe's stead, was a soldier. He was sent because trouble was brewing with the United States over the Oregon boundary, and it was important to have someone in Canada to command the troops. Cathcart remained two years. He devoted himself to planning the defence of the country and left politics alone. This was exactly what Canada wished and needed.

When the danger passed, Cathcart returned to England and Lord Elgin became Governor-General. The new Governor was an Oxford man, an eloquent speaker. Just before leaving England he married Lady Mary Lambton, Lord Durham's daughter, and he came to Canada determined to govern the country in careful conformity with the principles of responsible government which Durham had advocated.

The new Governor was warmly welcomed. He was known to be liberal in his views, kindly and "democratic" in manners. Canada had heard of his conspicuous success in governing Jamaica; she hoped he would be able to make her new system of government work more smoothly than it had yet done. The capital had been transferred from Kingston to Montreal, and Lord and Lady Elgin took up their residence at Monklands, a pleasant country house not far from the city.

Courtesy of Religious Tract Society.

A KITCHEN GARDEN, VEREGRIN, SASK.

The Draper Ministry, always weak, tottered to its fall through the sad and terrible days of the Irish immigration of 1846–47. There had been another failure of the potato crop in Ireland. Famine followed, and thousands of starving men, women and children crowded the ships sailing for Canada. As they could lay in little or no provision for the voyage, they suffered terribly on the way over. Hundreds died of ship fever. Others, still suffering from the disease, landed in Canada and communicated the plague to Canadians. They landed in Quebec or Montreal, most of them utterly destitute. The roads between Quebec and Montreal saw a long procession of gaunt, wild-eyed and ragged men staggering towards the great saw-mills on the Ottawa where they hoped to get work. Charitable people fed and clothed them, till the numbers became so great that individuals could no longer cope with the problem. The Government, roused at last, spent large sums for these people, money which Britain afterwards repaid.

The inefficiency of the Draper Ministry in dealing with the sick and starving immigrants brought about its dismissal. Lord Elgin dissolved Parliament in December 1847, and the election gave the Reform Party a large majority. For the second time the new "responsible" system worked smoothly. When the House met and the Tories moved that Sir Allan McNab be Speaker, the Reformers defeated the motion and elected Morin, their own candidate. Defeated in the House, Mr. Draper and his Cabinet resigned. Lord Elgin called upon Mr. Lafontaine and Mr. Baldwin to form a ministry. The two leaders selected a Cabinet of strong men; their following in the House was loyal as well as large. This administration is known as "The Great Administration"; it passed many important Acts, and continued till Mr. Baldwin and Mr. Lafontaine retired in 1851.

All went well until Mr. Lafontaine brought in the Act of Indemnification, commonly called the "Rebellion Losses Bill." During the rebellion of 1837–38 the property of many loyal Canadians had been destroyed—cows, pigs and horses had been killed, barns and houses had been burned. Their owners claimed compensation, and in 1844 Sir Allan McNab passed a Bill providing £40,000 to compensate those who had

suffered in Upper Canada. The loyal citizens of Lower Canada at once claimed equal consideration. £10,000 was offered; the Lower Canadian Loyalists said it was far too little; the Upper Canadians protested angrily that nothing should be granted those whom they regarded as rebels. Naturally, dishonourable people in both provinces were tempted to take advantage of the opportunity. It was said that many false claims had been laid; that people who had actually fought with the rebels were claiming compensation for their losses. Indeed, the commission reported that they thought £100,000 would pay all the just claims laid.

When the Bill came up in the House it caused the greatest excitement. It provided "that no indemnity should be paid to persons who had been convicted of treason during the rebellion." Five commissioners were appointed to carry out the provisions of the Act, which also provided £400,000 for the payment of legal claims. The Tories raised the cry that rebels were to be paid for their losses. It was no doubt true that there were many in Canada who had sympathised with and secretly aided the rebels and who now claimed compensation for their losses.

A storm of protest swept over the country. People felt it most unfair that Canada's scanty funds should be used to pay people who had wished to give her to the United States. The debate in the House waxed very hot. Sir Allan McNab called the French "aliens and rebels." Public meetings were held. The Tory press appealed anxiously to the people to withstand the Bill, to the Governor-General to disallow it. Mr. Hume Blake said to McNab that the Family Compact had caused the rebellions and that its members should rather be called rebels. Sir Allan replied angrily that "if Mr. Blake meant to call him a rebel it was simply a lie." Tumult followed. Members shouted furiously at one another, the people in the galleries hissed. Sir Allan and Mr. Blake were only prevented from attacking each other by being taken into custody by the sergeant-at-arms and detained until they promised to abandon the dispute.

Having a large majority in the Assembly, the Reform Party passed their Bill. It needed only the Governor-General's signature to make it law. The violent indignation against the

Bill which convulsed the country was known to Lord Elgin. In part he sympathised with it, feeling that it was unwise to pay out to individuals so large a sum of money while the country was still so poor. The Tories had appealed to the Governor-General to prevent the passing of the Bill. He could not do that, but it was within his power to refuse to sign it, or to reserve it for the consideration of the British Government. It was a dramatic crisis. The Bill had been passed by a large majority in the Assembly; the principle of responsible government demanded that the Governor should sign it, whatever his private opinion. Elgin was not himself in favour of the Bill; a large number of the people were bitterly opposed to it. If ever a Governor had an excuse for acting unconstitutionally, Lord Elgin had that excuse.

He thought the matter over carefully and made up his mind. To reserve the Bill would only throw upon the Imperial Government a responsibility which really belonged to the Governor. If dishonour were to come of it, he felt that that dishonour should rest upon him and not upon the Queen and her ministers. He had come to Canada determined to act as a responsible Governor, to be guided by the wishes of a majority of the people. The majority demanded that he sign the Bill. He signed. The last step in the long struggle was taken; Canada had, at last, an entirely responsible government.

When Lord Elgin left the Parliament House after signing the Bill, the crowd was waiting for him. They hissed, they groaned, they hurled insults and epithets at him. Farther down the street his carriage was pelted with rotten eggs; one of them struck the Governor-General full in the face. In the evening the mob gathered in the Champ de Mars, raging and shouting. "To the Parliament House," called someone, and to the Parliament House they went; stones crashed through the lighted windows where the Assembly was in session; the members fled for their lives. The crowd rushed in, tore down the hangings and smashed the furniture. Fire broke out in the west wing and in a few minutes the whole building was in flames. The firemen rushed to the scene, but the mob prevented them from doing their duty, and the building was consumed,

together with the invaluable parliamentary library of books and public documents.

For three days the mob rioted through the streets of Montreal. They sacked the houses of prominent Reformers. Lord Elgin, not wishing to make trouble, remained quietly at Monklands for a few days. The Assembly wished to present him with an address of loyalty to the Queen and gratitude for his constitutional attitude. It was decided to present it publicly at Government House, the Château de Ramezay, in the heart of the city. Driving in to receive it, the Governor's carriage was pelted with stones and other missiles, and he was prevented from entering Government House by a noisy crowd who shouted "Coward!" at him. His escort had to force a way in. To avoid further trouble he drove home by a back street, but the mob discovered him and chased him out of the city.

Lord Elgin was a great man. He must have felt acutely the insults heaped upon him. Many men in his position would have "shot them down" or "reduced Montreal to ashes." But he felt that the principle of popular government was at stake. Either he or that principle had to be sacrificed. He did not hesitate, but sacrificed himself.

THE TORONTO MAIL

By Mrs. Jameson

While I was reading, the mail-coach between Hamilton and Toronto drove up to the door. It was a heavy wooden edifice, about the size and form of an old-fashioned Lord Mayor's coach, placed on runners, and raised about a foot from the ground; the whole was painted a bright red, and long icicles hung from the roof. This monstrous machine disgorged from its portals eight men-creatures, all enveloped in bear-skins, and shaggy dreadnoughts, and pea-jackets, and fur caps down to their noses, looking like a procession of bears on their hind-legs tumbling out of a showman's caravan. They proved, however,

when undisguised, to be gentlemen, most of them going up to Toronto to attend to their duties in the House of Assembly. One of them, a personage of remarkable height and size, and a peculiar cast of features, was introduced to me as Mr. Kerr, the possessor of large estates in the neighbourhood, partly acquired and partly inherited from his father-in-law, Brant, the famous chief of the Six Nations. Kerr himself has Indian blood in his veins. His son, young Kerr, a fine boy of ten years, is the present acknowledged chief of the Six Nations, in his mother's right, the hereditary chieftainship being always transmitted through the mother though passing over her.

THE POST-OFFICE

THE famous Franklin was Postmaster-General in America in the old days before the conquest of Canada. He acted as deputy under the British Postmaster-General, and was so skilful a business man that he made the post-office pay in spite of the fact that the rates were so high that few people could afford to write letters. Soon after the conquest Franklin came to Canada and opened post-offices in Quebec, Three Rivers and Montreal. Each week the Canadian mails were collected at Montreal and carried by courier by way of Lake Champlain and the Hudson River to New York, whence they were taken by sailing vessel to England. Halifax and St. John had post-offices of their own, their letters being carried directly to England; the Maritime Provinces had, at that time, only a very irregular connection with Canada. The average postage rate for letters was about a shilling.

The American Revolution cut Canada off from the American colonies, and made it necessary for her to establish her own postal system. In Lord Dorchester's time a monthly mail service between Halifax and Britain was established and mail was brought up from the coast through New Brunswick, Windsor, Wolfville, Annapolis, Digby and Fredericton securing post-offices. By 1789 the United Empire Loyalists, who were settling Upper Canada, needed a post-office and one was opened

in Kingston. In 1804 there was a winter postal service to Niagara, but it was not until 1810 that an all-the-year-round courier service was established in the western part of the province.

As the years passed and settlements sprang up in all parts of Upper Canada, the outlying ones suffered greatly from lack of connection with the outside world. The British Postmaster-General would not open an office in any place where the business did not pay the expenses of the service. Rates were so high that letters were written only when absolutely necessary, and every opportunity was seized upon to escape sending them by post. If a friend took a journey everyone wrote, and sent letters by him. Ships' captains hung up a bag in the Coffee House before sailing. Into this bag people dropped their letters and the captain carried them overseas at a penny apiece.

The postage on newspapers and printed matter was another source of complaint. Anything could be sent by post, but everything paid letter rates. To avoid the excessive charges, publishers made private bargains with the Postmaster-General. They paid him a fee to allow their packages to be carried cheaply; this fee he put in his pocket.

Dr. Rolph, a member of the Reform Party of Upper Canada, seems to have been the first to investigate the post-office situation. He questioned whether the British post-office authorities had the right to charge any postage at all upon Canadian letters. Postage, he said, was a tax, and Britain had promised not to levy any tax in Canada save for the regulation of trade, and the proceeds of these taxes she had promised to spend in Canada. Now the postage money went to Britain and was spent there.

Year by year the demand that Canada should control her own post-office grew stronger. Britain sought legal advice as to Dr. Rolph's claim, and the lawyers said he was quite right. The Mother Country offered to grant all Canada's demands except that of the general control of the post-office. Canada refused. Lord Durham reported in favour of giving Canada control of her post-offices, and Lord Sydenham carried out the reform. In 1843 the weight system of postage was adopted; the grievance with regard to the newspapers had already been removed; the whole system became rapidly modern.

THEIR WEDDING JOURNEY

1853

Mr. and Mrs. William Kingston, who were married in 1853, resolved that their wedding tour should be no ordinary one. Mr. Kingston was an Englishman who had long been interested in the colonies, and his bride being of an equally adventurous turn of mind, they agreed to spend their honeymoon in Canada. They sailed from England for New York in August and, travelling by way of Lake Champlain to Plattsburg, were ferried across the river to Lachine and Canada.

They travelled the nine miles between Lachine and Montreal on the first railway ever built in Canada. The train was a primitive one, but the Kingstons exclaimed in delight over our system of checking luggage; they found it much more convenient than that used in England where, even to this day, each person is responsible for getting his own trunks in and out of the train.

Mr. and Mrs. Kingston spent only a few days in Lower Canada at this time; they were eager to reach Upper Canada, where they expected to find themselves in the wilderness. "I believe," writes Mr. Kingston, "we had an idea that log-huts and shanties were the principal residences; wagons and canoes the chief means of conveyance, and that the inhabitants principally wore long beards, and hatchets in their belts, and occupied themselves in cutting down trees and in digging potatoes. We indeed knew that there was a town called Toronto —we had friends living there, and were bound thither; but whether it was built of brick or wood we had not considered; and certainly we were under the impression that after we left Montreal we should be able to procure only the articles of the most ordinary necessity. We laid in, therefore, a large stock of everything that travellers could require, not omitting even

hammers, nails and rope to mend the wagons we intended to travel in, should they break down."

At Lachine the Kingstons saw a raft of logs "like a floating island coming out of the mouth of the Ottawa." It had on it huts and sheds and flagstaffs, and a number of people, and looked like a village taking a pleasure excursion down the river.

Sailing up the St. Lawrence, they were keenly interested in the canals and locks which enabled the ships to "step up" the river. Mr. Kingston thought them much more substantial than the canals he had seen in England. They were astonished to find Toronto instead of a jumble of log-huts "a large, handsome, admirably laid-out city; the streets wide, long and straight, and with many fine public buildings and stores, and with shops which in size, elegance, and the value of their contents may vie with those of any city in England, except perhaps London and Liverpool. It is especially free from the narrow and dirty lanes to be found in nearly all the cities of the Old World.

"The toll-gates in Upper Canada are very convenient, especially in preserving the health of the keepers in winter. The house is of two storeys, and in the top one is a small window, from which the custos can look out; a broad shed extends across the road, and the gate slides in grooves like a portcullis, the keeper having a winch inside his house to raise and lower it. He has also a ladle with a long stick to receive his toll, and a small hole to pass it through. Thus, instead of having at night to descend into the cold, or even to open a window, he looks through the glass when a traveller appears, pokes out his ladle through the hole, and raising his gate lets him pass. In Lower Canada the common English toll-gate is still used to the constant killing, I should think, of the unhappy keepers, if they do not rather refrain from levying toll at night."

The bride had caught a severe cold, and they were advised not to go on to the west; but they were determined to see the "wilderness" and persisted. They went by train and steamer to "the smiling little village of Orillia." Here "the coach stood near the inn; it had a flaming red body of bulky proportions" and looked as though unless the roads were very good they might expect a halt, a breakdown, or an overturn. How it was

to carry ALL the passengers and their luggage across to Lake Huron did not appear.

"First mounted our driver, a good-natured, jolly fellow, in a straw hat, white shirt, with red under-sleeves showing, and an unbuttoned waistcoat; next, our fussy friend; Mr. Smith and Mr. F—— sat opposite us; and behind were two men, one rather elevated, and two women with a baby. How the infant survived that limb-dislocating journey seemed afterwards a miracle. I doubt if the machine had springs. Instead of a cushion a buffalo robe was thrown in, on which we sat and wrapped up our legs. Our Jehu, now gathering up his reins, turned his four horses, with rotten-looking harness and gaping blinkers, off the highroad into another grassy one, where out of a cottage came her Majesty's mails; and after stopping at Tipping's store, and passing a number of plank cottages, and a little wooden church with a tin spire, we at length fairly left Orillia behind, and entered on the wild forest road.

"At eight o'clock we came bumping up to Mrs. Barr's clearing and inn. It was a regular log-house and had several rooms. The entrance had a noble, wide chimney and fireplace, worthy of the mediæval age, full of blazing logs in front of which sat a number of rough backwoodsmen, regular pioneers of civilisation, smoking short black pipes. Upstairs were six little rooms lined with plank, and in each was a clean bed, a table and chair, so neat and comfortable that we were well content with the thought of resting there. In a good-sized inner room, neatly lined and roofed with ruddy pine-boards, on a long table, with a clean white cloth, was laid out a capital supper and tea—consisting of wild-pigeon pies, cold lamb, excellent hot potatoes, apple-tarts, good bread and cake; and at one end stood our jovial Scottish hostess ready to serve her guests."

They left "as soon as the moon rose" and had a "very bumpy ride" over the old military road which connected Toronto with Lake Huron, but which had by this time fallen into disrepair. Being young and happy they laughed very much and reached Lake Huron at dawn, none the worse for their adventures. They crossed to Collingwood, where they found one house and one plank-store. Crossing Georgian Bay they visited

Little Current and Bruce Mines. The mines were already shipping ore to England and to the United States. The travellers visited Sault Ste. Marie and returned via Lakes St. Clair and Erie to Hamilton, arriving just too late for the "Colonial Exhibition."

THE LANCASTRIAN SCHOOLS

The Lancaster system of managing a school was invented in England by a young man named Lancaster. He at first planned to become a missionary, but afterwards decided to teach. In those days, while there were schools for the rich, the education of the poor was left to the Church or to charity. Lancaster was poor, but he gathered the children of London about him until he had more than a thousand attending his classes. Then some influential man, hearing of his success, gave him money to build a school and buy equipment.

Lancaster's method was from among the older pupils in the school to choose the brightest and to set them to teach the younger children. To explain to others what we have ourselves just learned is one of the best ways in which to fix it in our minds. The pupil-teachers became well grounded in the rudiments, while they taught them to the little ones, though, probably, they did not advance very far. The school was conducted with careful precision. Each child had his place, his time, and his duties; each pupil-teacher had a little group of children for whom he was responsible; while over all sat Mr. Lancaster, supervising the teaching and giving judgment in matters of discipline. The system was wonderfully successful; it was a cheap way of giving elementary education to a large number; it spread rapidly throughout the British Isles and was soon being used in the United States and Canada.

One of the chief drawbacks which the Canadian wilderness presented to the Loyalists and other settlers was the general absence of schools in which their children might be educated. Paul Mascarene set aside a town lot in Annapolis for a school in 1732; the nuns had a school in Louisburg in 1737; Halifax had a school for orphan children in 1751. In 1766 the Legis-

lature passed an Act setting forth that schoolmasters before opening a school were to be examined by the minister, or by two justices of the peace. They were required to get a certificate of moral character from six inhabitants of the district in which they wished to teach and send it with the statement of their examination to the Governor, who would then issue to the candidate a licence to teach. Each teacher was obliged to take the oath of allegiance; and no Roman Catholic was to be allowed to set up a school upon any pretext whatever. Four hundred acres in each township were set aside for the benefit of the schools. This Act showed that the people were anxious to have their children educated, and by good teachers. The difficulty was less lack of money than of teachers; this lack was fatal, and for a long time there were very few schools in the Maritime Provinces.

Halifax held a lottery in 1780 and made £1500 with which to build a school. St. John established a grammar school in 1805. Then, in 1811 in Nova Scotia, and in 1816 in New Brunswick, Acts were passed establishing a grammar school in each district or county. In these schools the children were to be taught English, grammar, Latin, Greek, spelling, the use of the globes, and mathematics. Headmasters were to be paid £100 a year. When there were more than forty children an assistant at £50 a year was provided for. It seems strange to us that our fathers provided high schools before establishing public schools. The explanation is that the people who wished their children taught were, in general, people who were themselves educated and could, therefore, teach the rudiments at home.

The Act of 1811 in Nova Scotia provided for the upkeep of the schools by assessment; the pupils were under no expense except for books, paper and fuel, each child bringing his share of the latter. In New Brunswick the trustees of each school were given power to assess the people of the district for sums ranging from £30 to £90; but this power was afterwards withdrawn.

The Lancastrian or "Madras" schools, as they were called, became very common in the Maritime Provinces. The system was admirably suited to a country where teachers were few. In 1824 there were thirty-nine of these schools in New

Brunswick with 4736 scholars, one-third of whom were enrolled at the Central School, St. John.

This school was a very famous one. It was conducted by Anthony Truro and his wife; Truro supervised the boys', his wife managed the girls' department. For two hundred boys there were twelve pupil-teachers, over whom was placed an usher to give help wherever it was needed. Truro was a fine disciplinarian. Everything proceeded with clock-like regularity. Each boy knew his duties. The pupils swept and dusted the schoolrooms in turn. School continued from nine till twelve and from one to three each day. Promptly at nine the usher mounted the platform and stamped with his foot to call attention. As he raised his hand every boy knelt and with bowed head repeated the Lord's Prayer, sentence by sentence, after the usher. Next they recited the Church Catechism, one boy hearing another. Then they practised reading and writing till noon. In the afternoon everyone studied arithmetic. Chalk lines were drawn on the floor, and the boys were required to toe them when they stood up to recite. The annual examination was a great event. Boys who excelled were granted free tuition for the next year; the boy who made the highest marks of all was awarded a silver medal.

In 1847 the Board of Education of New Brunswick established normal and model schools, and appointed two inspectors for the province. In 1850 William Dawson (afterwards Sir William and Principal of McGill University) was appointed Superintendent of Education in Nova Scotia. Under his supervision the whole system of education improved rapidly; better buildings were put up, better teachers were engaged, and better methods of teaching inaugurated. In 1855 the normal school at Truro was established to train the teachers of Nova Scotia.

The next step forward was taken by Sir Charles Tupper, who brought in the Act for establishing free schools and making education compulsory. It was opposed by many who had been educated under the old system, or who had no children of their own. It passed, however, and not before it was needed. In 1861, in a population of 300,000 over five years old, there were found 81,000 persons who could not read.

WOODEN SHIPS

The pioneers who settled at Yarmouth between 1761 and 1764 turned naturally to the sea. There were no roads in the country then; communication among themselves and with the outside world was carried on by water. Every Yarmouth family had a sailing-craft of some kind, and the boys and girls learned to row and sail and fish as naturally as they learned to walk.

Yarmouth people had fish to sell and, within a few years, farm products also. Then saw-mills were built and lumber shared the hold space with dried and pickled fish in outgoing vessels. Halifax and Shelburne provided ready markets for dairy produce; there are many safe harbours along the coast; little twenty- and thirty-ton ships flew back and forth carrying to market the wealth of the farmers and fishermen. Adventurous merchants built forty- or fifty-ton ships and sailed to Bermuda, Newfoundland, the West Indies. Yarmouth began to do a profitable foreign trade.

Up to 1810 Samuel Marshall was the leading shipowner of Yarmouth and the leading merchant as well. He built Marshall's Wharf and conducted his business there. The wharf was situated in a central part of the harbour, an excellent stand for business as craft could come alongside to discharge or take in what they wanted without the trouble of trucking. For land customers it was equally agreeable, as it stood just below the main road leading through Yarmouth. At the head of the wharf lay the hulk of a timber ship which broke the wind and sea for vessels lying at the quay, and at the upper end stood a neat dwelling-house with a large cellar under it, and at the east corner of the house a large fish store with a cellar for pickled fish and room on the three upper floors for thirty-five hundred quintals of fish. Opposite stood a dry-goods store, completely fitted for business, and below a small salt store to prevent the salt being put in the same store with the fish, which would dampen it. The whole place was most conveniently arranged for business.

The demand for Yarmouth products increased steadily; soon Yarmouth people began to build their own ships. They built wooden sailing vessels so well and stoutly, and the sons of the pioneers were such skilful seamen, that Yarmouth became a famous port and her shipping took an important part in the carrying trade of the world.

Building materials, dried and pickled fish, and farm produce were the usual cargoes carried from Yarmouth to the West Indies. The ships returned loaded with molasses, rum, sugar or salt. Spruce lumber costing $10 a thousand brought $25 to $35 in the West Indies, so owners made excellent profit. Timber and deals were carried from New Brunswick to England, the return cargo of coal or iron being carried to the United States. During the Crimean War Yarmouth shipowners did a good business carrying coal to Mediterranean and Black Sea ports. Coal was also carried from England to the West Indies and South American ports. Grain, coal-oil, pitch-pine timber, sugar and cotton were the products carried from the United States to Europe; such cargoes paid the Yarmouth shipping men well.

The Quebec yards took the lead in improving the quality of Canadian-built ships. For years Lloyd's Marine Insurance Company would not insure Canadian ships on favourable terms because they were not built of oak as British ships were. The Canadian builders tried using Canadian oak, but it is a much softer wood than English oak and after a few years is affected with dry rot. The builders were, therefore, forced to use tamarack, a strong, light wood. Because of the buoyancy of tamarack, Canadian-built ships were able to carry heavier cargoes than vessels of oak, but they were not so durable.

Pictou was one of the most famous shipbuilding ports in Nova Scotia, and Captain George Mackenzie was one of her most noted builders. From 1841 on, the ships of the Maritime Provinces were usually built and sailed by their owners, which brought about an immense improvement in the quality of the craft turned out. Captain Mackenzie, in partnership with John Reid, built his first ship in 1821. The two men cut down the trees, floated them to the dock and, with their own hands, did all the work of constructing the little schooner of forty-five tons.

Canadian Pacific Railway

YARMOUTH SHIPPING

In those days the Gulf ports of New Brunswick did the largest timber business in Canada, and shipbuilding naturally became a very important industry there. Dalhousie, Bathurst, the Miramichi and Restigouche ports all had flourishing dock-yards. After 1815 the fur and fish trade of this part of the province was quite overshadowed by the trade in lumber and squared timber. To take care of this trade new ships were put in hand almost daily. The Cunard Line had a large shipyard in Kent County. At Bathurst from five to ten ships were seen on the stocks at once, there being barely room left for the workmen to pass between them.

But times change. Telegraphs and cables did away with the old-time system of speculative rates for freight. The "War-tariff" of the United States forbade the importation of coal, pig-iron or railroad iron. Peace in Europe was followed by good harvests; the Europeans did not then need American grain. They developed the beet-sugar industry, which impoverished the planters of the West Indies and South America who could no longer afford to buy fish from Nova Scotia. Above all, the coming of the steamship, the multiplication of iron freighting

steamers, created a keen competition for the carrying trade of the world. The newer type of vessel forged steadily ahead; the wooden sailing vessels of Yarmouth and other ports of the provinces were edged out of the trade and quiet times descended upon the lately busy harbour.

WINTER SPORTS IN QUEBEC

1846

By Eliot Warburton

I HAD seen the Falls of Montmorency in the summer and admired them very much, but was glad to seize an opportunity of visiting them also in winter, which afforded itself in the shape of a party of some twenty people. We assembled at the house of one of the ladies at twelve o'clock. There was a very gay muster of carioles; some tandems with showy robes and ornamental harness; handsome family conveyances; snug little sleighs, very low and narrow, for two people; and a neat turn-out with a pair of light-actioned horses abreast, a smart little tiger (page) standing on a step behind.

About an hour's drive took us to the Falls; they are in the centre of a large semi-circular bay, hemmed in by lofty cliffs; the waters descend over a perpendicular rock two hundred and fifty feet high in an unbroken stream. At this time of the year the bay is frozen over and covered with deep snow; the cliffs on all parts, but especially near the cataract, were hung over and adorned with gigantic icicles, sparkling in the sunshine, and reflecting all prismatic colours.

Near the foot of the fall a small rock stands in the river; the spray collects and freezes on this in winter, accumulating daily, till it frequently reaches the height of eighty or a hundred feet, in a cone of solid ice; on one side is the foaming basin of the fall, on the other the hard-frozen bay stretches out to the great river.

One of the great amusements for visitors is to climb up to

the top of this cone and slide down again in a tarboggin. They descend at an astonishing pace, keeping their course by steering with light touches of their hands; the unskilful get ridiculous tumbles in attempting this feat. Numbers of little Canadian boys are always in attendance, and generally accompany the stranger in his descent. A short distance to the right is another heap of ice, on a smaller scale, called " the ladies' cone." The fair sliders seat themselves on the front of the tarboggin, the gentlemen who guide them sit behind, and away they go like lightning, not unfrequently upsetting and rolling down to the bottom. The little boys in attendance carry the tarboggin up again, the ladies and their cavaliers ascend, and continue the amusement sometimes for hours together.

The party were in high glee, determined to enjoy themselves; they tarboggined, slid and trudged about merrily in the deep, dry snow. The servants spread out the buffalo robes, carpet-fashion, on the snow, and arranged the plates of sandwiches, glasses and bottles on one of the carioles, for a sideboard. When the young people had had enough of their amusements, they re-assembled, seated themselves on the buffalo robes, and the champagne and sandwiches went round.

Though the thermometer was below zero, we did not feel the slightest unpleasant effect of cold; there was no wind, and we were very warmly clad; I have often felt more chilly in an English drawing-room. It is true that the ladies carried their sandwich to their pretty lips in long fur gauntlets, through half a dozen folds of a boa, but their eyes sparkled the brighter, and their laugh sounded the merrier, in the cold, brisk air, though their dresses sparkled with icicles and their little fur boots were white with snow. There was a great deal of noise and merriment, with some singing, and much uneasiness on the part of the elders lest we should be too late for a large dinner-party to which we were all engaged for that evening; we broke up our lively encampment and drove home.

Over the snowy plain of the river the bold headland of Quebec stood out magnificently. The metal spires and domes of the town shone in the red light of the setting sun; the sharp lines of the fortifications on the summit, with the flag of dear

old England over all; and through all her wide dominion her flag waves over no lovelier land.

The hour of dinner and the arrangements of the table are the same as in England. Some of the official people and the wealthy merchants entertain very handsomely; the cuisine and wines are good, and the markets supply a fair extent of luxuries. Formal dinners are seldom graced by the presence of the younger ladies; they generally defer their appearance till tea-time in the drawing-room, where, joined by a few of the dancing gentlemen and some young officers, they get up a quadrille or a waltz; music is not much cultivated, except as an assistant to the dancing. The French Canadians are very fond of cards; round games are often introduced at their evening parties, and some even of the younger ladies can play a capital rubber of whist. Small plays as in England are also frequently introduced to vary the amusements.

The young people often form large parties for snow-shoeing excursions; they walk eight or ten miles without fatigue, and the awkwardness and tumbles of those not accustomed to the exercise are a constant source of mirth. The ladies' snow-shoes are made much smaller than those for men, and are usually gaily ornamented with tassels of coloured worsted. Their moccasins are made to fit very smartly, and are decked with elaborate embroidery of stained moose-hair and beads, the handiwork of the Indian squaws. The party takes a straight line across country, up and down hill, through bush and brake, stepping without effort over the tops of tall fences scarcely seen above the deep drifts. Many of the ladies walk with great ease and more grace than would be thought possible with such appendages.

When the ice takes on the St. Lawrence opposite to Quebec, forming a bridge across, there is always a grand jubilee; thousands of people are seen sleighing, sliding, skating about in all directions. Ice-boats come into play on these occasions. These boats are fixed on a triangular frame, with runners like those of skates at each corner. They are propelled by sails; they can sail very close to the wind, tack with great facility, and sometimes achieve a rate of twenty miles an hour.

OUR FIRST BOTANIST

R. Goldie, Guelph

JOHN GOLDIE

JOHN GOLDIE was a Scottish lad who loved plants and studied them in several parts of the world. He was born in Ayrshire in 1793. When he had served his apprenticeship as a gardener, he secured a post in the Glasgow Botanical Gardens where he received a scientific training in botany. Later he studied at the University.

On June 15, 1815, "Waterloo Day," he was married to Margaret Smith, the daughter of a well-known florist and botanist. He passed part of his wedding day in being examined in botany for an appointment to an expedition which the Government was sending to explore the Congo River country. John Goldie was chosen botanist of the expedition, but for some reason gave up the position.

In 1817 he sailed for New York, but the ship was driven into Halifax Harbour by a storm. Mr. Goldie left the boat there and explored the country, seeking new specimens of plant life and travelling as far as the north shore of New Brunswick. He then went to Quebec and Montreal. Near the latter place he discovered the beautiful fern *Aspidium Goldianum*, which was given his name.

He described the new fern as being from one and a half to two feet in height; it was to be recognised by the breadth of the frond, which was greater than in other varieties, and by the fact that the segments at the base of the pinnæ are narrower instead of broader than those higher up as is the case with other forms. Specimens of the plant cultivated in the Botanic Gardens

at Glasgow from roots taken over from Canada by Mr. Goldie bred true. Mr. Goldie now gathered his specimens together, mounted, packed and shipped them to Scotland, but the collection never arrived.

Exploring in the Eastern States, Mr. Goldie made and shipped another collection, but it too was lost. He now returned to Montreal. He was very poor, but he got work digging; he dug four days a week, and tramped about studying his beloved plants during the other two. A third time he shipped a large collection, the result of two years of patient labour, and a third time it was lost, the vessel upon which it was sent being wrecked in the St. Lawrence.

During the next summer Mr. Goldie travelled on foot along the north shore of Lake Ontario from Kingston to York. His diary of that journey has been preserved. He describes the country through which he passed, tells of the heat, the dust and the mosquitoes, and gives quaint, delightful little pictures of the villages, the farmhouses and the people. On the Bay of Quinte he heard the whip-poor-will. He "passed a town called Hamilton; it contains but a few houses, some of which are very good." "The roads were become remarkably dry and dusty; which with the heat came to be very severe upon the feet, so that although the rain made the road a little muddy, it was more pleasant travelling." The walk to Niagara Falls "is as pleasant a walk as I have had in America." "I cannot say that the land is good; it is sand, but yet the crops look well, and every house here has an orchard. To-day I have seen and eaten a greater number of cherries than I think I have ever done before. The cherry trees are all planted close alongside the road, and any person that passes may help himself from them. There are also quite a number of peaches."

After this journey Mr. Goldie took his collection to Scotland, where he arrived safely. He visited Russia and from that country introduced several new and valuable plants into Scotland. He began business as a florist near Burns's cottage at Ayr, but he had been favourably impressed with Upper Canada and, in 1844, took his wife and family to a farm at Ayr, Ontario.

Father and mother, sons and daughters worked together

and they soon had several fields cleared and planted. Within two years Mr. Goldie had apple trees, rose bushes, vines and strawberries growing. Like other industrious settlers the family was soon well-to-do.

