SUPPLEMENTARY EXERCISES

Canadian History Notes

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Entered according to Act of the Parliament of Canada, in the year one thousand eight hundred and ninety-seven, by GEO. E. HENDERSON and CHAS. G. FRASER, at the Department of Agriculture.
PREFACE.

The object of this little book is to awaken an interest in Canadian History; to give the boys and girls of our schools a simple yet definite statement of the cause, incident and result of the important events of the history of their own land; to lead them to see the steps by which Canada rose to her present proud position; to see the struggle which won each of our great privileges of self-government and the defects which each privilege remedied; to lead them to honor and imitate the noble men and women who gave their time, their talents and their lives to work out the destiny of Canada—men whose lives teach us that Canada will become what her sons make her.

At the same time it is hoped that the little work will be a boon to teachers who are burdened with the many subjects of the school curriculum and the thousand interests of the school room.

The two simple little sketches give a bird’s-eye view of the whole period, refer to topics which are discussed in the book, and proceeding from the general to the particular, they arouse curiosity while they engender a spirit of research.
CHAPTER I.

SKETCH TO END OF FRENCH PERIOD.

PERIOD OF DISCOVERY.

Although the Norwegians visited America at a very early period, the real discoverer of the "New World" was Christopher Columbus. On his return to Spain, the story of his notable voyage quickly spread to the various courts of Europe; and England, France, Portugal and Holland hastened to claim a share in the expected gains. Each chose its own field, and each had a different object in its work of colonization.

The Spaniards claimed the West Indies and the surrounding lands, and, cruelly oppressing the people, yearly sent home a treasury of gold.

The English colonists, who settled along the Atlantic seaboard, came to secure a home and religious freedom. They tilled the soil, made friends with the Indians, and soon were self-supporting.

The French selected Acadia and the valley of the St. Lawrence, and devoted their attention to exploration, fur-trading and missionary work. The earliest French discoverer was Verazzani,
who was followed in 1534, by Jacques Cartier, the discoverer of the St. Lawrence River. The latter made three voyages, but nothing came of them. Roberval, the first Viceroy of New France, attempted to found a colony, but failed; and for fifty years the French were so occupied with religious troubles at home, that Canada was forgotten.

CANADA UNDER FUR COMPANIES.

The first permanent settlements were made by Champlain "The Founder of Canada." He founded Quebec, in 1608, and explored much of the country to the west. He foolishly made enemies of the powerful Iroquois; and for many years the French settlers had to suffer severely for his error.

Various companies, in succession, were given a monopoly of the fur-trade, on condition that they would bring out colonists and assist them to start in their new home. The companies, however, paid little attention to anything but the fur-trade, and so lost their charters. Even the Company of One Hundred Associates, which was formed in 1627, failed to keep its agreement, and so Royal Government was introduced in 1663, and this form of government continued until the French lost Canada in 1760.

CANADA UNDER ROYAL GOVERNMENT.

During this period of Royal Government the country was governed by a Governor, a Bishop and an Intendant, assisted by a Supreme Council. The Governor had charge of military affairs; the
Bishop looked after church affairs; and the Intendant managed legal and money affairs.

The first Intendant was Talon, who did much for the country, but he returned to France in 1672. Laval was the first Bishop, and for fifty years he devoted his life to work in the colony.

Count Frontenac, the greatest of the Governors of Canada during this period, had two terms of office, (1) 1672-1682 and (2) 1689-1698. He was very successful in his management of the Indians, and was much esteemed by the Iroquois; but his quarrels with the Bishop and others led to his recall. He was appointed the second time to save the colony, which was in danger of being blotted out. He subdued the Indians, and in 1690, successfully defended Quebec against the English under Phips; but in 1698, he died.

The growth of the colony was greatly retarded by the cruel Indian and border warfare which was almost constantly carried on between the French and the English colonists, and the Indian allies of each. But exploring parties were sent out to the north and west, forts were built, and many deeds of daring and bravery were performed. In 1660, Daulac and his companions made their famous stand at the foot of the Long Sault rapids, on the Ottawa, and in 1692, the Heroine of Vercheres showed the courage and bravery of which a true daughter of France was capable. Missionaries went to all the Indian tribes, where many of them suffered terrible tortures, while others were put to death. They failed with the Iroquois, but the Hurons quickly accepted Christianity. In 1673, Marquette and Joliet
discovered the Mississippi, and in 1682, La Salle explored it to its mouth. Many such names and deeds ornament the page of this period of Canadian History.

**COLONIAL WARS.**

During this time England and France were often at war with each other, and each war caused a fresh outbreak of hostilities in America. In *"King Charles' War,"* Quebec was taken by Kirke in 1629, but by the Treaty of St. Germain, in 1632, it was restored to France.

In 1690, during *"King William's War,“* an expedition under Phipps sailed from Boston and took Port Royal, but it failed to take Quebec. Each side offered rewards for scalps, and many horrors were perpetrated before the Treaty of Ryswick ended the war in 1697.

By the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, *"Queen Anne’s War“* was ended, and Acadia, Newfoundland and Hudson Bay Territory were given to England.

The next war was called the *"War of the Austrian Succession.”* During it, the English colonists took Fort Louisburg, but the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle ended the war in 1748, and gave back Louisburg to the French.

Last of all the *"War of the Boundary Lines“* ended the struggle. The British completely overthrew the French, and at Montreal, in 1760, the French Governor surrendered Canada to Murray, the British General. By the *Treaty of Paris, in 1763,* France gave up all claim on Canada. She had grasped at too much and had lost all.
CHAPTER II.

SKETCH OF BRITISH PERIOD.

For a time after the British gained Canada, the country was under Military Rule; a Governor was appointed and British law established. But at that time most of the people of Canada were French. They neither understood the English language nor liked the British laws. To please them, the Quebec Act was passed in 1774, (1) appointing a council to advise the Governor, (2) allowing Roman Catholics to hold public office, and (3) making French civil law and British criminal law the law of the land.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

At that time Britain claimed the right to tax her colonies. The thirteen colonies in America objected, in 1775, rebelled, and in 1776, declared their Independence. Britain was beaten in the war, and by the Treaty of Versailles, in 1783, she acknowledged the independence of the United States of America.

Many of the American colonists were opposed to the rebellion and true to Britain. These were called United Empire Loyalists, and great numbers of them came to Canada and settled along the Detroit, Niagara and St. Lawrence Rivers, and around the Bay of Quinte.

REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT.

The British people in Canada were much dissatisfied with the French laws and customs which
the Quebec Act allowed, and they wanted the rights of self-government. So they sent petitions to England to have these laws of Canada changed, but the French-Canadians petitioned to have them retained.

To please both parties, the British Parliament passed the Constitutional Act in 1791. It divided Canada into two provinces, and gave each a government consisting of (1) a Governor, (2) an Executive Council, (3) a Legislative Council, and (4) a Legislative Assembly. The members of the Assembly were elected by the people, and were to hold office for four years, but the others were appointed by the Crown. This was representative government, but the control of the revenue was placed in the hands of the Governor and the Executive Council, instead of being under the control of the representatives of the people, as British law would demand.

This Act also arranged for the famous Clergy Reserves, which, in after years, caused so much trouble.

THE WAR OF 1812-14.

Then began the struggle for responsible government, such as was enjoyed in Britain. But the struggle was soon hushed when all the sons of Canada united to repel the attacks of the Americans, who, in 1812, declared war against Great Britain, and invaded Canada to secure a prize they had long wished for, and which they thought they could now gain with ease.

The foe was many times as numerous as the Canadian forces, but victories like Queenston Heights, Stoney Creek and Chrysler’s Farm
show that Brock, Harvey, and Tecumseh were but representatives of the heroes who filled the Canadian ranks. When the Treaty of Ghent closed the war in 1814, no foot of Canadian soil was in the hands of the enemy.

THE REBELLION OF 1837-38.

Slowly the country recovered from the great loss caused by the war. Settlers began to pour into Canada, and the struggle against the defects and abuses of the Constitutional Act was renewed. The Irresponsible Government, the Family Compact, and the Clergy Reserves were bitterly opposed, till at last, despairing of success by lawful means, Papineau and Mackenzie began the Rebellion of 1837-38. They were unsuccessful, but Lord Durham was sent out to inquire into the causes of dissatisfaction. His report recommended that the two Canadas be united and given responsible government, and that all the British provinces be united in one Federation as soon as possible. As a result the Act of Union was passed in 1840, and in 1841, the two Canadas became one again.

CANADA UNDER RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.

Slowly, but steadily, the country grew under responsible government. Many useful acts were passed and abuses removed. In 1841, the Municipal Act gave local self-government to the municipalities of Upper Canada. In 1854, the Clergy Reserves Act ended a vexed question by arranging for the sale of these lands. The same
year the **Seignorial Tenure Act** abolished the old French way of holding the land in Lower Canada.

