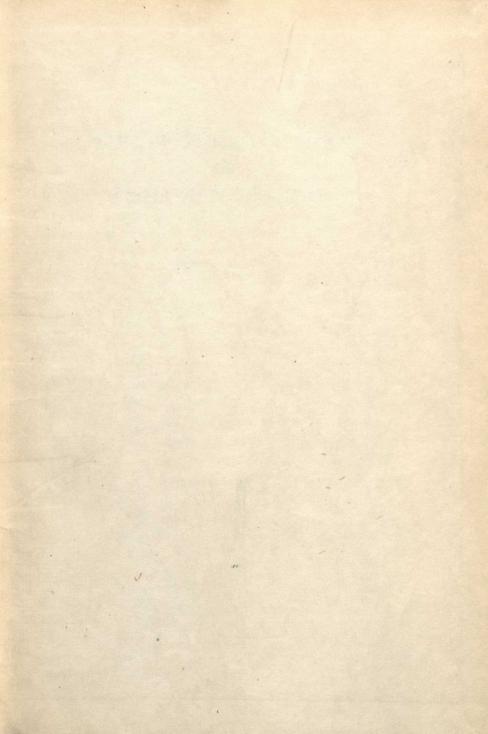
## The PICTURE GALLERY of CANADIAN HISTORY



Discovery to 1763

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Issurations drawn & cossected by C.W.JEFFERYS, R.C.A., LL.D. assisted by T.W.M. LEAN



VOL. 1
Discovery to 1763

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JEFFERYS, CW

### INTRODUCTION

THE history of a country is to be read not only in its written or printed records. These, while of the greatest value and importance, do not tell us all that we desire to know. Old buildings, early furniture, tools, vehicles, weapons and clothing, contemporary pictures of people, places and events must be examined to fill out the story.

Often such things are of equal or of greater importance than many of those preserved in verbal records. Often, too, they are more reliable. A tangible object cannot lie or equivocate so successfully as a word. A building or a four-poster bed expresses the personality of its maker, and unintentionally reveals some secrets that may cast a light upon his character or that of his time.

The pictorial collection herewith presented is an attempt to indicate the great quantity of such material available, and where it may be found, to stimulate interest in these things, and to suggest the possibilities of their greater use in the teaching, or the study, of Canadian history, local as well as general. I have tried to give some explanations of the meaning and the historical connections of the various things depicted; but these I hope will be only starting points for wider enquiry and more intelligent employment of the material here gathered. This is in no sense a history of Canada, nor a substitute for one. My text is confined to notes on those pictures which were not included in my previous book, *Canada's Past in Pictures*, or which suggested or seemed to require some verbal comment,

leaving the others to speak for themselves, as connected with subjects fully and excellently set forth in the works of our Canadian historians.

I have included a large number of my own imaginative pictorial reconstructions of Canadian history. For this apparent inconsistency I make no apology, since I have based them, in every instance, on such evidence, textual, material, or pictorial, as was available, and on the reasonable probabilities that the data suggested. At the same time I make no claim to their infallibility; new evidence comes to light from time to time which must alter or modify the previous conclusions of writer or artist alike. I hope, however, that I have made a clear distinction between my own imaginative drawings and the illustrations of actual places, persons, objects and events, whether depicted by artists of the past, or by myself and others today.

The collection therefore possesses a double character. The imaginative drawings include all those available which I think worth preserving as being fairly representative of my aim and effort over many years. My selection of source material has been guided by my experience of what I have found most necessary and useful in trying to visually reconstruct the life of the past. It is a glimpse into the workshop. Here are the raw materials, the tools of the trade, the things that must be used, whether in oral teaching, in pageantry and drama, or in pictorial representation. It has taken a wide search to gather them, and the collection here assembled is the work of a life-time of interest in Canadian history. I hope that it may be a guide and a time-saver for my fellow-workers, and an interesting pictorial survey of our past for the general reader.

It will be observed that some features often seen in many of our history books are missing. Some of these "old familiar faces," such as the portraits of Champlain and Frontenac, have been rejected because they have been proved to be spurious, or because, though depicted by contemporaries, they are misleading and incorrect in their details. A few have been omitted because they are to be seen frequently elsewhere, and the space they would occupy might be used for subjects less well known and of greater significance. Others have been left out for both reasons—for instance, Benjamin West's Death of Wolfe—even though they may have conspicuous merits as works of artistic imagination.

Opinions will differ as to the relative importance of the various subjects depicted. It is unwise to be dogmatic on this point; interest and emphasis shift with the passage of time; apparently trivial things are seen later to have been the germs of unexpected developments, or to throw a beam of explanatory light upon personages, or events, or the whole atmosphere and character of a period. My selection has been made with the aim of covering a wide field of activities, and appealing to many interests.

My obligations to my fellow-workers in Canadian history are so many and so great that I cannot make more than a general acknowledgment of my indebtedness. I cannot omit, however, the name of Dr. C. T. Currelly, from whom I have received much valuable information and advice, and whom I have freely consulted on many details of furniture construction, costume, the evolution and dating of arms and armour, etc. For assistance in making many of the drawings I am indebted to Mr. T. W. McLean, whose knowledge of the Canadian background has given a sympathetic and discerning touch to all his work. Miss Mary McLean also is responsible for some illustrations in the Indian section which required minute and careful drawing, as shown by the pages of snowshoes

and basketry, in which the various methods of weaving and plaiting are clearly depicted.

As far as possible, I think I have given the original sources from which the pictures were obtained. In some cases, neither the name of the artist nor the time and place of its making could be discovered; occasionally we have to be content with the information that the picture has been in such and such a place or family for many years. Such traditions, of course, are not entirely trustworthy, and we can only hope that confirmatory evidence may appear in course of time.

I shall be grateful to any reader who will call my attention to any errors of fact, pictorial or verbal, and will welcome any comment on my interpretations or explanatory remarks. Different inferences may well be drawn by different minds from the same facts, and I shall be glad to be made aware of other conclusions and better informed points of view than my own.

For the present edition a few corrections have been made in details of some of the drawings, in accordance with information supplied by readers and critics, for which I am grateful. A few additions have been made to the notes and bibliography.

CHARLES W. JEFFERYS.

York Mills, Ont. February, 1943.

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## PART ONE

## The Picture Gallery of Canadian History

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THESE first fifty pages contain a number of illustrations depicting primitive Indian life. Our knowledge of their conditions is obtained from the accounts of the early discoverers and missionaries, from objects found by digging the sites of their habitations, and from the later descriptions and drawings of white men who visited Indians living in primitive ways. Many features of their way of living are still uncertain, and it is impossible, in the present state of our knowledge, to give a complete picture of pre-historic Indian culture. The subject cannot be covered thoroughly within the limitations of space in a book such as this. For further details the reader should consult the section on Sources of Information. Illustrations will be included in later sections of the book depicting Indians during the periods of European settlement, when contact with the whites changed many of their methods of living.

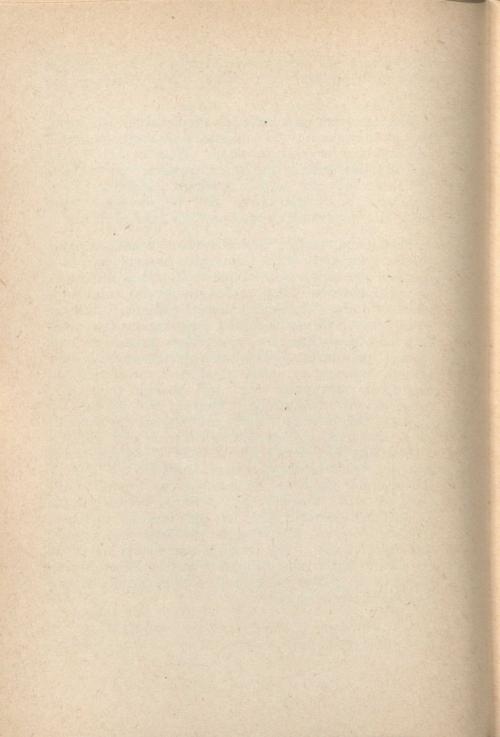
The Northern and Woodlands Indians were hunters and fishermen, having no settled habitations, though each tribe or group occupied its own vaguely defined hunting area. In addition to fish and game, they used wild fruits and berries and gathered wild rice for food. They sheltered themselves in wigwams covered with birch bark. In summer they travelled by the numerous waterways in canoes made of a wooden framework, over which were stretched sheets of bark or, in the extreme north, moose hide. In winter they used snowshoes. The canoe and the snowshoe are the masterworks of Indian handicraft.