TRAVELLING IN NOVA SCOTIA IN 1845

Growing settlements with increasing trade required improved roads. The province had two main roads: the Eastern, from Halifax to Pictou, a hundred miles; and the Western to Windsor, forty-five miles. The latter, first opened in 1816, was extended to Annapolis in 1828, the House of Assembly granting £300 a year for five years to assist the work. From Windsor the post-road followed the north shore by Annapolis and Digby to Yarmouth; thence on the southern shore by Barrington, Shelburne, Liverpool and Lunenburg back to Windsor again.

By 1845 three roads were in very creditable condition, and new stage-coaches had been secured. On the Eastern road, light elegant stages with six greys in hand might be seen driving gaily into town. On the Western, a new stage company competed with the old one, reducing fares and improving accommodation.

The ordinary kind of coach had not steel springs, but was suspended upon leather straps many in number to the thickness of about two inches. When laid upon each other these were secured together by a clip and screwed and fastened at either end of the body of the coach and on each side, by being passed round an iron bar raised from the bed of the carriage and higher than the resting-place of the body itself. The motion to a stranger was unpleasant, being what sailors call a fore-and-aft motion; but the suspenders served to break the abruptness of the interruptions made by rocks and logs in the road. By 1845, however, coaches with steel springs were coming in.

As was natural in a maritime country, communication by water remained of the first importance. In 1828 the Government voted £150 per annum to encourage a steam-packet

Canadian Pacific Railway

ST. JOHN, NEW BRUNSWICK

between Annapolis and St. John. Windsor and St. John were next connected, and soon afterwards Pictou, Charlottetown and Miramichi. In 1841 a steam-boat ran weekly between Halifax and St. John, calling at the principal ports on the way. A branch mail steamer connecting with the Cunard Line ran from Pictou to Quebec, and arrangements for carrying mail to Newfoundland had been made.

In July 1843 Mr. Churchill, a Methodist clergyman at Yarmouth, was invited to attend the opening of term at the new Wesleyan Academy at Sackville, N.B. He left Yarmouth on a Saturday afternoon, hoping to preach in St. John the next day. Being detained by a heavy fog, they arrived only just as church was being dismissed. A party was made up to charter a steamer to go up the bay to Sackville. They left on Tuesday evening, and arrived the next morning at eleven o'clock.

The commencement exercises were held on Thursday and Mr. Churchill left that evening, a friend engaging to drive him thirty-five miles to the Bend of the Petitcodiac, where he could

take the stage for St. John. They drove all night and reached the Bend just in time to catch the stage, which left at 4.30 a.m. Fifteen hours of coaching returned him to St. John on Friday evening. As the Yarmouth boat did not leave St. John till Monday, Mr. Churchill took the steamer *New Brunswick*, and by nine o'clock on Saturday evening had travelled ninety miles up the beautiful St. John River. He preached twice on Sunday, and returned to St. John on Monday. He arrived at six o'clock, just in time to step aboard the boat, which landed him in Yarmouth the following morning. He had been absent from home almost nine days and had travelled 630 miles.

OTTAWA

1857

QUEBEC was the ancient capital of Canada. When the country was divided in 1791 into Upper and Lower Canada, the Legislatures sat in Toronto and Quebec. After the Union of 1840 the Governor-General chose Kingston as the capital of the United Provinces, but the Assembly voted two to one against this. Montreal, as the largest city, thought it her right to be the seat of government, and was chosen for the honour in 1843. Six years later she so far forgot her dignity as to riot. The mob burned the Parliament buildings and insulted Lord Elgin. The Assembly prayed that in future Parliament should sit in Quebec and Toronto alternately. This continued till 1857, when Queen Victoria, to whom the choice had been left, named Bytown as the capital of United Canada.

Many people were dissatisfied with the choice of Bytown, but it was a fortunate one. It is doubtful if there is in Canada a more beautiful site for a city than that of the capital of the Dominion. Just west of the city the noble Ottawa hurls itself over the Chaudière Falls; a mile east, the Rideau flows in from the south over the Rideau Falls; cutting its way down from the north through its gap comes the Gatineau to join the Ottawa.

Department of the Interior, Ottawa

PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA

The hills about are clothed with woods, in spring full of trilliums and hypaticas; in autumn the valleys are cups scarcely large enough to hold the burning flame of living colour—scarlet, brown and gold.

And Ottawa is as rich in story as in beauty. The missionaries, first of white men, saw the lovely reaches of the river opening before them. Distracted with smoke and fleas and filth, tortured by mosquitoes, their beauty-loving eyes must have glowed at the picture presented. Champlain passed this way, eyes wide with visions, heart big with plans for Canada. Not far away, Daulac and his men lived their immortal story. Perrot says he met La Salle hunting in these woods; they echoed the death song of Cadieux. Radisson and Grosseillers fled westwards along this trail, and after them, for a hundred years continually, voyageur and coureur de bois, hunter, trapper, trader, priest, passed up and down. Singing they paddled up or down; westward, their songs hurled gay defiance to the dangers of the trail; paddling east they sang of home, and even the racing Ottawa moved too slowly for their eager thoughts.

For more than thirty years after the British conquered

Canada, the Ottawa remained untroubled by the blade of the white man's paddle. There, in 1796, came Philemon Wright, a man of substance and family from Woburn Town near Boston. He explored the river, seeking a site for a home and a town. The next year he came again and examined the banks of the St. Lawrence. A third visit in 1798 convinced him that the Ottawa suited him best. He could not persuade any of his neighbours to join him, so he hired two men to accompany him. They reached the Chaudière on October 1, 1799, and examined the country carefully, climbing a hundred trees to secure good views. Their report was so favourable that the next year Wright was able to hire as many men as he wanted.

Mr. Wright bought mill irons, axes, scythes, hoes and all necessary supplies and, early in 1800, led out his little colony. There were five families, and they travelled in seven sleighs with fourteen horses and eight oxen. At night the women and children slept in the sleighs, the men rolled themselves in blankets by the fire. The party reached Montreal on the eighth day. For the first forty miles beyond the roads were good and the travellers made fifteen miles a day. After that there were no roads; the snow lay two feet deep; the party was frequently delayed while the axemen cut a road through the woods; it now took them three or four days to do sixteen miles. Above the rapids they were able to travel on the frozen river, reaching the Chaudière on March 7.

The men of the party at once began to cut down trees and build log houses. The Indians stood about watching. They were friendly and interested, trading maple sap and venison for trinkets. As they watched they thought, and ten days later called upon Mr. Wright in a body demanding to know what right he had to cut down these trees. Mr. Wright assured them that he had authority from the Great Father. He paid them a small sum for their sugar kettles, which satisfied them for the time being. Soon after, the Indian Department sent to assure the natives that Mr. Wright had bought the land. The Indians came to apologise; they made Mr. Wright a chief, danced and sang, kissed and embraced him.

Spring came early that year. The little colony had already

cleared enough land for vegetables; they raised that summer nearly a thousand bushels of potatoes. Their cattle did well in the woods. The second year they harvested three thousand bushels of wheat, reaping forty bushels to the acre. Each year saw more houses, more barns, more land under cultivation.

By 1804 Mr. Wright was supervising a smithy, a tailor shop, a bakehouse, a tannery. In 1807 he took down the Ottawa the first raft of square timber ever floated from Hull to Quebec. It took him thirty-five days to get the raft through the Long Sault, which the rivermen now run in twenty-four hours. He made so much money out of his timber that he continued to take rafts down each year. The Wrights were burned out more than once, but they always managed to begin again, and, by 1824, the great farm and buildings were reputed to be worth a quarter of a million.

Nicholas Sparks, one of Wright's men, was offered a large tract of land just opposite the place where Hull now stands. He drew all his savings, borrowed a little beside and bought. Not long afterward the Royal Engineers came to survey the route for the Rideau Canal. They bought part of his land at a good price. The rest he divided up into building lots which he sold at his own price, making a large fortune.

THE TOWERS OF OTTAWA

OIL DISCOVERED

It was in 1857 that Mr. J. M. Williams began digging a well upon his farm in Lambton County, Ontario. The workmen had reached a depth of thirty feet when they put away their tools one evening. Next morning they found the well nearly full of water and oil. There was tremendous excitement in the neighbourhood, people came from far and near to see the first oil well. The proud owner sent to the city for a pump and began at once to raise and market the oil.

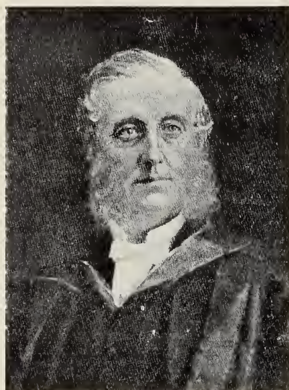
The news that Mr. Williams had "struck oil" spread rapidly. Other wells were sunk. In most cases oil was found at from thirty-seven to seventy feet. They were surface wells, but they yielded well and soon attracted the interest of capitalists. Refineries were built at London, Woodstock and Hamilton. Fortunately the Great Western Railroad had just been opened through to Sarnia. Wyoming was the station nearest to the wells, though it was not very near. In those early days the oil was drawn thirteen miles on stone-boats or mud-sleighs by oxen over a roundabout road through the woods.

Mr. Vaughan, an American, inaugurated the second stage in the development of the Ontario oil industry. In 1860 he began drilling through the rock. At eighty-six feet he struck oil which poured out in a thick stream; it soon appeared that they had found a "flowing" well. When the drill reached a hundred and fifty-eight feet in the "Shaw" well, a river of petroleum rushed to the surface and spouted twenty-five feet from the mouth of the box. Thirty other flowing wells were discovered in quick succession. The flow from the "Shaw" well reached three thousand barrels a day. One of the others is said to have produced six thousand barrels in twenty-four hours. Some flowed for a week, others for a year. It was impossible to save all the oil. Acres of land were covered with it, and Bear Creek became a river of oil. Millions of barrels were wasted.

Such over-production brought prices down. Crude oil fell to ten cents a gallon. Ways of collecting and storing the oil were arranged and the companies, fitting the supply to the demand, soon brought prices back to normal.

TASSIE'S

By James E. Kerr



WILLIAM TASSIE

In August 1859 my father sent me, a lad of twelve years, to the Grammar School at Galt. With the exception, perhaps, of Upper Canada College it was considered the best preparatory school in the province; a reputation due entirely to the merits of the Principal, Mr. William Tassie. Boys came from all parts of Canada and even from distant places in the United States to attend "Tassie's." The Headmaster received about forty of the boarders in his own house; the other fifty or sixty were placed in houses in the town.

In 1859 the Grammar School was a long, rather narrow, one-storey stone building, with no pretension to style or beauty. It had not even a belfry or cupola to show that it was not some small factory or storehouse. It stood on the site of the present collegiate. At the back of the school the ground sloped rapidly down to the Grand River, and in front a wide expanse of stumpy field lay between it and the Preston Road. To the south no unsightly embankment then cut off from the school the view of the pretty little town of Galt, lying almost a mile away in the valley below.

The school contained two classrooms separated by a hall-

way. The room in the south end was used by the mathematical master, and across the hall was the door of the north room in which Dr. Tassie taught. Entering by this door the visitor saw on his right a row of desks at which were seated the senior boys, and on his left along the full length of the west wall ran a bench occupied by the juniors. There still remained a large open space down the middle of the room. Here the floor was marked in chalk with squares and circles which might have suggested to the visitor geometrical problems awaiting solution, but which were merely intended to indicate the lines along which we were to place our toes when our classes stood up for the recitation of lessons. Maps hung on the west wall, and at the north end of the room there was a large blackboard. On a raised platform at that end was a table and the chair of the Headmaster.

The school day was a long one. Then, at seven in the evening we were called in from our games to prepare our lessons for the next day. While busy with our lessons the master watched us closely, either from his desk or in walking about the room, to see if we were idling or scheming. At nine o'clock with a sigh of relief, though with a secret dread of the ordeal which awaited us on the morrow, we put our books back into our satchels, and after the reading of a portion of Scripture and prayer we were dismissed.

On Sundays we all attended the church services. Instead of a full holiday on Saturdays, Dr. Tassie thought it better to give us half-holidays on Wednesday and Saturday afternoons. Our amusements in summer were chiefly bathing and boating. The boys who were learning to swim went to Mill Creek, where the water was comparatively shallow, but when they were able to swim perhaps fifty yards they were allowed to bathe in the river near the school where the water was deep. Dr. Tassie kept one or two row-boats for the use of the boarders, and many a pleasant half-holiday we spent upon the river.

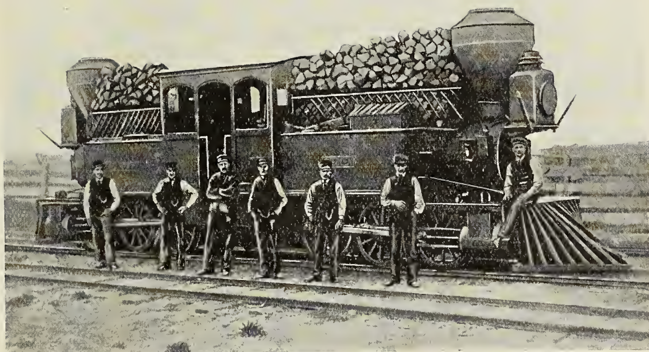
Fights occurred among the schoolboys then, as I suppose they do now. Every new boy had to have one or two of them before his position in the school was settled. After that it was only once in a long while he had to assert his manhood, though,

as in the Balkans, war might break out at any moment. Dr. Tassie did not countenance fighting, but he seemed to think that little differences were best settled by the boys themselves and, as a rule, he kept out of the way when fights were on. He trusted to the bystanders and to the fighters themselves to see that there was no foul play. According to the rules of the game, after two boys had fought they shook hands and were friends again. Some years after I left school, a fight took place in the gymnasium after school was dismissed one day, and one of the chief performers got the worst of it, as often happens. When the game was called off he went up to his antagonist to congratulate him and offered him his hand. The other fellow with a scowl turned on his heel and went out, upon which there arose among the boys such a storm of indignation at this boorish conduct that the offender had to leave school the next day and never returned.

THE GRAND TRUNK SCHEME

1852

In 1845 the American Government passed a Bonding Bill which, to encourage traffic on American lines, allowed goods to pass through the United States in bond, instead of paying customs duties. This struck at the supremacy of Montreal as the port of the West. Montreal decided she must have a railway to connect her with the ocean. Under the influence of Sir A. T. Galt, the St. Lawrence and Atlantic Railway was incorporated to build a line from a point opposite to Montreal on the south shore of the St. Lawrence to a point on the New Hampshire boundary where it would connect with the American lines. This company sought financial help in England, but none being forthcoming, the company struggled on alone with their surveys and construction. In the same year, 1845, a London company had suggested building a line from Halifax to Quebec. The Maritime Provinces agreed to co-operate in this. In 1849 they



Canadian Pacific Railway

OLD-FASHIONED WOOD-BURNING ENGINE

offered to grant land ten miles wide on either side of the right of way, and to pay £20,000 a year until the road began to pay its own expenses. As this railroad promised to be an important national work, Canada (Upper and Lower) also agreed to grant ten miles of land and £20,000 a year. At the same time, in what was then the extreme west of Canada, the Great Western Railway was pushing forward its surveys and construction between Hamilton and Windsor.

In 1850 a great railway convention was held at Portland, at which a railway connecting Halifax and Portland was planned. At a later meeting in Halifax, Joseph Howe spoke upon the question and, as he usually did, threw much light upon it. He held that a railway was too huge an undertaking for a private firm; railways would be great national assets and should be built by the State. The province took the matter up and applied to the British Government for help. It was refused. The Maritime Provinces then sent Howe to England to persuade the home Government to aid them. By his clever writing and brilliant speeches Howe was able to convince the authorities. The British Government promised to guarantee a loan for the three

provinces, to finance the building of a railway from Halifax to Quebec. Howe came home in triumph.

A "Grand Trunk Line" was now planned. The three provinces would build from Halifax to Quebec; Canada would build a line from Quebec to Montreal; Sir A. T. Galt and his colleagues would build from Montreal to Kingston and Toronto, when it would be an easy matter to connect with the Great Western already building westward to Windsor. The provinces planned to concentrate all their efforts on this "Grand Trunk Line" which should connect the Lakes with the ocean.

Preparations were going forward swiftly when, without any warning, Britain changed her mind. The home Government said they had not intended to guarantee the loans, and they would not do so. This strange behaviour brought everything to a standstill. The provinces were in despair; they could not borrow the money without Britain's guarantee. What were they to do?

At this point the Brassey Company came forward. They were a British firm of railway builders who had made a great deal of money building railways in England and in India. They offered to build the whole of the "Grand Trunk Line" if the provinces would grant them from three to five million acres of land, pay them £90,000 a year for twenty years, and safeguard them from competition. The Brassey Company was supported by Sir Francis Hincks.

This scheme promised to eliminate Sir A. T. Galt and his company, who had already built part of their line and were only waiting for charters to continue it. Galt opposed the Brassey scheme hotly. He said that Canada had been struggling along, slowly but steadily, building her own lines. She had begun and she could finish. He and his company declared they could build the Montreal to Kingston line much more cheaply than the Brassey Company. There was a brisk fight in the Railway Commission, and the great English company won. The Grand Trunk Railway Company was incorporated in 1852.

It was not a success. The Government was obliged to come to the aid of the company again and again and, in the end, the Grand Trunk became bankrupt. Its insolvency severely injured

Canada's reputation abroad. It was re-organised and placed in charge of excellent men, both in Britain and Canada; an earnest effort was made to make it profitable.

The Grand Trunk Company refused to undertake the transcontinental line and the Canadian Pacific Railway Company came into being. From the first the older company was hostile to the younger one, trying in every way to prevent the Canadian Pacific Railway from acquiring connections in the east. With this purpose in view the Grand Trunk bought on extravagant terms sixteen small lines, and in 1882 amalgamated with the Great Western to prevent the Canadian Pacific Railway buying that road. The Grand Trunk and Great Western had many parallel lines and the union was not profitable. The Grand Trunk continued to build and to add new departments, but it was never on a sound paying basis.

VANCOUVER ISLAND

When the boundary line between British territory and the United States had been settled, people in Britain began to talk about forming a British colony north of it. California and Oregon were growing fast and, it was feared, if British settlers did not take possession of the northern lands, American settlers would. The Pacific coast was a beautiful country with fertile soil and a delightful climate; Britain had many poor people who found it hard to make a living at home; to send them to build up a British colony in America seemed an excellent plan.

At this time the Hudson's Bay Company held its western lands under a lease which would not expire until 1859. They did not want a colony in their country; colonists drive away the animals. The company soon saw, however, that they could not keep settlers out, so they offered to establish a colony themselves. This was clever of them. If they could get permission from the Government to form the colony, they could keep it small and put it in some place where it would not much disturb the fur trade. Vancouver Island would, they thought, be the

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VICTORIA IN EARLY DAYS

best place for it. They asked, therefore, for a grant of the island, offering to establish a colony and to spend all the money received for lands and minerals in improving it.

This offer was discussed in the British Parliament. Some members favoured it, others opposed. In the end it was accepted and the grant made on January 13, 1849. The company paid seven shillings a year rent for the great island with its magnificent resources of fur, fish, minerals and lands. In return they promised to settle a colony of British subjects upon it within five years; to sell land to the colonists at a reasonable price; to retain ten per cent. of the money received from lands and minerals for themselves, and to spend all the rest in improving the colony. If at the end of five years no settlement had been made, the company must forfeit the grant. If, when the company's licence expired in 1859 the British Government wished to do so, they might repay to the company the money spent and take back the island.

The company now published a circular offering lands in Vancouver Island to colonists. The settlers were to pay one pound an acre for the land, buy not less than twenty acres, and pay their own passage from Britain to Vancouver. If a man bought more than a hundred acres of land, he was required to bring out with him five single men or three married couples. As you will imagine, such an offer did not attract settlers,

Courtesy of Religious Tract Society.

FRUIT PICKING AT NELSON, B.C.

especially as equally good land was to be had free just across the line in the United States. Better arrangements for frightening settlers away could scarcely have been made, and the company smiled with satisfaction.

Sir John Pelly, the London Governor of the Hudson's Bay Company, suggested that Chief Factor Douglas should be made Governor of the new colony, but the British Government would not allow that. They sent out Mr. Blanshard. He was given no salary, but was to have a thousand acres of land on the island. Mr. Blanshard reached Victoria in March 1850. Douglas and the other Hudson's Bay men received him politely. He read to them the commission making him Governor of Vancouver Island, but when he looked about for a colony to govern he found none. The company men were the only white people on the island.

As there was no place for the new Governor upon the land, he was obliged to live on the ship which had brought him out. When he asked for the thousand acres of land promised him in lieu of salary, Douglas pointed him to the beautiful but difficult heights of what is to-day Rockland Avenue. Douglas explained also that the thousand acres belonged to the Governor only while he remained in Victoria; when Blanshard retired it would belong to his successor. "What use then to spend the large sums necessary to improve and build upon it?" thought the much-tried Governor as he turned away. Nothing to do, no prospects, at every turn politely checked by the company, Governor Blanshard soon gave it up. In September 1851 he went home, which was exactly what the company wanted him to do.

A few settlers did come to Vancouver Island during that year, but most of them stayed only a little while and then went off to try their luck in the California goldfields. Only one sale of land was made. W. C. Grant bought land at Sook Harbour and brought out eight men to settle upon it. He could not get land nearer to Victoria because the company had reserved all the land about the fort. Mr. Grant stayed two years and then left his land in charge of his men. When he returned he found it lying neglected. He sold it to Mr. Muir, who managed the

company's coal mine at Nanaimo, and then he, too, left the country.

In November 1851, Chief Factor Douglas was appointed Governor in the room of Mr. Blanshard, and matters went on smoothly for the company, not so prosperously for the few settlers. Douglas, though a company man, was a wise and just ruler. Now that there were a few settlers and miners on the island, he no longer arrested and punished out of hand Indians who had committed crimes. Had he done so the tribes would have revenged their fellows by killing the settlers. When an Indian offended, he was coaxed in and reprimanded or won to friendship and allegiance by a present. When murder was committed the tribes were led to give up the criminals, who were given a fair trial before being punished.

The company was already mining coal busily. They had built Fort Rupert at the north-east corner of the island to protect the coal miners there. They brought John Muir and family, expert coal miners, out from Scotland. A fort was built at Nanaimo in 1852 and the mines there briskly worked. Before the end of 1853 two thousand tons had been shipped, one half of it having been mined by the help of the Indians. Much of the coal was shipped to San Francisco, where the company charged twenty-eight dollars a ton for it; only eleven dollars a ton was charged at Nanaimo.

In 1853 there were 450 white men on Vancouver Island; 300 of these were in Victoria. As there were so few settlers it looked as though the company would lose the island at the end of the first five years. The settlers who were not Hudson's Bay men petitioned the British Government that the grant to the company should not be renewed. The company officers, Douglas, Work, Tod, Tolmie and Finlayson, each bought large tracts of wild land, paying the pound per acre for them. These purchasers brought the land applied for up to almost twenty thousand acres, so the company was not disturbed.

As the population slowly increased a Chief Justice was appointed and writs sent out for an election. In order that he might vote, a man was required to own twenty acres of land; to become a candidate for election he had to have three hundred

pounds' worth of property. There were so few people qualified to vote and so few possible candidates that the election was rather amusing. It was held, however, and seven members elected. The first Assembly met on August 12, 1856, Dr. Helmcken being chosen Speaker.

"At this time there were no streets, and the traffic cut up the thoroughfares so that everyone had to wear sea-boots to wade through the mud and mire. Bachelor's Hall was a common room in the centre of the fort, and there were two rooms on each side with a door opening into each. One of these rooms was the surgery. The other two were occupied by officers of the company. The stove was square, made of sheet iron, bent in all directions by the heat. It had a cast-iron door and was fed with large billets of wood, of which plenty existed in the Hall. The stove looked mean and dilapidated, but it was found capital for roasting native oysters upon. In the surgery there was a cot slung to the ceiling. The room was unique. It contained a gun-case and a few shelves, with drugs in bottles or in papers in every direction. The tin lining of a packing-case served as a counter.

"The mess-room, off from which Mr. Douglas and family lived, was at the corner of (now) Fort and Government Streets; the counting-house, occupied by Mr. Finlayson and family, was near (now) Wharf Street. A belfry stood in the middle of the yard, and its bell tolled for meals, for deaths, for weddings, for church service, for fires, and sometimes for warnings. On Wharf Street there was a flag-staff and, near it, a well some eighty feet deep, but which contained very little water. The fort yard was muddy, and the side-walk to the stores consisted of two or three poles.

"Outside the fort there were no houses save, perhaps, a block cabin or two. Forest, more or less, existed from 'the ravine,' Johnson Street, to the north. The harbour was surrounded by tall pines and its bowers bedecked with shrubs, many of which were, at this early period, in blossom. Cultivated fields existed from Government Street to the Public Schools; likewise across the bay. There were barns up Fort Street."

In 1849 the Reverend Mr. and Mrs. Staines came from

England to carry on a boarding-school for the daughters of the settlers. Mr. Staines quarrelled with the company, but Mrs. Staines, who was an excellent teacher, seems to have made a success of her work. The school was held in part of "Bachelor's Hall." One night, after the girls had gone to bed, the men in the "Hall" below began to make a great deal of noise. "Captain Grant began to entertain the company. He stuck a candle on the back of a chair, to snuff it with a sweep of the sword. After a while the captain introduced the game 'To escort Her Majesty to Windsor Castle.' All were to be cavalry; so down everybody went kangaroo fashion. Grant took the lead and so we hopped around the room, and made considerable of a racket, in the midst of which some naughty school-girl overhead, possibly not being able to sleep, poured some water through a crack in the ceiling right down upon the cavalry. This put an end to the 'Escort to Windsor.' Word was brought by a spy that some of the men had a canoe and were about to depart to the other side, so off McKay went to look after them. This broke up the party, and away we went to bed; and so ended a day in Victoria (1850)."

The coming of the gold hunters signed the death warrant of the company as a governing body in the island. It is unlikely that the British Government would, in any case, have renewed the lease after 1859. The committee which sat to consider the right of the Hudson's Bay Company over the lands in North-Western America, in 1858, advised Parliament that the lease should not be renewed and that Vancouver Island should be made a colony under the Crown.

THE PHANTOM CITY

1858

When British Columbia had been separated from Vancouver Island and established as a Crown colony, the authorities decided that it should have a capital of its own. "The spot selected was the site of a former post of the Hudson's Bay Company, known as 'Old Fort Langley.' It is on the left bank

Fort Langley Women's Club

OLD FORT LANGLEY

of the Fraser, nine miles from the entrance. The anchorage is good and the river deep enough to admit of ships being moored close in to the bank, with a cheerful aspect and a surface well adapted for building and drainage. The greater part of the site is dry and elevated, and the open lands of New Langley are at no great distance in the rear. A trail connects it with Whatcome and other American towns in the neighbourhood of Bellingham Bay."

Here three thousand building lots were laid out, of which three hundred and forty-two were sold in two days for £13,000, on which a deposit of ten per cent. was paid. A court-house, gaol, parsonage, and church were built, and four or five hundred persons were about to commence operations when another capital was announced.

The site last determined on was on the right bank, near the point at which the Fraser divides to form the north and south branches. No exertions were spared to found the new capital with *éclat* and stamp it with success. Engineers were for months employed projecting its squares and terraces. At the auction sales it was announced that in certain quarters, its "west end," no shops would be admitted. Majesty itself was approached to find a name for it, but in the colonies it was known as "The Phantom City."

THE FIRST SCHOOL IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

THERE were no Protestant missionaries or teachers in British Columbia before 1857. Roman Catholic fathers followed close on the heels of the fur traders; they travelled about the country making friends of the Indians and teaching them.

In 1856 H.M.S. *Satellite*, Captain Prevost, was sent out from England in connection with the dispute about the boundary between British Columbia and Washington. While the *Satellite* was making ready, Captain Prevost offered a free passage in her to any Protestant missionary whom the Church Missionary Society wished to send out to British Columbia. The society offered the position to Mr. Duncan, missionary and minister, and he accepted.

The *Satellite* reached Victoria in June 1857. Mr. Duncan was eager to begin his work, but had first to decide where he should settle. The company suggested Nanaimo, but in the end it was decided that Mr. Duncan should open his school at Fort Simpson. He passed the summer in Victoria, learning the Indian language and waiting for the Hudson's Bay boat, which did not return to Fort Simpson till October.

At Fort Simpson Mr. Duncan was given a small house which was to serve for school and dwelling in the meantime. He found eighteen men with their Indian wives and little brown children at the fort. Most of the men were French Canadians, good-natured fellows, willing enough that their children should be taught. Mr. Duncan held the first church service on October 11, and opened school on the 13th. He had five little half-breed boys in his class, the eldest not yet five. The teacher was glad they were so young, for he felt that he would be able not only to give them information but to develop good habits in them.

School broke up for the Christmas holidays on December 9, and Mr. Duncan gave his boys a little party. They came to school scrubbed clean and dressed in their best clothes that morning. Each boy brought his father and another guest or

two. They sang a hymn or two, and Mr. Duncan drilled them. They could read a little by this time, but on this day they were so excited that the teacher did not ask them to do so. When their lessons were done, Mr. Duncan talked to them for a little while; perhaps he told them a story; and then they went happily home.

On Christmas Day it was the custom for the company to give a pint and a half of rum to each man. They were soon drunk and the day passed in quarrelling, fighting, and all kinds of

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BUONAPARTE HOUSE

Here was built the first school on Lower Mainland.

wickedness. On this Christmas Day Mr. Duncan held a church service, and fifteen men and four boys attended it, which shows how strong the good man's influence had already become.

A year later, in the autumn of 1858, Mr. Duncan began to build his school just outside the fort. It was to be of plank and bark. The minister went round to each house to ask for a donation. Some took a board off the side or roof of their own house and gave it to him; others gave him parts of their beds. The Indians contributed in all £5 worth of plank and bark. It was plastered outside with earth. By November 15 Mr. Duncan was hoping that the plaster was dry enough for white-washing. Evidently it was, for two days later he wrote that the school was finished and that they had made it all clean and tidy without and within. They were to carry in the desks and

seats the next day, and Mr. Duncan intended to begin teaching on Friday.

On the 18th a great storm came up. A man came running to say that the wind had blown the roof off the new school. Mr. Duncan hurried out of the fort, but was met by another man who said that the roof was not really off, only somewhat damaged. Mr. Duncan went into the little building and, kneeling down, prayed that God would save it from the mighty wind. No further harm was done, a man gave a plank to mend the roof, and Mr. Duncan opened school on November 19.

ESQUIMALT

BRITISH NAVAL BASE IN THE PACIFIC

DURING the Crimean War France and Britain fought together against Russia. It was arranged that the two fleets should co-operate in the Pacific to sweep Russia from those seas. They met at Honolulu in July 1854, and, after a council of war, sailed for Siberia. The squadrons joined forces again in Awatska Bay, and attacked Petropavlovsk on August 31. A bit of hot fighting convinced the admirals that the attack was impracticable and the troops were withdrawn and re-embarked. Crossing the North Pacific the combined fleets captured Sitka, and then separated to seek their respective winter quarters.

The British fleet reached Vancouver Island in the autumn of 1854. There were many sick and wounded on board whom the officials hoped to land at Victoria. Arrived in Esquimalt Harbour it was found that there was no suitable accommodation for the men, and the fleet was forced to go to San Francisco to land her sick and to refit.

In February 1855, Rear-Admiral Bruce wrote to Chief Factor Douglas saying that he would reach Victoria with his squadron in July, and asking for a building which could be used as a hospital. Douglas, whose eye for business was extraordinarily keen, hastened to put up three commodious buildings on

Perry Point at the entrance to Esquimalt Harbour. They were of wood, and cost the Hudson's Bay Company £932. They would have been very useful had the fleets engaged that year; no battle took place, however. The fleets approached Petropavlovsk cautiously and found not a soul in the place; they crossed to Sitka; it, too, had been abandoned. French and British sailed away, and the buildings on Perry Point remained untenanted.

Chief Factor Douglas had already written to the British Government pointing out the value of Esquimalt as a naval base. He promised that if the Government would make Esquimalt the base for the Pacific fleet, the colony would build storehouses out of its own funds. Rear-Admiral Bruce recommended that the Navy keep the buildings already erected and build a provision depôt and store near them. The five hundred white inhabitants of Victoria were agog with excitement at the prospect of having the Pacific naval base on the island. Regular, perhaps lengthy, visits from the ships of the line promised both business and society to the quiet island village. The British Government promised nothing, but quietly continued to use Esquimalt.

The next year, the *Satellite*, Captain Prevost, came out in connection with the boundary dispute. She made her headquarters at Esquimalt and, after a good deal of haggling over the price, Captain Prevost took over the buildings for the Navy. In 1858 H.M.S. *Plumper* arrived with the surveyors to make an accurate chart of the disputed boundary. The men of the *Plumper* worked hard in all kinds of weather; a certain amount of sickness was inevitable. Dr. Campbell, medical officer in charge, was given half of one of the buildings and established a hospital. The Admiralty then sent out a quantity of medical stores for the ships of the squadron, thus admitting the growing importance of the station, though they still refused, formally, to name it a base.

Year by year Esquimalt added to herself. At one time Governor Douglas was ordered to reserve seven acres of ground for the use of the Navy; at another, three attendants were attached to the hospital. The Royal Engineers had a building

in Skinner's Cove. The wooden buildings were gradually replaced by brick. At last, in 1864, a store and depôt were erected, and stores for the fleet arrived from England; Esquimalt was, at last, really a naval base.

Esquimalt had the business, Victoria the society. The years that followed were of a social brilliance hardly since surpassed. There was always some ship in harbour, whose officers and men entertained on board and were entertained ashore. The young ladies of Victoria had beaux and to spare; the blue and gold of the Navy adorned every occasion.