In 1842, the **Ashburton Treaty** settled the southern boundary line of Canada as far west as the Rocky Mountains, and in 1846, the **Oregon Treaty** laid down the boundary to the coast. In 1854, the **Reciprocity Treaty** arranged that Canada and United States should have free trade in certain natural products for ten years, 1854-64. It continued in force till 1866, and was a great benefit to Canada’s commerce.

Kingston was the first capital. Montreal became the capital in 1844, but when the mob of 1849 burned the Parliament Buildings and its valuable library, Toronto and Quebec became the capital each alternate four years. In 1858, to avoid the constant moving, the Queen selected Ottawa to be the capital. The Prince of Wales laid the corner-stone of the new Parliament Buildings in 1860, and in 1866, Parliament held its first session there.

In 1844, **Rev. Egerton Ryerson**, the “Father of our Public School System,” took charge of educational affairs in Upper Canada, and for over thirty years he remained Chief Superintendent of Education. Free public schools were established, high schools opened and colleges and universities founded.

Railways were built, canals made and deepened, a uniform rate of postage was arranged and trade extended.

**CONFEDERATION.**

The two parties in Parliament were so nearly equal that it became difficult for a Ministry to hold
In 1864, a Coalition Ministry was formed. Then a union of all the British provinces in North America was proposed. Conferences were held, a petition was sent to Britain and the British North America Act was passed. On Dominion Day, 1867, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia became the Dominion of Canada, having a Federal Government composed of representatives from each province, and having control of all matters of general interest, while questions which affect each province were placed in the hands of the Local Legislatures.

In 1870, Manitoba was formed into a province; British Columbia entered the Union in 1871, and Prince Edward Island followed in 1873.

Monck, Lisgar, Dufferin, Lorne, Lansdowne, Stanley and Aberdeen have, in succession, filled the position of Governor-General of Canada, while Sir John A. Macdonald, Hon. Alexander Mackenzie, Sir John J. C. Abbott, Sir John Thompson, Sir Mackenzie Bowell, Sir Charles Tupper and Hon. Wilfrid Laurier have held the post of Premier of the Dominion.

Old canals have been deepened and new ones built. Railways have spanned the continent and spread a network over the country. Steamships have been subsidized, manufactures established and commerce extended. The rich soil of Canada makes agriculture an important industry, and the mines show a wonderful wealth of all kinds of useful minerals. To-day Canada gives promise of becoming the gem of the British Possessions and of yet holding a proud place among the great nations of the world.
CHAPTER III.

THE PERIOD OF DISCOVERY.

1. The Norwegian Colonies. At a very early period, the Norwegians discovered and colonized Iceland. From there, a colony had been founded in Greenland, which at that time was not so cold as it is now. In 1001, Leif Ericson made a voyage southward from Greenland, and touched at parts now known as Newfoundland and Massachusetts, but he made no permanent settlement and the discovery led to no important results.

2. Christopher Columbus, the real discoverer of America, was born in Genoa, in Italy. While young he became interested in navigation and learned the trade of a map-maker.

He believed that the world was round, and that the ocean to the east of Asia was the same body of water as the ocean to the west of Europe.

At that time a very valuable trade was carried on by the overland route between Europe and the "Far East," and Columbus proposed to discover a water-way to India and China, by sailing westward.

He applied to Portugal for help to carry out this enterprise, but he was refused. He then appealed to Spain, and after waiting for nineteen years, Queen Isabella furnished him with three small ships.

Starting from Palos, in 1492, and passing by the Canary Islands, he sailed due west, and although he was bitterly opposed by his crews, he
continued his course until he discovered land on the 12th of October.

It was one of the Bahama Islands, but supposing he had reached some of the islands of India he called the natives Indians, and the islands of those seas have since been named the West Indies.

The natives treated him kindly, and after visiting several other islands, Columbus set sail for Spain to tell the story of his wonderful voyage; and although he made several other voyages to the west, he never knew that he had discovered a "New World."

3. The Cabots. The story of the wonderful discovery which Columbus had made, soon reached England, and John Cabot and his son Sebastian were sent out by Henry VII. They sailed from Bristol in 1497, and touched at Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Prince Edward Island, and perhaps Nova Scotia, and were the first to see the mainland of America.

Sebastian Cabot made another voyage in 1498, and sailed as far north as Hudson Bay and then south to Florida. All these parts he claimed for the King of England.

4. Amerigo Vespucci made several voyages to the "New World." He also wrote a book telling of its wonders, and the continent which should have been called Columbia, received the name America.

5. Exploring and Colonizing Nations. The principal colonies in North America were formed by Spain, France and England. Each selected its own field for work, and each was prompted by different motives.
The Spaniards sought for gold, and chose the rich islands and countries to the south. They carefully excluded all other nations, and year by year sent ship-loads of treasure to Spain, which, at that time, was the leading nation of the world.

France selected Canada and Acadia for colonization. Her object was three-fold, (1) exploration, (2) trade in fish and furs, and (3) missionary work, so as to have a purely Roman Catholic colony. Canada made slow progress. The constant change of governors, the Indian wars, and the greed of the fur companies were great hindrances. The settlers engaged in hunting and fur-trading, and paid too little attention to tilling the soil, to become self-supporting.

England's American Colonies were begun in Virginia by Raleigh and Smith. Then the colony of Plymouth was formed in 1620, by the Pilgrim Fathers, who made their famous voyage in the Mayflower to secure a home and religious freedom in the American wilds. The English colonists set to work to raise their own food; they made friends with the Indians, and soon, not only were self-supporting, but exported their produce to England, and far outstripped the French in Canada.

The Portuguese formed no colonies in North America, and the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam fell into the hands of the English in 1669, and was called New York.

6. Early French Explorers:—The French fishermen soon heard of the rich fishing banks of Newfoundland, and as early as 1506, began coming to America to engage in their work.

In 1524, Verazzani was sent out by the French
King. He sailed along the eastern coast of North America, and calling it "New France" claimed it for his master.

Ten years later, Jacques Cartier began his work in America. He made three voyages, the first in 1534, the second in 1535-36 and the third in 1541-42.

In his first voyage he sailed from St. Malo, in France, passed through the Strait of Belle Isle and crossed the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the peninsula of Gaspé, where he raised a cross bearing the arms of France and thus took formal possession of the country.

On his second voyage, he sailed up the River St. Lawrence to Stadacona and Hochelaga, two Indian villages where Quebec and Montreal now are. He spent the winter at Stadacona and his men suffered severely from scurvy, and from the cold which was much more intense than in France. In the spring, he seized several of the Indian chiefs and returned to France, where the Indians died.

He made his third voyage in the service of Roberval, who, in 1540, had been appointed Viceroy of New France. This time the Indians were unfriendly and so he started for home in the spring. At St. John's, he met Roberval, who ordered him to return, and to avoid going back to Canada, Cartier stole away during the night.

Roberval's attempt to form a colony was a failure, and for fifty years civil war prevented France from taking any interest in Canada.

7. The American Indians were tall dark-haired, dark-eyed people with high cheek bones. Practice had made them keen of sight and hearing
and swift of foot. They were skilful in catching the animals which abounded in the forests, and the fish with which the rivers and lakes teemed. The skins of the animals supplied them with clothes, and the flesh of these and the fish were their principal foods. They lived in wigwams made of skins or of bark and they spent their time in hunting and fishing or in war, while the women had to do the drudgery of the tribe. The Indian was true to his friends, but cruel and revengeful to his enemies.

The Indians of Canada were divided into three tribes. The Hurons and Algonquins were the friends of the French. The Iroquois were the friends of the English.

The Hurons were the most peaceful of the tribes and soon became Christians. They lived around the Georgian Bay and tilled the soil to some extent. Their houses were made of bark.

The Algonquins lived in the region from Lake Superior to the Atlantic Ocean, and they were the least intelligent of the tribes. They were filthy in their habits, dwelt in miserable wigwams and tilled the soil but little.

The Iroquois, who lived in the State of New York, were fierce and warlike. They were composed at first of five, but afterwards of six tribes, and so were sometimes called the Six Nations. They tilled the soil and raised a large amount of corn.

8. The Mound Builders. In many parts of America we find mounds of various shapes which were made by a race of people who lived here long ago. Who they were, where they came from or
what became of them we do not know, but many people believe they were the ancestors of our Indian tribes. Some of the mounds were made as places of sacrifice, while others were made for defense. They contain the remains of their tools, weapons and other articles. These are composed of stone or of copper, and are skilfully made and much superior to articles made by the Indians.
CHAPTER IV.

FRENCH PERIOD.

I. Samuel de Champlain. In 1598, the fur-trade of Canada again attracted the attention of the French, and in 1603, Champlain came to America and selected the valley of the St. Lawrence for colonization. De Monts, the Governor, preferred Acadia and in 1604, founded Port Royal—now Annapolis, N.S.

Champlain, however, was allowed to proceed to Canada where, in 1608, he founded Quebec as a fort and trading-post. He labored faithfully to advance the colony, but in this he had many difficulties to contend with.