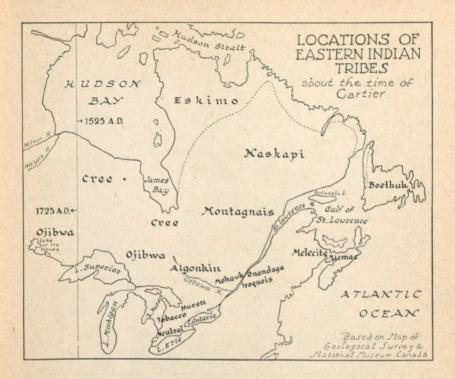
The Plains Indians were also nomadic hunters, depending largely on the buffalo, whose hide and flesh provided food, shelter and clothing, and coverings for their crude river-boats. Their shelters were teepees made of poles set together in the form of a conical tent and covered with buffalo hides. Before the white man came the dog was their only beast of burden, and it was not until the first half of the eighteenth century that horses, originally brought to this continent by the Spaniards, made their way northward to the Canadian tribes. Deer, antelope, wild fowl and fish, and above all, buffalo were their main food sources, though they also gathered berries and dug roots and tubers, especially the camas.

The West Coast and Mountain Indians, though they were fishermen and hunters, lived in more or less permanent villages of houses made of logs and planks which they split and hewed with stone axes and wedges. The salmon that frequented their coasts and rivers were their staple food supply, to which were added shellfish, game, roots, berries and fruits. Their canoes were of bark-covered frame construction for inland rivers and lakes, and dug-outs made from the huge firs and cedars for sea-going voyages. These log canoes, some of which were of great size, were hollowed out by charring, and by gouging with stone and bone chisels and axes. With these crude tools they became expert carpenters and carvers. They also learned to weave textiles for baskets, mats and clothing, using root fibres. especially cedar, and the wool of mountain goats and wild sheep. In design and execution these Indians were probably the most skilful native craftsmen in Canada.

The Atlantic Coast Indians were naturally fishermen, though they also hunted wild fowl, deer, caribou, moose, seal and bear for food and skins. They used both bark and dug-out canoes, and their wigwams were similar to those of the other woodland Indians. They developed some decorative skill in porcupine quill work and in painted designs on their skin garments.

The Agricultural Indians of Eastern Canada occupied the territory south of the Laurentian country, including parts of the region of the present Maritime Provinces. the St. Lawrence Valley, and especially the neighbourhood of Lakes Michigan, Huron, Erie and Ontario, The earliest white explorers of these regions found the Indians cultivating corn, pumpkins, beans, tobacco. squash and melons. This agricultural development. though rudimentary, made possible a more settled and organized community life; and though their food requirements involved both hunting and fishing, the tribes of this area had progressed beyond the nomadic stage and lived in compact settlements and villages. Community life among the Indians of eastern North America reached its highest development in the Iroquois Confederacy of Five Nations, living around Lake Ontario, their kinsfolk, the Hurons, between Lake Simcoe and Georgian Bay, and the Neutrals, in southwestern Ontario. As tribes the two latter are extinct: but descendants of the Iroquois are settled today on the Grand River near Brantford and at Deseronto on the Bay of Quinte in Ontario, and at St. Regis and Caughnawaga in Ouebec.

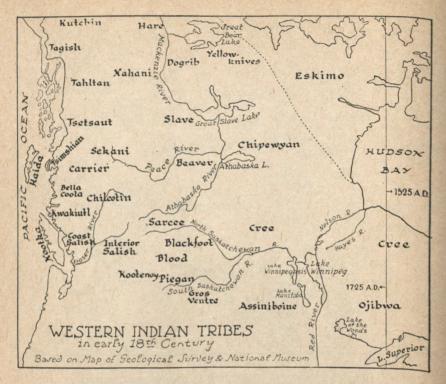




### LOCATIONS OF EASTERN INDIAN TRIBES

ABOUT THE TIME OF CARTIER

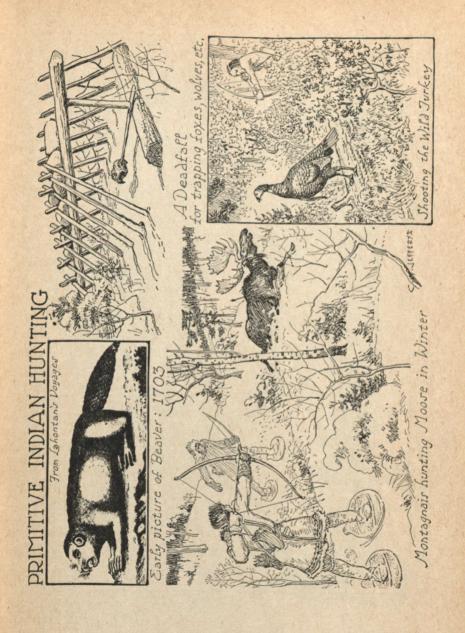
Based on Map of Geological Survey and National Museum, Canada



### WESTERN INDIAN TRIBES

IN EARLY 18TH CENTURY

Based on Map of Geological Survey and National Museum, Canada



## HUNTING THE BISON



Indians, hidden under wolf skins, crawl near enough to buffalo to shoot them with bows & arrows.

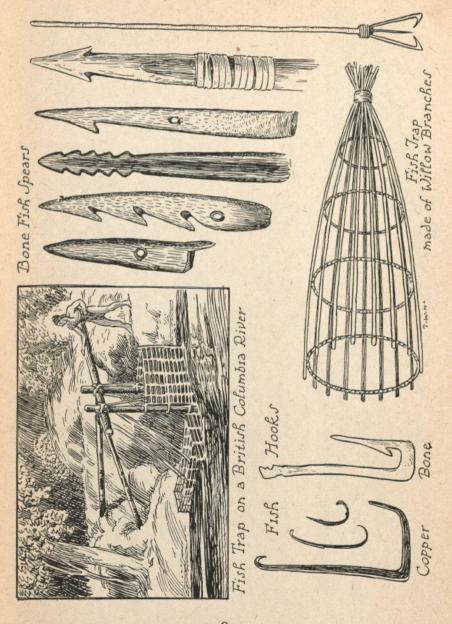


Above drawings bu Hunting

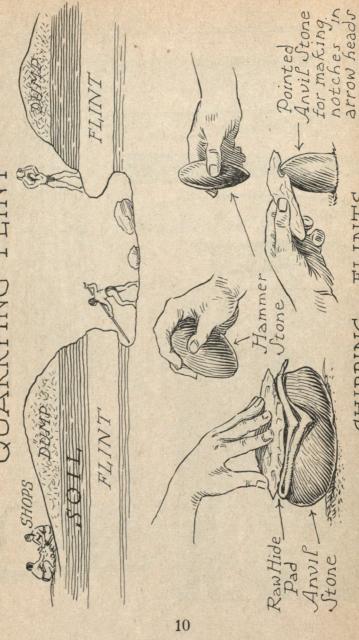
Note lines of boughs, sticks & piles of stones leading to entrance of enclosure.