In 1867, Williams, an enterprising citizen of Esquimalt, built a long, low, pleasant house near the water's edge. He leased it to the officers of the fleet as a club house. There were a billiard-room, reading-room, kitchen, lavatories, and six small rooms upstairs. The offices were attached outside. Williams rented himself with his house, becoming club steward at £50 a year. He provided all wines and spirits and kept the house in repair and service. The new club at once became the centre of the little naval world; it flourished for many years.

THE NAVAL CLUB, ESQUIMALT

A particularly brilliant series of entertainments marked the visit of the flying squadron in 1871. The officers were dined and wined; they hunted, fished and rode, raced and played cricket, picnicked and danced all day and rather more than half the night. Rear-Admiral Hornby tells an amusing story of the "Birthday Ball" given in honour of Queen Victoria's birthday by her namesake city.

It seems that as the ballroom was being prepared for the evening a chandelier fell, the glass containers smashing to atoms on the floor. The oil spread over the beeswax which had

just been rubbed in, and the flames shot up to the ceiling. The fire was speedily put out, but, Admiral Hornby says, the charred floor, "acting like a ploughed field to heavy goers" among the dancers, frequently brought them up standing and somewhat marred the pleasure of the evening for all but the most enthusiastic.

The young officers of this flying squadron had dressed aboard or at the Naval Club in Esquimalt. Their gold lace, white gloves and tight pumps were conveyed over the nine miles of very indifferent road which then separated Esquimalt and Victoria by some dozen of greedy hackmen. These worthy citizens charged outrageous prices for the drive. Having delivered the last dancer at the ball, and feeling that they had undoubtedly done a good day's business, they one and all retired to bed.

When the last dance had been danced and "God Save the Queen" sung, there was a great bustle of carriages being called, chaperons making polite adieus, mothers hurrying their daughters into their wraps, fathers collecting their womenfolk, the Navy gathering up silken trains, hanging them over white arms, whispering last compliments into pink ears. The torch-light flickered on velvet cloaks, bright eyes flashed from under soft head shawls. The last lantern glimmered out, the last carriage rattled away into the distance—and the Navy found itself nine miles from its base, in a very dark night and very tight shoes.

A number of the officers had been invited to spend the night at Government House—then a long two miles from the town. Not a hack was to be found. There was nothing for it but to walk over an unknown road to a house, of the location of which no one was quite sure. There was a good deal of suppressed swearing as they set out; as they advanced, it became more and more audible and was directed particularly against all makers of tight boots.

At the edge of the town the party came upon a dray, horsed, but without a driver. Without a moment's hesitation thirteen gentlemen in gold-laced trousers and epaulettes climbed on, and the Honourable Walter Somebody undertook to drive them home. They could not see the ditch and were unconscious of

their very real danger, but they soon had enough to think and talk of. The Honourable Walter liked a brisk gait; he whipped up his horse and sent him over the roots and logs of the impossible road at a gallop. The air was full of groans and prayers and agonised entreaties to stop. The springless vehicle sent them bouncing now upon one another, now upon the planks, till their teeth were loose in their heads. Presently they began to meet carriages returning after having delivered their passengers. The drivers took the dray for an ambulance coming back from a fight, and with one accord turned into the ditch, leaving the flying dray an open road. The party reached Government House "more jelly than chicken," with hardly enough breath among them to ask for admittance.

The dray which had been abandoned by the roadside was reclaimed by a very angry owner, whose wounded feelings were soon healed by the tips of the officers and the laughter of the servants.

BARNARD'S EXPRESS

1862

There was no Government postal system in the West in those days, but letters and parcels were carried all over California and British Columbia by the various express companies. There were several of these: The Fraser River, Jaffary's Express, Barnard's. The Wells Fargo Company was the largest of them all. Their San Francisco office was as large as a great city post-office. They carried letters anywhere in California for ten cents each. The mail was carried by these companies quickly, considering the roads and the distances, comparatively cheaply, and with perfect safety. The mines commonly sent their gold dust down to the banks by the express companies.

Barnard's was for some years the most important express company in British Columbia. Its stages ran regularly to Williams' Creek and all intermediate points. Mr. Barnard had

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BARNARD'S EXPRESS

a contract to carry the mails for a period of years and, so far as is recorded, nothing was ever either lost or misdelivered by his company. When their contract expired in 1863 Barnard's was carrying to the coast a hundred thousand dollars' worth of gold weekly.

TO THE MINES

When the news that gold had been discovered in British Columbia reached England, great excitement ensued. Glowing letters appeared in *The Times* telling of the enormous wealth of the mines and of the vast fields of enterprise opening there for emigrants. Mr. Johnson was then a youngster with a taste for adventure. Together with an acquaintance who had been in the Australian field, he resolved to try conclusions with fortune. They sailed from Southampton with a hundred and fifty other treasure-seekers, via the Isthmus of Panama and San Francisco, and reached Victoria safely.

They bought two mules and a load of provisions for each,

Provincial Archives, Victoria

THE CARIBOO ROAD

and took passage for New Westminster, then the capital of the Crown colony of British Columbia. They reached it after ten hours' steaming, "a little bantling town on a noble site, frequently designated 'Stumpville.' Many of its streets leading uphill were mere quarries down which the unsuspecting stranger might fall ten or twenty feet." Johnson did fall down such a hole full upon an Indian and his family who had set up their hut for the night in the lee of the rock.

From New Westminster the miners went up to Yale, about a hundred miles, in a river steamer. The current is never less than twelve or fourteen miles an hour, and the steamers are built accordingly. "Their hulls are flat-bottomed, and they draw only two feet of water. They are, however, of great length and beam. Their bows are 'shovel-nosed.' The propelling medium is a huge wheel at the stern, from eighteen to twenty-four feet in diameter, extending across the entire width of the boat. This wheel is not immersed to a greater depth than that of the paddles (about eighteen inches), and is connected with the cylinders by cranks and connecting-rods. The boilers are well for'ard, close in the bows, and the furnaces are on a level

with the main deck and quite open, to enable them to get the draught caused by the motion of the vessel.

"All the passengers were bound for the mines; three-quarters of them as miners, the others store-keepers and gamblers. There were two women, one laundress who afterwards made a fortune, and one wife going to join her husband. They had some difficulty getting their mules aboard, but with plenty of kicks and shoves and curses carefully smothered so as not to shock the ladies, they managed; the last stick of cordwood was piled up, and the steamer puffed away.

"When dinner was spread in the saloon, everybody made a rush for places, knocking over one or two nigger stewards bearing savoury dishes, and appearing to think that the first man there would eat up everything. Even the ladies were forgotten and would not have had a mouthful but for the captain, who stretched himself at full length along the table opposite the best dishes until the rest of the company were seated, thus reserving space enough for the ladies and himself.

"When dinner was over—it didn't take long at the rate everyone gobbled—and the cloth was removed from the long table, it was soon occupied by the gamblers, professional and otherwise. Gold and notes appeared freely, and changed hands rapidly. Great piles of $20 gold pieces lay about the table in tempting confusion, and the clattering and chinking were incessant. As the players warmed to their work the excitement increased, and shouts and oaths rang through the place."

When night came on the boat ran her nose on shore and tied up to a convenient tree. Johnson and his chum looked about for a place to sleep. There was a "row" in the cabin. They tried the freight below, but were told it was blasting powder. At last the engineer let them spread their blankets on his floor. In an hour or so the moon came up and they pushed off again. Presently another river steamer was found to be gaining on them, and passengers and crew turned out to urge on the race. The firemen were encouraged and shamed by turns, till one of them suggested that "a few of them loafers" had better turn in and help. The Indian wood-passers were kicked awake and the

furnaces began to glow. Still the rival boat gained. Then the captain shouted, "'Five dollars a head, boys, for any of you that'll take a turn at the fires.'

"'Here y'are, Cap'n!'

"'I'm thar, old hoss!' shouted one and another, and half a dozen crowded down into the narrow space between the furnaces, passing the heavy sticks of cordwood from one to another as quick as light. Still the enemy crept closer.

"'Whar's all that bakin and them hams stowed?' shouted the captain, presently. 'Pass them along to the firemen, sharp!'

"Several sacks of bacon were thrown into the flames, making them roar like a strong east wind. Up went the steam-gauge till it showed 160 lbs. to the square inch, just forty more than was allowed by the Government certificate. But the chief was past reason.

"By this time the other boat was neck and neck with us, and every available space on the deck of either boat was crowded by the passengers and others, bandying chaff with one another and entering into the general spirit of excitement prevailing.

"Fate was not with us, however; for suddenly a fearful shock and crash were felt and heard, and we stood stock-still, with a snag run through the bottom of our hull; while the rival boat passed us with jeers, and without stopping to see whether we were sinking or not." The shipwrecked vessel had to run ashore and the passengers camp for two days till another boat came up river and took them on to Yale.

At that time there was no road in to Williams' Creek, centre of the Cariboo district, where ten thousand men were working. A rough trail wandering up and down the mountains carried an almost continuous string of pack-mules, who supplied the needs of the miners. Yale was a lively place in those days. Johnson and his friend hired a Mexican packer who looked like a bandit. He insisted that they should throw away their saddles and buy proper "aparejos," and they were forced to do as he wished. The provisions were made up into 150 lb. packs and strapped on the backs of four mules, and they set out along the "top-country" trail. The Mexican went with them the first

Courtesy of Religious Tract Society.

THE FISH MARKET, VANCOUVER.

day to show them how to lighten the load of the mules, how to unpack and pack.

At intervals they passed roadside huts, where whiskey (warranted to kill at forty paces) was dealt out. At Spuzzum they crossed the river on a ferry worked by pulleys running on a cable suspended across the stream. In a green shady nook with a little stream tumbling off a ledge two hundred feet above into a pool they camped. The Mexican left them here. Wood and water were at hand. The loads were taken off the animals and piled in a row, with the aparejos placed in line in front; and the mules, their leaders carrying a bell, were turned out after a feed of barley, to pick up what they could. One of the party now pitched the tent, another kindled the fire, another cut wood enough to keep it going all night; and Pat, who was found to be a cook, prepared the evening meal of bacon and bread, and boiled a kettle of beans for breakfast.

"The gold miners have an excellent and speedy method of baking bread, and the article produced is a long way ahead of the Australian 'damper,' and of most of our bakers' bread at home. Yeast powder is mixed in due proportion with the flour, which is then formed into dough. This is immediately divided into lumps large enough to cover the bottom of a frying-pan; the pan with its contents is then propped up in front of a brisk fire. When one side is browned the cake is turned over and the other side baked. Each loaf takes only five or ten minutes to bake, or rather roast, and thus a sufficient supply for a large party can be prepared in less than an hour from the time the fire is lighted."

The mosquitoes tortured them above Yale and again on the Bonaparte River. The green hands scratched and tore themselves into a perfect frenzy, their fists soon resembled boxing gloves in shape and almost in size. Six days above Lytton they were joined by a driver with five hundred head of cattle and some sheep from Oregon; that night they dined on fresh beef-steak. Next morning two of the miners' mules and forty of the drover's cattle were found to have been driven off by cattle thieves. The party at once set out in pursuit and after a long hunt caught the thieves. Slippery Jack, the leader, was

shot, and the others covered as they sat round their fire. The whole party then returned to the trail and continued their journey, driving their prisoners before them. At Williams' Lake the thieves were handed over to justice and sent to New Westminster for trial. They were given fourteen years in the chain gang.

From Williams' Lake the miners went on to the Forks of the Quesnel, across which river lay the El Dorado they had come so far to find. Descending miners told gloomy stories of the perpetual rain, spongy ground and enormous prices, but our party refused to be discouraged. After crossing the Quesnel, they had only sixty miles to travel before reaching Williams' Creek, but they were sixty very bad miles. They pushed their animals through a sea of mud to Keithley Creek. Here they were obliged to leave the mules, for only a man could carry goods over the remainder of the trail. They sold them to a returning packer for half-price and thought themselves lucky.

The cargo was now divided into packs of 80 lbs. each, and with these on their backs they set out to do the last forty miles on foot. As there were 160 lbs. per man, they had to make two trips. The mountain-sides were soaked with melting snow and soft drizzling rain fell three days out of four. The ground was a spongy mass; the trail had been trodden to a quagmire with fallen trees across it every few feet. The path rose at an angle of forty or fifty degrees, and occasionally skirted precipices where a false step would have sent the wayfarer to destruction. After sixteen days of the hardest travelling to and fro they landed the whole of their cargo at Williams' Creek, and took a day or two to rest from their toils.

For two or three miles down Williams' Creek all the available ground appeared to be taken up, and the place looked just like an ants' nest. The town comprised the ordinary series of rough wooden shanties, stores, restaurants, grog shops and gambling saloons; and on a little eminence the official residence, tenanted by the gold commissioner and his assistants and one policeman, with the British flag permanently displayed in front of it, looked over the whole.

Our party staked a claim and registered it at once. They

worked all that summer sinking a shaft and in autumn found themselves without food or clothes and having found nothing yet. They went out to work in the settlements during the winter and returned to repeat their experience the next summer. In the third spring Johnson and Pat found themselves left alone; they made up their minds to try once more, and if they found nothing, to leave the country. They abandoned Williams' Creek and prospected on another little creek. Here, when hope was nearly gone, Pat "struck it." They returned to Williams' Creek for food and tools and, with an extra hand, worked their claim successfully. The autumn found them with enough to make Pat, at least, rich for life. He went home to Ireland and his Bridget, bought a little freehold and lived happy as the day was long. Johnson, a younger man, remained in the colony to invest his capital.

Provincial Archives, Victoria

WILLIAMS' CREEK

THE ROYAL CITY

1859

THE last detachment of the Royal Engineers reached Fort Langley on Good Friday, 1859. Buildings were partly ready for them here, but they stayed only a short time as Colonel Moody thought a lovely reach of the Fraser some miles lower down would make a better town site. They surveyed on the south branch first, but the spring freshet flooded this site, so the final survey was made on the north bank. The military camp, called Derby, was established about a mile farther up the river.

When the women and children were brought down from Fort Langley, they came in schooners, craft somewhat uncertain in the contending currents. A new jetty had been built just below the camp, and to it many boats and canoes were moored. The first steamer came on with too much headway, crashed wildly into it, and piled boats and canoes in a heap on the shore. The husbands and fathers waiting, eager to greet their families, were thrown into the river. The wives screamed, the frightened children cried, the sailors shouted. The women found their wits first. They snatched up ropes and lowered the deck buckets to which the men clung till they could be got out.

They spent that first summer in tents; school, hospital, stores, church—everything was under canvas. The arsenal was the only brick building; the bricks which had been brought from England cost about 12½ cents each. Even brick chimneys were scarce in those days. Everyone set to work with a will. The axe-men brought in logs. The sawyers cut them up. The carpenters built the houses, and before winter each family had a snug house. There was a hot dispute over the name of the new town; some wanted Queensborough, others Queenborough. In the end the matter was referred to the Queen herself, who tactfully chose neither but suggested New Westminster. This pleased all the citizens of the Royal City.

THE HARRISON-LILLOOET ROUTE

1858–59

When the miners began to push up the Fraser to the bars above Yale and Lytton, they found, as the traders had already done, that the road was almost impassable. They heard from the Hudson's Bay men of the Harrison-Lillooet route to the Upper Fraser and numbers of intrepid men tried it. They found it scarcely better than the river road. They pushed through the tangled growth of the primeval woods, crept under or over the huge logs that criss-crossed the path, each man carrying

a hundred-pound sack of flour on his back. One after another they became exhausted, dropped out, and a continually smaller party stumbled forward.

When the depression of the second winter set in, Governor Douglas removed some of the restrictions laid upon the miners by the Hudson's Bay Company and began to improve the roads to the upper country. The Harrison-Lillooet route was examined, and the Governor arranged with a group of miners to work their way in to the mines by improving the road from Port Douglas to Lillooet.

Provincial Archives, Victoria

THE START FROM LILLOOET

Steamers carried the men and their dunnage up Harrison River and across Harrison Lake to Port Douglas. Here they portaged thirty-two miles to Port Lillooet at the south end of Lillooet Lake. The road then ran along the Lillooet River, which was too fast for canoes in summer, but was very useful in winter when the Indian packers charged only one-third of the regular price for transporting goods. They went up the river to Pemberton and portaged twenty-two miles to the south-west end of Anderson Lake, which was almost connected with Seton Lake. From the upper end of Seton it was a portage of only three or four miles to Lillooet on the Fraser. The miners improved the roads across the portages. The route saved one hundred and twenty miles of very bad travel in the worst part of the Fraser above Yale.

Howard Chapman, Victoria

SIR DONALD AND EAGLE PEAKS

WALTER MOBERLY, C.E.

It was Paul Kane, the artist, who interested Walter Moberly in British Columbia. Moberly was a young English engineer with a taste for adventure. Kane introduced him to Governor Simpson, who gave him a letter to Douglas. News of the gold discoveries on the Fraser fired his imagination and hurried him off by way of New York and Cape Horn to Victoria. He found the city muddy, overcrowded, excited. Douglas offered him a post in the Government service, but Moberly had determined to see the goldfields.

He went in by the Harrison-Lillooet route, reaching Fountain on the Fraser after an adventurous and far from comfortable trip. He formed a partnership with some miners and for a time worked eagerly; but food failed and the party could get no more credit. They abandoned their mine and Moberly returned to Victoria.

For a short time in 1864 Moberly was a member of the Legislature, but he soon resigned, accepting a Government commission "to put the public works in order and explore east of Cariboo to the boundary of British Columbia." It gave him the opportunity for which he had been waiting, to explore

the Gold, Selkirk, and Rocky ranges for passes which would make possible a wagon road, possibly a railway, to Canada.

With a light exploring party he crossed Shuswap Lake. From the south arm he saw a valley running easterly through the Gold Range, just in the direction in which he wished to find the pass. In the top of a tree near the mouth of the river where they had camped Moberly saw a nest full of young eaglets. The two old birds perched on a limb near. Moberly shot at them eight or ten times, but without doing them any harm. The old birds rose and flew off up the river valley. "If I follow them," thought Moberly, "I may find my pass."

Back and forth through the woods and hills, up and down the Columbia, Moberly worked in spite of every obstacle. Bears stole their food; the Indians ate a week's rations in a day or two; a chief tried to keep his men from packing for Moberly; the canoes had frequently to be mended; they ran the Little Dalles of the Columbia without knowing it, and then missed the supply party; yet, in the end, found themselves again at the end of the trail to Shuswap Lake.

Moberly now determined to climb to the ridge of the range and follow it to the boundary, if need be, seeking a pass. They "ascended a very steep, thickly timbered mountain side and camped on it. The following day we reached an upper plateau and traversed a beautiful grassy glade covered with flowers, and a most picturesque grove of fir trees, and camped at the foot of a high peak (Mount Moody)." Ascending the peak they saw a fine valley running westerly to far-off Shuswap Lake, and another eastward toward the Columbia River. Moberly was so excited he slept little and was up long before day and off to the bottom. There he found the water running east and proudly blazed on a tree, "This is the pass for the overland railway." Remembering the birds he called it the Eagle Pass.

Just opposite the mouth of the Eagle Pass, Moberly saw a valley running deep into the heart of the Selkirks. He hurried back to his base to get supplies to explore this one, for, as he says, "Though a pass through the Selkirk Range was not to be compared in importance with one through the Gold Range—for one could always follow the valley of the Columbia River from

Provincial Archives, Victoria

YALE IN MINING DAYS

the east end of the Eagle Pass and reach any of the passes through the Rocky Mountains south of the Yellowhead Pass—yet it was evident that by shortening the distance a pass through the Selkirks would add materially to the commercial prosperity of our future railway, provided excessive grades would not be required."

At the depôt Moberly sent Ashdown Green to explore the Gold River, and Turnbull to the north-east end of Upper Arrow Lake. He himself organised a party to enter the Selkirks. They found the Illecillewaet boiling down through the valley they had seen. For days they toiled upward through dense underbrush and forests laid every way by the wind. Moberly was ill, but stuck to the road determinedly. At last they reached a point at which the river branched north and south-east. Here the Indians mutinied; winter was upon them, an unknown and dangerous trail ahead; they refused to go farther. Bitterly disappointed, Moberly was forced to turn back. Years later, following Walter Moberly's map and advice, Colonel Rogers and his nephew Albert worked their way down that south-easterly branch. It is now traversed by the main line of the Canadian Pacific.

THE LAND QUESTION IN PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

THE ownership of the land was the subject of long dispute in Prince Edward Island. You remember that after the British conquest the island had been surveyed and divided into large blocks; these blocks were numbered. Identical numbers were placed on bits of paper in London; the papers were thrown into a hat and each man permitted by the Government drew one. The King then granted to him the block of land which had the same number as that upon his paper. In this way the whole island was granted out in a single day; the men who received these grants were called proprietors. The proprietors promised to pay certain "quitrents" for the lands granted to them, and to send out Protestant settlers to occupy them.

They did not do what they had promised, however; many of them were speculators who had no intention of settling the country. They meant to hold their grants until the land became more valuable and then to sell at a profit. Some of the proprietors would have brought out settlers if they could have found any to bring. The most suitable men to come out to work the land in a new country were those who worked on farms in the old country; but the landlords in England needed their hired men and would not let them leave. As the proprietors were receiving no income from their lands in the island they could not, or did not, pay the quitrents. Thus all their promises were broken.

Meantime people were settling in the beautiful and fertile little island. A few of the proprietors sent out men; Lord Selkirk brought out a colony of Highlanders and many other Scottish settlers followed; many United Empire Loyalists found new homes there. These people had farms allocated to them; they cleared away the forest, built houses, planted and harvested. Years passed and the settlers prospered more and more. They were proud of the comfortable homes they had won for themselves.

They had, however, one great cause for uneasiness; not one of them had a deed for his land. As the farms became each year more valuable, the owners grew more and more anxious to secure their titles. The proprietors by breaking their promises had long ago forfeited their rights in the land; the island should have lapsed to the Crown, and been granted out again to the men who were clearing and tilling it. But the proprietors were rich and influential men; they persuaded the King not to take back the lands he had granted them.

Year after year when the Assembly met, Acts were passed requiring the proprietors to pay their quitrents or forfeit the land. Governor Patterson had some of the townships which belonged to absentee proprietors seized and sold, but this only got him into trouble and, in the end, he was recalled. The proprietors then stopped sending out the £3000 they had promised to pay for the upkeep of the Government in Charlottetown; in 1776 they were excused from paying it any more. In 1801 an Act was passed which forgave them their quitrents for twenty-seven years on condition that they should pay it for the last five years. Many of them did not even do this.

Still they clung to the lands, and the settlers were kept out of their deeds. The large blocks of wild land scattered about the island were a menace to the farmers. They could not build roads as they wished to do; wild animals herded in the woods and preyed upon the crops and stock. To crown all, the proprietors sent out to collect rents from the farmers. This caused a panic among the people. They piled their goods into carts and drove, some of them sixty miles, to the capital to demand justice. There were complaints and petitions, but nothing was done. In 1817 Governor Smith caused lots 15 and 55 to be escheated, but the British Government, influenced by the proprietors, prevented the proceedings. Later, the Assembly sent William Cooper to London to take up the matter of escheating the lands. Lord John Russell would not even see him.

In 1860 a committee was appointed to investigate the whole matter. The Assembly chose Joseph Howe to represent them; the Crown appointed John Gray; the proprietors were represented by John Ritchie. These gentlemen studied the case for

eleven months, and then reported that: (1) the grants ought never to have been made; (2) all the grants had been forfeited by breach of the conditions; (3) all the lands might have been seized and sold by the Crown. This was no more than everyone knew already. The point was that the Crown *had not*, apparently *would* not, seize the lands and sell them to the farmers who were clamouring for their title deeds. The committee suggested that the Crown should *buy* the lands from the proprietors and sell them to the farmers.

By 1863 the farmers were convinced that the Government did not mean to carry out the suggestion of the committee, and they formed the Tenant League. Feeling grew hotter as the winter advanced. A great meeting was held at the North American Hotel in Charlottetown at which a resolution was passed to the effect that the tenantry would not pay rent and would resist any attempt to take their lands from them.

The Tenant League grew steadily throughout 1864. The Assembly had failed to win redress; both political parties had failed; the people now stood at bay upon their lands. Meetings were held in all parts of the country. Cases were cited of families driven from their homes by the proprietors; the mothers heart-broken, the fathers worn out, the children half-naked and all forced to begin clearing new land. No sedition was talked, but passive resistance was finally determined upon.

By the spring of 1865 the whole country was in a blaze. A large body of men crossed on the ice from Southport to Charlottetown and surrounded the Colonial Building while Parliament was in session. The deputy sheriff was instructed to arrest Sam Fletcher, their leader, but failed to take him.

The men dispersed without doing any particular harm; but the Government, issuing a proclamation that "divers persons had associated together illegally," called up a posse of two hundred citizens of Charlottetown to go to Southport to arrest the leaders of the Tenant League. The posse sympathised with the tenants and probably never intended to take any prisoners, but a company of cavalry sent out with them had more serious views.

The company moved out of the city at ten o'clock in the

Bayer, Charlottetown

PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, CHARLOTTETOWN

morning, singing "The White Flag" as they marched. One little gentleman in a silk hat, black frock-coat, white trousers and patent leather shoes was particularly anxious to see the capture of the "law-breakers." He climbed into a countryman's cart and stood upon the seat. The noise of the singing frightened the horse which made a sudden bound forward, upsetting the cart and depositing the neat little gentleman in a puddle. The heartless posse only laughed at him.

The posse tramped along the road in a very leisurely fashion. At the end of each mile the magistrate called a halt that the men might have a drink. The cavalry galloped past and were soon out of sight. At Tea Hill the posse stopped for lunch. The men opened their knapsacks and spread out the good things their wives had provided; it took them more than an hour to eat their lunch. They argued about this and that; they rested; they admired the view. The deputy sheriff had the greatest difficulty in getting them started again. At Pownal village some of them climbed into a cart and addressed the people upon "Burning Questions of the Day." The others must needs stop and hear the speeches. The officer had his hands full.

Meantime the cavalry were nearing Fletcher's headquarters, Fort Fletcher, which appeared to be bristling with cannon and

well manned by determined Leaguers. The horsemen were struck with terror, many wished to retire. A flag of truce was produced and one bolder than the rest advanced with it. It was then seen that the defenders were lengths of stove-pipe thrust through boards and crowned with hats. The cavalry passed the "fort," and went on to Mr. Fletcher's house, where they found the hunted man waiting for them at the gate. Several of the soldiers stepped forward to seize him; he was made of straw! Fletcher himself was concealed near by laughing at them. The affair was a farce, because nearly everyone in the island sympathised with the Leaguers. Governor, Council and Assembly fought together for the rights of the farmers; at the same time they quarrelled among themselves about other matters.

In Prince Edward Island, as in the other provinces, the people had a long struggle to force the Governor and Council to hand over the control of the money to the Assembly, the representatives of the people. At last, in 1862, the Council was made elective, and so became representative also. In time two Houses were thought too cumbersome a Government for the little island and they were united.

The difficulty about the land was not solved till Confederation. Many of the island people were opposed to entering the Dominion with the other provinces; they refused to join in 1867. To coax them in, £800,000 was advanced to the island. The land was bought from the proprietors and sold again to the farmers, who were allowed fifteen years to pay for farms which their fathers, a hundred years before, had wrested from the wilderness.

WILDHORSE

EARLY DAYS IN KOOTENAY

It was in 1862 that an Indian found gold on Wildhorse Creek in the East Kootenay country. Two wandering trappers heard of the find and brought the news out of the wilderness. Within six months the usual mob of miners thronged the banks of the

creek, digging, building flumes, blasting, washing "dirt," milling like ants over an upturned hill.

Wildhorse was well named; it began as one of the wildest gold camps ever known. Numbers of "bad" men from the Western States found it a convenient place to prospect. They drank, gambled, and used their "shooting-irons" freely, for government was non-existent and justice a month's ride away.

But Wildhorse reckoned without its host—Britain. Governor Douglas was at the helm; he had no intention of allowing a gold-field, possibly rich, to fall into the eager hands of the United States. Wildhorse swarmed with American miners, but it lay on the British side of the line; Britain would, therefore, take charge of it. The camp was just well started on its career as a "bad" town when in rode Judge O'Reilly, with a lone constable at his back. O'Reilly called the miners together in a one-roomed log shack and addressed them.

"Boys," he said, "I am here to keep order and to administer the law. Those who don't want law and order can get out. Those who stay in this camp will remember on which side of the line this camp lies, for, boys, if there is shooting in Kootenay there will be hanging in Kootenay." And "law and order" reigned.

For a little while Wildhorse boomed. It was four hundred miles from civilisation, and the "packed-in" food was sold at famine prices. Living expenses were so high that only the richest diggings paid. Then Big Bend and Helena were discovered; the miners hurried off to the new camps, leaving Wildhorse almost forsaken. In 1882 there were only eleven settlers in all East Kootenay. The gold commissioner was constable, returning officer and registrar. The postmaster made up and received four mails a year; he was also one of the two storekeepers. There were only two white women, and they could not visit each other because they were the wives of the rival merchants. The Roman Catholic fathers had a little church and school.

Wildhorse had one distinction: it still elected two members to the Colonial Parliament in Victoria. The two members had been granted in the days of the gold rush, when the population was several thousands; since then the political parties had been

so evenly balanced in the colony that neither dared withdraw the two members. It is said that in the election of 1881 the eleven voters at Wildhorse were divided five against five, and that the odd man was kept continually drunk so as to be incapable of registering his casting vote. Worse yet, news came up by rider from Victoria that the two parties were evenly divided in the House; the majority depended upon the Kootenay members and hence upon the unfortunate eleventh man. A second election became necessary; this used up all the liquor in the country; it was too late in the season to bring in more, so East Kootenay passed a "dry" winter.

In 1882 R. E. Sproule with two other prospectors went in from Bonner's Ferry to Kootenay Lake. As they passed along the east shore of the lake Sproule saw iron stain on the rocks. They camped and, prospecting about, found the place promising much. The Bluebell Mine especially looked very rich, and the assays were good. The Sproule party discovered the Bluebell, but they were so far from civilisation that they did not register their claim at once. Hammil and an American party came upon the mine soon after Sproule, and managed to record their find first.

The two parties quarrelled and went to law over the ownership of the mine. Sproule was joined by Baillie Grohman, a gentleman who was interested in Kootenay lands. Mr. Grohman went down to Victoria with samples of Bluebell ore. The Government made him a justice of the peace for Kootenay; he hired the best lawyer he could find and returned for the trial.

Judge Kelly arrived to try the case. He called the men of the rival camps together and told them that as he wished to be perfectly impartial he would sleep in one camp and eat in the other. He begged them to tell him which had the best food. The two parties conferred long and earnestly, comparing their resources. It was finally arranged that the judge should sleep with the Sproule party and eat in Hammil's camp.

Judge Kelly opened court on August 31 in a log shack. His first act was to have all the revolvers in camp placed in a box by his side. He then announced himself ready to hear the case. Hammil's lawyer was in attendance; but Grohman's could

not come, so the latter argued his own case. The trial continued till October 16, when Judge Kelly gave his last judgment in favour of Grohman and Sproule. He was an old miner and stood for the right of first discovery. The case was appealed to the Supreme Court in Victoria, where Chief Justice Begbie reversed three out of four of the decisions of Judge Kelly, giving verdicts in favour of Hammil.

When Sproule learned of this decision he lost his head. He blamed Grohman and Hammil and promised to kill them. He lounged about Standpoint, the nearest rail and post station, and a very "tough" town. Here he soon surrounded himself with a gang of bad characters who enjoyed nothing so much as a fight. Sproule hung about watching his chance for pot-shots at Grohman and Hammil.

Grohman was now busy with the 48,000 acres of bottom lands which he had bought in the Upper Kootenay Valley. He was obliged to come to Standpoint frequently on business. One day as he rode down toward the town, Sproule shot at him from behind a tree; Grohman only escaped because his horse shied and swerved violently.

That night in Standpoint Grohman found himself in a very tight corner. There were only three men in the place whom he could trust: Weeks, who kept the store where Grohman always slept when in town; his engineer, and a wild young Englishman. Weeks told him that he had his wife and children in the house and could not, therefore, take the risk of keeping him that night. He gave him two new Colt revolvers, an empty shack and his blessing. The engineer, who was also a married man, boarded the east-bound train that afternoon. Only the youngster stood by him.

They established themselves in their shack, cleaned their guns and waited attack.

Grohman's staying puzzled the enemy. They expected him to take the night freight and had planned to hold it up, take him off and lynch him. In town, in the shack with Young, who was popular, it was difficult to get at him without loss of life. The night passed uneventfully.

The next morning Grohman boarded the train to go to a

nearby town to swear out a warrant for Sproule's arrest. As the train began to move Sproule swung himself on. He came through the coach with his hand in his pocket. When he reached Grohman's seat he drew his revolver, put it to Grohman's head and told him he would shoot him if he did not leave the train at the next station. Grohman had no gun. While riding or travelling he never carried one, as even a "bad" man hesitates to shoot anyone who is unarmed. Now as he stared into Sproule's eyes he saw the gleam of insanity there and knew the man would shoot him, armed or not. The minutes seemed hours, the telegraph poles seemed miles apart to Grohman, sitting with the cold point of the pistol against his brow. The train began to slow for the stop.

"Will you get off?" asked Sproule.

"No, I will not," said Grohman.

"Then you're a goner," said Sproule.

At that moment the conductor entered. Sproule hid his revolver and, when the train stopped, left it. He now rode out to the Bluebell where Hammil was at work and shot him. He got away and hid for days in the mountains, but the police captured him at last and he was hanged in Victoria.