The Governors were constantly being changed and Champlain had to go to France to know their wishes. He foolishly mixed in the Indian Wars, and the powerful Iroquois became the bitter enemies of the French and during the whole of the French period continued to harass the colony. The fur-companies, one after another failed to keep their agreements and so each lost its monopoly. At last, in 1627, Richelieu formed the Company of One Hundred Associates, and made Champlain Governor of New France.

The next year war broke out between England and France. The English captured the Company’s supply ships, and in 1629, Sir David Kirke took Quebec, and sent Champlain, a prisoner, to England. In 1632, the Treaty of St. Germain ended the war and restored Canada to the French.
Champlain then returned and set to work to advance the colony; but in 1635 he died and Canada lost a true friend.

2. The Company of One Hundred Associates was formed in 1627, by Cardinal Richelieu. It received:

1) The monopoly of the fur-trade.
2) The control of the inland fisheries.
3) Possession of all the land and forts in New France.

It promised:

1) To bring out six thousand settlers, tradesmen and mechanics, before 1643.
2) To assist each settler for three years.
3) To bring out two priests for each settlement.

Year by year, the Company sent rich cargoes of furs to France, but paid little attention to colonization. So, in 1663, its charter was cancelled, and Royal Government was introduced.

3. Royal Government. From 1663-1760 Canada was under Royal Government. The King was represented by three important officers, who were assisted by a Supreme Council.

1) The Governor controlled military affairs.
2) The Bishop managed the church.
3) The Intendant attended to legal and money matters and to the general interests of the colony.

The duties of each of these officers were not well-defined, and this led to many disputes, but the colony was ruled much better than by the fur-companies. Seignorial Tenure was introduced and a great effort was made to bring out colonists. The Law of France known as the Custom of Paris was
made the law of the land; but the people had no voice in the government of the country.

4. Talon, the first Intendant, was an able man and he worked earnestly to improve and advance the colony. He brought out settlers, and afterwards wives for the settlers. He sent out exploring expeditions to the west and north and extended the fur-trade with the Indians. He also promoted trade with the West Indies. In 1672, he returned to France.

5. Laval came to Canada in 1659, but soon returned to France, where he urged for a change in the form of government and was instrumental in having Royal Government introduced.

In 1670, he was appointed the first Bishop of Quebec, and for nearly fifty years he labored zealously in the interests of the colony. He tried to convert the Indians, and he strongly opposed the selling of liquor to them.

He founded a seminary, at Quebec, and the name was afterwards changed to Laval University in grateful remembrance of his life of devotion to Canada.

6. Indian Missions. One of the chief objects of the French in coming to Canada was to have a purely Roman Catholic country, and many Jesuit priests showed their devotion to their cause by leaving homes of comfort to labor among the various Indian tribes.

The Hurons quickly embraced Christianity and rejoiced the hearts of their faithful missionaries. The Algonquins were of a low order of intelligence and little could be done with them. But the Iroquois continued to be the persistent
enemies of the French. Many of the priests lost their lives while trying to spread the gospel and to extend the power of France. Among this number, Fathers Jogues, Brébœuf and Lalemont deserve special mention.

7. Indian Wars. France constantly strove to extend her influence at the expense of the British colonies to the south of Canada; and this with Champlain's fatal mistake of mixing in the Indian wars led to a continuous Indian and border struggle, which ended only when the French were driven from the land.

Cruelties almost past description were committed by both the French and the English colonists and the Indian allies of each. Each side paid for the scalps of its enemies. The Huron nation was destroyed, and the Algonquins quickly disappeared before the blood-thirsty Iroquois. The colonists knew not the moment the frightful war-whoop of the Indians would break the stillness of the forest. Such times of danger trained the colonists to think and act quickly, and to perform deeds like those of Daulac and of the Heroine of Vercheres.

8. The Mississippi. Father Marquette, a missionary to the Indians near Lake Superior, and Joliet, a merchant, having been sent by Talon, to the Indian council at Sault Ste. Marie, heard of, and discovered, the Mississippi in 1673. They sailed down the river as far as the mouth of the Arkansas; then, fearing the Spaniards, they turned back and Joliet carried the news to Quebec.

La Salle heard of the discovery of the Mississippi and wished to explore it. He hoped to find
that it emptied into the Pacific, and would thus be a water route to Asia. He was granted the privilege of engaging in the fur-trade, and after building Fort Frontenac of stone, he prepared to set out.

After several years, he reached the Illinois, descended to the Mississippi, and in 1682, traced it to its mouth. He claimed the land on both sides of the river for France and named it Louisiana.

He afterwards attempted to reach the mouth of the great river by sea, but he was murdered by some of his followers.

9. Frontenac, the ablest of the French Governors of Canada, was appointed in 1672. He was very successful in dealing with the Indians, who respected and feared him; but he quarrelled with the Bishop, the Intendant and many others. Laval wished to stop the sale of fire-water to the Indians, but Frontenac was too anxious for gain to agree to this. At last, so many complaints reached the King that Frontenac was recalled in 1682.

The Iroquois were soon on the war-path again. Governor Denonville called a council of the chiefs at Fort Frontenac, and seizing fifty of them sent them to France. In revenge, the Iroquois burst upon the colony, burned Lachine and murdered a thousand of the colonists.

To save the colony from destruction, Frontenac was again made Governor in 1689. He brought back the Indian chiefs, restored them to their tribes, and laying the blame on the English prepared for war, which he carried on with great energy. In return, the English colonists sent an
expedition from Boston, under Sir William Phips, to attack the French. It took Port Royal; but Frontenac defended Quebec so gallantly that the besiegers withdrew. This war, called King William's War, was ended in 1697, by the Treaty of Ryswick. The next year Frontenac died.

10. The Colonial Wars. After King William's War, the European War of the Spanish Succession renewed the struggle in America, where it was called Queen Anne's War. The Treaty of Utrecht, which ended the war in 1713, gave Acadia, Newfoundland and Hudson Bay Territory to Britain.

The French saw that so long as the colonies of the two nations were side by side there could be no security and no permanent peace. One must completely defeat and drive out the other. To strengthen their position, the French, during the time of Vaudreuil, fortified Louisburg, at the eastern side of Cape Breton Island, and hoped to make it the "Key of the St. Lawrence." In the valley of Lake Champlain, along the Great Lakes and in the Ohio valley, new forts were built and old ones strengthened.

During the thirty years of peace that followed Queen Anne's War, Canada made greater progress than at any other time in the French period. Many settlers came out; agriculture and commerce were encouraged, and there was prosperity. Vaudreuil died in 1725, greatly mourned by the colony he had defended and ruled so long, since 1703.

In 1745, during the War of the Austrian Succession the struggle was renewed in America.
The British colonists took Louisburg; but the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, restored it to France.

II. Conquest of Canada. Then came the final struggle—the War of the Boundary Lines. It began at Du Quesne, in the Ohio valley, where Pittsburg now stands. The English sent General Braddock to take charge of the war, and France sent Dieskau. Both of these generals wished to conduct the war on European plans and not according to the methods of Indian and forest warfare, and both failed. Braddock lost his life, and his expedition against Du Quesne, would have been completely destroyed but for the skill of Washington.

France then sent out Montcalm and a large reinforcement, while England sent Abercrombie. Success attended Montcalm, but the British leader was a failure.

Pitt, the "Great Commoner," then became Secretary of State. He spared neither men nor money and slowly the British gained ground. One by one, the French forts fell into the hands of the British. Louisburg was again captured, and in 1759, Wolfe laid siege to Quebec. In the short but decisive battle of the Plains of Abraham the French were defeated, Wolfe and Montcalm slain, and Quebec, the "Key of Canada," fell into the hands of the English.

In 1760, General Murray besieged Montreal, and Vaudreuil, the last French governor, surrendered all Canada to the British. By the Treaty of Paris, in 1763, France gave up all her possessions in America east of the Mississippi, with the excep-
tion of New Orleans, and the little islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

12. Events of the War.
British victories marked with *
1754—The French built Fort Du Quesne.
1755—Braddock’s Defeat.
—*Dieskau’s Defeat near Lake George.
—Fort William Henry built by the British.
1757—Fort William Henry taken by the French.
—William Pitt, Secretary of State.
1758—*Capture of Louisburg.
—Abercrombie defeated at Ticonderoga.
—*Taking of Fort Du Quesne.
1759—British defeat on Beauport Shore.
—*Battle of the Plains of Abraham.
—*Surrender of Quebec.
—*Capture of Fort Niagara.
1760—*Surrender of Montreal and all Canada.
1763—Peace of Paris.

13. Pontiac was an Ottawa chief, who, in 1763, formed a plan to gain possession of all the British forts in the west. He arranged a game of lacrosse at each fort, invited the garrisons to be spectators, and while they were thus off duty, the Indians rushed in and captured the fort. Although many forts were taken the plot failed, and Pontiac was afterwards murdered.