Driving Buffalo into a Pound

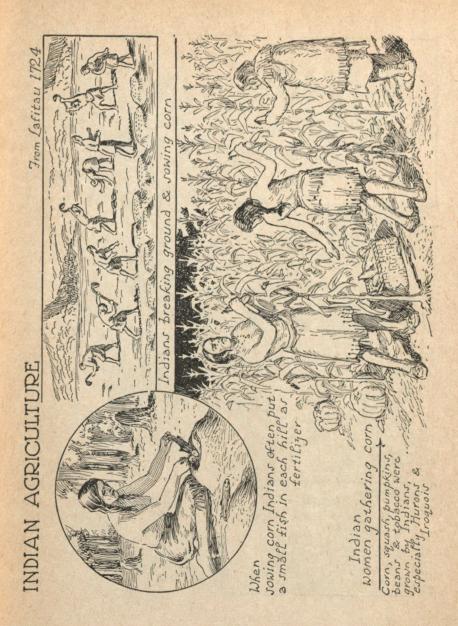


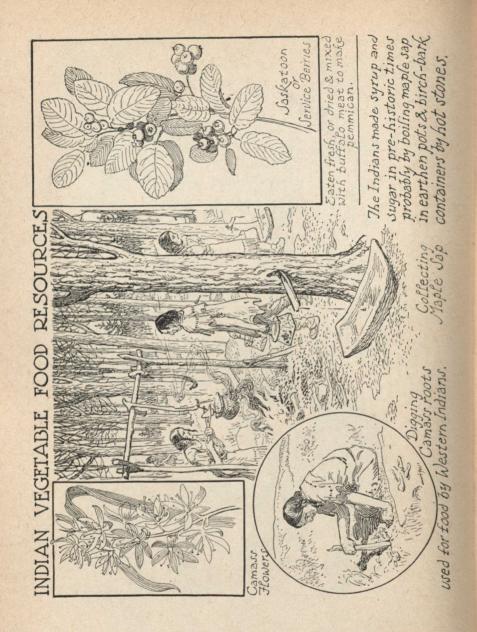
# QUARRYING FLINT

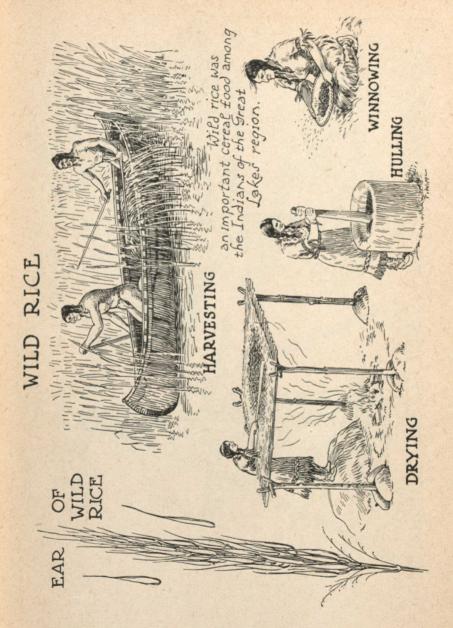


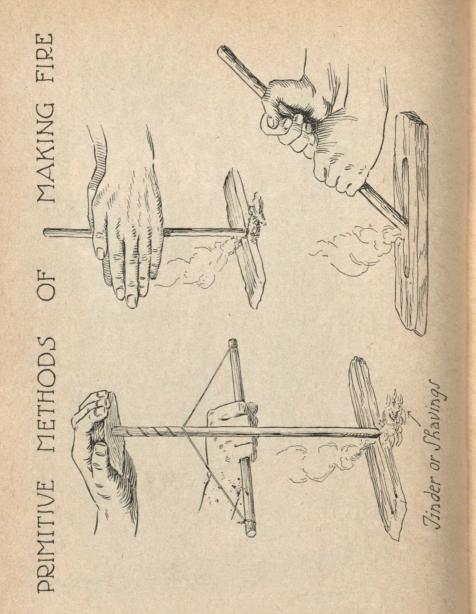
FLINTS

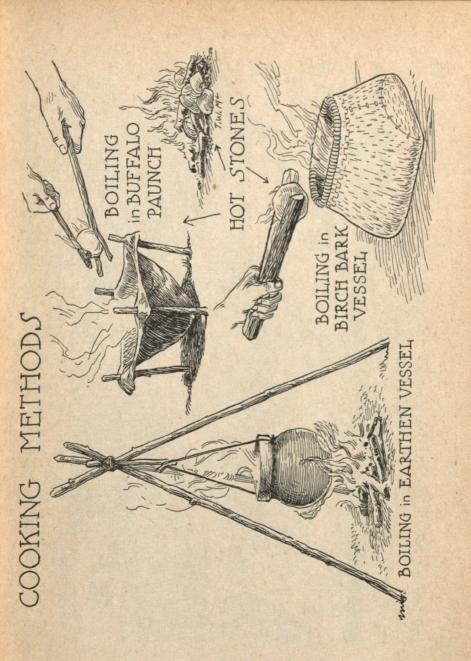
CHIPPING

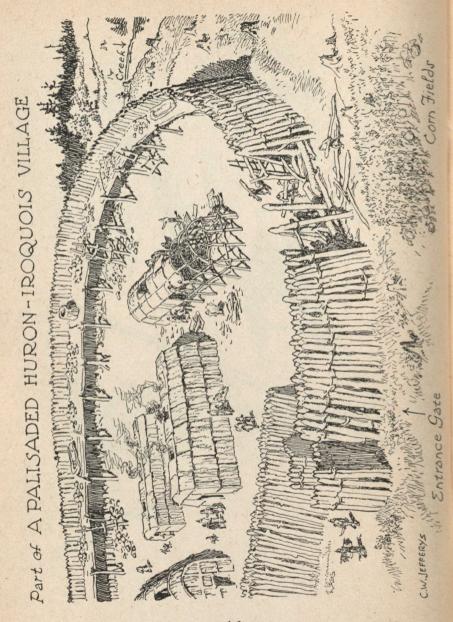


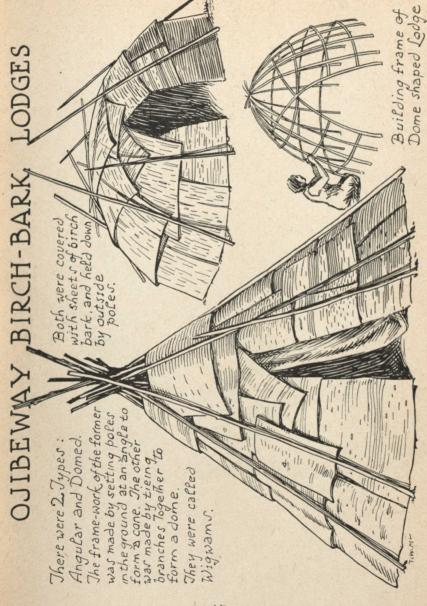


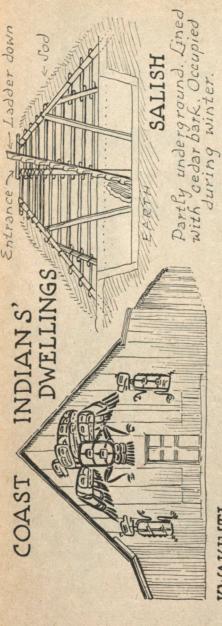












## KWAKIUTL

Occupied by several families. Sable ends. Posts and roof beams enormous, covered with upright cedar planks, split by stone adges and wooden wedges, smoothed by stone or shell chisels.



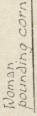
Occupied by several families.
Posts and rafters covered with cedar planks. Roofs slightly sloping.

From drawing by Webber In Cook's Third Voyage."