WEDDINGS IN KILDONAN

By W. J. Healy

Marriages in Kildonan were always on a Thursday. On the Monday before the Thursday of the ceremony in the church the invitations to the wedding were given verbally, often by the father of the bride, who went from house to house. On the Monday of the invitations the cooking for the wedding dinners began. "Old Man" Harper and John Auld were always engaged to do the roasting. Oxen and sheep were killed, and great roasts of beef and mutton hung on the spits before the open fireplaces. Roast beef, roast mutton, boiled potatoes and plum pudding were the staple fare at the wedding feasts.

The festivities began in the house of the bride's family the

day before the marriage, with dancing and feasting. On the Thursday named for the wedding the bride and groom went to the church accompanied by all the invited guests in a long procession. In the earlier years it was usual to walk to the church. When horses and carioles became common in Kildonan the wedding parties used to drive to church. Young men would arrange weeks ahead with the young women who were to be their partners at the wedding. The Rev. Dr. Black met the bride and groom at the door of the church and went in with them.

The return of the wedding procession was generally taken advantage of by the young men who desired to give an exhibition of the speed of their horses; but it was a rule never violated that the bride and groom must not be passed on the road from the church.

On arriving at the house of the bride's parents the first of the wedding dinners was served; it always took several tables to accommodate the wedding guests in relays. Usually the house of a neighbour was cheerfully given up to the dancing; often two neighbouring houses were used for dancing as well as the home of the bride. The dancing was kept up during the afternoon and evening, and sometimes continued for three days. The dancers danced in moccasins; it was usual for them to provide themselves with fancy moccasins ornamented with bead work and coloured work to wear at weddings. There are traditions which are jocularly mentioned of a vigorous dancer having worn out more than one pair of moccasins at a wedding.

Next came the "kirking." On the Sunday following the marriage, the bride and the groom, accompanied by the two groomsmen and the two bridesmaids, drove to the church and sat together in a pew in the front. Their horses were decorated with the many-coloured ribbons which had bedecked them on the marriage day and the bridal party were arrayed in their best clothes. After the "kirking" they drove back to the home of the bride's parents to the Sunday dinner, which was one of the chief feasts of the whole wedding celebration.

UNION IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

1866

MR. DOUGLAS'S term as Governor of Vancouver Island expired in September 1863. Queen Victoria knighted him and the people of Victoria gave him a grand banquet at which an address was presented and many flattering speeches made. The Victorians had not always approved of the acts of Governor Douglas, but everyone knew him to have been honourable, active and extremely capable. "The gold rush of 1858," said one speaker, "took the colony by surprise. The Governor had to do everything; he had to organise, and re-organise, and create."

Next day Sir James with his staff walked down to the New Westminster boat. The streets were gaily decorated and every flagstaff in the town flew the red, white and blue. A procession of cheering people accompanied the party to the boat, which was also gay with flags and bunting. As the boat left the dock the band played "Auld Lang Syne," and a salute of thirteen guns was fired by the Hudson's Bay men. Sir James remained at New Westminster until the following year when, his term as Governor of the mainland colony having expired, he retired in another shower of presentations, banquets and processions.

Before retiring, Sir James Douglas had suggested the union of the two colonies, Vancouver Island and British Columbia. This union now became the question of the hour. Meetings were held, resolutions for or against were passed; the majority of the people seem to have favoured the union. The Legislative Assembly in Victoria in 1865 voted for it as the best way "to stimulate trade, foster industry, develop our resources, augment our population and insure our permanent prosperity.

"The white population of the two colonies did not equal 10,000 in all, and there were two very expensive administrations to carry on. It was obviously absurd that such a state of things should exist, but there were sectional prejudices to overcome.

The New Westminster District, and in particular New Westminster City, were afraid of the predominance of Victoria and the island in wealth, population and influence. If the question of the location of the capital had not been at issue, it might have been a much easier matter to arrange, but each colony was, at first, resolute in keeping its capital. I cannot tell the whole story of the 'War of Capitals,' but eventually union was accomplished in 1866, and officialdom in Victoria was so strong that it was selected as the capital. It left a great deal of heartburning in the lower mainland, which was not healed for many years afterwards."

OPENING UP THE KOOTENAY

Mr. Grohman was now free to give his undivided attention to his lands and the opening up of the Kootenay country. He had promised the Government in return for his land concession to put a steamer on Kootenay Lake. It turned out to be a difficult business, but Mr. Grohman was not the man either to break a promise or to give up what he had undertaken. He bought the *Midge*, a good-sized launch, in England, and brought it to Montreal. The duty asked was enormous, but the energetic owner interviewed this important man and that, and, in the end, brought it in as a settler's agricultural implement. This strange "implement" came by train from Duluth to Bonner's Ferry. From there they carried it on trucks over the narrow and bad trail to Kootenay Lake.

The *Midge* made a great sensation in Kootenay. The Flatbow Indians gazed at her wide-eyed with astonishment. They loved to pull the string that made the shrill whistle blow and would cut wood with a bucksaw for the furnaces by the hour only to be allowed to blow the whistle.

Grohman had, as his concession, all the valley lands between Kootenay Lake and the boundary. In spring when the Kootenay overflowed, they were swampy; at other times of the year they provided tons of the finest grass. Mr. Grohman had permission

from the Government to dig a ditch from the Upper Kootenay River, where it was only 300 feet wide and ran swiftly, across the mile of flat which separated it from Upper Columbia Lake. He thought in this way to carry off the overflow and so save his meadows.

The Canadian Pacific Railway was then building into the mountains. The surveyors had laid out the line, planning for a certain height of water in the Columbia. When they heard of Mr. Grohman's plan they raised a great cry. It would raise the water in the Columbia and require all their levels to be changed. As a matter of fact, British Columbia, which was by this time a province of the Dominion, had no right to give the said permission to Mr. Grohman. They now offered him 30,000 acres of picked lands anywhere in the Upper Kootenay country in place of the permission to dig the ditch. In return for the 30,000 acres, Grohman was to build a small canal with a lock instead of the ditch.

The first step was to build a saw-mill. Mr. Grohman brought one in from the east and shipped it to Golden. It arrived in August when the Columbia was low and the only steamer had run aground. The skilled mechanic whom Grohman had hired in Ontario patched up another old steamer with parts of the saw-mill machinery. They loaded the mill on the steamer; the five-thousand-pound boiler of the saw-mill, which was too heavy for the steamer, was put on a raft, and they set out. The boiler, which had once been part of a steam plough in Manitoba, was made for coal. They had to cut the wood into small chunks and soak it in oil to get any steam. The old boat was nearly square, and when loaded with the saw-mill material swung round and refused to advance in any way save broadside on. It was provoking but amusing; day after day the men laughed till the woods rang. They covered the first hundred miles in twenty-three days.

When the poor old joke reached the sandbars of the Upper Columbia, where for countless years the salmon had spawned and died, the men changed their laughter to admiration. The engineer fired her up, the man at the wheel pointed her broadside on, and she battled her way up the river, literally pushing

the bars out of her way. When she did finally stick, the men, weak with laughter, got out with crowbars and prized her over.

The old steamer delivered her cargo; the saw-mill was built; and, after a thousand adventures, laughable and serious, the little canal was built also. It cost an enormous amount in labour and money and never was of much use. But the arguments in the Cabinets at Ottawa and Victoria, the discussions in the newspapers, the coming and going of men, brought Kootenay before the public mind. Immigration set in and the country began to be settled.

THE LAST DITCH

New Brunswick had a real Family Compact. The great offices were held by members of certain wealthy families who passed them down from father to son as if they had been private property. The Odells, father and son, held the provincial secretaryship for sixty years; the Chipmans, father and son, were successively judges of the Supreme Court; the surveyor-generalship was held by one man for thirty-three years. Such men and their associates fought against responsible government long and successfully; when driven out of one position they took refuge in another, defending themselves to the last ditch.

Between 1820 and 1830 the principal cause of complaint was the method of managing and granting the Crown lands and the licences to cut timber upon them. These duties lay in the hands of the Commissioner of Crown Lands, Thomas Baillie, an Irishman who had been a soldier. His salary was £1750 per annum, and he collected enormous fees beside. The Imperial Government had placed a duty of 1s. 3d. per ton on timber cut on the Crown lands; in addition, the Commissioner, over whom the Legislature had no control whatever, charged a fee of 45s. per ton. This excessive fee almost ruined the timber trade of the province. It is easily seen how the officials of New Brunswick were able to live in the princely style which they affected in those days.

The Reform party in the Assembly tried to obtain control of the Crown lands and the revenue derived from them in 1832. They offered to provide for the Civil List, that is, to pay the salaries of all the officials, if the Imperial Government would place the control of the Crown lands and revenues in their hands; but their offer was refused. The House of Assembly then sent two delegates to London to interview the Colonial Secretary upon the matter. They were kindly received, and it was agreed that the Crown should surrender the lands and revenues into the hands of the Assembly in return for a permanent provision of £14,000 yearly to pay the Civil List. £14,000 a year was a little more than the Assembly had expected to pay, but they agreed. Then the Colonial Secretary made it a condition that the money paid in from the New Brunswick Land Company should not be surrendered to the Assembly with the other moneys. This was breaking the bargain, and the Assembly refused the offer.

In 1835 there entered the Assembly a young man who was destined to play an important part in the winning of responsible government. Lemuel Alton Wilmot was a young lawyer born in Sunbury County and educated in Fredericton, where he had already secured a good practice. He was a tall, good-looking man who possessed a speaking voice of singular sweetness and power. He entered public life with the avowed intention of working for responsible government. He was of great assistance to the Reformers in the Assembly, among whom he took a leading part from the beginning.

In a Responsible Government the Executive Council or Cabinet is made up of men who are chosen from the party having the majority in the House of Assembly; they change when the majority changes, and are entirely responsible to the Assembly and through it to the people. To secure such a Responsible Executive was the reform undertaken by Mr. Wilmot and his friends.

In this they had considerable assistance from the Imperial Government. In 1840 Lord John Russell announced that public officials must no longer expect to hold their offices for life; they would, in future, be asked to retire whenever a change

seemed desirable. This despatch caused tremendous excitement and great bitterness in Family Compact circles. It suggested an important step towards responsible government, yet the Assembly was still so much under the thumb of officialdom that it was not taken advantage of, and it was years before its principle was carried out.

In 1843 the Assembly still contained a majority opposed to responsible government, but this session the members did address the Queen complaining of the Legislative Council, which constantly refused to pass important Bills sent up to them by the Assembly. Changes, therefore, were made in both Executive and Legislative Councils, three members of the Assembly being taken into the Executive. Of these Mr. Wilmot was one. He was much criticised by the Liberal Reformers for joining a Conservative Government, but he no doubt felt that he would be able to work more effectively for the province from the inside.

In 1845 occurred the Reade affair. Mr. Odell, who had been Provincial Secretary for thirty-two years, died, and the Governor appointed his own son-in-law, Mr. Alfred Reade, to this lucrative office. Mr. Reade was a young Englishman who had never been in New Brunswick. His appointment was an insult to people of the province, among whom a capable Provincial Secretary might quite well be expected to be found. Even the members of the Family Compact resented this barefaced deed. The House addressed the Queen condemning the appointment, and it was presently cancelled. The affair forced another short step in the long journey towards making the public offices responsible to the people.

When the Cabinet is responsible to the people it is customary to have them bring in all money Bills. As they had not been responsible in New Brunswick, money Bills had hitherto been brought into the Assembly by any private member who wanted something done in a constituency. Favouritism, confusion, mismanagement and extravagance resulted, but the members of the Assembly regarded their right to bring in money Bills as sacred and more than once refused to surrender it to the Executive Council. In 1841 Lord Stanley, the Colonial Secretary,

Canadian Pacific Railway

PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, FREDERICTON, N.B.

suggested a change, but the House refused, saying that the method as in use suited the people, though everyone knew that the provincial funds were shamefully wasted. Not until 1856 was the reform introduced, and then by a majority of only two.

One of the reasons why the House of Assembly was so much under the influence of the Family Compact was that many of the members were office-holders who depended, in private life, on the Government for their positions. Seeing that no real measure of responsibility was to be won through them, the Reformers set to work to change the personnel of the House. In 1842 a Bill was passed making it illegal for a man who held a salaried office under the Government to be a member of the Assembly, but it was disallowed by the home Government.

So matters drifted on, the House of Assembly still showing a majority against reform, still taking one step forward and another back, until 1848. By that year the other provinces had been granted responsible government. Earl Grey, Colonial Secretary, wrote Sir John Harvey, the Lieutenant-Governor, laying down the principle of responsible government as that which Her Majesty's Government desired her colonies to adopt.

In the face of this final urge from the outside, the loyal House of Assembly in New Brunswick could do nothing but acquiesce. It was moved that these principles should be applied to government in New Brunswick and carried by twenty-four to eleven.

THE "BEAVER"

THE first steamship to reach British Columbia was built for the Hudson's Bay Company in 1835. Green, Nigram and Green of Blackwell, London, built it, taking the greatest pains in its construction. Only the very best materials were used. It had an elm keel; its stern and stern-post were of oak. An inner planking of fir was covered with a thick layer of tarred paper and an outside planking of oak and African teak. The spikes were bronze. A sheathing of copper was tack-fastened over all the hull except for a narrow strip just below the gunwale; this was to protect the ship against barnacles and the teredo.

Boulton and Watt, the first firm to manufacture steam engines, made the engines for the new ship; they weighed 63½ tons and cost £4500. King William IV., with the Queen and her ladies, were present at her launching, and a duchess broke the bottle of champagne over her bow, christening her the *Beaver*. She steamed down the Thames on August 29, 1835, and remained in continual service for fifty-three years, a fine record for ship or man.

The *Beaver* was escorted across the Atlantic around Cape Horn, and arrived at Astoria in April 1836. Her captain, David Home, was given a company trading post, and Captain McNeil took charge of the *Beaver*. The stout little ship now began her long career of "waiting on" the company ports from Fort Simpson south. Year in and year out she steamed back and forth, carrying supplies to the ports and bringing back cargoes of furs to the central depôt. Where there was no fort the *Beaver* steamed up to the Indian village and anchored, while the Indians paddled out in their canoes to trade upon her deck.

Some Indians from the north shore of Vancouver Island

Provincial Archives, Victoria

THE "BEAVER"

wandered into the blacksmith shop at one of the forts one day. The smith moved the handle of the bellows, and the coal in his forge glowed and paled.

"What is that?" asked the chief.

"Stuff to burn," said the smith.

"How is it made?"

"They dig it out of the ground."

"Where?" grunted the chief.

"It is brought here in ships," answered the smith.

Sometime later the chief appeared with a basket containing black lumps which he showed to the blacksmith, saying that they would burn like the lumps brought in the ships. The smith called in Mr. Tolmie and several others who helped him examine and test the lumps. Sure enough, they found them to be coal. The Indian said such lumps were to be found in many parts of the island. Word was sent to Chief Factor McLoughlin at Fort Vancouver and he ordered the *Beaver* out on a voyage of discovery. They anchored in a little bay of which the Indians had told them. John Dunn remained on board to trade with the natives who swarmed on board from their canoes. Finlayson with part of the crew went ashore; they

speedily found coal of good quality in an extensive field and, apparently, easy to work.

The company wished to build a saw- and grist-mill on the coast, so the *Beaver* was sent to look for a site. In 1837 she explored the south shore of Vancouver and found at Camosun an excellent harbour and open country, but no rivers to provide water-power. In 1840 the *Beaver* carried Douglas to Alaska, where he arranged with the Russian Governor to occupy the southern part of their territory in return for cattle and produce from the Nisqually farms. After that the *Beaver* made regular trips to Alaska, carrying supplies to the Russians.

Indeed the gallant little steamship had her copper nose in almost every important affair during the early history of British Columbia. She explored the Tako and Stikine Rivers, carried up the material for Fort Tako, saw the completion of Fort Stikine, provided for the rebuilding of Fort McLoughlin when it was destroyed by fire. The *Beaver* carried Governor Simpson about when he visited along the coast. When the company decided to move headquarters from Fort Vancouver to Camosun Harbour, the *Beaver* carried the party to the founding of Victoria. Once the new fort was established the *Beaver* became busier than ever, for trade was very brisk. The *Cadboro* was presently sent out to help her.

In 1849 the *Beaver* carried the last stores from Fort Vancouver to Fort Victoria. In 1850 she took J. W. McKay to Nanaimo to prospect for coal. In 1853 Douglas went up in her to secure the Indians who had murdered some of the miners. The tribe threatened, but he got his men and brought them back to Victoria, where they were tried and hanged. In 1858 the little black steamer carried miners to and from Victoria, till her very stern-post could have told gold stories. When the San Juan Island trouble was brewing and Cutler refused to pay a hundred dollars for the damage done the company's field, the *Beaver* puffed round to the island to tell Cutler he must pay or go to prison.

For fifteen years the *Beaver* watched the traders being slowly replaced by settlers. With the traders went the great company. As their trade declined they needed the *Beaver* less and less and,

in 1874, they sold her. She became a general freight and tow boat. Though her engines were now so old-fashioned that young engineers did not understand them, they seldom needed repairs, and the old vessel worked steadily on for another fourteen years.

In July 1888 she was steaming into Burrard Inlet with a cargo of provisions for the logging camps, when she was carried upon the rocks a little to the right of the entrance. Several attempts were made to float her off, but without success, and she lay there for four years. At the time of the World's Fair in Chicago, a company was formed to carry the old *Beaver* to the Fair, but before anything was done she was struck by a passing steamer. Part of her hull was carried away, her engines fell into the water and with them carried the brave little ship down to her grave in the sea over which she had reigned so long.

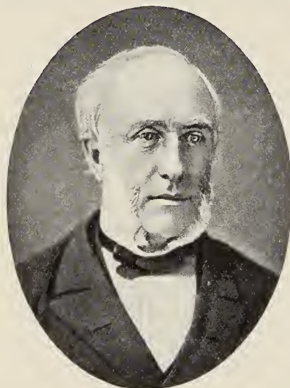
MR. GEORGE BROWN

George Brown was born at Alloa, a port not far from Edinburgh, in 1818. His father was a merchant who, in 1833, lost his business. Taking his son with him, Mr. Brown went to New York where he secured a post as a journalist. When George was twenty-four, father and son established a newspaper in New York; but neither of them was happy in the United States and, in the following year, they removed to Toronto where they began to publish the *Banner*, a paper which supported freedom in Church and State.

Brown was a very striking-looking man; "standing fully six feet two inches high, with a well-proportioned body, well-balanced head and handsome face," his appearance indicated much mental and physical strength as well as youthfulness and candour. His features were animated and lighted by fine expressive eyes. His voice was strong and soft, with a well-marked Edinburgh accent. His first remarks were disappointing; as was usual with him, he stammered and hesitated until he warmed to his subject, when he spoke with such an array of

facts and figures, such earnestness and enthusiasm, that he easily held the audience for three hours.

The Browns came to Canada during the régime of Sir Charles Metcalfe. A majority of Reformers had been returned to Parliament at the last election and Sir Charles Bagot, the former Governor, following the procedure of responsible government, called upon Mr. Baldwin and Mr. Lafontaine, the leaders of the Reform Party, to form a Government. They had done so and, for a short time, carried on a perfectly Responsible Government. Then came Sir Charles Metcalfe who, either because he himself disapproved of it, or because the Imperial Government was alarmed at it, endeavoured to restrain and modify the practice of responsible government which the Reformers had built up with so much care. Sir Charles Metcalfe made appointments without consulting his ministers; they remonstrated with him, then resigned, and the struggle began all over again.



GEROGE BROWN

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It was a bitter fight. The Reformers felt that they were fighting for their rights; the Governor, suspecting disloyalty, fought to keep Canada true to Britain. Both parties used every weapon upon which they could lay their hands. George Brown joined the Reform Party and soon became an outstanding figure. In March 1844 he founded the Toronto *Globe* with the purpose of aiding the cause of Reform. He took as the motto for his paper the sentence, "The subject who is truly loyal to the Chief Magistrate will neither advise nor submit to arbitrary measures." With his usual enthusiastic conviction, Brown plunged himself and his paper into the struggle.

The election of 1844 was one of the hottest ever fought in Canada. "In the Montreal election petition it was charged

that during two days of polling the electors were exposed to danger from the attacks of bands of fighting men hired by the Government candidates or their agents, and paid, fed, and armed with bludgeons, bowie-knives, pistols and other murderous weapons for the purpose of intimidating the Liberal electors and preventing them from getting access to the polls. The polls, it was stated, were surrounded by soldiers, field-pieces were placed in several public squares, and the city was virtually in a state of siege." The Governor won the election, but dying soon after, was followed by Lord Cathcart and then by Lord Elgin, under whom complete "responsibility" was secured.

During the four succeeding years the Baldwin-Lafontaine Government passed many useful Acts. At first the party was united but, presently, the extremists began to break away. There was a "Rouge" Party in Lower Canada, and a "Clear Grit" Party in Upper Canada. Brown joined the Clear Grits who advocated universal suffrage, vote by ballot, and other reforms in those days regarded as being violently radical.

Brown was particularly interested in the secularisation of the Clergy Reserves. In fighting for this he took the stand that there should be no connection between the State and the Church. This brought him into conflict with the Catholics of Lower Canada. He said and wrote many bitter things about them and their Church, so that they came to hate him in a very lively manner.

Egerton Ryerson and the Methodist Church had long opposed the use of the Clergy Reserves to establish a State Church. Roused in 1851 by Brown and the *Globe*, the people began loudly to demand that these lands be taken from the Church and sold, the money to be used for education. Brown was very active in the movement. There were meetings, speeches, resolutions, petitions; there were quarrels, stone-throwings, and riots.

Already in 1850 the Canadian Parliament had asked permission to dispose of the Clergy Reserves. The British Government promised it; then the Government changed and the new ministers delayed to grant the power. Brown and his party

urged the Canadian Parliament to pass the Act without reference to Britain. Hincks, who had succeeded Baldwin, hesitated. The Imperial Government granted the power asked. Hincks still hesitated, saying they should wait till after the election to pass the Act. They waited. The election returned the Conservatives to power; and John A. Macdonald put through the House the legislation secularising the Clergy Reserves and abolishing seignorial tenure in Lower Canada. In this way "John A.," that shrewd politician, cut the ground from under the feet of the Reform Party, taking their two pet Bills and passing them as measures of the Conservative Party.

Another important reform which George Brown took a prominent part in bringing about was the free school system. "I am in favour of national school education, free from sectarian training, and available without charge to every child in the province." The Roman Catholics and Anglicans advocated church schools. Brown believed this would prevent the establishment of good public schools, and he fought against it. "The country can barely afford to maintain one good school system," he said. To provide schools for each denomination would cost enormously. "Under the non-sectarian system," said Brown, "the day is at hand when we shall be able to abolish the school-tax and offer free education to every child in the province."

In the election of 1851 Mr. Brown was returned for the county of Kent. Parliament was then sitting in Quebec and he was obliged to make his maiden speech in the House before galleries filled with French Canadians who thought him the wickedest of men. He stood up boldly, however, and night after night criticised the Government as carried on by "John A." and the Conservatives. This experience taught him to sympathise with the stranger. Four years later Parliament met in Toronto, and Brown, speaking eloquently, was cheered by the galleries, here filled with his friends. Brown checked the applause. "I have addressed none," he said, "but members of this House and trust that members from Lower Canada will not be overawed by any manifestation of feeling in this Chamber. In Lower Canada I stood almost alone in supporting my views, and I well know how painful these manifestations are to a stranger

in a strange place. I do sincerely trust that gentlemen of French origin will feel as free to speak here as if they were in Quebec."

By 1851 Mr. Brown had risen to the leadership of his party. John A. Macdonald's Government had grown weaker as the years passed, and, in July 1858, the Reform party outvoted the Conservatives in the House on the question of fixing the capital at Ottawa. Macdonald and his ministers resigned. Sir Edmund Head, the Governor-General, then called upon Mr. Brown to form a Government. He did so, uniting with Mr. Dorien, the leader of the French-Canadian Liberals. The Conservatives were surprised; they had not believed that Brown could get a Cabinet together.

Brown and his colleagues now resigned their seats in the House, the law requiring them to be re-elected as Cabinet Ministers. When Parliament assembled on Monday, the Reform leaders being absent, the Conservatives suddenly carried through the House a vote of want of confidence against the new Brown-Dorien Ministry. It was a most unfair proceeding, and Macdonald and his colleagues followed it up with another disgraceful piece of political trickery. The vote of want of confidence having been passed, the Brown-Dorien Ministry resigned and the Macdonald-Cartier Government resumed office. The law says that a minister who has resigned may, within a month, take another portfolio without going back to his constituency for re-election. To escape having to be re-elected the Macdonald-Cartier Cabinet exchanged offices for a night. For twenty-four hours the Postmaster-General traded offices with the Attorney-General and so on throughout the Cabinet. The next day they all changed back again, each one resuming his original post. This mean, though clever, evasion of the law has ever since been known as the "Double Shuffle."

The question of "Representation by Population" now came up. At the Union an equal number of members were granted to Lower and to Upper Canada. At that time Lower Canada had a large population and Upper Canada a small one. Upper Canada grew the more rapidly and, by 1857, had a larger population and contributed a great deal more to the common purse than Lower Canada. Feeling herself hampered by the

equal vote of Lower Canada in the House, the Upper Province now demanded more representatives, a number suited to her greater population. Lower Canada said, "No; if it was fair for us in 1840, it is fair for you now."

In this battle, as in many another, George Brown and the *Globe* led the van of the Reformers. This time the parties were so evenly divided that deadlocks became common. The simplest Bill could not be passed through the House. Between 1861 and 1864 election followed election and ministry followed ministry, but the deadlock remained; it became impossible to carry on Government.

Under these circumstances Canada began to talk of Confederation. It was obvious that something must be done. The two provinces could separate; they could form a Federal Union in which each would have a Provincial Parliament to manage its own affairs and a Federal Parliament for carrying on common business, or they could seek Federal Union with the Maritime Provinces. The better minds of both Upper and Lower Canada favoured the latter course.

George Brown and John A. Macdonald were very bad friends; they had not spoken to each other since the Double Shuffle ten years before. Now, urged by their friends, they prepared to form a Coalition Government to bring about Confederation. Brown advancing across the floor of the House from his side was met by John A. Macdonald advancing from his. The two leaders conferred; the coalition was formed; and, in the end, Confederation was accomplished.

Brown resigned from Macdonald's Government before the great work was accomplished, however; the two men were not fitted to work together. Brown was defeated in the election of 1867, and retired from politics to devote himself to his editorial work. "Of all the grand offices that all men talked of—governorships, premierships and the like—I would rather be editor of the *Globe*, with the hearty confidence of the great mass of the people of Upper Canada, than have the choice of them all." He farmed too, breeding fine cattle on his beautiful estate near Brantford.

Mr. Brown was shot in 1880 by a man who had been dis-

missed from his position on the *Globe* for drunkenness. The man, Bennett, said he had not intended to kill Mr. Brown; he had no personal grudge against him as Brown had known nothing of his dismissal. The wound was not, at first, thought to be mortal, but after some weeks of suffering the great Liberal leader succumbed to it.

THE CONFERENCE AND BALL AT CHARLOTTETOWN

1865

LORD DURHAM in his famous Report advocated a Union of the British provinces in America. From 1850 on the matter was a favourite subject of discussion among colonial statesmen of all parties. In 1854 Mr. Joseph Howe and Mr. Johnstone, leaders of the rival parties in Nova Scotia, expressed themselves as being at one upon this topic. Union, they felt, in combining the strength and wealth of all the provinces, would be the means of constituting a great nation.

In 1861 the Legislature of Nova Scotia adopted and forwarded to the British Government a resolution to the effect that a union of all the provinces seemed to them desirable, and begging that steps be taken to bring the matter before the Legislatures of the different colonies. The Colonial Office, in replying, refused to commit itself to any settled policy in the matter, but promised, should occasion arise, to consider the question altogether from the point of view of the good of the provinces.

The question of forming a legislative union of the three Maritime Provinces came before their Legislatures in 1864. It was long and carefully discussed, speakers considering the advantages and disadvantages of the project without betraying any bias of party feeling. It was discovered that Prince Edward Island had a strong objection to a legislative union, though not necessarily to a federal one. The three Legislatures authorised the appointment of delegates to meet and confer upon the

Bayer, Charlottetown

TABLET IN THE HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY, CHARLOTTETOWN
Commemorating the "Charlottetown Conference."

possibility of a union of the Maritime Provinces, and it was arranged that the conference should take place at Charlottetown.

Meanwhile the deadlock in their Legislature had forced the Canadas to the consideration of a larger union. Hearing of the Charlottetown Conference, the Canadian Government asked permission to send delegates. A cordial invitation was hastily despatched to Canada, and the long-talked-of conference assembled on September 1 in the city which has grown up on the site of the ancient Port of Joy.

Twenty-two delegates, five from each of the Maritime Provinces and seven from Canada, conferred. The Canadian ministers had been given no authority to discuss a legislative union, the type which the Maritime Provinces were specially considering; the Canadians were, therefore, present at the conference only informally. After discussion, the Maritime delegates decided that legislative union was impracticable. This conclusion opened the way for a consideration of the

possibilities of a larger, federal union. As this was what the Canadian delegates had hoped for, they hastened to invite the conference to Quebec to discuss the larger question at a time which the Governor-General should name. The invitation was accepted.

"Before leaving Charlottetown a committee composed of members of the Executive Council of Prince Edward Island, and some of the most prominent citizens of the capital, had made arrangement for entertaining at a ball and banquet the distinguished delegates from the other provinces, together with the lady friends and others who had accompanied them. The entertainment was given in the Provincial Building at Charlottetown on the evening of September 8. The members of both branches of the Legislature as well as the principal office-holders in the colony were invited as guests of the committee; and no expense or trouble was spared to make the entertainment worthy of the occasion, creditable to the colony, and acceptable to its guests, who were unanimous in expressing their appreciation of the generous spirit which had prompted and characterised the festivity.

"At the banquet several of the delegates gave utterance to their sentiments on the great question of Union—all declaring their adhesion to that measure, pointing out its advantages, and urging its adoption."

THE VOYAGE TO QUEBEC

1865

By Edward Whelan

The delegates then visited Halifax where they were again banqueted. Leaving Halifax the morning after the dinner there, the delegates from the Maritime Provinces, and several of the Canadian Ministers, proceeded to Fredericton, where they held a consultation with His Excellency Lieutenant-Governor Gordon concerning the object of their mission. By invitation the delegates then visited the commercial metropolis of New

Brunswick, the city of St. John, where they were entertained at a public dinner in St. Stubbs' Hotel, given by the New Brunswick delegates. The entertainment was a very superior one, highly creditable to the hosts and the caterer, Mr. James McIntosh. The chair was occupied by Colonel the Honourable John Hamilton Gray, one of the New Brunswick delegates. The cloth being removed, and the usual loyal toasts given with all the honours, a second round of speeches was given.

The Government of Canada having named October 10 as the day upon which it would be desirable to commence the new Conference at Quebec, the beautiful steamship *Victoria*, commanded by Captain Pouliot, and owned by the Canadian Government, was despatched to the Maritime Provinces for the purpose of conveying the delegates to the ancient capital of Canada. She arrived at Pictou, Nova Scotia, on October 5, where the Nova Scotia delegates came on board of her, together with His Excellency Sir Richard McDonnell, his amiable lady, and their servants.

Arriving at Charlottetown about noon on Thursday, October 6, a delay of four hours was made, which time was employed in driving round the city and suburbs under the direction of Colonel Gray. Shortly after three o'clock the party, including the Prince Edward Island delegates, were conveyed to the *Victoria* anchored in the roadstead, and in a few minutes she was ploughing her way to Shediac, N.B., at which place it was arranged that she should call for the New Brunswick delegates. Arriving off the harbour of Shediac about 10 o'clock p.m. she anchored there until the morning, and then steamed closer in to the harbour, when, after a delay of a few hours, five of the New Brunswick delegates came aboard. The *Victoria* then at once proceeded on her voyage up the Gulf and River St. Lawrence.

Apartments having been provided by the Government of Canada at the St. Louis Hotel for all the delegates and their lady companions, they were immediately on landing conveyed thither, where they were most sumptuously entertained during their whole stay in Quebec as the guests of the Canadian Government.

On the evening of October 11, His Excellency the Governor-General held a "Drawing-Room" in the Council Chamber of the Parliament Buildings, when the delegates from the Maritime Provinces were formally presented to His Excellency before a vast and brilliant assemblage, including almost every person of note or influence in the Naval, Military, Volunteer and Civil Services of the province, together with the leading members of the best society to be found in the social circles of Quebec and vicinity. The city of Quebec showered the delegates with entertainments. They were taken to visit Laval University, where they were presented with a complimentary address. The Board of Trade entertained them at dinner, and the "Bachelors" gave a great ball in their honour.

The delegates sat in conference in Quebec under the chairmanship of Sir Etienne Tache. The first two days were chiefly occupied in regulating the mode of procedure; as soon as this was disposed of, the delegates addressed themselves to the general question of a Federal Union. Some admirable speeches were delivered, and all, without one dissenting voice, pronounced in favour of Union. The main principle having been affirmed, the Conference entered at once on the work of arranging the details of a Constitution for the proposed Federation. They embodied their ideas in a series of Resolutions which, having been written out and again carefully considered, were signed by each of the delegates and afterwards forwarded to England and became the basis of the British North America Act.

When they had completed their deliberations in Quebec, the delegates proceeded to Montreal, Ottawa and Toronto. In each city they were entertained at a great banquet, at which Confederation was the subject of all the speeches.

THE BLUE SILK DRESS

Miss Russell, Victoria

THE BLUE SILK DRESS

It is blue, deep bright blue, blue as the Mediterranean seen in flashes between the pink rocks on the way to Genoa. The soft thick taffeta has lain in folds these sixty years and shows not a single cut or break. The Miramichi bride for whom it was made died before her marriage year was out, and the dress remains scarcely worn. It comes out of its wrappings fresh, glowing still with the colour which made gay the balls and dinner parties of its brief reign.