14. Causes of the Slow Growth of Canada under the French:
(1) The constant Indian wars.
(2) Seignorial Tenure.
(3) The settlers neglected agriculture.
(4) The lack of education of the people.
(5) The settlers had no voice in the government of colony.
CHAPTER V.

CANADA UNDER BRITISH RULE.

1. The Peace of Paris, which ended the War of the Boundary Lines, was signed in 1763. By it France gave up all claim on Canada; and Britain promised (1) to leave the French-Canadians in full possession of their homes and goods; and (2) to give them all the rights of British subjects.

2. Military Rule. For a time after Canada fell into the hands of the British, in 1760, the country was under Military Rule, that is, the officers of the army administered the laws, holding courts at Quebec, Montreal and Three Rivers. The French-Canadians neither understood the English language nor liked the British laws, which excluded Roman Catholics from holding office. To please these Canadians, and prevent them from joining with the discontented American colonists to the south, the British Parliament passed the Quebec Act in 1774.

3. The Quebec Act, 1774, was passed to please the French-Canadians. Its chief provisions were:

   (1) The Boundaries of Quebec were to be the Hudson Bay Slope, Labrador, the Ohio and the Mississippi.
   (2) Roman Catholics were permitted to hold public office.
   (3) Roman Catholic clergy were permitted to collect tithes and other dues from their own people.
   (4) British Criminal Law and French Civil Law were to be in force.
(5) The Governor was to be assisted by a Council of from seventeen to twenty-three members, appointed by the Crown, of whom the majority were to be of British birth.

Although it displeased the British settlers in the Ohio valley, it secured the affection of the French-Canadians, and these were then by far the more numerous.

4. The Land Tenure of Canada. When Royal Government was introduced into Canada in 1663, certain gentlemen, called Seigniors, received large grants of land from the King. These districts were divided into farms and given to settlers at a small rent, the Seignior retaining possession of the land. Thus the settler had little to induce him to improve his farm, as he would then have to pay a higher rent. If he got into debt, his farm could not be taken from him, as it did not belong to him. This way of holding land is called Seignorial Tenure.

The British law recognizes Freehold Tenure. Each man buys his farm and holds it in his own name. If he gets into debt, his land may be taken from him. In this way any improvement of his farm is but an addition to his own wealth.

5. The American Revolution. In 1765, the British Parliament, by the Stamp Act, laid a tax on the American colonies. The object was to meet part of the expenses of the War of the Boundary Lines.

The colonists objected, as by British law the King could levy no taxes without the consent of the representatives of the people, and the Americans had no representatives in the British Parlia-
ment. The Act was repealed, but other taxes were imposed and the quarrel continued, the British wishing to compel the Americans to trade only with the mother country.

In 1775, the colonists rebelled, and as Canada refused to join with them, an American army was sent over to invade Canada. It took Montreal, but was repulsed at Quebec and Montgomery the leader was slain. In the spring of 1776 the Americans returned home.

In 1776, the colonies Declared their Independence. George Washington, the colonial General conducted the war with great skill. Burgoyne, with a British force, surrendered at Saratoga in 1777; and the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown in 1781, ended the war.

By the Treaty of Versailles, in 1783, Britain acknowledged the independence of the United States of America, and the boundary line was traced as far west as the Lake of the Woods.

6. The United Empire Loyalists were those people in the thirteen colonies who were true to Britain during the War of the American Revolution. At the conclusion of the war they were treated so shamefully that they left the country. Many of them went to England, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

In 1784, they began coming to Canada. About ten thousand of them settled along the St. Lawrence, Niagara and Detroit rivers and around the Bay of Quinte. These were the founders of Upper Canada.

The British Parliament made a large grant of money for their relief, and also gave them farms
and assisted them to start in their new homes. Soon the forests of the West had a population of industrious British patriots, who struggled nobly to meet the hardships of pioneer life in the woods.

But they did not like the Quebec Act, Seignorial Tenure, nor rule by a Council, and so sent petitions to the British Parliament to have these changed. The French-Canadians, however, petitioned to have them retained.

7. The Constitutional Act, 1791. The British colonists in Canada wanted the rights of self-government which were enjoyed in England. They wanted Trial by Jury, the Habeas Corpus Act, Freehold Tenure, and other British laws and customs.

The French-Canadians wished to retain Seignorial Tenure and the French "Custom of Paris." They preferred to be tried by a Judge rather than by a Jury; and as they had never had a voice in the government of the country, they were satisfied with a governor and council.

To please both parties, the British Parliament, in 1791, passed the Constitutional Act, which introduced representative government into Canada.

Its principal provisions were:

(1) Canada was divided into two provinces—Upper and Lower Canada.
(2) The government of each province was to consist of a Governor, an Executive Council, and a Legislative Council, all appointed by the Crown, and a Legislative Assembly elected for four years by the people.

(3) The British Parliament was to decide the
amount of the customs duties, but Lower Canada was to collect them.

(4) Each Parliament had power to levy taxes for public works; but the Governor and the Executive Council had control of the revenue.

(5) One-eighth of the custom duties was to go to Upper Canada.

(6) British Criminal Law was to be in force for both provinces, and the Quebec Act was to remain in force until repealed by the Parliament of either province.

(7) Upper Canada was to have Freehold Tenure, while the French in Lower Canada retained Seignorial Tenure.

(8) One-seventh of all the wild Crown lands of Upper Canada was to be set apart "for the support of a Protestant clergy" and called the Clergy Reserves, while the Roman Catholic clergy in Quebec were to collect tithes and other "accustomed dues" from their own people.

8. The First Parliament of Upper Canada Simcoe was the first Governor of Upper Canada. At Newark (Niagara) the Parliament of Upper Canada met for its first session in 1792, and its twenty-three members set to work to make the laws for their province.

British Civil Law and Trial by Jury were introduced. Bills were passed providing for the collection of small debts and the regulating of the miller's toll. The province was divided into four districts, and arrangements were made to erect a courthouse and a jail in each.

The second session was held in 1793. Provision was made for doing away with slavery, and a re-
ward was offered for wolves' and bears' heads. In 1797, York became the capital, as Simcoe thought Newark was too near the American frontier.

9. The First Parliament of Lower Canada met at Quebec in December, 1792. As thirty-five of the fifty members of the Legislative Assembly were French, it was decided that a member might speak in either English or French; and all notices, motions, bills, laws, or other papers were to be printed in both languages.

Soon ill-feeling and jealousies arose between the two races and the two creeds. The French felt that the English were getting undue advantage, and this caused much trouble and hindered useful legislation.

10. Sir Guy Carleton (Lord Dorchester) took an active part in the siege and capture of Quebec in 1759, and remained connected with Canada until 1796. He was a warm friend to the French-Canadians, and aided in the passage of the Quebec Act, which gave them the same rights as British subjects, regardless of their religion. He defended Quebec against the attack of the Americans in 1775, and won the love and respect of all by his ability and prudence. He was Governor-General of Canada for many years, and is considered one of the most eminent men who ever held that position.

11. Progress of Canada up to 1812. Canada progressed steadily under British rule. The French were pleased with the treatment which they received from the British, although at first they disliked their laws and did not understand their lan-
But the passing of the Quebec Act secured their affection completely. When the U. E. Loyalists began to settle in Canada, there was a division of opinion, and to please both parties the Constitutional Act was passed, introducing representative government.

Slowly the forest was cleared and the land tilled. Roads were opened, and the landscape became dotted with the log buildings of the settlers. The industrious housewife supplied the clothes of the household from the wool and flax raised at home, and plenty of good food covered the board. Mills were built, steamboats introduced, schools were asked for, and reforms of government demanded. The missionary began to make his rounds and churches soon followed.

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**The Sieges of Quebec.** Quebec, the Gibraltar of America, has been besieged five times, but only taken twice.

1. In 1629, the English, under Kirke, took the fortress from Champlain.
2. In 1690, Frontenac drove back Phips, the leader of the expedition from Boston.
3. In 1759, the English, under Wolfe, gained possession of the stronghold by the defeat of Montcalm in the Battle of the Plains of Abraham.
4. In 1760, the French, under de Levis, made an unsuccessful attempt to retake it from General Murray.
5. In 1775, Montgomery was repulsed by Governor Carleton.
CHAPTER VI.

THE WAR OF 1812-14.

(Canadian victories marked with an asterisk.)

Causes:
(a) Orders-in-Council.
(b) Right of Search.
(c) American desire to have Canada.

2. Plan of the Americans:
(a) Three armies. 1. North; 2. Centre; 3. West.
(b) To scatter the Canadian Forces.

3. Campaign of 1812:
(*Capture of Fort Mackinaw.
(w) *Capture of Detroit.
(c) *Battle of Queenston Heights.
(n) *Battle of Lacolle or Rouse’s Point.

4. Campaign of 1813:
(c) *Capture of Ogdensburg.
   Capture of York and Ft. George.
   *Battle of Stoney Creek.
   *Surrender at Beaver Dams.
(w) *Battle of Frenchtown.
   Perry’s Victory on Lake Erie.
   Retreat from Detroit.
   Battle of Moraviantown.
(n) *Battle of Chateauguay.
   *Battle of Chrysler’s Farm.
(35)
5. Campaign of 1814-15:
   
   (c) Taking of Fort Erie.
   Battle of Chippewa.
   *Battle of Lundy's Lane.
   