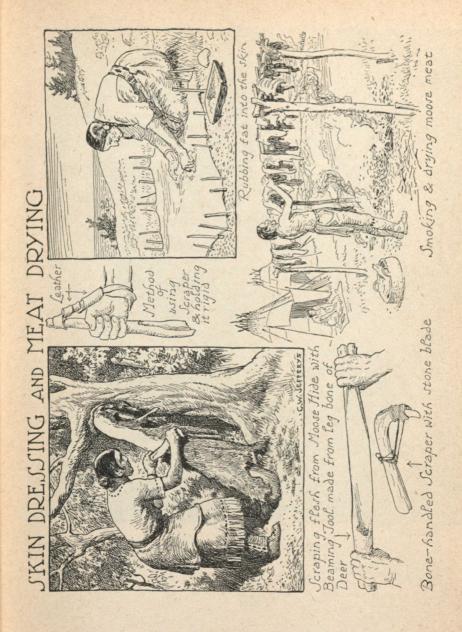
NOOTKA



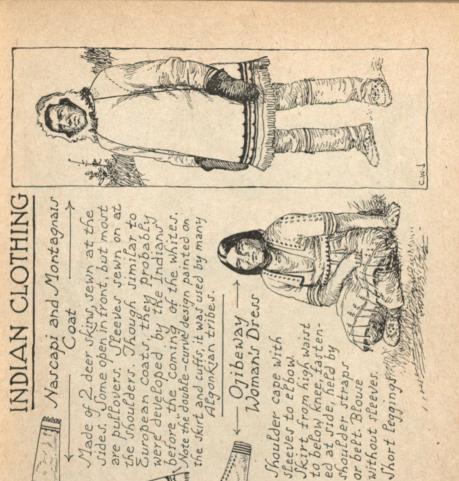
Warrior with shield & body-armor of sticks woven together

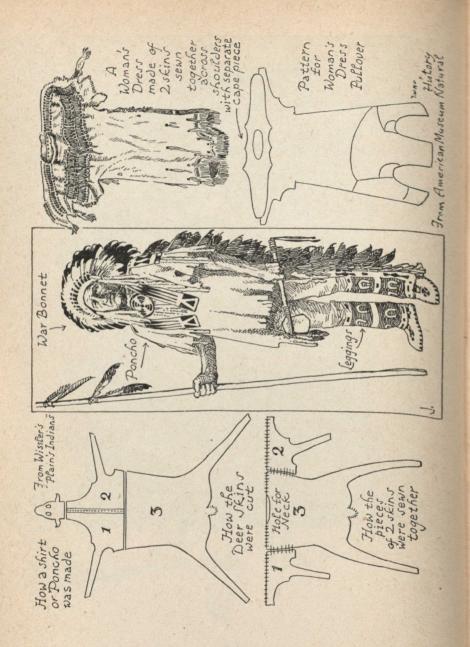




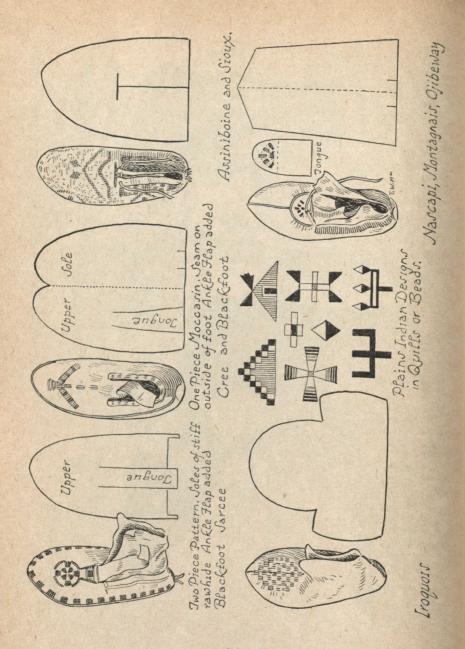


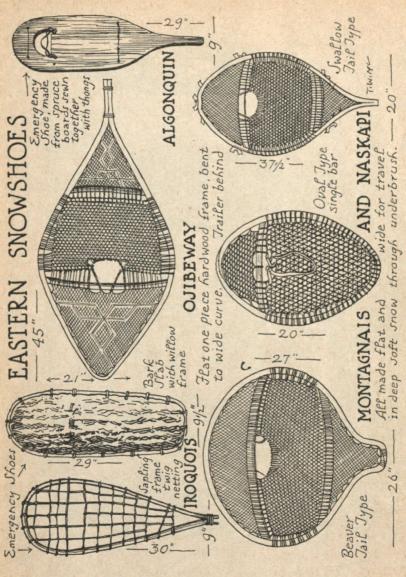




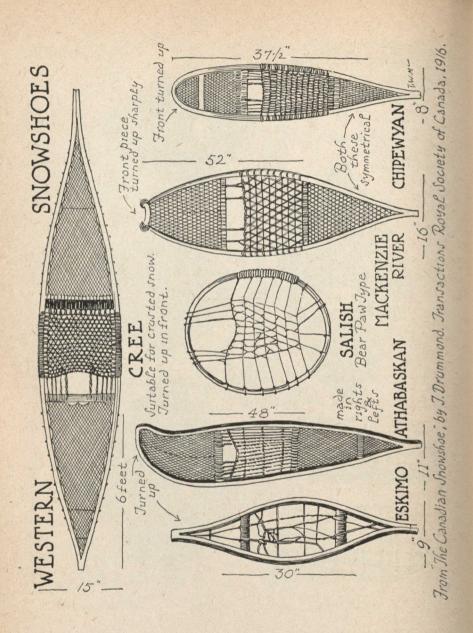








From The Canadian Snowshoe, by J. Drummond Transactions Royal Jouety of Canada, 1916.



### MAKING CANOES



Jelling trees by burning and chapping with a stone axe.



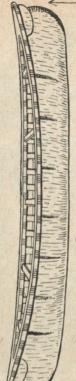
A Dugout Canoe was made by shaping a log, charring the inside, and then scraping it with sharp stones

## EASTERN INDIANS' CANOES

Birch Bark

Morthern Ontario.
Recurving ends to
revent shipping water.

OJIBEWAY



MALECITE Brunswick.

New Brunswick. | ends slightly decked and with side flaps.

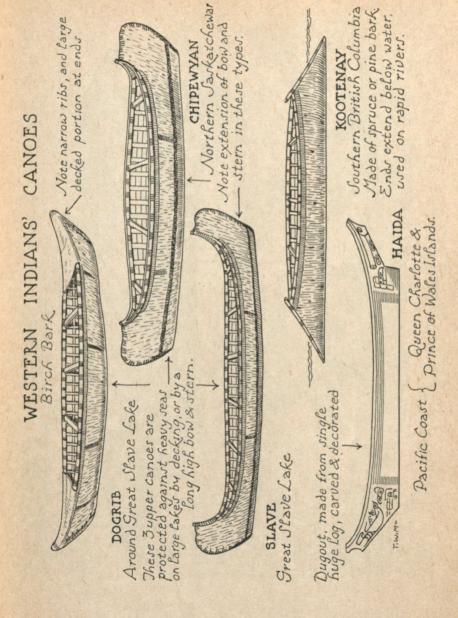
ALGONQUIN

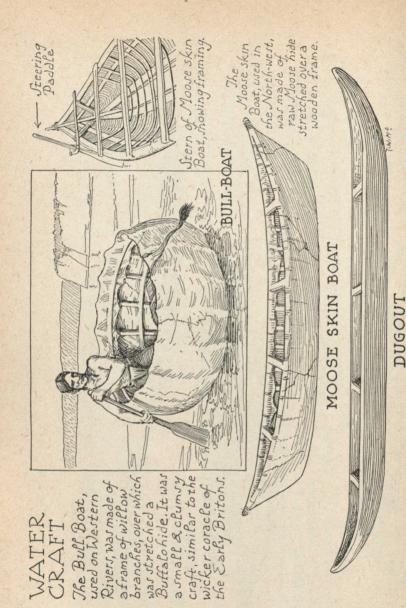
Northern Ontario &

Ends almost straight. Piece of bark set in middle of sides.