The skirt is long, barely clearing the ground, and is gathered so thickly to the waist-band at the back that it stands away with the effect of a train; it is lined throughout with white, silken stuff, slightly stiff. The bodice is short and plain. Darts fitted it closely to the wearer's sixteen-inch waist. The neck is cut round and low over the shoulders; the sleeves are short puffs. This evening bodice fitted under the skirt-band and was worn with a belt of ribbon.

The day bodice is long, reaching well down to the knees. It is plain in front, fitting smoothly, and is fastened with hooks under a row of large blue-covered buttons. The back has three drapes, each edged with narrow box-plaited frills and gathered in tightly at the waist. The sleeves are long and a little wide at the cuffs; the collar is a box-plaited frill, with a standing frill of lace inside it.

Against this frill lay the long soft curl which ladies wore over their shoulders in those days. The rest of the hair was worn in a coronet braid on the top of the head. The ear-rings were long and very heavy. The dress was fastened at the throat with a large cameo brooch.

SIR JOHN MACDONALD

"OLD TO-MORROW"

SIR JOHN MACDONALD
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WHEN the British North America Act came into force on July 1, 1867, and it became necessary to elect a Parliament for the Dominion of Canada, the Governor-General invited John A. Macdonald to form a Government. The honour was not undeserved. Macdonald had not been the first to suggest Confederation as a way out of the deadlock, indeed it is doubtful if, in his youth, he entirely approved of it; but having united with George Brown to bring it about, he had supported the great cause in all its ups and downs, urging it forward with skilful persistence until the Bill had finally passed the British Parliament. Undoubtedly, also, he was the man for the position. During the years of discussion, at dozens of conferences, on hundreds of platforms, he had shown his unsurpassed skill as a political strategist, his uncanny faculty for managing men; he was to need every atom of his power in completing the work of federation, as yet only begun.

Macdonald had already had a great deal of experience which had developed his native genius as a parliamentarian. He came with his parents from Scotland to Canada in 1820, when he was five years old. His father had been unsuccessful in Scotland, and failed in business in Canada; the mother kept the home together. Sir John earned his own living from the age of fifteen. Five years at the Kingston Grammar School was all the education he received, though, being an indefatigable

reader, he may be said to have educated himself. In 1830 he entered a law office, and in 1836 was called to the Bar. Seven years later, while still only twenty-eight, he was elected alderman for the city of Kingston, and the next year, 1844, he became a member of the Provincial Legislature. During the next seven years he forged steadily towards the headship of the "Moderate Conservative Party." When old Sir Allan McNab was forced to retire in 1856, John Macdonald united the several Conservative factions and presently, as Prime Minister, faced George Brown on the "Representation by Population" issue. How the two leaders laid aside their differences to work together for Confederation you have heard.

After Confederation, Macdonald's first task was to construct a Cabinet. It was so difficult that he, who in after years was known as the "Cabinet Maker," almost gave up in despair. There were thirteen places. The "Fathers of Confederation" naturally expected their share; each province must be adequately represented; there must be Conservatives and Liberals, Protestants and Catholics, French Catholics and Irish Catholics. To allocate the places was a puzzle; there simply were not enough to go round. It was settled that Ontario should have five places, Quebec four, Nova Scotia two, and New Brunswick two, and that the Liberals and Conservatives should be evenly divided. To satisfy Catholics and Protestants, to bring in all the Fathers of Confederation, proved impossible. D'Arcy McGee, the orator of the conferences, and Charles Tupper, the Nova Scotian leader, nobly stood aside, sacrificing themselves in the interests of peace.

In the first Dominion election the new Government was returned with large majorities in three of the four provinces. Led by George Brown, the "Grits" won fifteen out of eighty-two seats in Ontario; the "Reds" of Quebec won twelve out of sixty-five; and only three members opposed to Confederation were returned in New Brunswick. Nova Scotia, however, inflamed by Joseph Howe, sent up a solid bloc pledged to work for the repeal of the B.N.A. Act; Charles Tupper was the only Federationist elected in the whole province.

Obviously the Prime Minister's first duty was to win over

Nova Scotia, where they were clamouring for "Repeal" and threatening annexation. Anxious as he must have been, Macdonald kept still and waited. The demand for "Repeal" grew louder; Howe went to England to ask for it there. Macdonald sent Tupper to London to guard the new Dominion and to see what could be done in the way of bringing Howe round. On his arrival Tupper went straight to Howe. He pointed out that the British Parliament was in favour of Confederation; that it was most unlikely that the Imperial authorities would allow Nova Scotia to withdraw. Provided that they would not permit withdrawal, what was Howe to do? There were members of his party at home who did not scruple to talk annexation, but Howe was too loyal to listen to such a suggestion.

The Imperial Government refused to allow the Confederation to be broken; constitutional methods had failed. Howe and his friends went home scarcely knowing where they stood or what to do. Then down to Halifax went "John A.," with his jokes and his friendliness, and his suave busy tongue. Howe and his friends had asked for "better terms"; Macdonald promised them. "Come into the Cabinet, Howe," no doubt he urged, "come in and bring Nova Scotia with you. Canada needs your experience, your power as an orator and a writer; Canada needs Nova Scotia. Come in, for Canada's sake." Howe could not refuse that call. He joined the Cabinet, but he could not take Nova Scotia with him. He had raised a spirit which he could not lay; it was many a long day before opposition to Confederation died out in Nova Scotia. Formally, however, she was now a part of the Union.

The next step was to secure the Great West. The fur companies had long tried to conceal its value, but with diminishing success; Canada and the United States were both eyeing the prairies longingly. The Hudson's Bay Company's exclusive right to trade in the Indian lands expired in 1859, and a committee had been appointed to decide what it was best to do. That committee, you remember, advised giving to Canada what lands she needed for colonisation. Canada already had sent Chief Justice Draper to England to watch proceedings in the Imperial Committee. As soon as he was free to do so, Macdonald

sent two of his colleagues to London to urge the Government to move in Canada's behalf. The Hudson's Bay Company held on until 1869 when, skilfully re-organised by Watkin, they came to terms. For £300,000 and one-twentieth of the fertile lands they agreed to make over the North-West to the Dominion of Canada. The ignorantly provoked Riel Rebellion was put down without a great deal of bloodshed; Manitoba became a province of the Dominion; and the North-West Territories were organised under a Lieutenant-Governor and Council directly responsible to the Dominion Government.

British Columbia was the next addition. She had been a province only four years and had, as yet, a very small white population, but she was energetic and ambitious and, remembering the fate of Oregon, she was as anxious to join Canada as Canada was to have her. Her Governor and "Official Group" opposed the movement, and the dispute grew warm. At first Sir John could do nothing except stand by the Federationists sympathetically. When it was clear that the opposition drew its strength from the Governor, word was sent to England and a new Governor was forthcoming. The British Columbian delegates came to Ottawa and Sir John promised them, not a wagon-road, but a railway; and, in 1871, the Pacific province became a part of the Dominion of Canada.

Prince Edward Island had now been six years "walking out alone." It was not so pleasant. Funds were difficult to raise, a railway had burdened the little province with debt, no solution had been found for the land problem. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were anxious to bring the island into Confederation that she might stand beside them in the Maritime interest. £800,000 to buy out the proprietors had been offered and refused. At last Sir John Rose, a banking friend of Sir John Macdonald's, learned that the island was in financial difficulties. Macdonald was only awaiting an opportunity. Negotiations were entered upon and the island entered Confederation on July 1, 1873. Thus in six years, and largely by his skill in managing men, Sir John Macdonald completed the work of Confederation. The Biblical prophecy from which Canada's name had been taken was now fulfilled, "and his dominion

shall be from sea even to sea, and from the river even to the ends of the earth."

The next task was to give British Columbia the railway which she had been promised. At the first attempt the wizard failed in this, the first failure of his remarkable career. The fine majority with which he had opened Parliament had dwindled during the years. George Brown had rallied the Liberals against him; Quebec could not forgive his treatment of Riel; the "Pacific Scandal" caused his downfall. Having discussed the various methods of building the transcontinental railway, the Government granted a charter for building it to a syndicate, of which Sir Hugh Allan of Montreal was the leader. During the election campaign which followed, someone stole papers from a Montreal office which seemed to prove that the Prime Minister had received $300,000 from Sir Hugh for his campaign funds. It looked as though Sir Hugh had paid in this way for the contract to build the Canadian Pacific Railway. Sir John protested his innocence, but the people, shocked and angry, refused to believe him. He resigned and his party was badly defeated.

In spite of the storm Sir John was elected in his own constituency of Kingston, though by a small majority. He rallied the forty-five Conservatives which were all that were returned in the whole Dominion, and for a year or two remained quiet, though using every effort to win back his popularity. He organised political picnics at which he met the people, cajoling them with his jokes, and the memory for names and faces which never failed him. Crops had been poor and times were hard. Then Sir John seized upon the "National Policy," and with that as his battle-cry he led his party to victory again in 1878.

From 1878 till his death in 1891 "John A." reigned supreme, being three times re-elected. The last election cost him his life. It was hotly contested, his colleagues were busy in their own constituencies. Sir John "stumped" Ontario almost alone, but with all the old gaiety and fire. The strain proved too great for his seventy-six years. He was taken ill on election day, a slight stroke weakened him, a more severe one carried him off; he died on June 6, 1891, and was buried at Kingston.

Sir John Macdonald was not a man of high principle, perhaps no man of high principle could have steered Canada safely through the shoals and rapids of those early years. As a young man he drank a good deal, it was customary in those days; but in after years he overcame this weakness. He was all things to all men. His political method was to find out what the people wanted before they knew they wanted it, to tell them about it and then give it to them; not an exalted ideal certainly. But he was not a bad man. So far as it is known he never personally gave or took a bribe. He had unrivalled opportunities for making money, but he died poor. To his one professed principle, that of keeping Canada within the British Empire, he remained true. He had very great gifts of mind and heart, and he used them during forty-seven years in the service of his country. Undoubtedly he earned the place which he holds in the front rank of Canadian statesmen.[1]

THE SEAGULL

By Dr. W. A. Creelman

The seagulls drift along the darkened sky
And o'er the foaming billows wildly call;
Or, perched like burghers on a leaguered wall,
Their long white lines are seen on aeries high,
Where down the crags resounds that raucous cry.
Within their breasts of snow the restless sea
Her very soul hath passed so wild and free,
Which glitters keenly in the red-rimmed eye.
Far o'er the billowed wastes they wheel and scream,
Plunging in sea-green depths and from the tide
Drag forth the struggling life of ocean's stream
For fledglings which on cold wet cliffs abide.
Hungered yet mindful of their clamouring brood,
They cry for food—O Mother Ocean—food.

[1] You should read *Sir John Macdonald,* by Stewart Wallace. It is full of interesting stories about this great man.

SIR GEORGE ETIENNE CARTIER

Sir George Etienne Cartier was the man who led Quebec into Confederation. He was the son of a merchant at St. Antoine, and though he became a lawyer and a successful one, he had a natural skill in business which was very valuable to him as a statesman. He was educated by the Gentlemen of St. Sulpice in Montreal, who taught him to fear God and honour the King. He received an excellent grounding in the French classics, but English was not so well taught in the Quebec of those days, and Cartier remained always under the handicap of a poor English accent. In his youth he followed Papineau and fought bravely in the "Patriot" Army.

By the time peace had been restored and the Union of 1841 arranged, Cartier was the head of a prosperous firm of lawyers in Montreal. He was already well known, but he would not enter public life until he felt that he had fitted himself for it by a careful study of the science of government. He was not a great speaker, but he had the gift of leadership. He entered Parliament in 1849, and among many young men more ready and graceful of speech, he made his way rapidly to the head of his party.

During the years of the Union it was customary for the Government to have two leaders, a British Canadian from Ontario, and a French Canadian from Quebec. The Reform Party, which had won responsible government, remained in power for many years. It was led, at first, by Mr. Baldwin and Mr. Lafontaine; by 1855 these two gentlemen had retired and Mr. Hincks for Ontario and Mr. Morin for Quebec led the party. In that year Mr. Morin was made a judge and Cartier entered the Cabinet. With only short intervals of being in opposition he maintained his power for twenty-five years.

Cartier was a Liberal. He had fought for Reform against the hated Tories of Upper Canada who sought to overwhelm the

French people. He was a practical man, however, and it happened to him as it happened to Baldwin, the Reform leader in Upper Canada. As the years passed, the extremists of his party separated themselves from Cartier as George Brown and the "Clear Grits" left Baldwin. It was partly because the French extremists or "Rouge" Party under Dorien allied themselves with George Brown, whom all French Canadians hated, that Cartier was able to maintain his power so long. Abandoned by the "Reds," Cartier, leading the moderate Liberals of Lower Canada, formed an alliance with John A. Macdonald, leading the moderate Conservatives of Upper Canada; the two men remained staunch allies till the end.

Canadian Pacific Railway

CARTIER MEMORIAL, MONTREAL

This strong combination enabled Cartier to carry through the House many Bills favourable to his people. As a lawyer he was particularly well fitted to undertake the settlement of the land tenure which had been under discussion for many years. The ancient system which required the censitaire to pay a small rent to the seigneur, to take his grain to be ground at the seigneur's mill, etc., was found to be unsuitable to modern conditions. The farmers wished to own their farms without encumbrances of any kind; the seigneurs, on the other hand, were loath to be deprived of their ancient rights. Under Cartier's direction the problem was solved; the seigneur was compensated

for his losses and the censitaire's land became free. Cartier also reduced to order and codified much of the French civil code.

He next attacked the school system, which sadly needed re-organisation. As in other provinces, secondary school and university education had been provided before the public schools had been organised. Cartier took the public schools in hand, arranging a system of free schools to which everyone might send his children. A faithful Catholic himself, he could see the point of view of another Church, and he gave full control of their schools to the Protestants of Quebec.

Canada's trade was just recovering from the depressing effect of the years of rebellion when England introduced free trade. This was a terrible blow to the colonies. When Britain had a tariff she could help her colonies by giving them a favourable rate of entrance to her markets; when she abolished all duties, Canada and the other colonies had to compete with the whole world in the British market. At first Canada was in despair; she felt that she could not possibly make ends meet without the advantage of British trade. Annexation to the United States seemed to many Canadians to be the only course. As it turned out, Canadian trade did not suffer as severely as had been expected.

As a remedy for the situation Cartier advocated the building of railways and the improvement of Canadian waterways. He never lost hope, he knew that Canada's wealth was without limit, and he realised that her prosperity depended on her being able to bring her treasures to market. In 1846 he urged the people of Montreal to aid in building the Montreal and Portland Railway, so that Montreal and the territory farther west should have access to the sea all the year round. He prepared the charter and managed the legal business of the Grand Trunk Railway. He believed firmly in the present value and future importance of that line, working for its advancement all through the difficult years of doubt and discouragement. He seems to have held the modern view that a railway may be valuable for national reasons, even if it does not pay its own way, for he persuaded the Grand Trunk to build a line along the south shore of the St. Lawrence, from Quebec to Rivière du Loup, so that the

isolated villages of Gaspé should be brought into touch with the outside world.

Cartier was the first to introduce the subject of Confederation in the Canadian Assembly. He broached the question in 1858; in 1862, when the deadlock seemed imminent, Confederation was revived as a possible solution of the difficulty. Macdonald and many of the other leaders would have preferred a Legislative Union, but Cartier insisted that only a Federal Union would satisfy Quebec. Lower Canada was scarcely more ready to accept Confederation than she had been to enter the Union of 1840; the battle was long and hot. No other way out of the deadlock was devised, however, and Cartier led his province into the Dominion. He lived till 1872, long enough to see Confederation firmly established.

When Cartier came to the front the French Canadians still feared Upper Canada. They had entered the Union of 1840 unwillingly, believing that it had been formed for the express purpose of obliterating their national characteristics. They did not wish to lose their language and national customs; their fears made them determine unalterably to maintain their French birthright. Between the Union and Confederation they fought steadily with that one end in view, and Cartier led them in that fight. Until long after Confederation he stood, in the eyes of the world, for the people of French Canada. By the time of his retirement French Canadians had themselves begun to realise their sure and safe place in the Dominion. British Canada and French Canada are like a large man and his little wife. He remembers that he took her from her parents, and knows that it is his duty to make her happy. Wistful sighs, brown eyes full of tears, an occasional fit of hysterics, the lady always gets her own way in the end; so with Quebec, at once mother and sweetheart of the Dominion. British provinces rise and spread about her, but that daisied land where the great river comes so gently to its lovely shores is still the heart of Canada.

SIR LEONARD TILLEY

1818–96

SIR LEONARD TILLEY
From the Makers of Canada Series, by permission of the Oxford University Press

THE man who led the fight for Confederation in New Brunswick had already had his baptism of fire in connection with prohibition. Like many another of our great men, Sir Leonard Tilley began life in a small way. He was born at Gagetown on the St. John, one of the most beautiful places in New Brunswick. He had a few years' schooling at the Madras (or Lancaster) School in Gagetown, but, at thirteen years of age, secured a post as clerk in a drug store in St. John. It was not many years before he had a property of his own. While a clerk he joined the St. John Young Men's Debating Society, and is said from the first to have shown great promise.

In 1837 he took up the cause of prohibition, then just beginning to be agitated and still very unpopular. He became a total abstainer and remained one to the day of his death. His youthful enthusiasm for this cause and his eloquence in its behalf brought him many friends among intelligent people, friends who remained faithful to him through good and evil fortune. In those days total abstinence was regarded as fanatical; that a young man should espouse such a cause interested the people in him. Since he spoke out so fearlessly for what he believed to be right in the social world, the people felt that he would be strong in defence of their interests politically; in 1850 he was elected to the Legislature to represent the city of St. John.

Disapproving of Mr. Wilmot's course in joining the Government when he had been elected to oppose it, Mr. Tilley resigned

his seat in 1851, but was returned again in 1854. In this Parliament the last efforts of the Family Compact were finally overcome. The old-fashioned group clung to power longer in New Brunswick than in any of the other provinces; it was now finally driven out and the Conservative Party took its place. The Bill to give effect to the Reciprocity Treaty which had been arranged by Lord Elgin was passed in this Parliament, but the great measure of the session was the Bill to prevent the importation, manufacture or sale of liquor within the bounds of New Brunswick.

The Prohibition Bill was introduced by Mr. Tilley. It experienced no great opposition in the House and passed by a vote of twenty-one to eighteen. The Bill became law on January 1, 1856. Then the storm broke. The temperance movement was still very young; prohibition was almost unheard of, and the people were not ready for it. During the first half of the nineteenth century everyone used liquor. Barrels of liquor were taken into the woods for the use of the lumbermen. House and barn raisings, ploughing matches, harvest operations, every meeting at which were gathered together any number of men, began and ended in drinking. Almost everyone used liquor at meals, wine was offered at all public entertainments, and Jamaica rum was considered a cure for almost every known disease. No one, it was believed, could do any piece of work more than ordinarily difficult without stimulants.

The new law was nothing less than revolutionary. That was a dull and sad New Year's Day in New Brunswick. The twenty wholesale liquor dealers and the two hundred tavern-keepers of St. John were forced to close their doors; they were deprived of their living, and the people of their accustomed pleasure; the same thing happened throughout the province. Naturally, the law was evaded and defied; liquor was bought and sold freely enough. When the law-breakers appeared in court, they were attended by the best lawyers in the province. In the midst of this confusion the Lieutenant-Governor dissolved the House. An exceedingly bitter contest followed, and Tilley, with the other prohibitionists, went down to defeat. When the new Legislature met, however, it was found that while the Govern-

ment had strong support in abolishing prohibition, it had a majority of only one vote on other matters. For a time business was carried on by the casting vote of one—the Speaker, but the Government soon resigned, a new election was held, and Mr. Tilley and his colleagues returned to power.

For some years after this, Mr. Tilley represented the province of New Brunswick upon commissions and at conferences in England and in Canada called to work out a scheme for building the Intercolonial Railway. In 1861 he visited and conferred with Howe and Tupper in Prince Edward Island, in an effort to arrange a system of interprovincial free trade which should provide more extensive markets for the factories that were beginning to spring up in the Maritime Provinces. All agreed that the scheme was desirable, but nothing was done at the time, and the subject was presently subordinated to that of Confederation.

Mr. Tilley was New Brunswick's leading representative at the Charlottetown and Quebec Conferences. When the resolutions with regard to finance were being debated at the Quebec Conference, the body, hitherto eagerly amiable, found itself almost at a deadlock. The provinces had agreed to surrender into the hands of the Dominion Government their right to levy customs and other duties. It was the money obtained from these duties which had supported the Provincial Governments, and the Dominion promised to pay to each province a yearly sum of money in lieu of the duties. The disagreement arose over the annual amount which the Dominion should pay to the provinces. In Upper Canada the municipal councils had the right to levy taxes for local improvements, but in the Maritime Provinces even local improvements were largely financed by the Provincial Government.

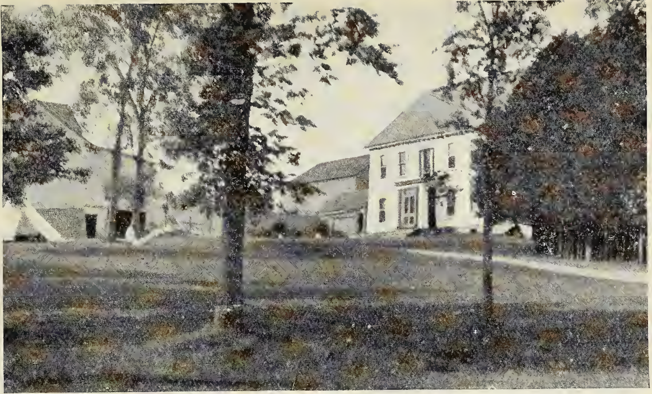
How much should the Dominion Government pay? The debate grew warm. Then each member of the conference, remembering the tremendous importance of the occasion, ceased to argue and silence fell upon the group. They had been upon the verge of quarrelling, and they must not quarrel; there was too much at stake. It was then suggested that the Finance Ministers of the various provinces should be appointed a com-

mittee to work out a scheme acceptable to all. As Finance Minister of New Brunswick, Mr. Tilley was a member of this committee and took a prominent part in the discussion which led to the adoption of a resolution that in lieu of the customs duties the central Government should pay the provinces sums equal to eighty cents per head of their population.

The term of the Legislature of New Brunswick was almost over, and it was agreed by the convention that Mr. Tilley should be the first to present the scheme to his people. As soon as the conference was over, therefore, he went down to New Brunswick to place the matter before the electorate. The debates at Charlottetown and Quebec had been kept secret, perhaps unwisely; the people did not properly understand the scheme and they resented being kept in the dark. There was much distrust of Canada with her quarrels and her Government deficits. The Lieutenant-Governor was opposed to the movement. There were annexationists in the province, too, who saw in Confederation the death-blow of their hopes.

Then someone heard of the financial arrangement with the Dominion, and raised the cry that the people of New Brunswick had been sold to Canada for eighty cents a head. From that hour all hope was over. The senseless slogan swept the country. No one stopped to think that Canada was also selling herself to New Brunswick for eighty cents a head. No one stopped to think at all. On a wave of fear of they knew not what, the people rushed to the polls and voted against Confederation. Only six Confederationists were returned in a house of forty-one members.

Mr. Tilley and his colleagues resigned at once, and a new Government was formed by the Honourable Albert Smith; it seemed unassailable. Everyone believed Confederation to be a dead issue, because even if Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia did go in, no Union would be safe without the intermediate province. But Mr. Tilley did not give up hope. Having no seat, he undertook a quiet campaign of education. During 1865–66 he spoke in every part of the province, quietly, clearly, convincingly showing that Confederation would be in the best interests of New Brunswick.



NEW BRUNSWICK FARM-HOUSE

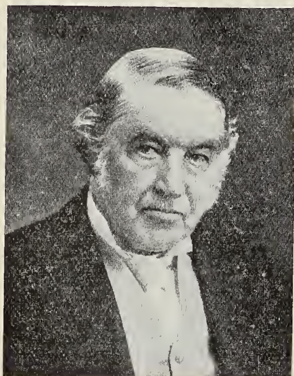
When the Imperial Government learned that the Lieutenant-Governor of New Brunswick had opposed Confederation, he was called to England and soundly lectured for his unconstitutional behaviour. He returned in a chastened frame of mind and hindered the movement no more. Then, as luck would have it, the Fenians, an Irish society whose object was to drive Britain out of America, chose this very year for making an attack upon the New Brunswick frontier. The society numbered many thousands of members in the United States; they gathered five hundred strong upon the border. The arrival of this force served as a trumpet-call to the people of New Brunswick. A thousand volunteers flocked to the standard and the danger vanished. But the people had seen the effect of isolation. They had had an object lesson upon one of the advantages of Confederation. They did not need a second. Early in 1866 Mr. Smith's Government resigned, and the second election returned Mr. Tilley to power with a strong following of Federationists at his back.

In recognition of his valuable services in helping to bring about Confederation, Mr. Tilley was knighted. He became Minister of Customs in the first Dominion Cabinet, and

Minister of Finance in the second Parliament which met in 1873. He served twice as Lieutenant-Governor of New Brunswick, and passed his last years pleasantly, beloved and honoured by all. He died in 1896.

SIR CHARLES TUPPER

THE WAR-HORSE OF CUMBERLAND COUNTY



Elliott & Fry, London
SIR CHARLES TUPPER

THE man who went down to persuade Nova Scotia to enter Confederation was well fitted by nature and by training for the task. As Sir John Macdonald was the most adroit of Canadian statesmen, so Sir Charles Tupper was the most audacious and determined; the two were loyal friends from their first meeting, and formed a very powerful combination.

Charles Tupper was born at Amherst, Nova Scotia, in 1821. He was the son of a minister who, though self-educated, was one of the most learned men of his time. He was poor, and Charles helped himself through Horton Academy and Edinburgh University by teaching. Graduating as a doctor, he returned to Amherst, married Miss Frances Morse, and hung out his shingle; he soon had a large practice.

Travelling about Cumberland County attending to the sick he made many friends, who in 1855 nominated him to oppose Joseph Howe at the forthcoming election. Howe was then at the height of his popularity and fathering a project for a railway in Cumberland County; but the "young doctor" plunged into the contest with the vigour which characterised him till the

day of his death, and defeated the "Tribune of the People." The Conservatives were beaten in the province, however. The party was not strong in Nova Scotia at the time, but with Tupper as a leading member it became active at once. Allying themselves with the Irish Catholics, whom Howe had offended, the Conservatives won the election of 1863, and Dr. Tupper became a Cabinet Minister.

Always bold, one of Tupper's first moves was to introduce a system of free public schools. University and secondary education were well provided for in the province, but primary education had been left to the mercy of individuals. Free public schools had long been advocated; Joseph Howe had urged them upon the province, but no party had dared bring in a Bill to establish them because the people were so much opposed to the taxes which would be necessary for their upkeep. Tupper proposed schools not only free but non-sectarian, which brought him into disfavour with the Roman Catholic Church, whose support he had hitherto enjoyed. Fearlessly he advocated this important measure, and largely by the weight of his tremendous personal power he carried the Free Education Act of 1864, and its amendment of 1865, through the House.

In 1864 Mr. Johnstone, the Prime Minister, who was now growing old, resigned to accept a judgeship, and Dr. Tupper became Prime Minister. He lost no time in bringing forward the question of Maritime Union. When arranging for the Charlottetown Conference, the Premier invited Joseph Howe to be a delegate; but Howe, who was then making fishery inspections, refused, though promising his support to any fair scheme arranged. The Charlottetown Conference was followed by the Quebec Conference, Dr. Tupper taking a leading part in both.

When the terms of Confederation had been arranged, Tupper and his colleagues returned to Nova Scotia to secure their adoption in the Provincial House. They were not well received. During the absence of the delegates anti-Confederation sentiment had been growing. The Nova Scotians had a Responsible Government working smoothly; business was good, taxes were low. They had heard much of the quarrels of the two

Canadas, and they did not wish to be drawn into them. Nova Scotia was the oldest of the provinces, her people were proud and exclusive, they feared to be dominated by the larger Canadas. Meetings of those favouring and those opposing Confederation were held in Halifax; Tupper was heard coldly; the province waited to see what Joseph Howe would do.

They had not long to wait. The morning following the second meeting an editorial appeared in the press entitled "The Botheration Scheme." In this article the Resolutions of the Quebec Conference were severely criticised. Everyone recognised Howe's hand. Unwisely, as it proved, the great orator had taken his stand against Union. Tupper realised what a power he had to face and for once in his life chose discretion as the better part of valour. Mr. Tilley in New Brunswick rushed to the polls with the Confederation scheme and was defeated. Feeling in Nova Scotia was equally opposed to it. Dr. Tupper waited.

When Parliament met in 1865 no reference was at first made to Confederation. Then Tupper moved that as an immediate union of the provinces seemed impracticable, a union of the Maritime Provinces was desirable, and suggested that negotiations for such a union be resumed. This was very clever. No one was very much interested in Maritime Union at that time. There was no likelihood of the matter being pressed, and the resolution gave Tupper an opportunity to let the question rest. Meantime, he went about the province boldly discussing the values of Confederation, and thus educating the people in that direction.

In 1866 New Brunswick reversed her first decision and elected a majority in favour of Confederation. The Nova Scotian House was still strongly opposed to it, however. Tupper could hardly postpone the question longer; everyone waited eagerly to see what he would do. Fortune favoured him. Soon after the opening of the House, William Miller, a very young member who had opposed the Union, made a speech in which he suggested that as the Quebec Resolutions were objectionable, delegates be appointed to frame a scheme of Union which should satisfy Nova Scotia. The anti-Federationists were horror-

stricken; they accused Miller of having been bribed to make the speech.

They were already too late. Tupper had seized the opportunity. He brought in a resolution asking the Lieutenant-Governor to appoint delegates to go to London to arrange a scheme of Union just to each province; each province to have an equal voice in such a delegation. This was all that was required; it was exactly what the other provinces had done. The anti-Federationists demanded that the question be put to the country. The Prime Minister knew the country was hostile; he dared not submit the question; yet he felt that the future of Nova Scotia depended on her being part of the Dominion, as the future of the Dominion depended on Nova Scotia. It was the greatest step forward since the winning of responsible government; and the people were wrong, he knew that they were wrong. Fighting with whatever weapons he could lay his hands upon, Tupper forced the resolution through the House. The delegates were chosen.

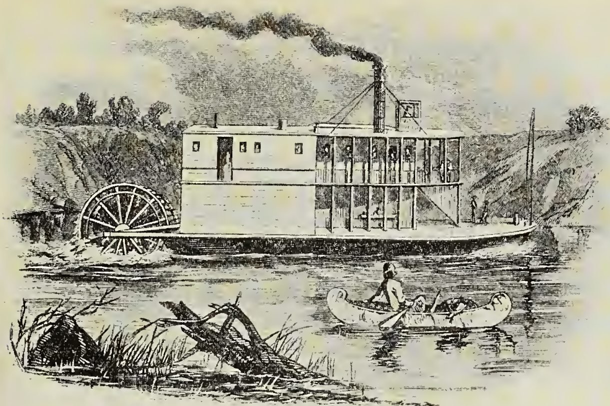
During the winter of 1866–67, while Dr. Tupper and the other delegates were absent in London, the fight in the country began. Howe, partly because he resented Tupper's being the leader in this great movement, partly because he really felt that Nova Scotia was not being justly treated, flung himself into it as excitedly as any boy. Meetings were held and every kind of agitation used. Howe, the greatest orator Canada ever produced and still the idol of the people, "stumped" Nova Scotia inflaming the electorate against the scheme. "We are sold for the price of a sheepskin," he told the people in every corner of the province, referring to the subsidy of eighty cents per head of population which the Dominion Government had promised to pay to the provinces. When the first Dominion election was held, Tupper himself was the only Confederationist elected. The other eighteen members from Nova Scotia went to Ottawa pledged to work for a repeal of the Union. In the provincial election the Confederationists won two seats out of thirty-eight.

Dr. Tupper followed up his gallant fight for the cause by resigning the spoils of victory, a place in the Dominion Cabinet. He refused also the headship of the commission appointed to

build the Intercolonial Railway, and went quietly to London to guard the Federation he had won. The Repeal Government of Nova Scotia sent Howe to London to beg the Imperial Government to release Nova Scotia from the Union. It was all a bitter mistake. Nova Scotia could not stand alone. The British ministers refused to break the Union, and Howe, realising at last the wrong he had done, returned with Tupper to Halifax.

Tupper asked Macdonald to give Howe a place in the Cabinet. Howe accepted the position offered and stood for re-election in Hants County. Many of his oldest and dearest friends never forgave him for his desertion of the Repeal cause. Their anger and the strain of the election brought on an illness. It is said that Tupper went to Howe's bedside and told his old enemy that if he were defeated in Hants County he, Tupper, would give him his seat in Cumberland. Howe was elected, however. A year later Tupper, who had sworn not to enter the Dominion Cabinet until he had a majority of Nova Scotians favouring Confederation in the House of Commons, was able to join Sir John Macdonald's Government. Nova Scotia had agreed to enter the Dominion.

While Sir John Macdonald was in opposition after the Pacific Scandal, Tupper remained loyal to him. He was one of the first to advocate the National Policy which carried the Conservatives back to power. He won knighthood in 1879 and served Canada faithfully on railway boards and commissions appointed for arranging treaties. He was High Commissioner for Canada in London for many years, working tirelessly to advance the interests of the young Dominion. After the death of Sir John Macdonald, he became the leader of the Conservative Party, a position which he held until 1901. He was then in his eightieth year, and being defeated in the election of that year, he retired. He lived fifteen years to enjoy his well-earned rest, retaining his keen interest in affairs until the last.