   (n) British attack on Plattsburg.
   *Capture of Washington.
   Battle of New Orleans, 1815.


1. Causes of the War. By the Berlin Decree Napoleon forbade any nation to trade with Britain, and by Orders-in-Council Britain forbade any nation to trade with France or her allies. This was keenly felt by the American merchant vessels, and when the British claimed the right to search American ships for deserters, Congress declared war. The Americans had long wished to conquer Canada; and now that Britain was too much occupied in the struggle against Napoleon to give much help, they thought Canada would certainly fall into their hands.

2. American Plan of Attack. In order to scatter and weaken the Canadian forces, the Americans planned to attack Canada at three points, and so had three armies in each campaign. The "Army of the West" was to act along the Detroit River. The "Army of the Centre" was to operate along the Niagara River, while the "Army of the North" was to attack Canada by way of Lake Champlain.

3. Canadian Preparations. Prevost was Governor of Lower Canada, and General Brock had charge of affairs in Upper Canada. All par-
ties in Canada dropped disputes and united for the defence of the country. The militia was called out, and every able-bodied man, and even boys, shouldered the musket at the call of duty; and, heroes that they were, they succeeded in a struggle against armies many times as numerous as their own. To meet expenses, the Parliament of each Province issued army bills, which were not to be redeemed until the close of the war.

4. The Campaign of 1812. The Canadians began the struggle by taking Fort Mackinaw, which they held until the end of the war. General Hull then crossed to Windsor, but soon retreated to Detroit, where he surrendered to Brock and Tecumseh, and large stores of arms and ammunition fell into the hands of the Canadians. In October, the Americans crossed the Niagara River, but they were defeated at Queenston Heights, where Brock, the "Hero of Upper Canada," was slain. The "Army of the North" was defeated at Lacolle, by de Salaberry, and although the Americans gained some naval battles, the Canadians were successful at all points on land, in this campaign.

5. The Campaign of 1813. During the winter, the Canadians took Ogdensburg, and also defeated the Americans at Frenchtown, near Detroit. Early in the spring, a large force of Americans took York and crossing the lake captured Fort George. The Canadians retreated towards Burlington Heights, followed by the Americans, who were surprised and defeated by Harvey at Stoney Creek. Their two generals were captured by the victorious Canadians. Having been warned
by Laura Secord, the Canadians at Beaver Dams captured the American force which was coming to surprise them. In the meantime, Prevost, with a Canadian force, made an attack on Sackett's Harbor; but a retreat was ordered when the men were on the point of victory.

In September, Perry captured the Canadian Fleet on Lake Erie, and Proctor and Tecumseh were thus forced to leave Detroit and retreat into Canada. They were followed by Harrison, and at Moraviantown, on the River Thames, the Canadians were defeated and the brave Tecumseh was slain. Two armies now proceeded against Montreal; one going by way of Lake Champlain was defeated at Chateauguay, by de Salaberry; the other proceeding down the St. Lawrence was defeated at Chrysler's Farm, by Harvey, the "Hero of Stoney Creek." In December, the Americans burned the Canadian village of Niagara, and in return the Canadians crossed the Niagara River, took Fort Niagara and burned Lewiston and Buffalo, and other American villages.

6. The Campaign of 1814-15. The American army of the north again invaded Canada, but was defeated at Lacolle, and shortly afterwards the Canadians captured and destroyed Oswego.

Again the American army of the centre crossed the Niagara River, took Fort Erie, and, marching north, gained the battle of Chippewa; but they were soon after defeated by Drummond at Lundy's Lane—the bloodiest battle of the whole war.

During the summer, large reinforcements arrived from Britain, and an expedition against Plattsburg failed, on account of the indecision of
Prevost, who, as a governor in time of war, was a failure.

Another British army took Washington, and burned the public buildings. Then, proceeding to the Gulf of Mexico, they were defeated in the useless Battle of New Orleans, on the 8th of January, 1815, two weeks after the Treaty of Ghent had been signed, ending the war. Canada gave back her conquests, but the points in dispute were left unsettled.

7. Incidents of the War:
(Canadian victories marked with an asterisk.)

THE CAMPAIGN OF 1812.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Engagement</th>
<th>Canadian</th>
<th>American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capture of Mackinaw</td>
<td>Roberts</td>
<td>Hancks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Surrender of Detroit</td>
<td>Brock</td>
<td>Hull</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Queenston Heights</td>
<td>Brock</td>
<td>Van Rensselaer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Lacolle</td>
<td>Salaberry</td>
<td>Dearborn</td>
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THE CAMPAIGN OF 1813.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Engagement</th>
<th>Canadian</th>
<th>American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frenchtown</td>
<td>Proctor</td>
<td>Winchester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Capture of Ogdensburg</td>
<td>Macdonald</td>
<td>Pike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capture of York</td>
<td>Sheaffe</td>
<td>Dearborn</td>
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<tr>
<td>Capture of Fort George</td>
<td>Vincent</td>
<td>Brown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attack on Sackett’s Har</td>
<td>Prevost</td>
<td>Chandler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Stoney Creek</td>
<td>Harvey</td>
<td>Boerstler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Beaver Dams</td>
<td>Fitzgibbon</td>
<td>Perry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defeat on Lake Erie</td>
<td>Barclay</td>
<td>Harrison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moraviantown</td>
<td>Tecumseh</td>
<td>Hampton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Chateauguay</td>
<td>Salaberry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burning of Niagara</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Burning Am. Villages</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


8. Results of the War:

(1) It united Canada, for the time, and gave her confidence in herself. (2) It cost many lives and destroyed much property. (3) The land was not properly tilled on account of scarcity of labor. A scarcity in the crops followed, and the Government had to give the people assistance. (4) The feeling against the Americans was deepened, and laws were passed excluding them from the country.

9. Growth of Canada after the War of 1812.

Gradually Canada recovered from the effects of the war. Settlers from England, Ireland, and Scotland began to flock to Canada. The soil was fertile; the people were industrious; religious liberty was asserted; schools and colleges were started; steamboats were introduced and canals made; banks were founded, and commerce and manufactures increased.

Upper Canada grew faster than Lower Canada. In 1804, Upper Canada’s share of the revenue, which was derived from the customs, excise, and sale of lands and licences, was increased to one-fifth. In 1822, the Canada Trade Act made a new division of the revenue, and awarded £30,000, as back dues, to Upper Canada.
CHAPTER VII.
THE REBELLION OF 1837-38.

1. Cause:
   b. Political abuses in Lower Canada.
   c. Political abuses in Upper Canada.
   d. Efforts in Parliament to secure Reform.

2. The Rebellion:
   a. Rebellion in Lower Canada.
   b. Rebellion in Upper Canada.
   c. "The Patriots."

3. Results:
   b. The Act of Union, 1840.
   c. Responsible Government.
   d. The Municipal System.
   e. Confederation; 1867.

1. Defects of the Constitutional Act. Although the British Government took great pains to make thorough inquiry before passing the Constitutional Act, it had many defects.
   (1) The Assembly, which represented the people, was not given control of the revenue.
   (2) The Executive Council and the Legislative Council were appointed, not elected.
   (3) The Executive Council could not be removed for wrong-doing.
   (4) The division of the country into a French and a British province gave rise to many jealousies.
(5) The way in which the lots of the Clergy Reserves were selected hindered the opening up of the country and the making of roads.

(6) The largeness of the grant of land—one-seventh of the land—and the fact that there was a State support to the Church were opposed by many.

(7) Lower Canada had the ports of entry, and therefore the collection of the customs and the control of trade.

2. Political Abuses in Lower Canada. The French people of Lower Canada elected the majority of the members of the Assembly, and yet they seemed to have but little voice in controlling and directing the affairs of the Province, as the Executive Council and the Legislative Council were appointed by the Crown, and composed mostly of persons of British origin, who often acted in opposition to the wishes of the people and their representatives.

The Legislative Assembly wished to secure control of the revenue, and to have the Councils responsible to the people; but the British Government refused to grant these reforms.

3. Political Abuses in Upper Canada. The members of the government and their friends joined together to secure for themselves all the public offices. They were called The Family Compact, and had control of the making and also the administering of the law. They had control of the revenue and also of the Crown lands, and they abused their power by giving large tracts to their friends at low prices. They gave many grants from the Clergy Reserves, to the Church of England, but for a time refused other Protestant
denominations. The strength of union was shown by their success in hindering all reforms in the government for many years.

4. Efforts in Parliament to Secure Reforms. The Reform party in Lower Canada was led by Papineau and Dr. Nelson, while Rolph, Baldwin and Mackenzie were the leaders in Upper Canada. Efforts were made in the Assemblies of both provinces to have the defects of the Constitutional Act remedied, and the abuses of the Government removed; but as the Assembly had no means of controlling the Governor and the Executive Council, little could be done.