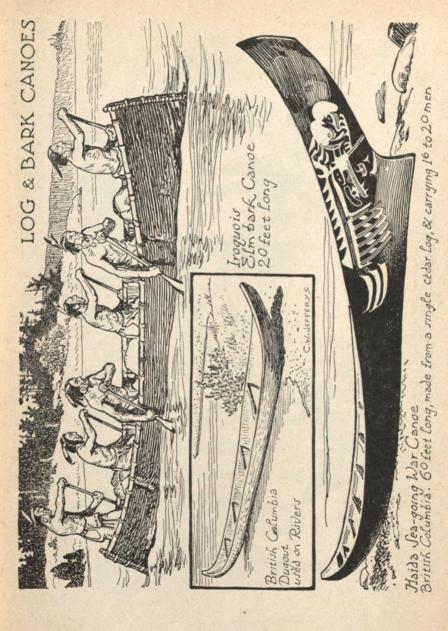
Northern Ouebec & Labrador

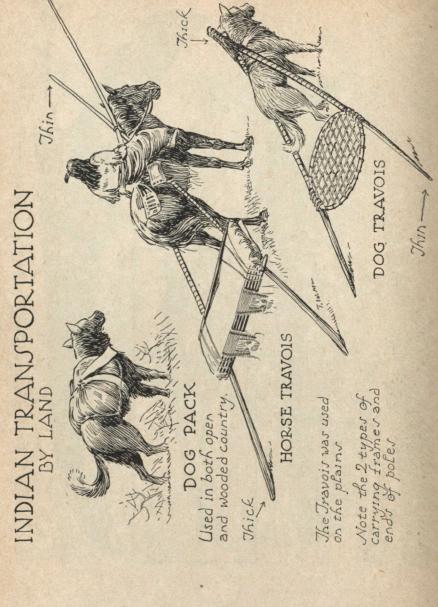
Note different curvatures of ends.



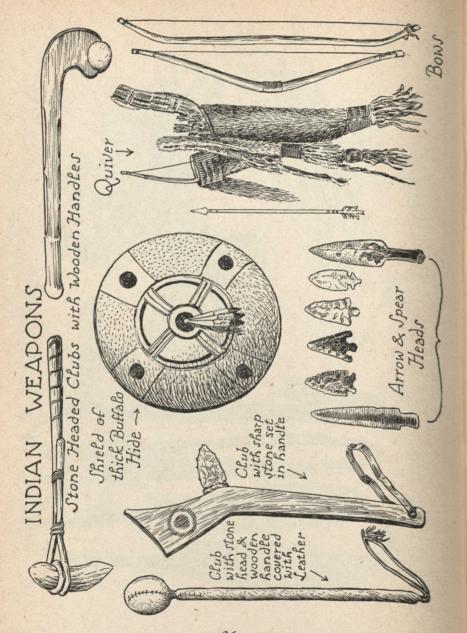


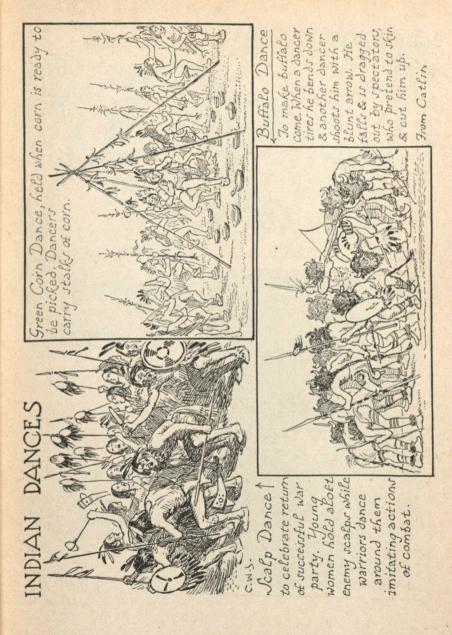
Hewn out of a single large log. Used on lakes & rivers in thickly wooded districts.

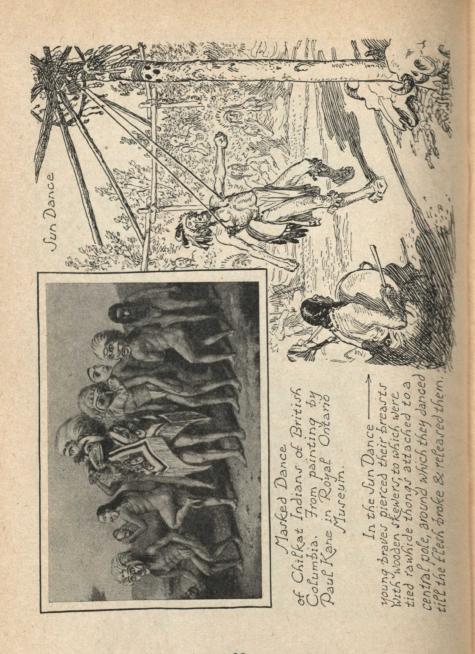


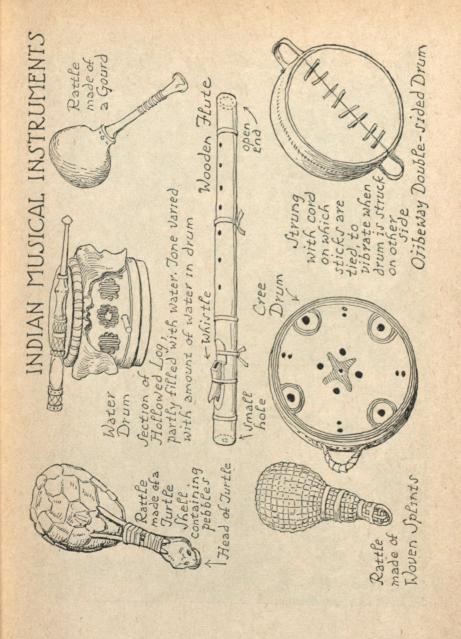


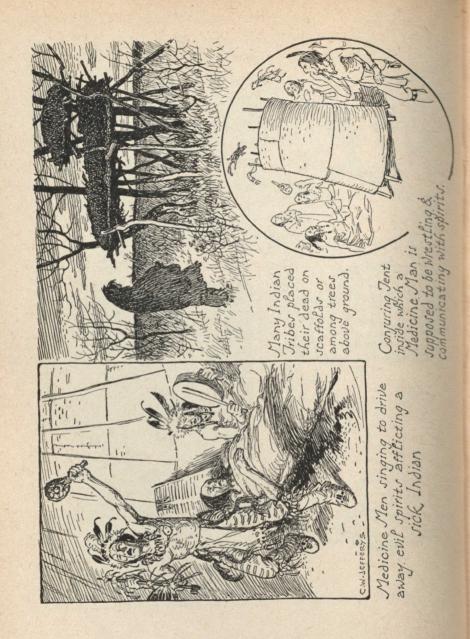


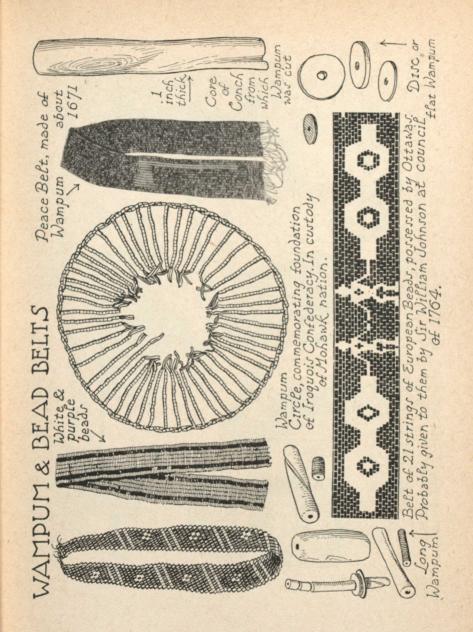




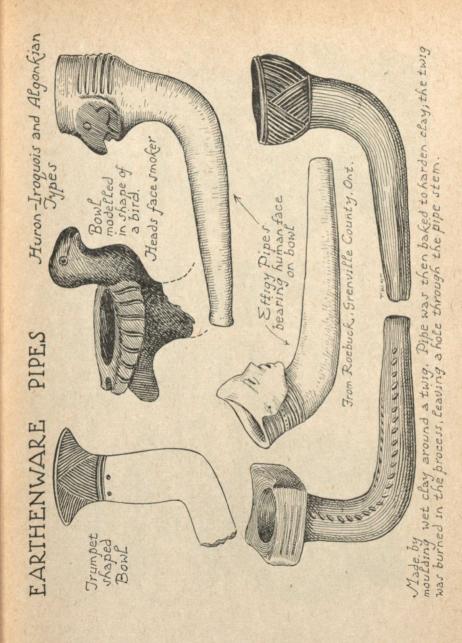


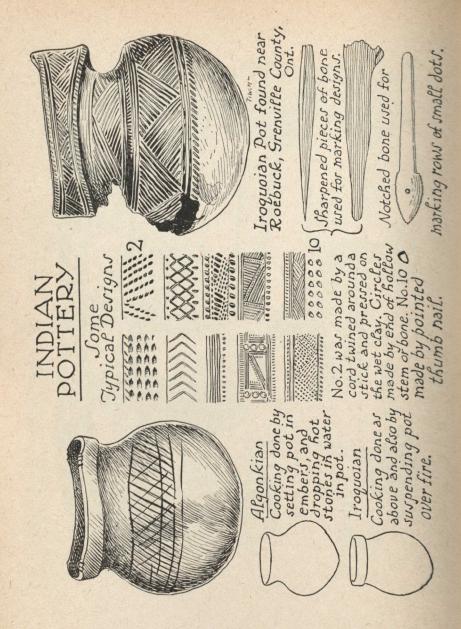






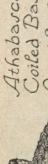




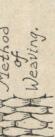


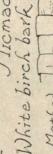


## INDIAN

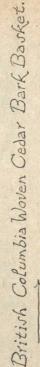


Athabascan
Coiled Basket.
Osier & spruce root.
Method
Meaving.