From a print owned by Dr. Rutherford

OLD-TIME PADDLE-WHEEL STEAMER ON THE RED RIVER

COLLINGWOOD TO NORWAY HOUSE

By John McDougall

Early in July 1860 we started on our journey. I was then in my seventeenth year. We sailed from Collingwood on an American propeller, which brought us to Milwaukee on Lake Michigan. Here we took a train through part of Wisconsin to Lacrosse, on the Mississippi River, which we reached about midnight and immediately were transferred to a big Mississippi steamer. This huge craft was long and broad and flat, made to run in very shallow water. It was propelled by a very large wheel, as wide as the boat and fixed to the stern, which in its revolutions churned the waters in the wake. The pilot steered by his experience of the lights and shadows on the water, which by day or night indicated to him the deep and shallow parts. Dancing was going on in the cabin of the boat when we went aboard; but soon all was quiet except the noise of the engines and the splash of the paddles.

Next day we came to Lake Pepin and here we were joined to another big steamer. The two were fastened together side by side to run the length of the lake, and also to give the passengers of the other boat an opportunity to come aboard ours and be entertained by music and dancing. When the channel narrowed our boats parted and began to race and, presently, our rival ran upon a sandbar and stuck fast. We reached St. Paul, then a mere village, the next day.

We did hope to catch the only steamer on the Red River of the North, but in this were disappointed. We found on inquiry that there were two means of crossing the country—one by stage-coach, the other by Red River cart. Father went to see the proprietors of the stage line and concluded a bargain with them to take us from St. Paul to Georgetown, a place on the Red River. Accordingly, one morning long before breakfast, we were rolling away up the eastern bank of the Mississippi—father, mother and sisters inside the coach and myself with the driver. Our stages ranged from twelve to twenty miles, and we averaged seventy miles a day. A great part of the route was beautifully undulating and fresh scenes were before us all the while. My delight was to drive the four-in-hand, and the good-natured drivers would give me many an opportunity to do so. It seemed like living to hold those reins, and swing round those hills and bowl through those valleys at a brisk trot or quick gallop.

The stopping-place was unique of its kind—a dug-out with a ridge pole and small poles leaned against this on two sides, with earth and sods placed over these poles, and some canvas hung at either end. The night was hot, the dug-out, because of the cook-stove, hotter still, and the mosquitoes swarmed in countless numbers. Mother and my sisters were in misery. My bed was under the table on the mud floor, my companion for the night being the proprietor of this one-roomed mud hotel.

Late the next evening we reached Georgetown. It consisted of one dwelling-house and a store-house, both belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company. The gentleman in charge, Mr. Murray, gave up his room to our family, while he took up quarters with me in our tent which we pitched near the bank of

the river. Here for days we waited for the steamer; not a word reached us from anywhere. In the meantime father and I hunted and fished; we shot duck and prairie chicken, and caught perch and pickerel and catfish and mud turtles, and explored the country for miles around, though we were cautioned about Indians, a war-party of whom one might strike anywhere and any time.

By and by the steamer came, and, to our great disappointment, the Captain said he could not run her back down as the water was too low. The next thing was to load a flat-bottomed barge and float her down. We were allowed to erect our tent on a portion of the deck of the scow, and soon we were moving down stream, having as motive power human muscle applied to four long sweeps. Day and night with change of men our scow kept on down this slow-currented and tortuous stream. The only stop was to take on wood for our cook-stove. Here I learned to like pemmican.

I think it was the sixth day out from Georgetown that we entered Canada. Late in the evening of the eighth we rounded the point at the mouth of the Assiniboine and landed at Fort Garry. It was raining hard and mud was plentiful. I climbed the banks and saw the walls and bastions of the fort, and looked out northward on the plains and saw one house. Where that house stood now stands the city of Winnipeg. A brigade of York boats was then loading to descend to York Factory on Hudson's Bay, and father lost no time in securing a passage in one of these which was to start the next morning. In the meantime Governor McTavish invited father, mother and my sisters to quarters in his own home for the night.

My work was to transfer our luggage to the York boat, and then stay and look after it, for it was evident that our new crew were pretty well drunk. Near dark we heard a strange noise up the Red, and one of the boatmen said, "Indians coming!" And sure enough a regular fleet of Wild Red Lake Ojibways hove in sight, and singing and paddling in time, came ashore right beside us. As was customary, the Company served them out a "regale" of rum, and very soon the night was made hideous with the noise of their drunken bout. I had a big time

keeping them out of our boat, but here my acquaintance with their language stood me in good stead. Until nearly morning I kept my vigil in the bow of our boat, and then our steersman woke up and was sufficiently sober to relieve me. I took his blanket and slept for a short time.

Early in the day we made our start for Norway House. Our craft was an agreeable change from the clumsy barge. It was more like the bateau built and used on our eastern lakes, but lighter and stronger, capable of standing a good sea and making good time under sail. The boat was manned by eight men and a steersman. One of the eight was the bowman. With our eight big oars keeping stroke, we swept round the point and again took the Red for Lake Winnipeg beyond. Our quarters in the open boat were small and, for our party, crowded, but we hoped to reach our destination in a few days. We had but four hundred miles more to make to what was to be our new home. On the tenth day from Fort Garry we pulled up at Norway House, and met a very kind welcome from the Hudson's Bay Factor and his lady. We were still two miles from Rossville. Our new friends manned a boat and took us over. Here we found the Reverend Robert Brooking and family; and as no news had preceded us, we brought them word of their being relieved. Great was their joy, and ours not a little. Here was our home, and here were we to work and labour each according to his ability.

THE GRASSHOPPER PLAGUE

The pioneers of Manitoba suffered much from grasshoppers. Grasshoppers seem to come to all newly-opened countries in years curiously grouped together. In Red River they swept over the land in 1818 and in 1819; again in 1857 and in 1858; then in 1864 and in 1865; again in the years 1867, 1868, 1869 and 1870. Later visitations of them did less harm than the earlier ones. In 1872 they arrived too late in the year to do much damage to the wheat which was already ripening.

The advance of an army of locusts is terrifying indeed. They

come in clouds, in such numbers as to darken the sun in the heavens. Settling upon the earth they devour every green and growing thing to which they come. They pass over fences and ditches, over fields and prairie, leaving only a broken and barren waste behind them.

Little wonder that the farmers in the old days were discouraged by the appearance of these pests year after year. Many of them left their fields unploughed and unsown rather than plant for the hated enemy. When they settled, housewives swept them up about the door-yard, collected them in baskets, scalded them with hot water and fed them to the pigs. As the country became better settled, the inhabitants gained more courage and attempted various devices to rid themselves of the grasshoppers. They built fires round them where they fed; dug ditches round the field or garden where they were—into these the insects fell and could then be drowned. Others beat the grasshoppers with rods and so killed many.

RED RIVER

THE people of Red River also had their "fight for free Government." In 1835, while the Reformers of Upper Canada and the Patriots of Lower Canada were preparing to secure their rights by force of arms, Lord Selkirk's heirs sold the Red River Colony to the Hudson's Bay Company. The people were not consulted in the matter; indeed, it was kept secret from them for a long time.

Hitherto the Red River Colony had been governed in a free-and-easy kind of way by a Governor with a staff of senators. The colonists got on very comfortably together and there was little for legal functionaries to do except defend the company's exclusive right to trade in furs. The half-breeds were becoming more numerous and rather threatening, however, and the company now appointed a Governor and authorised him to choose members to form a Legislative Council to make laws

for the punishment of crime and for the regulation of civi affairs in the colony. The Governor chose wealthy and well-informed men, but the people were displeased because these men did not in any way represent the people for whom they were to legislate.

In April 1836 a jury was impanelled for the first time. They tried one Louis St. Dennis for theft, brought in a verdict of guilty, and sentenced him to be publicly whipped. A large crowd gathered to witness the proceeding. The police formed a ring round the whipper while he performed his duty, but they left him to the mercy of the crowd when he had finished. The people disapproved of the punishment and began to throw stones at the poor German who had executed the sentence. He fled for his life and fell into a pit, whereat the people burst into a loud fit of laughter. The police came, drew the woebegone official out of the pit, and escorted him to the fort, the crowd pursuing them with hisses.

Department of Agriculture, Winnipeg, Manitoba

ELM TREES ON THE BANKS OF THE RED RIVER

From the time that the people of Red River began going to St. Paul to trade, and saw there free trade in furs, they began to feel the restrictions of the Hudson's Bay Company a galling yoke. From 1836 evasions of the law against trading in furs became common among the Métis. The company continued to punish severely anyone proved guilty of this particular offence; they continued also to charge seven and a half per cent. duty on all goods imported; in other matters they interfered very little. The people clamoured for something better than the arbitrary justice of the Council's magistrate. The company sent out a lawyer, Mr. Thom, but the people did not like him. He could not speak French, and the Métis did not trust him.

Between 1840 and 1844 the Sioux were threatening, and five

Courtesy of Pollard—Calgary.

INDIAN TRACKERS.

hundred soldiers were sent to Red River. They were gay fellows with money to spend, and gave a new interest to life in the colony. In 1848 they were replaced by a squad of seventy pensioners under Major Caldwell, a gentleman who was hand and glove with the company. The people now turned to Mr. Isbister. Isbister was a native of Red River and had a dash of Indian blood in his veins. He was clever and, graduating from a British university, became a teacher in England. He interested a number of prominent men in the condition of the people at Red River, and from this time on transmitted the petitions of the inhabitants to the British official to whom they were addressed.

In the spring of 1849 occurred the William Sayre affair, which effectually broke the back of the company's monopoly of the fur trade; it showed, too, how weak and inefficient the company's government was. In 1853 Mr. Thom was removed. In 1857 the Legislature of Canada sent out the Dawson-Hind expedition to explore the North-West. The report sent in by these gentlemen interested many people in Canada, and an occasional settler began to appear. Among others came Dr. Schultz, then a student at Queen's College, Kingston. Dr. Schultz bought the newspaper, *The Nor'-Wester*, which had recently been established, and became a prominent member of the People's Party. In 1862 a steamer began to ply up and down the Red. In that year, too, the exploratory expedition of Lord Milton and Mr. Cheadle arrived. Red River was beginning to be less isolated—the world seemed to be drawing near to her.

In the spring of 1866 an action was brought against Dr. Schultz in the Quarterly Court for alleged indebtedness. He wished to defend himself, but the court would not allow it, and as he refused to appoint an agent in his absence, judgment was given against him. He refused to comply with the order of the court until granted a fair trial in an open court. The next year a vacancy occurred in the Council, and the people petitioned that Dr. Schultz be appointed to fill it. The authorities did not want him on the Council and they sent the sheriff to enforce the judgment of the year before by seizing his goods. Resisting the seizure Schultz was made prisoner, tied with ropes, and brought in a cariole before a Hudson's Bay Company justice

of the peace. Charged with having assaulted the sheriff he admitted that he had defended his property, and he was cast into prison. Four hours later the people came, tore down the walls of the prison and released him. They would have advanced against the company officials in Fort Garry, but Schultz calmed them. No attempt was made to recapture him.

Already in 1866 the people of Red River had petitioned the British Government to permit them to be joined to Canada. In December 1867, during the first session of the Dominion Parliament, the Honourable William McDougall, Minister of Public Works, brought in a series of resolutions praying that Rupert's Land and the North-West Territories should be united to the Dominion of Canada. The resolutions were debated and carried. The Imperial Government said that terms must be made with the Hudson's Bay Company before the transfer could be made. Accordingly Sir George Cartier and Mr. McDougall were sent to England, where they arranged with the company to buy the territories in question for £300,000 and one-twentieth of the land. The Dominion Government then passed an Act arranging for the government of the newly-acquired territory. Mr. McDougall was appointed Lieutenant-Governor and set out for the West to take up his new position.

In the meantime, although the people of Red River had petitioned to be joined to Canada, opposition to that step had been growing. The inhabitants of the colony had not been consulted in connection with the transfer; their rights had not been guaranteed; they had been haggled over and finally sold. The French Métis feared that their farms, which were laid out in long narrow strips, would be taken from them and re-surveyed. One person complained to another, discontent grew into resentment, resentment grew into rebellion. The story of that unfortunate affair has been told and need not be repeated.

The disturbance caused in Ontario and Quebec was quite as serious as that on the Red River. Party politicians in Ontario seized upon the murder of Scott as a lever by which they hoped to eject the Conservative Government from power. They demanded that Riel and his accomplices should be tried and

executed. The French of Quebec, on the other hand, demanded an amnesty for *all* those who had taken part in the rebellion. Lieutenant-Governor Archibald and Sir John Macdonald knew that to attempt the seizure of Louis Riel would mean civil war, perhaps the massacre of all the whites in Red River; but the people of Ontario could not be made to understand this. They offered rewards for the capture of Riel and kept on clamouring loudly for vengeance. In this way the Métis were kept trembling on the brink of revolt for some time; but, in the end, the matter was adjusted, and the Province of Manitoba formed.

THE STORY OF YOUNG SUTHERLAND

By W. J. Healy

The first thing Riel did after seizing Fort Garry was to arrest a number of the leading men on this side of the river. A couple of the prisoners escaped. Thomas Scott, whom Riel afterwards recaptured and shot, was one of them. Then after several days Riel set fifteen or sixteen of the prisoners free, and promised to liberate the others. But he did not keep his word. Major Boulton, a retired British officer who was at Portage la Prairie, gathered a force of about sixty men. They walked the whole distance to the village of Winnipeg and arrived there in a blizzard. It was in the middle of February. They could do nothing for two or three days on account of the blizzard. At last they made their way to Kildonan, where a force which Dr. Schultz had got together farther down the river joined them with a cannon drawn by four oxen. Major Boulton now had more than four hundred men under his command. The people of Kildonan gave them food and they slept in Kildonan church and school-house. Most of them had guns.

That evening a young man named Parisien, a French Canadian who was simple-minded, came down the road past Kildonan church. He had been employed in Fort Garry sawing and chopping wood, and was on his way to his people who lived across the river from St. Andrews. Some of Major Boulton's

men seized him as a spy and made him a prisoner in the school-house. In the morning he managed to make his escape. He ran to the river, took a gun from one of the sleighs that were standing near the church, and ran down the river bank. That was about ten o'clock in the forenoon.

Only a few minutes before Parisien's escape, the Sutherlands, who lived across the river, were welcoming their father home from Fort Garry. He had persuaded Riel to set all the prisoners free that morning. "He said to my second eldest brother, John Hugh, 'Jump on a horse and ride as fast as you can across the river to Major Boulton and Dr. Schultz, and tell them that all the prisoners are to be set free,'" said Mrs. Black, in telling her recollections. "John Hugh ran out at once and started across for Kildonan on a horse. I remember well how my mother cried with joy when my father came home that morning. We had not seen him for two days and two nights. The night before my mother had said that we might never see him again. He was doing his utmost to prevent strife and bloodshed.

"Poor John Hugh was crossing the river when he and the half-witted and badly-frightened Parisien met. Men were running from the river bank in pursuit of Parisien, who raised his gun and fired twice at my brother. John Hugh fell wounded from his horse. Some of the men who were pursuing Parisien carried him to Dr. Black's house. Others seized Parisien and dragged him back to the school-house. John Hugh died the next morning. Before he died he begged earnestly that young Parisien should not be punished for what he had done. 'The poor simple fellow was too frightened to know what he was doing,' my brother said.

"When anybody died in Kildonan," said Mrs. Black, "it was your sorrow, if you were of Kildonan. But I do not think there ever was a funeral in Kildonan where there was greater sorrow shown than at my brother's. The coffin was carried on men's shoulders from our house to the grave. To put a coffin on any vehicle would have been looked upon in Kildonan as showing lack of respect to the memory of the dead. At every funeral the shrouded coffin was borne on the shoulders of four

men, who were relieved every few minutes by men who took their places. The minister with one of the elders led the way. Then came the bearers with the coffin followed by the chief mourners, and then all who attended the funeral marched two by two. There were always four men walking beside the bearers, and at the word 'Relief' spoken at intervals by the elder in front they took the place of the bearers, who dropped out and fell into the rear. The distance to be travelled was not considered in paying this respect to the dead; when Donald Ross died at Mapleton, down the river below St. Andrews, his coffin was carried eighteen miles to St. John's. At the slow pace of a funeral this took a whole day; at noon the funeral halted where a cart of provisions met them, and after dinner the line of march was again taken up."

MANITOBA

1870

THE first Parliament was opened on March 15, 1871. A large house belonging to Mr. Bannatyne had been chosen as the Parliament Building. For days before the opening the house was the centre of interest. Carpenters worked busily making repairs and alterations. Then for a day or two a small army of women took possession of the place, sweeping, dusting, scrubbing, arranging furniture and hangings. At the last moment came the decorators with ladders and flags. By March 15, a handsome and dignified home was ready for the new Parliament.

All up and down the river the citizens were astir early. By ten o'clock the roads showed a stream of horses, carts and wagons carrying men, women and children, each in his gayest attire. Hunters, trappers, voyageurs and Indians mingled with the farmers and townspeople in Winnipeg and Fort Garry, jostling each other good-naturedly for the best places from which to see the procession.

"Here they come!" "Here they are!" the cry ran from lip

to lip down the road. The tramp, tramp of soldiers, the jingle of harness, and the Governor appeared, attended by his guard of one hundred men. He was a pleasant-faced, rather grave-looking man, very erect in his gold-braided coat, cocked hat, and white plume. Though unpopular with many of the extremists, Governor Archibald had already done much to bring about peace and stability in Red River. The more solid citizens realised it and thanked him for it. He was cheered plentifully as he passed along to the Parliament House.

"All the ladies of Red River attended this opening, dressed in their very best clothes. To our amusement the squaws followed our example and came in all their Indian finery—Hudson's Bay blankets, feathers, beads and war-paint."

Canada's third birthday was gayly celebrated in the new province. The newspapers announced:

"1871 DOMINION DAY 1871

GRAND CELEBRATION

The Anniversary of the Dominion of Canada will be celebrated in the Town of Winnipeg,

On Saturday, July 1, 1871

By Horse Races—Trotting Matches—Running Matches—Foot Races—Standing Jumps—Running Jumps—High Leaps—Sack and Blindfold Races—Climbing the Greasy Pole—Putting the Stone—Quoits—A Cricket Match—Football—Throwing the Sledge—Etc., Etc.

$500 of Prizes

will be distributed. The Firemen will proceed by Torchlight in the Evening. Music during the Day.

God Save the Queen."

Gay times they had when Winnipeg was young. In winter they went skating, snow-shoeing and tobogganing; in summer they took long walks through the pleasant woods which clothed the ground now covered with houses and shops. The Ontario troops gave concerts and staged amateur plays for the civilians;

Department of Agriculture, Winnipeg

PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, WINNIPEG, MANITOBA

the citizens, in February 1872, gave a grand ball in honour of the soldiers. "It was the first affair of the kind given in Winnipeg and three hundred invitations were sent out. One room was reserved for the dancing of the Red River dances, jigs, strathspeys and reels; in two others they danced waltzes, quadrilles and schottisches. Ladies appeared in beautiful gowns of velvet or satin, and shod in moccasins; dancing slippers being almost unattainable. Two friends tossed a coin to decide which of them should wear the dress suit owned by them jointly. Yet they danced, we may be sure, none the less gayly for these deficiencies."

ENTER BRITISH COLUMBIA

As soon as the Union of the two colonies had been arranged, people began to discuss Union with Canada. British Columbia found herself sadly isolated from the rest of the world. The expenses of Government were great, she had a considerable debt, business was at a standstill, it was imperative that some step should be taken.

Three courses presented themselves to the British Columbians of those days; the people were divided therefore into three groups as to what it would be best to do. The officials, Navy men, and Hudson's Bay Company officers, most of whom were British born, disliked and looked down upon the Canadians in the colony. Because of this and because some of them felt connection with Canada to be impracticable, they opposed Confederation and desired to remain a Crown colony of Britain. The Canadians born, such men as Amor de Cosmos, F. G. Barnard, D. W. Higgin, with many others, urged that British Columbia should enter Confederation.

A third smaller group advocated annexation to the United States. In *The Colonist* of January 26, 1870, Mr. Pemberton, a prominent Victorian, had a letter advising annexation. He said that it surely could not be disloyal for him to suggest such a thing when Members of Parliament in Britain were discussing the subject. He gave several very sound reasons for his views. His letter was answered by Mr. Beaven, and the controversy continued for some time. There was, indeed, in Victoria a newspaper the object of which was to urge annexation. The Americans had already planned a railway extending through British Columbia to Alaska. It was information regarding this railway which made Sir John Macdonald press forward the bargain with the Hudson's Bay Company so as to open the way to bring British Columbia into the Dominion.

Governor Seymour was another obstacle to Confederation; he did not approve of it. On March 8, 1867, the Legislative Council at Victoria passed a resolution asking the Governor to take steps to secure the entrance of British Columbia into the Dominion of Canada. The Governor did not take the matter up, and the Dominion was established without British Columbia.

When the people learned what the Governor had done, they were angry. A public meeting was held in Victoria, and a memorial explaining what had happened was sent to the Dominion Government. At once word came back from Ottawa saying that the Dominion desired Union with British Columbia, and advising the people of the province to take the matter up with the Imperial Government.

Provincial Archives, Victoria

VANCOUVER IN 1882

Sir John Macdonald had already arranged for the recall of Governor Seymour, when the gentleman died, and his place was taken by Mr. Anthony Musgrave, who had formerly been Governor of Newfoundland. Mr. Musgrave believed in Confederation, and after his coming the opposition to it died away. The terms of Union were drawn up by the Governor and his assistants, the outstanding demand being for a wagon road which should connect British Columbia with Canada. The terms were presented to the Legislature in Victoria and were the subject of long and earnest discussion. When all were agreed upon them, three delegates were chosen to go to Ottawa to negotiate the Union.

The delegates went to Ottawa via San Francisco. They found the Dominion Government anxious to meet them. To their surprise and delight the Dominion offered a railway instead of a wagon road; Canada guaranteed to begin the railway within two, and to complete it within ten, years. The other terms were discussed and in the main agreed to. Provision for responsible government had not been included in the terms. Three men, John Robson, H. E. Seelye and D. W. Higgin, who, being Canadians, knew by experience the importance of settling that

question at the outset, held a conference and decided to send Mr. Seelye with the delegates to secure the inclusion of this stipulation with the others. Mr. Higgin, the editor of *The Colonist*, bore Mr. Seelye's expenses out of his own pocket. Responsible government was conceded with the other terms. An agreement having been reached, the news was telegraphed to British Columbia on July 7, and great was the rejoicing in the province.

SAN JUAN

1872

FOR many years after the American Revolution, Canada was more or less constantly engaged in disputes with the United States over her boundaries which for thousands of miles march with those of the Republic. The boundary between New Brunswick and Maine, between British Columbia and Oregon, between British Columbia and Alaska were the subjects of long controversy, much heated discussion, and not very satisfactory settlement.

The Oregon Treaty was scarcely signed before a dispute arose over it. The treaty said that the middle of the channel be tween Vancouver Island and the mainland to the Strait of Juan de Fuca should be the line, and should follow the middle of the strait out to sea. Several islands lay between Vancouver Island and the mainland; that meant that there were several channels; which one was the channel meant by the treaty? The Americans claimed that Haro Strait, the westernmost channel, was the one meant; this gave all the islands to the United States. The British claimed that the channel meant was Rosario Strait, the easternmost channel, which gave the islands to Britain.

In 1848, and again in 1856, Britain suggested appointing a commission to settle the dispute. In the latter year the United States consented, and Captain Prevost and Captain Richards of the British Navy were sent out to act for Britain, while A. Campbell was appointed to represent the United States. The

commission met in 1857; they sat for six months, but came to no decision. Britain then offered to divide the islands, keeping San Juan and giving the others to the United States. This seemed more than fair, but the Americans refused.

In 1859 the matter was rendered extremely complicated and the two countries were brought to the verge of war by the intervention of a pig. It happened in this way. The Hudson's Bay Company had a farm upon the island; American settlers had taken up land there also. On June 15, 1859, a pig from the Hudson's Bay Company farm trespassed on the potato patch of James Cutler, one of the Americans. Cutler shot the pig. The company then claimed damages. Cutler refused to pay, and the company threatened to take him to Victoria to stand his trial.

Hearing of the dispute, General Harvey, then in command in Oregon, came over to San Juan to look into the matter, and ordered Captain Pickett with a company of troops to occupy the island in order to protect the American citizens living thereon against interference from the British. Governor Douglas in his turn asked Colonel Moody to send a detachment to occupy the island for Britain. Moody sent forty-four Royal Marines and fifteen Engineers; they were transported with their equipment on the *Plumper*. The British troop landed and camped.

There were more British than American soldiers, and the Americans, at first, seemed to fear that some advantage would be taken; the American commander-in-chief, Winfield Scott, came over. He and the British commander behaved very politely to each other, and after that the two forces became quite friendly. They remained in joint possession of the island until 1872.

In 1871, no settlement having been arranged, the two countries agreed to leave the decision to the German Emperor. Admiral Prevost prepared the case for the British; George Bancroft for the United States. The two gentlemen presented their arguments to His Majesty and he decided in favour of the Americans. In 1872 the British troops were withdrawn from San Juan and the island left to the United States.

The Island of San Juan was not particularly important, but Canadians resented its being given to the United States, as they resented the ceding of a large part of New Brunswick to Maine, Oregon to the United States, and a slice of British Columbia to Alaska. In each of these disputes the argument for Canada was conducted by a British statesman. No Canadian sat upon the board of arbitration; had a Canadian been heard, it was felt that valuable territories rightfully belonging to Canada would not have been so readily parted with. A British statesman had, naturally, no very warm interest in a strange and distant bit of country; he was usually willing to sacrifice Canada to gain some Imperial advantage or to keep the peace with the United States.

Provincial Archives, Victoria

ANTLER CREEK IN THE DAYS OF THE GOLD RUSH

The disputes about the coast and inland fisheries, the quarrels about the fur-seals of Bering Sea were arbitrated in the same way, Canada being represented by Britain and always suffering.

After Confederation, when Canada began to feel herself a nation with a great future, she passed from passive resentment to determined action in these matters; she demanded to be heard upon questions that affected her more closely than anyone else. Britain was not very ready to grant this privilege, reasonable though it seems. Soon after Confederation, however, Sir John Macdonald went to Washington to represent Canada on a commission called to settle all the outstanding disputes between Canada and the United States. Sir John defended Canada's interests as well as he could, though handicapped by the British members who seemed willing to sacrifice her as usual. The awards of the Washington Treaty did not, however, become law until they had been ratified by the Canadian Parliament.

This was a decided step forward. Since that time Canada has made steady progress in winning power to make her own

Courtesy of Oliver & Nichol—Calgary.

THE FIRE RANGER.

bargains with foreign nations. For years she has made her own commercial treaties. In the Great War, Canada won her place in the Congress of Nations. She is now recognised by the world as an independent member of the British Empire.

FATHER LACOMBE'S HOME

By 1871, Father Lacombe's missions, St. Albert and St. Paul de Cris, were well established, and the Man-of-the-Good-Heart turned eagerly toward the Blackfeet to whom he had long wished to devote himself. He spent a happy summer among them, wandering among the camps pitched in the lovely valleys among the foothills. Buffalo were plentiful, the tribe was happy; the chiefs received the missionary graciously. He preached and taught enthusiastically, dreaming of the Blackfoot Mission he would establish on the Bow.

Instead, the next year his bishop sent him to Quebec to ask for money to carry on the work. Sadly Father Lacombe turned his face toward the East. He loved the wide plains, the red chiefs, his friends, and he hated begging; but he knew how to obey as well as to command. He canvassed Quebec, and France, without any great success. After his return he was appointed parish priest of St. Mary's, Winnipeg, and helped Archbishop Tache in his colonisation scheme. Each winter he visited Quebec, describing the West and its advantages to the French Canadians; each spring he brought out a band of new settlers. In 1876, six hundred Canadians came to Manitoba; in 1877, four hundred families were settled on the prairies. The archbishop was delighted, and Father Lacombe rejoiced in his success, but his heart was still in the Blackfeet camps.

It was not till the spring of 1882 that he was free to turn his face toward the foothills, to leave these troublesome white new-comers, and go to prepare his Blackfeet for their coming. When he was leaving he was presented with a fine team of horses, a buck-board wagon, and a tent. He drove for eight days along the railway grade to the mission at Qu'Appelle, and

from there north across the prairies to Battleford, then the capital of the North-West Territories, thence to Fort Pitt. Everywhere there were evidences of the white man's coming. Along the grassy cart-trails he passed many groups of incoming settlers. Regina had just been founded; Edmonton had spread outside the old stockades. It boasted a street, a log school-house, and several shops of free traders. In the Valley of the Bow the traveller looked down upon the palisades, the shacks and tents of Fort Calgary.

The Man-of-the-Good-Heart had his welcome home at the Blood Reserve near Fort Macleod. He was received with the honours of a great medicine man returning to his tribe. The Indians flocked from all quarters to the mission-house to see and talk with him; the calumet made the rounds continually. Father Lacombe found his Indians deteriorating rapidly under the influence of hunger and whiskey. He took them in hand at once, and they seemed to improve under the inspiration of his presence.

All these years Bishop Grandin had been trying to get money to build schools for the Indian boys and girls. Father Lacombe now suggested to him that he should ask the Government for funds. He did so, and the Government authorised the establishment of three Indian Industrial Schools: at Dunbow, south of Calgary, at Battleford, and at Qu'Appelle. The Government promised to build the schools, pay a fair salary to the principals, and make a grant for the maintenance of each pupil.

Father Lacombe, though still supervisor of the Southern Alberta Missions, was given control of the Dunbow School. When the buildings were ready he rode out among the Bloods and Piegans to ask them to send their children to school. Father Legal did the same at Blackfoot Crossing. The Indians refused firmly to part with their younger boys; but, after much coaxing, the missionaries gathered into the new school seventeen boys between fifteen and seventeen years of age.

On their arrival they were shown into a room where stood several washtubs, and directed to bathe. Father Lacombe and his teachers combed their long hair; the parents would not consent to its being cut. New clothes were given to each boy.

Supper followed, and then the new pupils were sent out for play hour. They ran riot; it was bedlam let loose. A bell rang and they were herded into the dormitory. The stairs enchanted them; many amused themselves in running up and down; others examined the neat beds and made riotous fun of them. Father Lacombe did not interfere with them that night.

The next day a class was organised. They were reverent enough at prayers and curiosity kept them quiet during the first lesson hour, but pandemonium broke loose at recess. They did not want to return to class. That was a hard winter for the Father, that first one. These boys were too old to be broken to school ways. All winter they continued to be as wild as young elk.

During the North-West Rebellion Father Lacombe spent most of his time out on the plains keeping peace among the Blackfeet and Bloods. His influence, perhaps more than any other, kept the southern tribes from rising; public and private letters thanking and congratulating him covered his table.

His last great work was to establish a home for orphans and the homeless aged. A site was needed and money to build and maintain it; Father Lacombe was now eighty-one, but quite undaunted. He went to Mr. Burns of Calgary and was given two hundred acres of good farm land with trees, and a brook running through it—just what he wanted. In 1909 he travelled through Alberta collecting money for his buildings. By 1910 he had collected $30,000 and ordered the work to begin. All summer he pottered about the building at Midnapore, watching it grow brick by brick. On November 9 it was opened by Bishop Legal.

The home was well built and comfortable, but as yet there was no money to maintain it. Father Lacombe went again to Mr. Burns, who promised to supply it with meat. The bishop's farm at St. Albert sent a carload of potatoes; a colliery at Lethbridge gave two carloads of coal; another company gave lumber for outbuildings; the railways transported these gifts without charge. Within six months, forty people, old and young, were happily sheltered in Father Lacombe's Home. Among them the Man-of-the-Good-Heart passed his last days in peace.

THE GROWTH OF TRADE IN CANADA

Canada's trade first began to be really valuable about 1808. There were then about 300,000 people in the Upper and Lower Provinces; and they exported furs, wheat, oak and pine, potash and pearl ash, fish, oil and lumber. They had to import practically all the manufactured goods they needed, but the trade total showed a balance of more than £500,000 in Canada's favour.

By 1830 both exports and imports had increased greatly. In those days nearly all Canada's business was done with Great Britain and the United States. Britain helped Canada by putting duties on lumber coming from other countries into England, thus giving a "preference" to Canada. Then in 1846 Britain withdrew all duties and became a "free trade" country. This frightened Canadians badly; they thought that Canada would become bankrupt at once. Warburton says:

"Great panic was caused in the Canada timber trade by the British removal of protection from colonial produce. For the first year, from this alarm, there was a great falling off in the quantity of goods exported; the next year, however, it rallied considerably; and the export is now one-third more than when this step towards free trade was taken." It seems that it is good for countries, just as it is for individuals, to stand upon their own feet.

In spite of political difficulties and several "hard" years when business throughout the world was bad, Canada's trade continued to expand rapidly. In 1854, Lord Elgin, who was a skilful diplomatist, was able to arrange a Reciprocity Treaty with the United States. This treaty established what was practically free trade between Canada and her neighbour. The Americans were permitted to use Canadian rivers and canals and to fish in Canadian waters; while Canadians were allowed to ship their fish, farm products, lumber and minerals freely to the United States. It was agreed that the treaty should remain in force for ten years, after which either country might terminate the agreement by giving a year's notice.

During the next ten years Canada's trade grew by leaps and bounds. The eastern provinces still had free lands with which to attract the immigrant. The Crimean War in Europe and the Civil War in the United States sent the prices of foodstuffs soaring. Ontario began to produce large quantities of wheat. Cheese- and butter-making began to be done in factories instead of in the homes; Oxford County is said to have been the first to possess a cheese factory. The lumbermen, miners and fishermen prospered as well as the farmers.