5. Rebellion in Lower Canada. At last, in 1837, the French people in Lower Canada rose in rebellion under Papineau. The principal engagements were at St. Denis, St. Charles and St. Eustache, but the rebellion was soon put down. In 1838 another rising took place, which was promptly crushed. Some of the leaders were executed, while others were banished. The regular government was suspended, and a Special Council was appointed to govern the province.

6. Rebellion in Upper Canada. The extreme Reformers of Upper Canada, despairing of securing their political rights, and sympathizing with their friends in Lower Canada, took advantage of the absence of the troops from Toronto, assembled about four miles north of the capital and prepared to take it. They were, however, soon dispersed by Col. McNab, who had been hastily summoned from Hamilton with his forces, and Mackenzie, the leader, escaped to the United States.

7. "The Patriot War." Many sympathizers
gathered around Mackenzie on the American side, and prepared to "free Canada." They took possession of Navy Island, in the Niagara River, but were closely watched by Colonel McNab, who captured the Caroline, their supply ship, and allowed it to float over the Falls. Other bodies of these "Patriots" invaded Canada at Prescott and Windsor, but they were defeated. Some of the rebels were executed, and others were transported; but in 1849 a general pardon was proclaimed, and Papineau, Mackenzie, and others, returned, and by their actions showed how dearly they loved Canada, although they had taken up arms against her misruling government.

8. **Lord Durham.** When the news of the rebellion reached Britain, the British Government sent out Lord Durham as Governor-General, with instructions to inquire into the causes of the rebellion. He acted without authority in dealing with the rebels and banished many of them without a trial. His sentences were reversed and he resigned. However, he made a report, and in it he advised:

2. Union of the two Canadas at once.
4. An Intercolonial Railway to connect the Canadas with the Atlantic.
5. Union of all the British provinces as soon as possible.

9. **The Act of Union, 1840.** Lord Durham's proposal to unite the two Canadas was opposed by the French in Lower Canada and the Family
Compact in Upper Canada. Each party feared to lose its influence; but the Special Council of Lower Canada, and finally the Parliament of Upper Canada asked for the union.

In 1840 the British Parliament passed the Act of Union, which came into force in 1841. Its principal provisions were:

1. Upper and Lower Canada were to be united.
2. The government was to consist of:
   a. A Governor appointed by the Crown.
   b. An Executive Council of 8 members, responsible to the Legislative Assembly.
   c. A Legislative Council of 20 members, appointed for life by the Crown.
   d. A Legislative Assembly of 84 members—42 from each province—elected by the people for four years.
3. The Legislative Assembly was to control the revenue, but had to arrange for the paying of the judges, and for all other necessary expenses of government.
4. The Judges were not to be dismissed except for good cause.
### CHAPTER VIII.

**RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.**

1. **Table of Events, 1840-1867.**

The following table shows the events of this period, and indicates the progress of the country. Notice the development in municipal, political, educational and commercial matters:

1. **Hon. Charles Thompson—Lord Sydenham, 1839-41.**
   - The Act of Union - - - 1840
   - First Parliament, at Kingston - 1841
   - Government takes over Welland Canal 1841
   - Municipal Act - - - 1841
   - Victoria University, Cobourg, founded 1841
   - Queen’s College, Kingston, founded - 1841
   - Death of Lord Sydenham - - 1841

2. **Sir Charles Bagot, 1841-43.**
   - Ashburton Treaty - - - 1842
   - First Canadian Reform Ministry - 1842

3. **Sir Charles Metcalfe, 1843-5.**
   - Resignation of Reform Cabinet - 1844
   - Dr. Ryerson, Chief Supt. of Education 1844
   - Montreal the Capital - - 1844
   - Founding of the Globe - - 1844

4. **Earl Cathcart, 1845-47.**
   - Dr. Ryerson’s Report - - - 1846
   - Oregon Treaty - - - 1846
   - Repeal of Corn Laws in Britain - 1846

(46)
5. Lord Elgin, 1847-54.
Canada gets control of the Customs - 1847
Irish Famine—Fever in Canada - 1847
French Language restored in Parliament 1849
Amnesty Bill (pardoning rebels) - 1849
Toronto University Undenominational - 1849
Rebellion Losses Bill - - - 1849
Burning of Parliament Buildings - 1849
Canada gets control of Postal Matters—
Uniform Rate—Postage Stamps - 1851
Free Banking System - - - 1850
Normal School, Toronto, begun - - 1851
First International Exhibition - - 1851
Northern Railway begun - - - 1851
Municipal Loan Fund Act - - - 1852
Parliament increased to 130 Members - 1853
Reciprocity Treaty - - - 1854

Clergy Reserves Act—Church and State separated - - - 1854
Seignorial Tenure Act - - 1854
Volunteer System introduced - - 1854
Legislative Council elective - - 1856
Regular SS. Connection with Britain - 1856
Decimal System of Currency - - 1858
Ottawa selected as Capital - - 1858
Double Majority abandoned - - 1858
Toronto University Build'gs completed 1858
Atlantic Cable successfully laid - - 1858
Visit of the Prince of Wales - - 1860
Victoria Tubular Bridge finished
Laying Corner-Stone of Parliament Buildings
7. Lord Monck, 1860-68.

American Civil War - - - 1861-63
Trent Affair - - - - 1861
Political Deadlock, and Coalition Ministry - - - - 1864
Conference at Charlottetown - - 1864
Conference at Quebec - - - 1864
Three Parliaments agree to Proposal - 1865
Fenian Raids - - - - 1866
Canadian Delegates draw up Bill - 1866
British North America Act - - 1867

2. The Canadian Municipal System. A municipality is a city, a town, a village, a township or a county having local self-government. Each has a council elected by the ratepayers of the municipality, and this council has control of such local affairs as making roads and bridges, passing by-laws and levying taxes for local improvements. This system of local self-government was recommended by Lord Durham, and was introduced into Upper Canada by the Municipal Act, passed in 1841, at the first session of Parliament under Responsible Government. Quebec followed, and now all the Provinces except Prince Edward Island have this system, although each Province has its own peculiarities in some minor points.

3. The Ashburton Treaty, 1842, was signed by Lord Ashburton for Great Britain, and Daniel Webster representing the United States.

1) It provided for the extradition of persons charged with certain crimes.
2) It settled part of the boundary line between Canada and the United States.
a. Out of the twelve thousand square miles in dispute on the Maine Boundary, seven thousand were given to the Americans.

b. The International Line was to be (1) the 45th parallel of latitude to the St. Lawrence River, (2) a line traced through the great lakes to the Lake of the Woods, and (3) thence the 49th parallel of latitude to the Rocky Mountains.

(See map "Maine Boundary.")

4. Responsible Government. Sir Charles Metcalfe, the third Governor of Canada, wished to make appointments without the advice of his Executive Council, or Cabinet. As the ministers were responsible to Parliament for all appointments, they objected to Metcalfe's action and finally resigned and for a time the Governor ruled without a ministry. In the end this dispute settled for all time that the Governor must act only on the advice of his ministry.

5. Rev. Egerton Ryerson, the founder of the Public School System of Ontario, was a Methodist clergyman of U. E. Loyalist descent. He was appointed Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada in 1844. He visited the schools of Europe, selected what was best from each system, and in 1846 made his report to Parliament. From time to time this system which he proposed has been improved, but the general plan has been followed.

(1) A system embracing primary, secondary and university education.

(2) Free public schools, under local control and local support, having Government assistance and under Government inspection.
6. Rebellion Losses Bill, 1849. Loyal people of Upper Canada who had suffered losses during the Rebellion of 1837-38 asked to have these losses paid, and the people of Lower Canada presented a similar claim.

A bill was passed for Upper Canada. Then, in 1849, the Reformers passed a bill to pay the Lower Canadian losses, and Lord Elgin, the Governor, signed it.

This displeased some, who said that rebels as well as loyalists were about to be paid. Riots occurred in Toronto, and also in Montreal, where the Parliament buildings with the valuable library were burned, and the Governor was publicly assaulted. For this Montreal ceased to be the capital, and Toronto and Quebec were chosen for a time. The Queen selected Ottawa in 1858, and Parliament met there in 1866.

Lord Elgin tendered his resignation, but the British Government refused to accept it, saying he had done quite right in acting on the advice of his Cabinet.

7. The Municipal Loan Fund Act was passed in 1852, enabling municipalities to borrow money from the Government at a low rate of interest, to make roads and bridges and open up the country. Many of them borrowed too much and got deeply into debt; but this was partially cancelled by the money derived from the Clergy Reserves. The greater part of the remainder was cancelled in 1873.