Haida Rain Hat of twined spruce root fibre. Design bainted in red & black.

# WESTERN INDIAN BASKET WORK

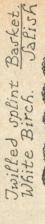


(illoet

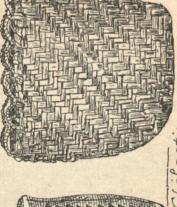
Darying Basket Juigs & Spruce Roots



Folding Basket, Jwined Straw & Spruce Roots.

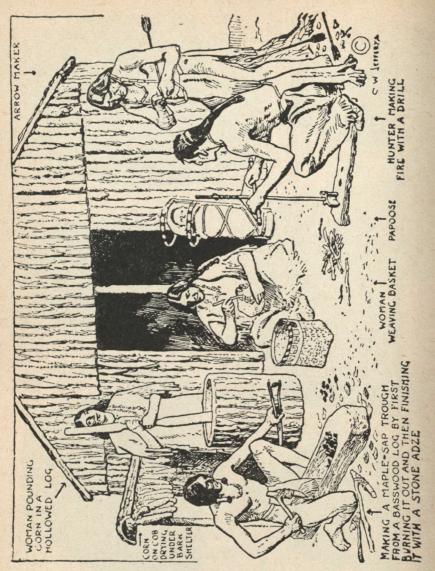


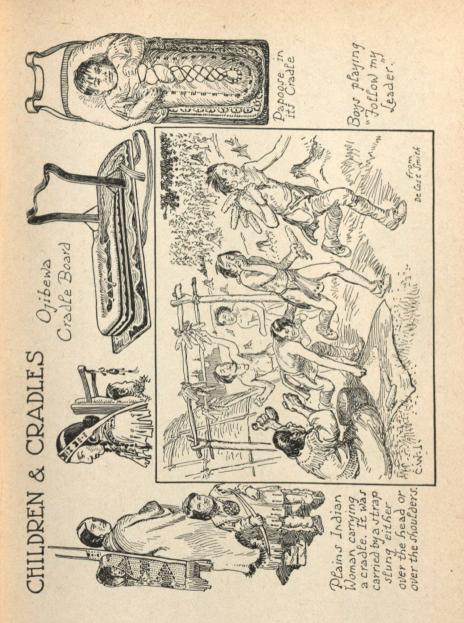
Liftoet

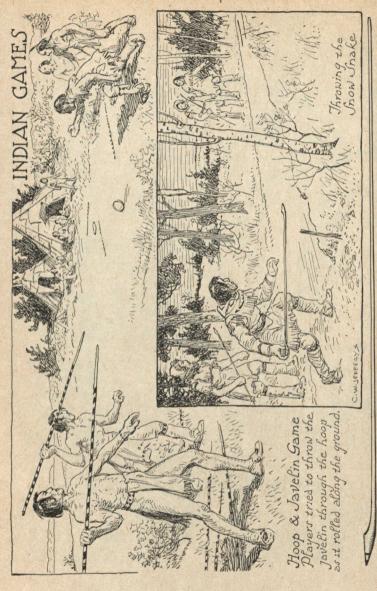


Chilcotin

Salish

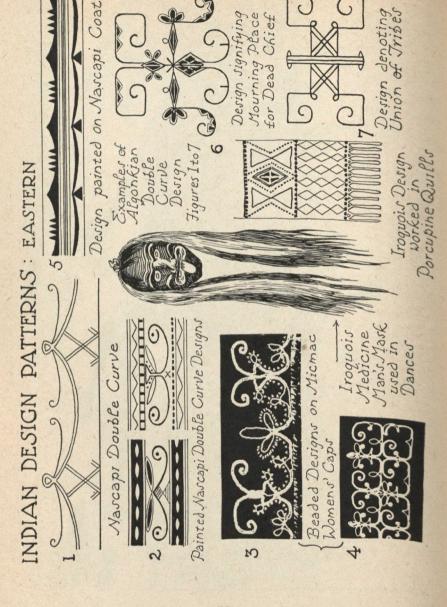


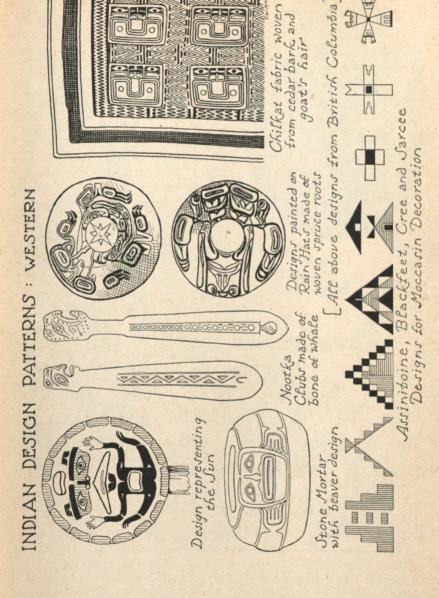




The Snow Snake was a smooth hickory rod 4 to Tfeet Long, about linch thick, with round head slightly turned up. It was held as in picture & thrown along crust of snow which had been rolled hard & smooth The player whose snake slid farthest was the winner.









### NOTES ON PART ONE

Page 5

The Eastern Indian tribes formed two main groups, speaking

different languages: the Iroquoian and the Algonkian.

In 1535 Cartier found Iroquoians occupying the St. Lawrence region, including the villages of Stadacona (Quebec) and Hochelaga (Montreal). Seventy years later Champlain found this territory in the possession of Indians whose language was different from that recorded in a list of words made by Cartier. Evidently during this period the Iroquoians had been pushed out of the St. Lawrence valley by the more northern and eastern tribes of Algonkians. By Champlain's time the Iroquoians were settled around Lake Ontario and north of Lake Erie.

The Algonkians were the most wide-spread group of Indians speaking much the same language. They extended from the

Atlantic coast to the western prairies.

### Page 6

When the white men came into contact with the western Indians early in the eighteenth century, they found them grouped into four great language divisions:

1. The western extension of the Algonkians.

2. Athapaskans, occupying the country north of the Churchill River

to the Eskimo territory and the Yukon.

3. Siouans, composed of Gros Ventres and Assiniboines, or, as they were sometimes called, Stoneys, in the country south of the Algonkian group. Later the Stoneys moved west to the foothills.

4. Pacific Coast and Mountain Indians, comprising several tribes,

speaking different languages.

The general locations of the tribes are shown on the map, which is based on the excellent coloured map in *The Indians of Canada*, by Diamond Jenness.

### Page 16

Cartier and Sagard, in their narratives, give us a good idea of the construction of a typical palisaded Huron-Iroquois village. Cartier thus describes Hochelaga:

"The village is circular and is completely enclosed by a wooden palisade in three tiers like a pyramid. The top one is built crosswise, the middle one perpendicular, and the lowest one of strips of wood placed lengthwise. The whole is well joined and lashed together after their manner and is some two lances in height. There is only one gate, and that can be barred up. Over this gate and in many places about the enclosure are galleries with ladders, which galleries are provided with rocks and stones for defence."