Then, in 1866, the United States, angry because Britain had sympathised with the South during the Civil War, gave notice to Canada that she would terminate the Reciprocity agreement. Canada tried to make a further bargain with her, but she refused. Again it seemed as if Canadian business must suffer; but again Canada profited by standing on her own feet. The United States imported almost as much of our goods as before; England imported twice as much; the stream of new settlers created a larger market at home. Factories of several kinds began to spring up in Canada. Every village had its flour- and grist-mill; many had saw-mills as well. As in the case of the Massey Company, blacksmith shops grew into implement factories. The saw-mills added to themselves sash and door and furniture factories. The high price of cotton after the American Civil War encouraged the opening of woollen mills in Canada.

The "good times" were followed by "bad" ones. 1873 was a year of financial panic throughout the world; industrial depression followed, Canada suffering with other countries. American manufacturers began "dumping" their surplus stock on the Canadian market; they consigned goods to Canada to be auctioned off at *any* price. English firms allowed their customers too much credit and so led them into bankruptcy; bankrupt stocks swelled the already flooded markets. Business in Canada became demoralised.

What Canada needed most was markets. Great Britain and the United States were her natural ones; but Britain had opened her markets to the whole world and the United States had shut Canada out by a tariff which she kept increasing year by year. Under these circumstances Canada began to consider

a tariff of her own. For a number of years after Confederation, Canada levied few duties on imports; she collected just enough to bring in the revenue she needed. Alexander Galt, one of our earliest financial experts, believed that it was better to keep the tariff down, to make Canada a cheap country to live in, so that her people might be able to compete in the markets of the world.

Now, however, "hard times" forced the people to consider whether or not it would be wise to set up a tariff which would protect our own workers. Was it really wise to leave Canada unprotected in this way? The manufacturers said no; the Dominion Grange, a farmers' association, also said no. The ordinary citizen was much confused about the matter. If the United States would open her markets to Canada it would be better to have a low tariff; if she would not (and she would not), perhaps it would be better to protect Canada. A "National Policy" came to be discussed. This "National Policy" suggested a high tariff, which would shut the United States out of our market as she shut us out of hers, and in so doing would keep our own market for our own people. It promised to keep Canadians at home by finding work for them in Canada, to develop interprovincial trade, and to provide sufficient revenue for the Government, whose budgets had been showing a deficit. In the elections of 1878 the "National Policy" triumphed and a tariff for protection was introduced.

Prosperity followed, some of it due without doubt to the new tariff; but more of it probably a result of the "better times" in the world, good harvests, and the opening of the Canadian West. It was a period of friction with the United States over many small points, most of which were settled at a conference in 1899. As Reciprocity had been repeatedly refused, Canada turned to other countries. China and Japan were waking from their long sleep; here were huge markets and Canada was their nearest neighbour. Trade connections were made with the West Indies and South America. Great Britain bought most of our farm products, and the United States continued to import our minerals. By 1896 Canada's foreign trade was worth over two hundred and thirty millions.

PAYING FOR THE GREAT ROAD

1875

Sir John Macdonald had decided that the Canadian Pacific Railway should be built by a company, not by the Government. It remained to organise the company.

Four Canadians, Norman Kittson, James J. Hill, Donald Smith, and his cousin, George Stephen, had recently taken over the Great Northern, an American railway. When these men secured control of it, the Great Northern was on the verge of collapse. The business ability of the four Canadians, combined with improving times, saved the railway. Within a few years the partners were millionaires.

To these men the Canadian Government turned when the time arrived for organising the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. "Catch them before they have invested their profits," suggested a shrewd friend of Sir John's, and so he did. The partners were not unwilling. Stephen for a time objected that the management would be too great a burden, but he was soon won over. James Hill dropped out. Donald Smith and Sir John Macdonald were not good friends, so Smith was not named as one of the company though everyone knew he belonged to it.

Rich as they were, these men had not enough money to build the great road by themselves; other financiers must be interested in it. In 1880 Sir John Macdonald and Sir Charles Tupper, the Minister of Railways, went to London to arrange for more capital. London financiers were cool, and the Canadians secured only a little help. Undaunted, the new company determined to begin the work. It was difficult then; but we are proud now that the greatest railway in the world was built almost entirely by Canadian money.

In Ottawa, on October 21, 1880, the contract between the Government and the company was signed. The company pro-

mised to build within ten years the nineteen hundred miles of road required to connect the railways of Canada with the Pacific Coast. The Government, on its part, promised to make over to the company the seven hundred and ten miles under construction; to give them twenty-five million dollars, and twenty-five million acres of land along the route. The company were to be exempt from import duties on construction materials, from taxes on their lands for twenty years, from taxes on their rolling stock and other property forever. Further, the Government agreed not to allow any competitive line connecting with the United States to be built for twenty years. They were princely terms.

The contract was laid before Parliament in December 1880. The Opposition, led by Blake, received it with derision. A rival company, hastily organised, offered to build the road for three million dollars and three million acres less. During the Christmas vacation Blake tried to rouse the country to forbid the charter. But old Sir John was strong and his party carried it through Parliament. The contract was ratified in February 1881.

Canadian Pacific Railway

BUFFALO BONES READY TO SHIP

A YOUNG HOMESTEADER

Vickers, Yarmouth

BUCK AND BRIGHT

During the twenty years which followed Confederation, hundreds of young men from Eastern Canada went out to homestead on the prairies. They met difficulties and disappointments; the life was hard and lonely. Many failed; many conquered the land, wresting prosperity from it; many used this first conquest merely as a stepping-stone to achievement in other fields. Tom was one of these.

He left his Ontario home one windy, snowy March morning, with ten or twelve hundred dollars sewn into the strong, new money belt about his waist, and a trunk packed by the worn hands of his mother full of good things to eat, warm things to wear, and pleasant things to read. With her blessing in his heart he set out into the world to seek his fortune.

He was joined at the station by three friends, Dick, George and Mike, also bound for the West. They were soon aboard the train and steaming away toward Detroit. The excursion train had neither berths nor diner; by the time they had passed Chicago the passengers were a grimy lot, weary of farms, towns, elevators; thrice weary of dust, dirt, smells, tank water and lunch baskets. Having crossed the boundary into Canada and passed Emerson, however, everyone began to take an interest in the country through which they were passing. Their own land would be like this. They would whitewash their log-houses till they looked like those by the roadside. They, too, would build stables of poles and sod when each had located his quarter-section.

Winnipeg was reached at last; the homesteaders tumbled out, and then stood still to take in great breaths of the clean, stimulating air. Tom and his friends walked along the new plank walk down Main Street to Portage Avenue and back. Main Street was long and wide and still unpaved. The sidewalks were black with thawing mud. The buildings were nearly all small and built of scantling, shiplap or siding. Few of them were painted. The town seemed like a huge cluster of houses hurriedly thrown together for a fair.

Tom went on that afternoon to Portage la Prairie, where his brother Alex met him and led him across the common to a tent which he was pitching. The day was windy and raw, the sky overcast. "We can't stay in that kind of thing in this weather, Al," remonstrated the Eastener. "Oh, yes, we can, Tom. You have no idea how a tent warms up when you light a fire in your little stove," said Alex. "Let's get these pegs in and the ropes tight and you'll see." They tugged and stretched the canvas into place, set up the little sheet-iron stove, and built a fire. Sure enough the tent was warm in no time. The boys made a hearty meal of bacon, bread and tea, and then stretched themselves out upon their blankets for a long smoke and talk.

The first step was to choose their lands; this sounded simple, but turned out to be really difficult. You will remember that while every township in the North-West contains thirty-six sections not all of these are ever available to the homesteader. The Hudson's Bay Company, under its Act of Settlement, is entitled to one or two quarters in each township. Next, two sections, 11 and 29, are reserved by the Dominion Government as school lands. Then, all the odd-numbered sections remaining in every township within the railway zone of twenty-four miles on either side of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company's main line belong to the company as part of its grant of assistance to build. The remaining even-numbered sections may be homesteaded when a careful Government sees fit to declare them open for that purpose. Thus the settler's chances were reduced by more than one-half at the very beginning.

Even under this handicap, if the granting had been done

systematically, settlement might have gone forward swiftly and effectively. If the even-numbered sections in each of the ten townships between Emerson and Winnipeg had first been granted to settlers; if, when range 1 was filled, range 2 had been granted, and so west to Moosomin, to Regina, to Calgary, the settlers would have been able to help one another, and the country would have grown naturally. No course so systematic could, perhaps, have been carried out; but something much more effective than the haphazard methods of the Department of the Interior might have been arranged. Distant townships were opened for homesteading, while those near the railway were closed; blocks of townships containing inferior land and without roads were opened, while good land connected with the settlements remained unavailable. Our boys were early on the ground, they were strong and eager to begin work, they had sufficient capital to set themselves up in the business of farming; yet, like almost every other immigrant of those days, they were forced to spend weeks of time and part of their capital in seeking a location. In the end they found themselves on second-rate land far from the railway. Settlers who arrived years later were able to homestead better land, nearer to market, nearer to school and church than these first-comers.

Tom and Alex found that they could not get land in the Portage district; there were no homesteads to be had there. Indeed, nearly every section of good homestead land in Manitoba had been withdrawn from settlement at that time. They were told that they might find what they wanted in the Moosomin district just west of the Manitoba boundary, in eastern Assiniboia (now the Province of Saskatchewan). They found Moosomin a one-year-old town with a new station, a post-office, a few stores and shops, and half a dozen wooden houses. It was situated at the point where the old Hudson's Bay trail crossed the new railway line. The district was administered from this centre by three mounted policemen, two or three Government land guides, and a homestead inspector. Dick joined the boys at Moosomin.

They were a good deal disappointed with the country here. The level prairies about Winnipeg, the fine Portage Plains had

led them to hope for something better than this high, rolling, bluffy land which showed stones, traces of alkali, and many sloughs. "We became active at once, however," says Tom. "We wrote to the Land Agent at Birtle for maps of the nearby townships showing the lands untaken; we called upon the local officials and got what information we could. The result was not encouraging; all the desirable homesteads near Moosomin had been taken, there were no townships near by open to the homesteader at present; there might be a few townships farther south thrown open presently; there were homesteading lands open for entry in the Shell River district sixty or seventy miles away.

"We left our tent and belongings in Moosomin and made an excursion south on foot to see those townships which *might* soon be opened. Our way for the first few miles took us south-west along the old Moose Mountain trail. The wagons of the settlers were already grinding out the dozen or so parallel ruts made by the carts of the half-breeds in their freightings of former days. Presently we left the old trail and followed a lighter one directly south to 'Smith's' on the banks of the Big Pipe-stone. The valley of the Pipestone rather attracted us; it was green and fertile. Mr. Smith ferried us across the river and we tramped on till we left the bluffy country behind and came out on a great plain. A survey post told us we were in township 12, range 32 west of the meridian. A small creek, the Little Pipestone, wandered through the township. It was fairly good prairie land, somewhat uneven in quality, with some pothole sloughs, and some ridges of stones. Still, we thought it might make fair homesteads."

Next, the boys bought a pony and cart and with their camping outfit drove out to Fort Ellice, and from there to the Shell mouth. They met Major Boulton, one of the men sentenced by Riel in Fort Garry. He and his wife were farming in this district. They bought two yoke of oxen and a cow, and returned without having found a location.

Spring was advancing and it became each day more important that the young homesteaders should settle so that they might break ground for the next year's crop. They drove over to see

the Government Land Agent at Birtle. He told them that the Pipestone Township was not yet open, but admitted that he thought it would be in a few weeks. "If we go out there and squat on the homesteads we want, will you let us know immediately entry can be made?" asked Tom. "Yes, we can do that for you," promised the agent. Back in Moosomin, Tom and Alex bought the tools and groceries they needed and travelled down to township 12. Dick, still undecided, remained behind.

"Breaking," writes Tom, "is not a swift process when you have only one pair of cattle. One acre a day is a good day's work for a seasoned team, too much for youngsters. We opened the first furrow on the line between our homesteads. If the first furrow was Al's, the return one was mine. Al led the nigh ox by the horn while I managed the new breaking plough. What a gritting and ripping and what a weight there was in a slice of that sod. It was just about all the beasts could do, and they took it rather ill, but with patience we managed. We were just getting well into our work when Dick came along and settled beside us. He had plenty of capital and planned to bring a wife to his farm in the following summer. For the rest of the summer Alex spent a good deal of his time helping Dick.

"For two months the mosquitoes were a wicked pest. We built great smudges of grass, sods and buffalo chips in the evenings. The cattle would leave feeding to crowd into the thickest of the smoke. At nights when the smudges ceased to send up their pillars of smoke, the animals came about the tent and kept us awake by their switching, stamping and grunting. Working alone I broke forty acres before the first of July. After that one could see there was little use breaking more. The sod dry, the rains past, and the sap gone out of grass roots, the furrows turned over now would lie without rotting for the rest of the year. Such breaking would not backset well, nor break up under the harrows into a mellow seed bed. When a punch from the heel of your boot breaks easily through the sod of your breaking it is ripe for backsetting.

"Breaking time being past there was our cabin to build. It was to be of logs. We had already found a spot on the creek where there were poplar trees large enough for house logs, as

well as plenty of poles for rafters, posts and frames. I put away the breaking plough and turned the cattle out to rest and feed. I caught Buckskin, put the saddle on him and part of the cart harness, put a few slices of bread and cold meat in my pocket and rode away to the ravine. I had some good days with the logs, which I drew home in three or four trips with the oxen. It was a simple matter after they had been cut and dragged out into the open upon firm ground.

"When the logs and poles were all home, I turned the cattle loose again and having ground my axe well on our neighbour's grindstone, set to work to score-hack and hew. I had never hewed at home and did not possess a broad-axe, but managed to flatten each log to a uniform thickness. When logs and poles were trimmed and ready, I helped Ed Brooks draw home his house logs and he helped me in putting up the walls of my house. When the walls had reached a height of eight feet, we set up a slim straight timber hewed flat for a ridge pole, supporting it upon short posts imposed upon the top log of each end wall at its centre. With the ridge pole securely in place we cut our pole rafters and spiked them in pairs, one on either side, against the flat sides of the ridge pole, at intervals of about three feet. Then we nailed smaller poles across the rafters at intervals of ten inches.

"Our roof was now ready for the sods. We had no experience in sod-roofing, but concluded we would have to learn as we worked. We took the cattle and plough to a nearby slough where there was a strip of fine green sod, free from stones, wolf-willow, and rubbish. It looked as though it might be tough enough to hold together well. By careful ploughing we skinned a dozen or more furrows an inch deep, a foot wide and fifty or sixty feet long. We put a load of twelve-foot lengths of these on the wagon and drew it up to the back of the house. From the wagon we lifted the sods on a long board without breaking them and shoved them up and around on the poles until we could slip them off the board and lay them smoothly from ridge to eave. The first was pushed out flush with the ends of the roof poles at the south end of the roof. The next lay by its side. The third was laid upon these two, breaking the joint

fairly. So we proceeded. It did not take more than a day or two, but it was prodigiously hard and dirty work. It made a snug roof for a year or two, after which the grass roots rotted, it began to crumble, and we had to renew it.

"On the whole, life was very pleasant to us that busy summer. We lived pretty much on bacon, bread and tea. Once or twice we brought home a keg of syrup and had that as a delicacy while it lasted. The keg became an extra chair. Mrs. Scarriot baked our bread for us at so much per sack of flour. Once a week, one of us, gunny sack in hand, hied him across the prairie to bring home that weekly baking. It lasted four or five days. The rest of the week we made out with fritters, dough-dods and slap-jacks. There were pike in the creek which we caught occasionally.

"Soon after 'freeze-up' there was a flitting of most of the bachelor homesteaders. Many returned to their homes in Ontario. Others, not so well off, sought work in the lumber camps east of Winnipeg. A few found jobs in town."

SUNDAY DINNER ON THE PRAIRIE

1888

By Mrs. Soxley

The favourite vehicle here is a "buckboard" which is made after a plan authorised by the Government. They are capable of going over ground where any of our conveyances would assuredly come to grief. When the broncho had been hitched to the buckboard, Mr. Hamilton set out with me. Very soon a ravine had to be crossed, and the broncho began to baulk in a manner that brought my heart into my mouth. At one place the descent was so steep that my courage failed altogether and I got off and crossed the creek on foot. Sometimes I thought the broncho was to fall back upon us, sometimes it seemed imminent that we should be pitched forward on the broncho.

Courtesy of Government of Saskatchewan

WHEAT HARVESTING IN SASKATCHEWAN

Showing binders at work.

As the baulking always ended in nothing worse than a mild tussle, I became more assured and began to enjoy my drive.

About twenty miles from Regina we descended through break-neck ravines and "creeks" into the beautiful Qu'Appelle Valley, which winds through the level prairie for hundreds of miles. No need to plant gardens in this exquisite vale. The whole valley seems to be a succession of gardens, planted and tended by nature, blooming as Eden, inviting mankind to come and people its lonely solitudes, and reap from them harvests of health and plenty.

On the day I arrived the kitchen was being roofed, and I stepped from the mound upon the roof to inspect the tar-paper which was being stretched over the wood. The house was log built. The logs were cemented together by mortar and lined with smooth plank. In winter time the houses are banked round with earth which adds greatly to the warmth. Besides the log-house there is a shanty, which makes a delightfully cool sleeping-room in summer. In winter it is drawn up to the house and banked also. Cellars are dug under the houses here; and these are the store-rooms of the establishment. The stables are mere wooden frames banked about with turf or straw.

On Sabbath I went to a dinner party at my brother-in-

law's. When we reached the shanty we found Lourie (the hired man) "far through" with his duties and ready to tackle the final preparations for dinner. I watched him deftly arrange his pots and pans and then, feeling ashamed of myself, put off cloak and gloves and helped him prepare a savoury dish of steak and onions, also a huge potful of potatoes. Mr. Hamilton collected his nondescript assortment of plates, which Lourie arranged upstairs in what we might style the shanty drawing-room; a plank resting on two stools was laid along one side of the table, three chairs with a box, and bucket upside-down filled head and foot and t'other side. Tinned peaches, pepper-box, salt-cellar, and a small quantity of silver, added exceptional luxuries to a new prairie home. The beefsteak, brought from the town twenty miles away, was fully appreciated by the guests.

There is a kind of hearty yet high-bred hospitality among Canadians that is very pleasant for their guests. They don't prepare specially for you, nor invite people "to meet you," but they bid you come, and welcome you cordially; they make you feel that they are glad you came to see them; that they like you very much, and wish you would stay with them eternally. You are sure you have not put them out by your visit; on the contrary, that somehow you have conferred a favour on them.

In Canada, one of the most urgent social difficulties is the need of women. Girls get from twenty to thirty dollars a month; a good cook gets over forty. Women's duties are light in Canada compared with those of servants in Britain. Generally the men do all the heavy and dirty work, scrub the floors, fill the water-cans, carry wood, wash dishes and so on. Servants on farms are admitted as equals into the family life. It is by her own choice that any "nice little woman" remains single out here—not for want of good offers. She may choose her mate from a race of able, prosperous, handsome men, hearty, hopeful, courteous and liberal-minded. The Canadians are a dignified, self-respecting people, conscious of a lately acquired nationality all their own, and careful to live as becomes a noble nation. I thought they had struck a happy medium between the exclusive Britisher and the all-embracing Yankee, and I liked the medium best of the three.

THE WOMEN'S INSTITUTES

By Elizabeth Bailey Price

There is no country in the world which has such a well-organised system to promote the making of better homes, particularly in the rural districts, as Canada. This is done by the various provincial departments of agriculture, by giving short courses in home economics, home nursing, sewing, basketry, millinery, through the Women's Institutes of the Maritime Provinces, Ontario, Quebec, Alberta and British Columbia; the Homemakers' Clubs of Saskatchewan and the Cercles de Fermières of Quebec.

These are groups of women who, irrespective of race, creed or politics, gather together in their different communities, apply to the provincial departments of agriculture for a constitution, and form themselves into one of these organisations to work for "Home and Country," their motto.

The first Women's Institute was brought into being in the little village of Stoney Creek, Ontario, in 1897, by one hundred and ten women and girls who met to form an organisation the chief aim of which was to better rural home conditions, provide a social medium for the country women, and generally raise the standard of living. This Canadian idea, destined to offer a solution for an international need, was the working out of certain ideas for rural home betterment, advanced by the daughter of a Canadian farmer, Mrs. Adelaide Hoodless, of Hamilton. She was one of the pioneers in advocating the application of science to home management and care of the family, as well as to the production of high-grade cattle.

Upon this subject Mrs. Hoodless addressed many gatherings, among them being a meeting of the Experimental Union in Guelph, in 1896. Attending this there happened to be a young farmer, Mr. Erland Lee, secretary of the South Wentworth Farmers' Institutes, an organisation promoted by the

The Women's Institutes of Alberta

MRS. ADELAIDE HOODLESS

Ontario Department of Agriculture for the advancement of scientific farming. Mr. Lee was so impressed by the address of Mrs. Hoodless that he suggested it be given at the South Wentworth winter series of meetings. This was arranged and Mrs. Hoodless's idea of an organisation to study the betterment of homes and children was so well received at Stoney Creek, that it was decided to start at once the "Women's Department of the Farmers' Institutes of South Wentworth."

Its object was, "To promote that knowledge of household science that shall lead to the improvement in household architecture, with special attention to home sanitation; to a better understanding of the economic and hygienic value of foods and fuel; and to a scientific care of children, with a view to raising the general standard of health."

For many years the movement spread without central organisation or propaganda. Other provinces took it up, and in some instances agricultural colleges became aware of its economic value and gave official encouragement to the movement. Branches of the "Women's Institute" were formed in governmental departments with a Government official in charge, one who arranged short course itineraries, distributed helpful literature on the care and feeding of children, home canning, and other topics pertaining to home management.

Soon the United States took up the idea, organising state home bureau departments. Some years ago the Belgian Government sent a commission to Canada to enquire into the working of the Women's Institutes. On its return the commission recommended their formation in Belgium under the general name of "Cercles des Fermières." They have proven successful and won a place for themselves in farm and village life.

In 1915, one year after the declaration of the Great War, a Canadian woman, Mrs. Alfred Watt, of Victoria, took the idea with her to England. It came at the time when the British women were organising to help win the war. The idea spread like a prairie fire; the women banded together in Institutes; they studied home economics and food preservation. They started co-operative enterprises, such as jam factories and laundries. They purchased expensive labour-saving household equipment, such as vacuum cleaners and knitting machines, for community use. They organised committees for minding children and carrying on homes while all who could went on the land or filled the places of men. They provided wholesome amusement for the lonely women, whose menfolk were fighting in the trenches. Queen Mary became so interested that she allowed herself to be elected president of the Sandringham Women's Institute. To-day there are 3300 branches in England, it being admitted that no other modern movement has had such a far-reaching effect on village and rural life as this. The Canadian motto, "Home and Country," is the name given to the British Women's Institute paper, which has some thirty-two thousand subscribers.

Although organised primarily to better home conditions

in rural communities, the scope of Institute work has widened. It is carried on mainly through six committees, child welfare and public health, education and better schools, immigration, Canadianisation, agriculture, home economics and legislation.

From the very beginning Institute members worked to raise the standard of health in the home. They made a study of the proper ways of feeding, clothing and housing their families. This was done by having members write papers on such subjects as Proper Food for Children, Sanitation in the Home, Control of Infectious Diseases, etc., and having discussions on these. Ontario owes its medical inspection in rural schools to the Women's Institutes. The doctor was followed by the school nurse, who visited the homes and pointed out the physical defects of the children to the parents, giving the mother instruction as to the proper food, clothing and care of her children. Proper food combinations and menus for meals and school lunches were exhibited at fairs and conventions. Operations for crippled children were financed. Keeping the baby well was not only a popular subject for study and discussion, but it paved the way for the baby clinic. The home nursing and first-aid courses have been of inestimable value. Institutes have been working for hospitals, and in the Peace River country, where this need was literally a matter of life and death, the Fairview Women's Institute purchased and equipped a small building which they put in charge of a capable nurse.

Short courses in cookery, millinery and sewing have been given yearly throughout Canada. The women have been taught the "cold pack" method of canning fruits, vegetables and meat, while the most up-to-date methods of making bread and butter have been demonstrated by experts. Until the advent of the Women's Institutes, salads, drying and canning of vegetables and meat were practically unknown in the rural districts. Many women who knew nothing of sewing or hat-making, after a short course are able to provide more and better clothing for their families at less expense.

Education and better schools is another aim of the Women's Institutes. They have provided school playground equipment and have agitated for supervised playgrounds. They have seen

that in the many rural schools where it is necessary for the children to remain at noon hot lunches are provided. They have advocated proper sanitation, correct lighting and seating in the school. They have conducted campaigns for women school trustees, and medical inspection. They have seen that the schoolroom is clean, that suitable pictures and books are provided, and that the grounds have been beautified. They have sponsored efficiency, oratory, essay and penmanship contests.

There is perhaps no more potent organisation in the work of Canadianisation and immigration than the Women's Institutes. Situated as they are in every part of Canada from Fort McMurray to Grand Pré, they have a distinct point of vantage. As soon as new-comers arrive, members of the immigration committees call upon them. They make them welcome, help them get settled and, in some cases, bring hampers. Through the Canadian Council of Immigration they are able to follow special cases—especially young girls who come out as domestic helpers. Then begins the work of Canadianisation—inculcating Canadian ideals and principles, not only in the foreign born but the British and native born. This is done by stressing our national holidays, teaching our national songs in community singing, and studying British and Canadian history and traditions.

The value of the practical community work done is inestimable. They build halls, skating rinks, swimming pools and maintain rest-rooms in the small towns for country women, these being the social centres of the district. They have libraries of their own, and get travelling libraries from the Government. They provide incentives to more and better reading, holding special meetings for the discussion of books, especially those of Canadian authors. They are a medium through which country, village, town, city, province are united into a mighty national force.

Is it any wonder that Canada and Canadians are proud of this great non-sectarian, non-partisan organisation, which with its many links stretches from "sea to sea," fervent in its service for "Home and Country"?

Alma Crosier

DAWSON CITY

CANADA'S EL DORADO

1896

When the United States bought Alaska from Russia in 1867 little was known of the importance of that sub-arctic country. Soon after the purchase, the value of the fur-seal fisheries was recognised; then the cod and salmon fisheries, and the supply of building timber on the mainland began to be used. Following the fishermen and the lumbermen came the prospectors looking for minerals.

As early as 1847 gold was known to exist in the Yukon country, for Robert Campbell, who built the Hudson's Bay Company's trading post at the junction of the Pelly and Lewis Rivers, found it at that point in small quantities. Gold-mining, however, was not his business, and he paid little or no attention to it.

"In 1872 Mr. Arthur Harper and his associates made their way from the head of Peace River, in the heart of British Columbia, to the vicinity of Fort St. John on the Upper Peace. Thence they crossed the watershed between the Peace and the Laird Rivers, travelled down the Laird to the Mackenzie, and

down the Mackenzie to the Hudson's Bay Company's portage or route between the waters of the Mackenzie and the Porcupine, a branch of the Yukon. Crossing to the Yukon they went down to White River, up which they prospected for many miles. Harper reported: 'On the Laird, prospects; on the Mackenzie, nothing; on the Porcupine, a little; and on the Yukon, gold everywhere we tried.'"

Harper's report led prospectors and miners to resort to the Yukon in considerable numbers; mining on the Yukon began shortly after that year. In the early eighties it was going briskly along the Lewis and the Stewart. Coarse gold was discovered on Forty-Mile Creek in 1886; the men abandoned the other diggings and flocked to the Creek. In the winter of 1887 a miner named Williams, with a young Indian guide, set out to carry letters to friends in the United States to tell them of the gold found on Forty-Mile. He travelled six hundred miles through the arctic wilderness and reached the summit of the Chilkoot Pass. Here he was overwhelmed by a snow-storm and after several days passed in a snow hut, without a fire and with only a little flour for food, he died of hunger and exposure. The Indian managed to reach the trading post, fourteen miles away, carrying the letters and the golden news.

In the summer of 1896 came old man Cormack with his Indian wife and her relations to fish along the Upper Yukon. "Cormack spread his nets at the mouth of the Klondike River and then, as the salmon had not begun to run, he took a trip up the river by way of killing time. Twenty-five miles up the Klondike, on Bonanza Creek, he came plump upon a gravel placer stuffed with gold. The fisherman forgot his salmon nets; he staked out two claims, filled his pockets with gold dust and nuggets, and came back to Circle City with the news of what he had found. Within a few weeks Circle City was almost deserted and Dawson became a large town; from all over the Yukon the miners flocked to the Klondike. They washed earth that summer that yielded $500 to the pan and $20,000 to the ton. They stored the precious dust and nuggets in bags and boxes, in fruit cans, oil cans, tea-kettles, anything that would not leak. Winter came, but the treasure hunters worked on.

The streams were frozen and they could not wash out the gold, but they kept on digging, laying the rich earth aside to be washed in the spring."

On July 15, 1897, the steamer *Excelsior* sailed into San Francisco Bay with the first news of the discovery of gold on the Klondike. Backed by the evidence of the sacks of dust and nuggets, the story spread like wildfire. Other vessels arrived bringing corroboration of the tales first told; and the "rush" began.

There were, at that time, three routes by which Dawson City might be reached. The safe, sure, but roundabout way was to take steamer to St. Michael, near the mouth of the Yukon, and transfer there to the smaller boats which carried passengers and cargo up the Great River to the goldfields; the trip took forty days. Another route was by Fort Wrangell, up the Stickine River to Telegraph Creek, whence the traveller made a long portage to Lake Teslin, and so in to the Klondike.

Those who take the gold trail are not, as a rule, patient folk, and by far the larger number of those who rushed into the Klondike in those early years chose the third route, the short, but dangerous, trail across the mountains. Leaving Juneau they shipped to Dyea at the head of the Inlet. Here they chose whether they would cross by Chilkat, Chilkoot, or White Pass. The Chilkoot Pass, being the central and more direct road across the mountains, was most often chosen in those eager days, and many a tragedy occurred in its frozen solitude.

Claims were staked, measured and registered, five hundred feet along the bed of the stream being allowed each person. The discoverer was permitted to stake two claims; any other man, one. The gold was deep down under the hard, frozen rubble and useless earth; often nothing was found until just over bed-rock. The sluice-boxes were made of boards roughly nailed into troughs or boxes, and fitted together like stove pipes. Cleats called "riffles" were nailed into the last boxes, or sometimes shallow auger holes were bored in the bottom boards. The boxes were then set up in line on a gentle slope, the pay dirt was shovelled in at the top, and a stream of water controlled by a dam sluiced over the dirt and gold. The dirt and gravel

washed away, the gold, being heavy, sank and was caught on the cleats or in the holes. Quicksilver was put in the last box to catch the very fine gold.

For a long time there was little or no money in the country; everybody paid his bills with gold dust. When he bought a shirt he handed over his sack, the salesman produced little scales and weighed out the sum required. A story is told of a young man who, when he had breakfasted, handed his sack to the girl in charge. She opened it and shook a quantity of dust into her scale. With an awkward movement of the hand, she tipped the scale and spilt the precious dust on the floor. "How unfortunate!" she said, and calmly weighed out of the sack another portion of dust sufficient to pay for the breakfast. The young man said nothing but no doubt felt somewhat aggrieved. At noon, when he returned for dinner, the proprietor handed him fifteen dollars worth of gold dust, saying that the maid had washed it out of the sawdust on the floor, and that it was undoubtedly his.

THE GROWTH OF THE TERRITORIES

In 1870 the only settlements in the Canadian West were those in the Red River and at Portage la Prairie; hunting and freighting were the principal industries, though some farming was carried on. It appears that almost everything waited to be done.

A better system for the transportation of people and goods coming into the country was of first importance. In 1871 a stage line was opened between Winnipeg and Abercrombie in Minnesota, where passengers connected with the American railways. The stage ran three times a week at first, but in 1877 it began to make daily trips. In 1872 "Jim" Hill, the famous American railroad man, placed a steamer, the *Selkirk*, on the Red River. It carried goods for anyone and soon forced the Hudson's Bay Company to use for general business their steamer, the *International*, which had previously been employed for company purposes only. The "Dawson Route" had

Provincial Archives, Victoria

BOUNDARY COMMISSION OUTFIT

been opened in the hope that it would provide a road to the West through Canadian territory. A quarter of a million dollars were spent upon it, but it was never a success.

In the meantime treaties had been concluded with the Indians, and surveyors were at work laying out the land. They laid it out in ranges, townships and sections. They marked off the ranges, each one six miles wide, along the international boundary; a range is a row of townships one north of the other, beginning at, and numbered from, the boundary north towards the Arctic Ocean. The lines running east and west were marked off at intervals of six miles also; thus a township is a block of land six miles square. Each township was surveyed into thirty-six equal blocks called sections. A section is a mile square. Each section was divided in two and then in four. A settler was permitted to homestead one quarter, a hundred and sixty acres, and to take out a pre-emption which gave him the option of buying another quarter. This survey system made the West into a vast checker-board. It was a simple method, easy to understand; and when the roads had been run, it was very easy for a traveller to find his way from one place to another.

Unfortunately the land granted to the Hudson's Bay Company, and that reserved for the half-breeds, prevented the settlement of much of the best land in the country. The

Indians were given "scrip," a document entitling them to so much land. Fond of liquor and improvident as they were, many of them sold their scrip for a song, and this land too came into the hands of speculators. All these grants hindered settlement, and by making it difficult to locate a homestead, discouraged the settler who did try to farm.

The remaining land was offered to homesteaders, however; the Mounted Police had been formed and were doing good work; and a stream of immigrants did begin to trickle into the country. In 1876, 480,000 bushels of wheat were harvested; two years later the crop stood at over a million bushels.