8. Reciprocity Treaty. In 1854, the commerce of Canada was greatly extended by the Reciprocity Treaty with the United States. This
arranged (1) that the natural products of the sea, the farm, the forest and the mine should be freely exchanged between the two countries; (2) Canadians were allowed to navigate Lake Michigan freely; (3) The Americans received the use of the Canadian canals and the privilege of fishing in Canadian waters; (4) The treaty was to be in force for ten years, and after that it could be terminated by either country giving the other one year's notice. It was ended in 1866.

9. The Clergy Reserves. In 1791, one-seventh of all the Crown land in Upper Canada was set apart for the support of a Protestant clergy. As each seventh lot was chosen this was a great hindrance to the opening of the country and the keeping of the roads in order. At first, the Church of England claimed all. Then the Church of Scotland received a share. In 1840, it was arranged that one-half of the reserves should go to these two churches and the remaining half be divided among the other Protestant denominations.

In 1854, it was finally arranged by the Clergy Reserves Act that the land should be sold, and the proceeds given to the various municipalities of the Province according to their population, and be used for the support of the public schools or for making roads and bridges, as the various councils should decide. The clergy who had been receiving aid from these Reserves were given compensation in the form of an annuity for life.


In 1854, an act was passed (1) abolishing Seignorial Tenure in Lower Canada, (2) enabling the
people to hold their land by Freehold Tenure, and (3) granting compensation to the seigniors.

11. **Railway Construction.** In 1851, the Northern, the first railway in Upper Canada, was built, and was soon followed by the Great Western Railway, the Grand Trunk Railway, and many others.

As these railways helped to open up the country, the Government gave large grants to each of them, and thus was started our present Dominion debt, which has been increased so greatly by the grants given to the Canadian Pacific, the Grand Trunk Pacific, and the Canadian Northern.

The Canadian Pacific, the Grand Trunk, the Intercolonial, the Canadian Northern and the Grand Trunk Pacific railway systems include most of the railroads of Canada.

12. **The Canals of Canada.** That advantage may be taken of the magnificent St. Lawrence water system, canals have been constructed at various points along its course to avoid waterfalls, or to overcome rapids. By the completion of Sault Ste. Marie Canal, with its magnificent locks, the Canadians, now, have an independent water-route, for large vessels, from the head of Lake Superior to the Ocean, while the largest ocean vessels can ascend the River as far as Montreal.

The principal Canadian Canals are:—the Sault Ste. Marie, the Welland, the St. Lawrence Canals, and the canals along the Ottawa, the Rideau, and the Trent Valley, and the Chambly Canal.
CHAPTER IX.

CONFEDERATION

1. Governors-General and Premiers:

Viscount Monck ........... 1867 | Macdonald ........... 1867
Lord Lisgar ........... 1868 | Mackenzie ........... 1873
Earl of Dufferin ........... 1872 | Macdonald ........... 1878
Marquis of Lorne ........... 1878 | Abbott ........... 1891
Marquis of Lansdowne 1883 | Thompson ........... 1892
Lord Stanley ........... 1888 | Bowell ........... 1894
Earl of Aberdeen ........... 1893 | Tupper ........... 1896
Lord Minto ........... 1898 | Laurier ........... 1896

2. Reasons for Confederation.

(1) Political. The two parties in the Canadian Parliament were so nearly equal that a deadlock had occurred.

(2) Commercial. The provinces wished free-trade among themselves.

(3) Military. Union would give strength, and the Fenian Raids had shown the necessity of protection.

3. Representation by Population. The number of members sent by each province to the Assembly was, in 1853, increased to sixty-five; but as Upper Canada was the wealthier, had the larger population, and paid the greater part of the revenue, she claimed the larger number of representatives. This claim was recognized at Confederation.

4. Steps Leading to Confederation. The two parties in Parliament were so nearly equal in num-
bers that it became difficult to carry on the Government, and a deadlock occurred. On the proposal of Hon. George Brown a Coalition Ministry was formed, and an agitation for Confederation was begun.

A conference met at Charlottetown in 1864, to discuss the question. Another met the same year at Quebec, and a scheme for union was drawn up. The Parliaments of Canada, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia agreed to it, in 1865, and in 1866 a suitable bill was drawn up by the Canadian delegates then in London. In 1867, it was passed by the British Parliament under the name of the "British North America Act," and came into force on July 1st, which has since been called "Dominion Day." The measure was bitterly opposed by the people of Nova Scotia.

5. The British North America Act, the formal constitution of the Dominion of Canada and its provinces, was passed by the British Parliament in 1867.

(See special note in chap. X.).

Its chief provisions were:

(1) The four provinces, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia were united under one Federal Government, and were to be called the Dominion of Canada.

(2) The Federal Government was to have control of all matters pertaining to the whole country.

(3) Each province was to have a Local Government having control of all purely local affairs.

(4) The different parts of each of these Governments, and the duties and powers of each, were stated.
Confederation.

(5) Provision was made for the admission of other provinces.


(1) Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia united - 1867
(2) Purchase of the Hudson Bay Territory - 1869

It has been organised as follows:

(a) Province of Manitoba formed - 1870
(b) Keewatin District organized - 1876
(c) Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta and Athabasca Districts formed, with one capital - 1882
(d) Ungava, Franklin, Mackenzie, and Yukon Districts organized - 1896
(3) British Columbia entered the Union 1871
(4) Prince Edward Island joined - 1873

(See map on page 4.)

7. Additional Provinces.

Manitoba, the first province to be added to the Confederation, was formed in 1870, of part of the Hudson Bay Territory.

British Columbia entered Confederation in 1871, the Dominion Government promising to build a railway within ten years to connect the Pacific Province with Eastern Ontario. The time was extended and the railway was finished in 1885.

Prince Edward Island had at first refused to join the Union, but, in 1873, she also became a Province of the Dominion, on condition that she should have regular mail connection with the mainland.

Keewatin is joined to Manitoba for government.
The Districts formed in 1882, have one Legislature which meets at Regina, and deals with local affairs. These Districts are represented in the Dominion Parliament.

The Districts organized in 1896 are still under the Federal Government.

8. Riel's First Rebellion. In 1870, many French half-breeds of the Red River Settlement were afraid of the change of making Manitoba a Province of the Dominion. They rose in rebellion under Louis Riel. Those favorable to the Dominion were arrested, and one, Scott, was shot. When Colonel Wolseley and his troops reached Fort Garry, Riel had fled and the rebellion was ended.

9. The Washington Treaty, between Great Britain and the United States, in 1871. For some time strong feeling had been aroused in both countries by:

1. The Alabama Claims.
2. The Fenian Raids' Claims.
3. The Possession of San Juan Island.
4. The use of the Canadian Fishing Waters.
5. The Alaska Boundary Line.

These difficulties were settled as follows:

1. Referred to Geneva Arbitration of 1872 and Britain had to pay $15,500,000 to the U.S.
2. Completely ignored.
3. Referred to the Emperor of Germany, in 1872, who decided in favor of the U.S.
4. Left to the Halifax Commission which met in 1878, and awarded $5,500,000 to Canada.
5. Partially settled. A commission at work on it at present (1897).
10. The Alabama Claims were made by the United States against Great Britain for damage done by the Alabama and other ships built in Britain for the Southern States during the war between the North and the South. By the Washington Treaty the claims were referred to an arbitration which met at Geneva in 1872. The Americans greatly exaggerated their claims, and, of the $15,500,000 which England had to pay, several millions are still unclaimed and in the hands of the American Government.

11. The Pacific Scandal. After the General elections of 1872, it was reported that Sir Hugh Allan had given the Conservative Government a large sum of money to carry on the elections, and in return was to receive a charter to build the Pacific Railway. This was called the Pacific Scandal. The Government resigned in 1873, and the Reformers, led by Hon. Alexander Mackenzie, took office and remained in power for five years.

12. The Ballot Act was passed in 1874, doing away with open voting and introducing secret voting by ballot. This is to allow each man to vote as he wishes. It also arranged that the elections should take place on same day throughout the Dominion.

13. The Scott Act or The Canada Temperance Act was passed in 1878. It enabled counties to prohibit the sale of liquor in their limits.

14. The Halifax Commission, which was arranged for by the Washington Treaty, met in 1878, and all of Great Britain's representatives were Canadians. It decided that the United States
should pay $5,500,000 for the privilege of fishing in the Canadian waters.

15. The National Policy was a system introduced by the Conservatives in 1879, by which a high protective tariff was placed on goods imported into the country, thus giving the Canadian manufacturer the benefit of the home market.

16. The Redistribution Bill. The census of 1881 showed that Ontario was entitled to more members of Parliament; and to make room for these, the boundaries of a great many of the constituencies were changed. It was claimed by the Reformers that this was done in such a way as to give the Conservatives an unfair advantage in the election. A second Redistribution Bill was passed in 1892, after the Third Census.

17. The Dominion Franchise Act, passed in 1885, gave a vote to almost every man of twenty-one years of age. It arranged for the same qualification for voters throughout the Dominion, and ordered that separate lists of voters be prepared for Dominion elections.