Sagard's residence of several months in Huronia enabled him to give a more detailed description. He says that in entering the gate of the palisaded village "one is forced to pass turning sideways and not striding straight in." He also tells us that in choosing a site for a fortified village they take care

"that it shall be adjoining some good stream, on a spot slightly elevated and surrounded by a natural moat if possible . . . that the town shall be compact, yet with a good space left empty between the lodges and the walls so as to be able the better to defend themselves against the enemies' attacks. They move their towns every ten, fifteen, or thirty years when they find themselves too far away from wood, which they have to carry on their backs tied up and attached to a collar resting and supported on their forehead. They move their town or village also when the land is so exhausted that their corn can no longer be grown on it in the usual perfection for lack of manure. Their lodges are constructed like garden arbours covered with tree-bark, twenty-five to thirty fathoms long, and six in breadth, with a passage down the middle ten to twelve feet wide. At the two sides there is a bench four or five feet high on which they sleep in summer, and in winter they sleep below on mats near the fire. The space underneath these benches they fill with dry wood to burn in winter, but the great logs they pile in front of their lodges or store them in the porches . . . In one lodge there are many fires, and at each fire are two families, one on each side. There is smoke in them in good earnest, which causes many to have serious trouble with their eyes, as there is no opening except one in the roof of the lodge.

The illustration is drawn from these descriptions, and from engravings in the works of Cartier and Champlain.

### Page 21

The beaming tool was so named because the skin to be dressed was laid over a smooth log or beam from which the bark had been stripped. The beam was placed in a sloping position, one end on the ground, and the other either braced against the abdomen of the worker, or the trunk of a small tree at the base of a low branch. The tool, gently pressed against the skin covered beam, was drawn downwards to scrape off the hair.

Pages 22 to 26

The clothing of the Indians varied according to the nature of the country which they inhabited. In addition to the skins of fur-bearing animals, which they used as robes, they also fashioned garments fitted to the body, illustrations of which are shown on

these pages.

It should be observed that the Indians of the woods never wore long and elaborate feather head-dresses as did the plains Indians. These would be quite unsuitable in the tangled underbrush of the forests and the bushes bordering the waterways. Pictures are incorrect which show Indians in the woods wearing western war-bonnets, instead of one or two feathers, which was their practice whenever they wore any at all. Only on a few ceremonial occasions did some of the woods Indians wear a sort of crown of feathers arrayed in a circle round the head; but this was never worn when travelling or hunting. Notches were sometimes cut in the feathers and their tips dyed with red to denote the rank of their wearers or to indicate some exploit.

Moccasin patterns varied considerably, the principal difference consisting in the position of the seam joining the sole and the upper. In general the woods Indian moccasin was made large and loose, and had the sole drawn up well over the foot and puckered in front where the upper was sewn on just below the ankle. This type was adapted for travel in heavy snow, in wet weather and on swampy ground. The plains Indian moccasin generally had a stiffer, flat sole, sewn on to the upper around the foot, as in our boots and shoes. Usually these western moccasins fitted the foot more snugly, its front following its shape to a point at the big toe. Moccasins were often made from old mooseskin robes, which were greasy, and therefore resisted moisture better. Needles, awls, or bodkins were made from splinters of bone ground to a sharp point. Thin tendons and sinews of deer and other animals were used for thread.

Page 33

The elm-bark canoe was not equal to the birch-bark for speed, portaging or durability. It was heavy, difficult to put together, almost impossible to render water-tight, and split easily on contact with rocks. It was generally used as a hastily-constructed emergency craft for short voyages. The country south of Lake Ontario did not contain birch trees of the size and quality found

farther north. The Iroquois, therefore, were frequently compelled to use elm bark; but they procured birch bark wherever it was possible.

#### Page 51

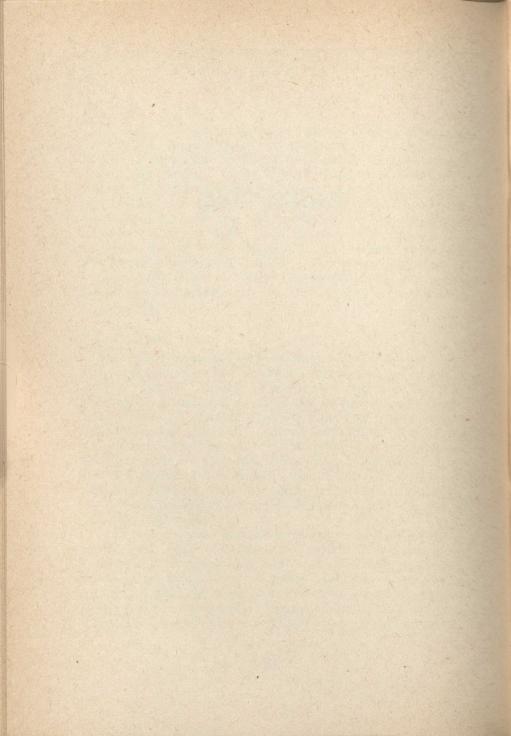
Lacrosse was developed from an Indian ball game in which a large and variable number of players took part. The name was given by the French on account of the stick by which the ball was caught and thrown. In its original shape this resembled a bishop's crozier, the handle being bent round to form a circle tied together with thongs of gut or rawhide to make a pocket. Later the pocket or bag was lengthened so that it became triangular in shape rather than circular. The game is not mentioned by Cartier nor Champlain. The earliest reference to it is in the Jesuit Relations of 1636. Later descriptions are to be found in the Journal of Father Charlevoix, in the Manners of the Savages by Lafitau, and with illustrations in the works of George Catlin.

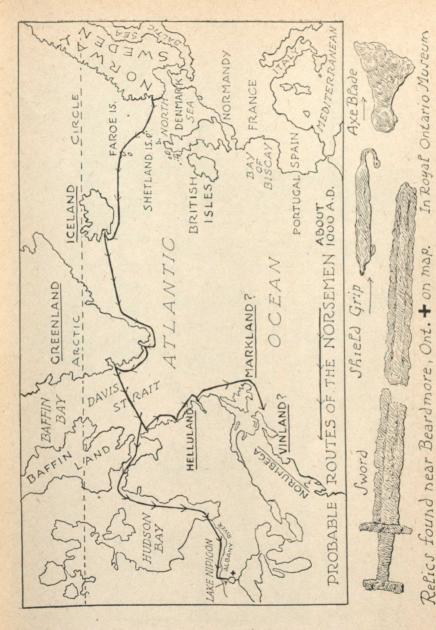
### Pages 52 to 54

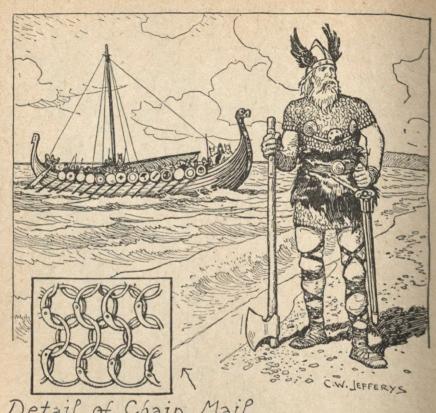
The Indians decorated their clothing, utensils, weapons, etc., with designs created by themselves, and applied by means of painting, carving, incising, weaving and embroidery. Each great region of the country developed its own type of design. Some of the most distinct styles are illustrated in these pages; but for detailed information special books must be consulted and museum collections must be examined. The best introduction to the study of Canadian Indian design is An Album of Prehistoric Canadian Art, by Harlan I. Smith, issued by the Victoria Memorial Museum, Ottawa, which includes many drawings, and a list of books and articles on the subject, and of museums containing specimens.

Much of the Indian decoration of today has been influenced by European designs, materials and tools; but even when this is the case, native originality is often seen in their application. Thus, in particular, the tall totem poles placed outside the houses date from the coming of the whites, who brought steel tools which made it possible to produce such elaborate objects. Further information concerning them will be given in Vol. 2.