Settlements pushed west and south-west of Winnipeg, following the watercourses and the prospective route of the railway. The immigrants seemed to be afraid of the open treeless prairies; they were not accustomed to them, and it was rumoured that such land was not fertile. In 1875 a settlement was formed at Pembina, and a little later six thousand Mennonites settled there. These people were German Quakers who had been driven from their homes in Russia by the edict that all must now perform military service. They received their lands as homesteads but held them in common. Quiet, industrious people, who worked together and shrank from no toil however severe, these people showed what could be done with prairie land. In 1876 two hundred and fifty families of Icelanders settled at Gimli, about sixty miles from Winnipeg. These people had been misinformed about the country; it was strange to them, and at first not homelike. They suffered many hardships, but in the end won comfortable homes for themselves.

Alexander Mackenzie's Government tried to save money for Canada by making the waterways a part of the transcontinental line promised to British Columbia. This proved to be unsatisfactory. The first route planned for the railway lay north along the line of the Saskatchewan River system. In several ways it was probably the better route, but it left Winnipeg and the more thickly settled part of the Territories far to the south to be served by branch lines. The people objected strongly to this, and the route was changed to that at present followed by the Canadian Pacific Railway.

Thus the first ten years in the new Canadian West passed, on the whole, profitably. The country was taken over from the Hudson's Bay Company; titles were secured from the Indians; the survey was made; law and order established; the railroad opened, and immigration beginning to flow in steadily. In 1881–82 the West experienced a boom. The line of the Canadian Pacific Railway was pretty well known, and town sites were being suggested. Hundreds of lots were sold in Winnipeg and in other towns. Thousands of acres were granted as homesteads and sold to speculators. Reaction followed and the country suffered several years of business depression.

In 1890 it was beginning to recover from the effects of the boom and several years of severe frosts at harvest time. The railway had been completed; was, in spite of fears, already paying its own way. Settlers were coming in steadily, towns were springing up in all directions; coal and timber were beginning to be exported. In the country south of the Bow and west of Maple Creek, ranching was becoming a profitable enterprise. A few factories were in operation making bricks, butter, cheese, flour, lumber, biscuits, wagons, furniture and harness; the meat-packing industry had begun in a small way.

The new century which began in 1900 was loudly heralded as Canada's century. The United States had grown to nationhood and marvellous prosperity during the eighteen hundreds; it was hoped and believed that the nineteen hundreds would see an equal development in Canada. Free homesteading land was no longer available in the United States, and many of the older farming lands had been exhausted. Rumours of the fertility of the Canadian prairies spread through the East and American farmers began to pour into Canada. These men had money and experience; they were English-speaking; their ideals were Anglo-Saxon; they made the best possible settlers, helping to keep the country British in spite of the large numbers of Europeans who were also entering it.

In 1901 and 1904, the Canadian Northern and Grand Trunk Pacific (now the Canadian National) Railways opened up the north country and provided competition for the Canadian Pacific Railway. New farms meant new wheat-growers. The

crop grew larger and better every year. Grown under the best possible conditions, in a dry sharp climate, the grain was found to be extremely hard and firm. Canadian wheat began to be known as the best in the world; foreign millers used it to mix with inferior grains. Wheat-growing was rapidly becoming the principal industry in Canada, and Canada becoming one of the great granaries of the world.

E. B. Price

FIRST TRAIN OVER SOUTH SASKATCHEWAN, 1888

THE CATTLE SMUGGLERS

In the old days the range country, both north and south of the international boundary, stretched from the Rocky Mountains eastward beyond Maple Creek. For two hundred miles there was nothing to indicate the boundary line except an occasional landmark like the famous Pile o' Bones. The Mounted Police, as part of their general duties, patrolled the boundary. Then, there being a duty of three dollars a head on American cattle imported into Canada, the Dominion Government sent out customs officers to collect the money. The line was long, the customs officers few and, in spite of the help given by the police, cattle smuggling went on pretty freely. There was once a rancher in the south country who got caught at it and this is how it happened.

The rancher, who was American, came over from Montana and leased, for two cents an acre, five townships, one hundred and eighty square miles of Canadian range lands on the Milk River. The lease lay along both sides of the river in such a way

as to shut off from the water two other townships. Range land without access to water is useless; so the rancher had the use of them, seventy-two square miles of good grass, without paying for them. With this promising prospect the rancher drove his cattle into Canada and set up in business.

One summer not long afterwards, prairie fires burnt over a large part of the ranges of northern Montana. The only pasture left for the cattle, some fifteen thousand head, was in the Sweet Grass Hills, only twenty miles south of the Canadian frontier. In that district there is no good watering-place except the Milk River which wanders along about ten miles north of the boundary.

As the season advanced, many American cattle ranged up to the river. It is impossible to keep thirsty stock from water and, there being no Canadian settlers south of the river, the Mounted Police did not interfere with these cattle, only warning the American owners to prevent their stock from crossing to the north bank. This they did honourably, sending cowboys to ride the river banks to keep the cattle back. In spite of the men, during the winter storm-driven cattle did cross. Two thousand head of them were found by the rancher on his range. He collected and drove them to the river. The ice was rotten and the American line-riders begged him not to force them over, but he did. Fortunately none was drowned, but the Montana stockmen were very angry when they heard of it, and vowed to be revenged upon the rancher.

It was not long till they had an opportunity. The rancher had, already, found a neat method of smuggling cattle. He bought in the United States a thousand head, trailing perhaps half as many calves. His cowboys drove the herd to the line. Here the five hundred calves were cut out and driven to the Mounted Police post at Writing-on-Stone, where they were counted and the duty paid. Meantime the mothers were driven straight to the rancher's lease, where the calves soon joined them. The Mounted Police knew how many cattle had paid the duty; the Montana men, still angry about their endangered stock, knew how many had been bought. The word was passed and the Montana cattlemen avenged.

The Mounted Police captain carefully collected his information and then reported to the Customs Department that the rancher had smuggled some five hundred head of cattle over the line. The Customs Office sent a man to charge the rancher with the deed and to demand payment. The mounted policeman, the customs officer and a cowboy who, the winter before, had protested against the rancher's driving the Montana cattle across the rotten ice, drove out to the rancher's house. He was absent, but his manager said that they had not smuggled cattle and that they would not pay a cent.

The mounted policeman rode away thinking. After a time, having obtained authority from the Customs Department, he secretly hired a round-up party of fifteen riders and with the cowboy and the customs officer rode south. Four days later they reached Manyberries Creek, where a scout met them with the information that the rancher's cattle were not at home, but were all feeding on the two townships which the rancher used but did not pay for.

The next morning the fifteen riders with the cowboy at their head rode out to round up the rancher's cattle. For nearly a week they worked, breakfasting at 4.30 every morning and riding all day. After the first day they had to move slowly as they drove with them the growing band of cattle which they had seized. Within the week they had rounded up three thousand head among which they found some five hundred and forty head with American brands upon them.

The rancher and his manager exclaimed, scolded, protested. They disputed everything which the mounted policeman and the cowboy said and did. But, in the end, they paid the duty.

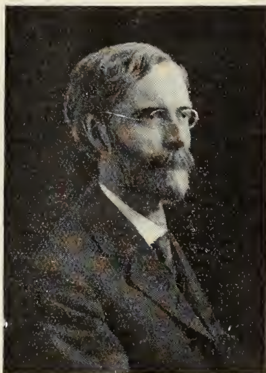
THE DISCOVERY OF MARQUIS WHEAT

By Elizabeth Bailey Price

The discovery of the famous early-ripening, heavy-yielding Marquis wheat by a Canadian, Dr. Charles E. Saunders, of Ottawa, was one of the greatest material triumphs of the age.

Dr. William Saunders, father of Dr. Charles, began the work in 1886, when he was appointed organiser and first director of the Dominion Experimental Farm at Ottawa. Even in those days he was famous for his cross-breeding of fruits. He now turned his attention to the great wheat problem of the day, that of an earlier-ripening variety of wheat for the wide north-western plains.

At that time the brand of wheat most popular in the north-western States and Canada was Red Fife, a hardy variety which combined excellent milling and baking qualities. Its first grade, number one hard, brought the highest prices in the British market and was famous throughout the world. But it had one drawback. In years when the frost came early it was often frozen in the fields. Western farmers were asking for a variety of wheat that would ripen earlier, one with a heavy yield and as good milling qualities as Red Fife.



E. B. Price

DR. CHARLES E. SAUNDERS

To meet this demand Dr. Saunders began his wheat-breeding experiments. He imported wheats from all over the world, from Northern Russia, from altitudes ranging from 500 to 11,000 feet in the Himalaya Mountains, from the United States, Japan and Australia.

Then began the cross-breeding, taking the pollen from the flower of one kind and placing it on the stigma of another—the resulting cross-bred kernel being used as seed the next year. It was a long task, demanding careful culling over a number of years. In 1901, after fifteen years of work, fifty-eight varieties had been evolved. These were tested as to yield, milling qualities, liability of grains to shell, baking qualities of flour, earliness in maturing, resistance to disease, etc. They were named and kept in existence by being planted out in experimental plots and duly harvested.

Charles E. Saunders, who at this time was studying for his degree at the University of Toronto, and later at the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, spent most of his leisure time helping his father and brother. Finally, through lack of time Dr. William Saunders was obliged to drop this particular phase of his work.

In 1903 Charles was appointed Dominion Cerealist to specialise in the work of wheat-breeding. He made a close study of the work already done, poring over a mass of material at the Central Experimental Farm at Ottawa. He then carefully re-selected and sorted out various strains. This was no small task, as each variety contained several strains. Each selected strain was then propagated. All this work demanded the most patient care. At last, in 1904, he discovered the famous Marquis wheat.

At first there were only a few grains, those obtained from a single head. These were planted out in a tiny plot of the experimental garden. Soon they began to sprout and at length there was a small patch of green containing twelve plants in all. In August the little harvest was reaped, the yield being much less than a single pound of grain. These were propagated by Dr. Saunders until 1906, when about two-thirds of a bushel was harvested.

During this time chewing tests, when the teeth served as grindstones and the mouth as an oven, were made to determine the nibbling and baking qualities. Towards the end of this period Dr. Saunders designed and had installed in his laboratory a small flour-mill, a fermenting cupboard and an oven.

By 1906 the crop of Marquis had increased sufficiently to permit some of it being made into flour, by grinding the grains in the mill. The baking tests which followed fully confirmed the original estimates arrived at by the chewing tests. The first distribution was made in 1907, when all the seed that could be spared, about twenty-three pounds, was sent by Dr. Saunders to the Experimental Farm at Indian Head, Saskatchewan, where it was planted. In 1909 four hundred samples were sent out and sowed by farmers in many parts of Canada.

Since then the development in the use of Marquis wheat has been steady. It is now the variety of wheat principally grown in

Canada, and forms a large percentage of the wheat crop of the United States, while it is being tested by almost every wheat-growing country in the world. In 1919, upon the prairies of Western Canada and in the great plains of the United States, there were produced more than 300,000,000 bushels of Marquis, sufficient wheat to provide for a whole year the bread and other wheat requirements of a population of 50,000,000.

Experimental records show that Marquis wheat was produced from one of the crossings made in 1892 by Dr. A. P. Saunders, during the time when Dr. William Saunders and his sons were working together; and that it is a cross between Red Fife and an early-ripening India wheat known as Hand Red Calcutta. It is one of the hard red spring wheats of the beardless variety. The head is of medium length and somewhat pointed at the tip, while the chaff is smooth and of a straw-yellow colour. The kernels are short, broad, and rich red in colour; the straw is somewhat shorter than in most varieties.

E. B. Price

HEAD OF MARQUIS WHEAT

It ripens from ninety to one hundred and thirty-five days after sowing, this varying with the season and locality. The average length of its growing period on the northern prairies is about one hundred and fifteen days, thus making it invaluable to the colder parts of the wheat belt.

Dr. Saunders was born in London, Ontario, in 1867, and received his early education at the London Collegiate. He attended the University of Toronto, where he graduated as Bachelor of Arts, with honours in science, in 1888. He then studied three years at the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, where he earned the degree of Ph.D. He was a dreamer, a scientist and a musician, being a fine flute-player. For some years he devoted all his time to voice culture, studying both in New York and in London, England. He was the leader of the choir of the Dominion Methodist Church at Ottawa during the period that he assisted his father in wheat-breeding.

THE CANADIAN NATIONAL RAILWAYS

THEY began as the Canadian Northern and the Grand Trunk. The story of the Canadian Northern is one of the romances of modern business. The Grand Trunk was built by a company of great British financiers, the Canadian Pacific by a company of Canadian magnates backed by the Canadian Government; the Canadian Northern was the project of two bold men, Canadians both, who carried it through as a private business enterprise.

William Mackenzie and Donald Mann were contractors employed to build parts of the Canadian Pacific. They met first, it is said, beside a corral of mules, from which they were choosing teams for their work. Mr. Mann liked to boast that he had the better of Mr. Mackenzie in that transaction. When their work for the Canadian Pacific had been completed, the two men took several other contracts, in partnership. Mr. Mann had an option on a railway called the Lake Manitoba Railroad and Canal Company, which the Manitoba Government wanted built to open up the Dauphin country. In 1895 he took up this option and, being advised by his bankers to secure assistance, he again formed a partnership with his old associate.

The new railway began business in a very small way. D. B. Hanna was its first superintendent, and his staff consisted of thirteen men and a boy. Building had begun in the previous spring, and the road now reached from Sifton, sixteen miles beyond Dauphin, to Gladstone; the new company obtained running rights over the Manitoba North-Western from Gladstone to Portage la Prairie. They ran a mixed train each way twice a week from Portage to Dauphin, and from Dauphin to Sifton once a week. When the service began on December 15, 1896, the company had two engines, fifty new freight cars, two second-hand passenger cars, and a very limited supply of flat cars. The run from the Portage to Dauphin took six hours and a half.

Courtesy of Religious Tract Society.

THE PRAIRIE AT ELSTOW, SASK.

Dauphin in those days was a hamlet in the middle of a wheat field. The railway was hailed by the farmers, who had been long distant from markets, with a mixture of relief, civic pride, and boundless hope for the future. The whole town greeted the train on its semi-weekly arrival at the station.

Mr. Hanna tells of taking into Dauphin the first party of Galicians who settled in that district. There were several hundreds of them, and they were a strange, rather forbidding-looking crowd, large, heavy, dull-looking men; stout women in head-kerchiefs and large boots, and wide-eyed children dressed exactly like their parents. The immigrants camped near the town. The civic fathers, most of whom were from Ontario or Britain and had never seen people just like these before, were alarmed at their appearance; they did not want "pauper" settlers in their district. They called upon Mr. Hanna in a body and begged him to take his passengers somewhere else. The superintendent pointed out that the people, if poor, were also strong and used to work; that they would, probably, make very good settlers. The men of Dauphin retired still much dissatisfied. In two hours they returned beaming; the "pauper" Galicians had visited the town and had purchased nearly two thousand dollars' worth of goods, for which they had paid cash; Dauphin was now willing to welcome them with open arms.

In 1897 Mackenzie and Mann extended the Dauphin line to Winnipegosis, and bought the charter of the Manitoba and South-Eastern, a railway east of Winnipeg, opening forty-five miles of line from St. Boniface to Marchand on the way to the Lake of the Woods. This line ran through the bush. Many of the people of Winnipeg burned cordwood in those days, and the company opened a yard where they sold wood from the Marchand swamps by the train-load. They had now a terminus as near to Winnipeg as St. Boniface. The Canadian Pacific let them keep their cars in its Winnipeg yards, and when extra flat cars for the wood train were needed, "Percival," the conductor, did not trouble to ask, but just borrowed what he needed from the Canadian Pacific supply, much to the amusement of the officials of both lines. The Marchand train was called "The Muskeg Limited."

Manitoba had now several branch lines running west from Winnipeg, and a need was beginning to be felt for a line to compete with the Canadian Pacific in carrying the crop from Winnipeg to Lake Superior. Within three years, Mackenzie and Mann had pushed the Muskeg Limited through to Port Arthur. Already the Gladstone line had crossed the boundary into Saskatchewan. In 1899 the company amalgamated with the Winnipeg Great Northern, and took the name "Canadian Northern."

In its charter the Dominion Government had promised the Canadian Pacific Railway that no competitive line should be built south of it to within fifteen miles of the international boundary. Manitoba had not been long a province before she challenged this monopoly. Her people needed a line south and she chartered one. The Provincial and Dominion Governments fought the matter out, and Manitoba won; the Canadian Pacific had to abandon the point in 1888. Soon afterwards the Northern Pacific, an American road, entered the province, and presently had some three hundred and twenty miles of line in operation. This railroad went bankrupt and the Manitoba Government leased its Manitoba lines for 999 years. The province did not intend to begin railroading; it purposed to re-lease the lines. The Canadian Pacific and the Canadian Northern both bid for the new lines, and the younger road secured them. In this way the Canadian Northern obtained some excellent mileage through fertile country, a terminus in Winnipeg, and a connecting-link between her eastern and western lines; she was now the third largest system in the Dominion, and Mackenzie and Mann agreed that they would build east to the Atlantic and west to the Pacific.

In the eighties the Grand Trunk had bought lavishly to compete with the Canadian Pacific, but it soon relapsed into its accustomed state of dullness. In 1895 Mr. Hays became General Manager; he renovated the system from top to bottom, introduced much new blood, and planned a great extension. Canada was growing fast, and very prosperous. In 1903 the Grand Trunk Pacific Scheme was suggested. Quebec and Sir Wilfrid Laurier wanted a railway to open up the hinterlands

of Northern Quebec and Ontario. It was proposed that the Dominion Government should build a line from Moncton to Winnipeg and lease it to the Grand Trunk Pacific Company; and that the Grand Trunk should build from Winnipeg through the Yellowhead to the Pacific, the Government guaranteeing the principal and interest of the bonds. There was a great deal of opposition in the Dominion Parliament, but the agreement passed.

About this time it was suggested that the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern should unite. It seemed a wise plan. The Grand Trunk had excellent eastern lines, the Canadian Northern had paying western ones; ocean terminals were needed by both. The two companies could not agree, however, and each proceeded with its own programme—towards disaster as it proved. The Grand Trunk pushed forward briskly. Building began in 1905 and proceeded at the rate of a mile a day for ten years. Steamers, elevators, hotels were acquired. By 1910 the prairie part of the line was carrying grain, but it was 1915 before the British Columbia division had been completed.

Meantime, Mackenzie and Mann, undismayed by the fact that the Dominion Government was sponsoring the Grand Trunk Pacific, kept steadily building west and east. They had not had much capital to begin with, they had not much now; but there were always Provincial Governments wanting new lines and willing to grant subsidies and guarantee bonds for their building. In 1902 the Canadian Northern bought the Hawkesbury to Quebec City line; in 1905 their western line reached Edmonton; in 1907 the Quebec City line was pushed forward to Lake St. John; they tunnelled under Mount Royal to get into Montreal; in 1908 they were building through the Yellowhead; in 1915 they reached Vancouver.

After these many years of success, disaster, it seemed, waited just on the edge of the fulfilment of their dream. The difficulty in this case was that building as they did on subsidies and guaranteed bonds, and holding all the stock in their own small group, there was no large body of stockholders to support the structure. As long as the line paid, all went well. When it ceased

to pay there was no one to stave off bankruptcy. In 1914 the outbreak of the Great War brought on a crisis in the money market; Mackenzie and Mann were suddenly unable to get the money they needed to complete their line to Vancouver. The Dominion Government had already lent them several millions, to protect herself she now lent them forty-five millions more.

When the war broke out the two railways were just being completed and looking to prosperous futures. The war changed everything; everywhere economy rather than expansion was needed. It was suddenly realised that Canada had a railway equipment suited to a country many times larger in population and wealth. The false quantities in the financial systems of both railways rose and overwhelmed them. The Dominion Government was obliged to take them over, and they became THE CANADIAN NATIONAL RAILWAYS.

THE LOST PATROL

IT was in 1910 that Commissioner Perry sent instructions from Mounted Police Headquarters at Regina to Inspector Fitzgerald at Fort McPherson to patrol from Fort McPherson to Dawson City. Fort McPherson is situated on the Peel River not far from its junction with the Mackenzie. The distance was (roughly) four hundred miles, an ordinary enough journey to a mounted policeman of the North.

The route was south-west across the watershed separating the rivers tributary to the Yukon and those flowing into the Arctic Ocean. The trail lay up the Peel River for a hundred miles; then, the Peel making a big bend to the east, the trail made a short cut of eighty miles across country, striking the river again on its upper reaches. Turning up the Big Wind River, a tributary of the Peel, and then up the Little Wind River, the route followed up Forrest Creek and over the Divide till it struck the headwaters of Wolf Creek flowing west. The

trail was then down-hill across the glaciers to Little Hart River and Christmas Creek, and so to Dawson City.

Inspector Fitzgerald took with him three men, Kenny, Taylor and Carter. Carter had already made the trip, but in the other direction, having come from Dawson City to Fort McPherson some time previously. They took with them 1256 pounds of supplies; 900 pounds of fish for the fifteen dogs, and two pounds of food per man per day. This was a smaller amount than is usually allowed on Arctic journeys, where the cold and strenuous effort make men very hungry. The inspector had determined to make a record-breaking trip, however, and every extra pound counted.

The party left Fort McPherson at 7.15 on the morning of December 21, 1910; three of the men went first, then came the three dog-trains, one man bringing up the rear. It was twenty-one below zero when they left the fort; a heavy mist lay over the river and hills, and a light snow covered the ground. The going was heavy and they made only fifteen miles that day. A week later they reached an Indian camp at the big bend of the Peel, and Inspector Fitzgerald hired Indian Esau for $3 per day to guide them over the eighty-mile short cut.

Dr. Allan, University of Alberta

THE LOBSTICK

A guide to travellers.

The weather continued very cold, with a great deal of snow, making the going constantly heavy. They had a stiff climb up Caribou Born Mountain, but crossed it safely, reaching Mountain Creek three days later. Here, Fitzgerald paid off Indian Esau who returned to his people. On January 8 the patrol passed up Little Wind River, keeping a sharp look-out for Forrest Creek. The snow lay white over all the land, the mountains stared down at them forbiddingly; there were many creeks and they all looked alike. The men tried one and then another, but without finding Forrest. During eight days they searched; then Carter acknowledged

himself beaten. He had come over the trail in the opposite direction which confused him now. He did not know one river from another.

The patrol was due in Dawson City on February 1. The first week of the month passed and the men in charge began to wonder, then to be anxious. But the weather had been extremely stormy, and many things might have happened to delay the patrol. Towards the end of the month, Indian Esau appeared in Dawson. He said he had left Inspector Fitzgerald and his men on January 1, then only twenty days' easy travelling from Dawson.

Word was telegraphed to Regina, and instant orders came back to send out a relief patrol. Within a few hours Inspector Dempster and his men were upon the Fort McPherson trail. Swiftly they sped along watching, watching for they knew not what. Three weeks they marched across the barren snowy hills. Then, one day, as they swung briskly down the Peel, Dempster's keen eye caught sight of a partly obliterated snow-shoe track. It pointed toward the shore. Following it they climbed the bank and parted the bushes. There, snow for their winding-sheet, snow for their graves, lay the bodies of Taylor and Kenny. Ten miles farther on Carter and Fitzgerald had fallen.

The patrol had become confused on the Little Wind River. Anxiously they searched for the trail, determined for "the honour of the Force" not to go back with their work undone. Provisions were dwindling, but each night they thought that they would seek just one day longer, "for the honour of the Force." At last, definitely lost, they gave up and set out on their return. They had searched too long, the food failed before they had gone far on the backward track. Within thirty-five miles of Fort McPherson they fell, and the White North took them to her bosom.

Inspector Fitzgerald's diary found in his pocket tells the sorrowful gallant story in words so unassuming, so unconsciously courageous, that each one lingers in the heart:

"January 18. Started back to Peel River. Killed first dog.

"January 20. Ate last of flour and bacon to-day. All we have now is some dried fish and tea.

"January 30. All hands sick. Suppose it to be from eating dog's liver. 14 miles.

"January 31. Skin peeling off our hands and faces, and parts of body. Lips swollen and split. Everyone feeling the cold very much. 17 miles.

"February 3. We have travelled about two hundred miles on dog meat. We have still about a hundred miles to go, but I think we will make it.

"February 5. Have only five dogs left and can only go a few miles a day. 8 miles."

Then (written with a bit of charred wood):

"All money in despatch box and bank, and all clothes I leave to my dearly loved mother, Mrs. John Fitzgerald, Halifax. God Bless All."

The relief party found Carter lying straightly, his hands folded on his breast, a handkerchief over his face. Inspector Fitzgerald had seen him into the Valley of the Shadow. Then, feeling his own strength utterly fail, he took the bit of stick, made his last report, wrote his last message. There is in the message no hint of complaint or fear; no regret except that he had not completed his task. He simply put all things in order and lay down to sleep beside his comrade. So they die in the "Force."

THE LAST LINK

After the years of struggle in the eastern provinces, in each of which the friends of responsible government were successful, it is somewhat surprising that any other form of government or administration should have found a place in the young provinces of the West. In a country very sparsely settled, however, it is inevitable that the powers of government should be

placed in the hands of a few men; and having once enjoyed power, it is not in human nature to resign it easily. So Saskatchewan and Alberta passed through their years of trial also.

The British North America Act, which came into force in 1867, provided for the inclusion of the West in the Dominion of Canada, as soon as it should be feasible to bring it in. As a result of negotiations with the Hudson's Bay Company, Rupert's Land and the Indian Territories were handed over by the company to Queen Victoria and the Queen transferred them to the Government of the Dominion of Canada, which immediately made arrangements for their management. The Province of Manitoba was established and provided with a Responsible Government, modelled upon those of the eastern provinces. Manitoba elected her first Parliament in 1870, and later elected four members to represent her in the Dominion Parliament.

In the meantime, the little-known country west of her western boundary remained in the hands of the officers of the Hudson's Bay Company, who had long ruled over it. It might have remained there for some time, had not an epidemic of smallpox broken out during the winter of 1870–71. The plague spread rapidly among the ignorant and terrified Indians, and it was feared that by the export of furs it might be carried to the East. To prevent this, a committee of clergymen and Hudson's Bay Company officers gathered at Edmonton under the chairmanship of Chief Factor William Christie. They formed themselves into a Board of Health for the Territories and resolved that no furs, buffalo robes, or leather should be exported. Any person leaving the district was required to go before a justice of the peace and swear that he was taking no furs with him and had himself been free of smallpox for three months. These wise regulations prevented the disease from spreading abroad.

The smallpox epidemic called the attention of the Dominion Government to the North-West Territories. In 1871, Donald Smith, the member for Selkirk, inquired in the House what the Government proposed to do towards regulating trade in the North-West, and so opened the subject for discussion.

Provincial Archives, Edmonton

FORT EDMONTON, WITH NEW PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS IN BACKGROUND

As a result, an Act was passed in 1872 which provided for the government of the North-West Territories by the Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba, assisted by a Council of eleven. The Council held its first meeting on March 8. To the meeting Chief Factor Christie of the Hudson's Bay Company came fifty-five days by dog sleigh from Fort Simpson to Fort Garry, his half-breed driver running all the way.

Curiously enough, no copy of the Act was sent to Lieutenant-Governor Archibald for some time. He supposed that he was to choose his own councillors, and did so. As it turned out, it had not been so arranged, and doubt arose as to the legality of the acts of the Council. They did several important things, however; they issued a proclamation forbidding the manufacture, importation or sale of intoxicating liquor in the Territories; and suggested to the Dominion Government the establishment of a police force to impose the law upon the whiskey traders of the south-western plains. The North-West Mounted Police was, accordingly, organised in 1873.

Assured of the protection of the law, settlers began to appear in the North-West Territories, and, in 1876, the Dominion

Government separated them entirely from Manitoba and provided a Lieutenant-Governor and Council of five members to act for them. This Act instructed the Lieutenant-Governor to proclaim an electoral district in each area of a thousand square miles which contained one thousand inhabitants, and to arrange that each of these districts should elect a member to represent it in the Council. When the population of a district reached two thousand it was to have two members. When the number of elected members should amount to twenty-one, the Council would cease to exist and the elected members would become an Assembly. This Act became law in October 1876; David Laird was appointed Lieutenant-Governor, and Battleford was chosen as the capital of the North-West Territories.

A new era of development in the North-West began with the appointment of Lieutenant-Governor Laird, who was a man of parts and who lived in, and worked for, the Territories. While Government buildings were being erected at Battleford, he and his Council were sworn in at Livingstone, Swan River. What was, probably, the smallest Parliament ever heard of, was opened with all the customary formalities. The Lieutenant-Governor read the Speech from the Throne; one of the few members replied to it. They passed the famous Buffalo Ordinance, designed to prevent the extinction of the buffalo; the condition of the Indians made it necessary to repeal this ordinance, however. The tiny Parliament received petitions from men who wished to establish toll-gates and ferries across the Saskatchewan; it arranged to give the people power to assess themselves for the purpose of building and keeping up schools; it forwarded to the Dominion Government an estimate of the money needed to improve and extend the roads of the Territories.

The Council continued to sit at Battleford till 1883. When it was decided to carry the Canadian Pacific Railway across the prairies by the southern route, it was felt that Battleford was too far from the line. Mr. Laird was instructed to choose a new capital. Much to the disgust of Qu'Appelle, he chose the Mounted Police post on Pile o' Bones Creek. "Pile o' Bones" was hardly suitable as the name of a capital city, and the Prince

Consort was asked to choose a new name for it; he called it "Regina" in honour of Queen Victoria.

At the close of the North-West Rebellion, new electoral districts having been formed, Mr. Turiff was elected a member of the Council for Moose Mountain, and Mr. Geddes for Calgary. The elected members now formed a majority of the body, and they began to press for a greater share in the administration of the affairs of the country. Then Mr. Haultain of Regina replaced Viscount Boyle in the Council; he joined the "Reform Party," which now had sufficient strength to make itself felt.

During the term of Mr. Royal, who followed Mr. Laird as Lieutenant-Governor, the elected members, the representatives of the people, fought steadily for increased powers. At first they were much hampered in their work for the Territories by the Dominion Government, which frequently disallowed Acts which the men on the ground knew to be for the good of the country. Led by Mr. Haultain, by Mr. Ross of Moosejaw and Mr. Oliver of Edmonton, the elected members won, point by point, the rights and privileges of representative legislators. In 1887 they drew up a list of criticisms of the form of Government as it then existed, and drafted a new constitution according to which there was to be manhood franchise, voting by ballot, and a Council all the members of which should be elected by the people. This new Legislative Council was to be presided over not by the Lieutenant-Governor, but by one of the members, and it was to continue to sit for four years. An Executive Council of three to advise the Lieutenant-Governor was to be chosen from the party having a majority in the Legislative Council.

Their complaints were heard by the Dominion Government, and in 1888 an Act was passed granting many of these demands. Thirteen elected delegates were given to Assiniboia, eight to Alberta and four to Saskatchewan; and the first Legislative Assembly of the North-West Territories was elected. The Legislative Assembly was now representative, it remained to make it responsible.

The Dominion Government continued to disallow Acts

of the new Assembly; the new Assembly continued to petition the Dominion Government for the powers of a truly Responsible Government. The Lieutenant-Governor had been instructed to choose an Advisory Council of three financial experts to consult with him as to the expenditure of the revenues of the Territories; but the expenditure of these funds was left in his hands. Mr. Royal did as he was told. He chose his three advisers, prepared his estimates of the money needed to carry on the public business for the year and, laying them before the Assembly, asked the House to vote the funds required. It was a good imitation of responsible government.

The Assembly soon discovered that while Lieutenant-Governor Royal had laid before them his plans for spending the money raised in the Territories by taxation, he had not explained to them what he meant to do with the Dominion subsidy, the eighty cents per head grant made annually by the Dominion to the Territories as to the other provinces. The Assembly demanded that Mr. Royal should place the plans for the expenditure of this money also before them; he refused. He said that he felt himself to be accountable for the expenditure of this money only to the Dominion Government.

For months the dispute continued in the press as well as in the House of Assembly. At last, in 1891, the Dominion Government capitulated and instructed the Lieutenant-Governor to place the subsidy with the other revenues and to account to the Assembly for the expenditure of all. Meantime the Advisory Council had grown, by force of circumstances, into a kind of Cabinet. One by one the powers of a Legislature were secured, and Mr. Haultain became the first Prime Minister of the North-West Territories.

Having won responsible government, the next step was to have the Territories erected into a province. The Assembly ruled over a tract of country much larger than any of the eastern provinces. It was rapidly filling up with settlers; villages and towns were springing up in all directions. Schools, roads, bridges, cattle and crop regulations, irrigation, tree-planting, a thousand needs clamoured for attention; very much more money than the Territories could raise was needed to carry on

Courtesy of Religious Tract Society.

THE PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, REGINA, SASK.

the public business satisfactorily. In 1899 it was proposed to erect the Territories into a province; in 1900 the Territories petitioned to be made a province; in 1903 they demanded it; in 1905 the demand was granted.

Two provinces, Saskatchewan and Alberta, were formed. As Canada had paid for the land, she kept the natural resources of the new provinces, paying an annual subsidy in lieu of them. The Canadian Pacific Railway property was to continue exempt from taxation. Mr. Haultain and his colleagues had opposed these terms and they now refused to accept them. Most of the people were content, however, and the new Governments were formed. In Regina, Walter Scott became Premier, with Mr. Haultain leading the Opposition; in Edmonton, Mr. Rutherford led the Government, with Mr. R. B. Bennet in Opposition. Elections were held; the two new Parliaments met and accepted the Act establishing them as provinces.

So the last link was forged and a free Dominion stretched from sea to sea.

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