18. The Canadian Pacific Railway. When British Columbia entered the Union the Government promised to build a railway connecting that Province with Eastern Ontario. The ten years allowed was found to be too short. The time was extended, and, in 1880, the work was handed over to a syndicate which received a large grant of land and of money, and the monopoly of railway construction in certain parts.

The work was finished in 1885, and was a means of opening up the great West. Four new dis-
Districts were organized in 1882, and large numbers of settlers have taken up land.

19. Riel's Second Rebellion. In 1885, many French half-breeds, who had settled along the Saskatchewan, feared they would lose their lands and as the government gave them no satisfactory assurance, they rose in rebellion, again led by Riel, and joined by some Indians. They attacked the whites at Duck Lake and Frog Lake; and at Fish Creek and Cut Knife Creek they had sharp work with the volunteers, but at Batoche they were defeated by the Canadian Volunteers led by Gen. Middleton. Riel was afterwards captured, tried and executed.

HOW CANADA IS GOVERNED.

I. FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

1. The Federal or Dominion Government consists of four parts:

(1) The Governor-General appointed by the Crown for five years.

(2) A Cabinet composed of members of the Senate or of the House of Commons. It must have the support of the Commons. The leader of the Cabinet is the Premier.

(3) A Senate composed of persons appointed for life by the Governor-General-in-Council. The Speaker of the Senate is appointed by the Governor-General-in-Council, and votes “No” when there is a tie.

(4) A House of Commons composed of members elected for five years by the people. Quebec has 65 members, and the others have a proportionate number according to population. All Bills relating to the Revenue must originate in the House of Commons. The Speaker of the House of
Commons is the presiding officer. He is elected by the Commons from among themselves, and votes only when there is a tie.

The Federal Government has control of
(a) Customs and Excise.
(b) Militia and Defence.
(c) Post Offices.
(d) Penitentiaries.
(e) Appointing of Lieutenant-Governors, Judges and Senators.
(f) The power to veto Provincial Legislation considered hurtful to the Dominion.

II. PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT.

2. The Provincial Governments consist of three or of four parts:
(1) Lieutenant-Governor, appointed for five years by the Governor-General-in-Council.
(2) The Cabinet or Ministry, composed of members of either House. It must have the support of the Assembly.
(3) The Legislative Council, appointed for life by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council.
(4) The Legislative Assembly, elected for four years by the people.

Ontario, Manitoba, British Columbia and New Brunswick have no Legislative Council, and the Legislative Council of Prince Edward is elective.

The Provincial Governments have control of
(a) Education.
(b) Crown Lands.
(c) The appointment of all Officers of Courts of Justice, except Judges.
(d) The Enforcing of all Laws.
(e) Control of Jails and Asylums.
(f) Regulation of the Sale of Liquor.
(g) Control of Municipal Institutions.

The debts of the various provinces were assumed by the Dominion, and a certain yearly revenue is granted to each province according to population. Each province may raise money by direct taxation.
III. THE MUNICIPAL SYSTEM OF ONTARIO.
(Chap. VIII., note 2.)

1. The County Council (1897) is composed of two County Councillors from each of the districts (4-9) into which, according to population, each county is divided. These councillors are elected for two years. Nominations take place on the second last Monday of the year, and the election, which is by ballot, on the first Monday of the new year. Each elector has as many votes as there are persons to be elected, and he may give all his votes to one person—a new way of voting.

The Warden is the presiding officer. He is elected annually by the County Councillors from among themselves. The County Council has control of the making of county roads and bridges, and the building of jails, court-houses and poor-houses.

The chief officers appointed by the Council are: Clerk, Treasurer, Public School Inspector, and Keeper of the Poor-House. The resolutions of the County Council are called By-laws.

2. Other Municipal Councils are composed as follows:
Cities—A Mayor and three Aldermen for each ward.
Towns—A Mayor and three Councillors for each ward.
Villages—A Reeve and four Councillors.
Townships—A Reeve, a Deputy- Reeve and three Councillors.

All of these officers are elected by ballot annually, on the first Monday of the year. The Chief Magistrate of each municipality is the Mayor or the Reeve, as the case may be.

Each Council has control of the raising of taxes for local improvements and for educational purposes. The officers of each Council are: The Clerk, Treasurer, Assessor, Collector and Health Officer, who are appointed annually. The resolutions of all these Councils are called By-laws.

IV. PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF ONTARIO.
(Chap. VIII., note 5.)

For educational purposes each township is divided into School Sections, each electing School Trustees, who ma-
age school affairs, engage teachers, and, through the local Municipal Council, levy taxes to meet the necessary expenses of the schools. Education is free and compulsory.

ELECTION TERMS.

1. When a new Parliament is wanted the Governor-General issues "writs" to each constituency calling upon the electors to choose a representative at a certain date fixed for the election.

2. A Constituency or Electoral Division is a part of the country which sends one or more representatives to Parliament.

3. The Electors are those who are qualified to vote for a representative. This qualification to vote is called the Franchise. Manhood Franchise gives a vote to all men over the age of twenty-one years. The vote is now taken by Ballot. The elector is thus free to vote for whom he pleases. This is called the Australian system of voting.

4. The Candidates are those who are endeavoring to secure the position of member of Parliament the one who receives the majority or the highest number of votes is declared elected. The candidate who has no one to oppose him is returned by acclamation.

5. A General Election is one in which every constituency must choose a representative at the same time.

6. A Bye-Election is one in which a single constituency chooses a representative. It is held between general elections, when on account of death, resignation, or unseating of a member of Parliament, the constituency is left without a representative.

7. A Plebiscite is a vote taken of all the electors of a province or country on some question of the day, and is intended to direct the Government how to act in that question.

PARLIAMENTARY TERMS.

1. A Representative Government is one elected by the people.

2. By Responsible Government we mean that the Ministry must have the support of a majority of the members of Parliament or resign office.

3. By Party Government we mean the practice of
choosing all the members of a Cabinet from one political party.

4. The Ministerial Party is the party in power.

5. The Opposition is the party in Parliament which is opposed to the Government. It watches and criticises each act, and aims to secure the reins of power.

6. The Prime Minister, Premier, or Leader of the Government is the person to whom the Governor-General has intrusted the management of the affairs of the nation.

7. The Cabinet or Ministry is the body of men who advise the Governor-General and otherwise carry on the government. Each Minister is chosen by the Premier and has charge of one branch or department of State.

8. A Coalition Ministry is one whose members are drawn from more than one of the parties in Parliament.

9. The Governor-in-Council is the Cabinet in Council with the Governor-General.

10. The Privy Council of Canada includes the members of the Cabinet, and those who have been members of the Cabinet, although the latter are members in name only.

11. To convene or summon Parliament is to call the members together to discuss the affairs of the nation.

12. A Session is that part of the year during which Parliament deliberates over the affairs of the nation and frames its laws.

13. The Speaker is the person chosen by the House of Commons to preside over its sessions. He must be a member of the House.

14. To adjourn Parliament is to dismiss the members to meet again at a certain time, when they may resume any unfinished business as if there had been no adjournment.

15. To prorogue Parliament is to close it at the end of a session. Any unfinished business held over for another session must be taken up as if nothing had been done about it.

16. To dissolve Parliament is to dismiss the members and call a new or general election.

17. The Governor-General convenes, prorogues and dissolves Parliament; but Parliament adjourns at its own pleasure.

18. The Speech from the Throne is the address of the Governor-General at the opening of Parliament. It is pre-
pared by the Ministry, and reviews the work of the year, speaks of the foreign relations of the nation and mentions the important questions which are to be brought up for consideration during the session.

19. A **Policy** is a statement by a party of its views on the questions of the day. Each point is called a **Plank**, and the whole policy is the **Platform** of the party.

20. The Fiscal **Policy** of a nation is the plan adopted by the Government for the purpose of raising a revenue.

21. The **Budget** is the financial statement made by the Finance Minister at each session of Parliament.

22. By the **Estimates** we mean the statement made to Parliament of the expected receipts and expenditure of the Government for the ensuing year.

23. The **Civil List** is the money required to meet the expenses of Civil Government, in other words, to pay the salaries of Cabinet Ministers and other officials in the various departments of the Government.

24. The **Journals of the House** (Hansard) are the books in which are kept the minutes or records of the work done each day by the House.

**HOW LAWS ARE MADE.**

1. A **Bill** is a statement of a proposed law.

2. An **Act of Parliament** is a Bill that has passed both Houses of Parliament and has received the signature of the Governor-General. It is then a law or statute.

3. The **Mover** is the one who proposes or introduces a Bill in Parliament.

4. The **Seconder** is the one who supports the mover in his proposal.

5. The Bill must pass its **First, Second and Third Reading** in each House before it is presented for the signature of the Governor-General.

6. All Bills connected with the **collection** or **expenditure** of **money** must originate in the House of Commons. All other Bills may originate in either House.

7. An **Order-in-Council** is a regulation made by the Governor-General and Ministry. It has the effect of law but must be ratified by Parliament.

8. A **Quorum** as applied to Parliament means the number of members required to be present before any business can be transacted.