### PART TWO

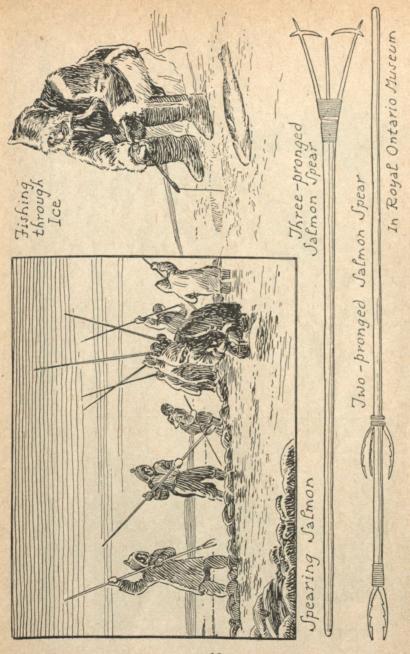




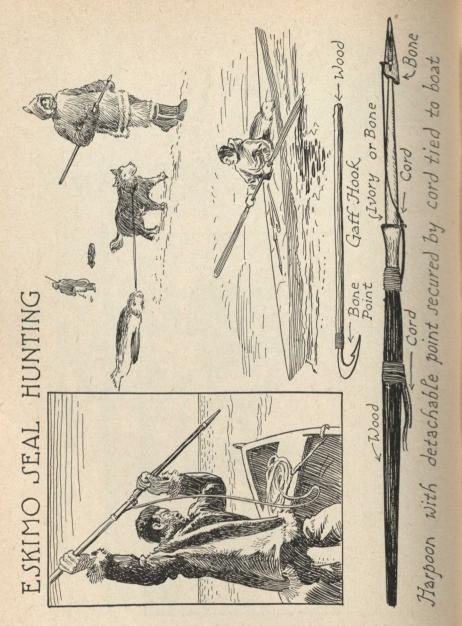


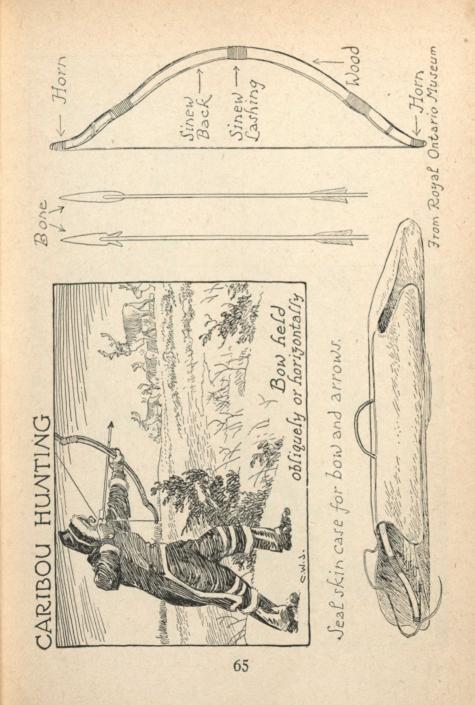
Detail of Chain Mail

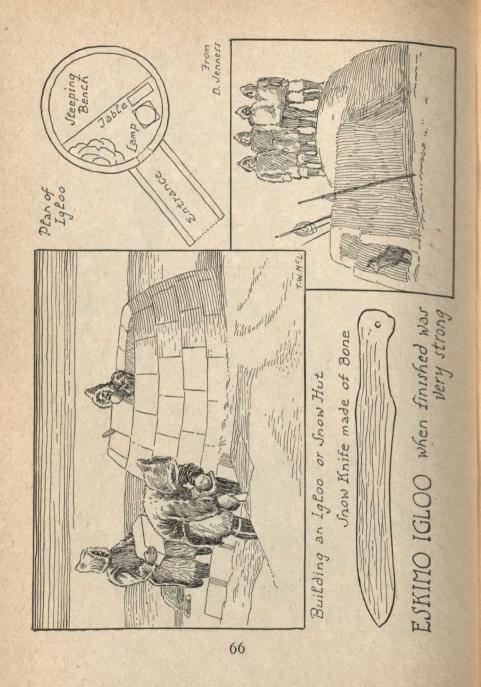
VIKING WARRIOR AND VESSEL

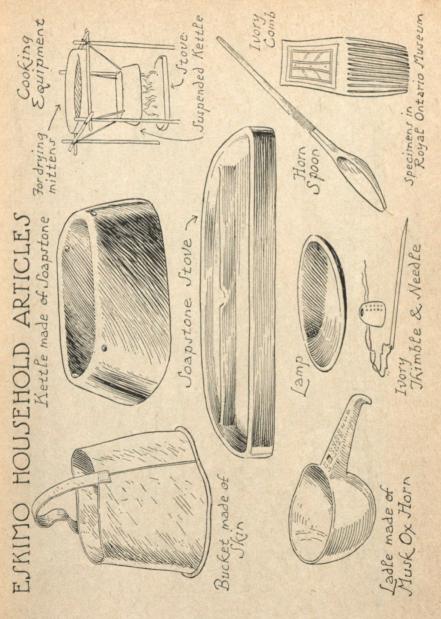


ESKIMO FISHING

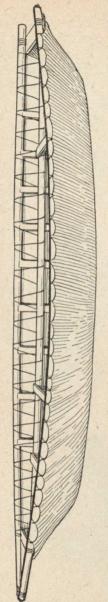






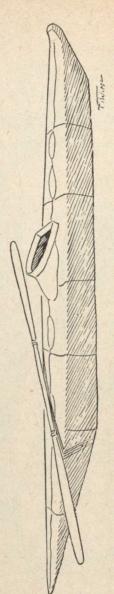


# ESKIMO CRAFT



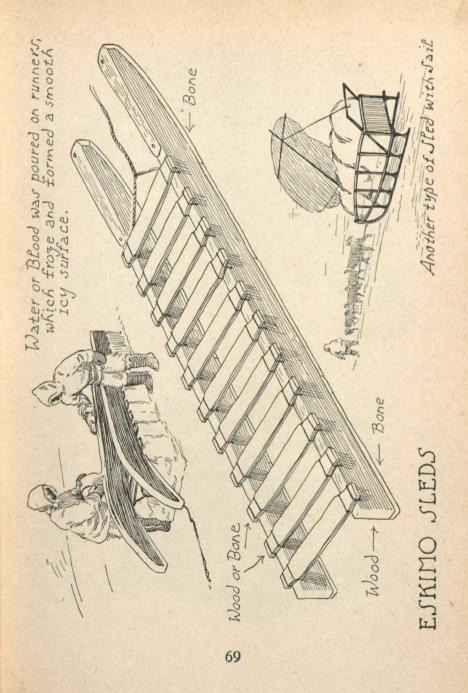
### UMIAK

Used for travelling along sea coast. Open boat, large enough to carry several people. Propelled by oars, steered by paddle.



## KAYAK

One man boat, used for hunting, propelled by double-bladed paddle. Entirely covered, except for opening in which paddler sits. His oiled skin jacket is fastened over edges of man-hole to prevent water entering. Both boats covered with seal skin.



# EJKIMO COSTUMES



Copper Eskimo from near Coronation Gulf from Indians of Canada"

Model and Costume in Royal Ontario Museum ESKIMO COSTUMES



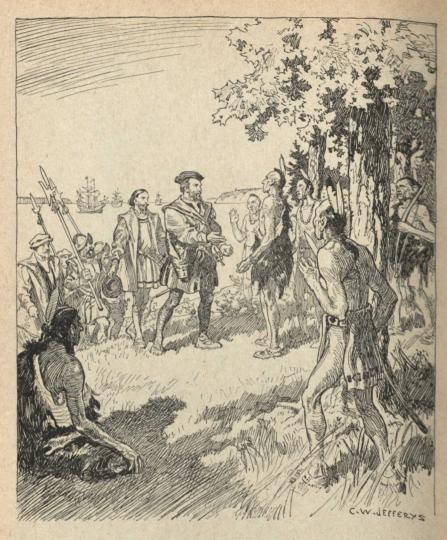
Mackengie River Eskimo



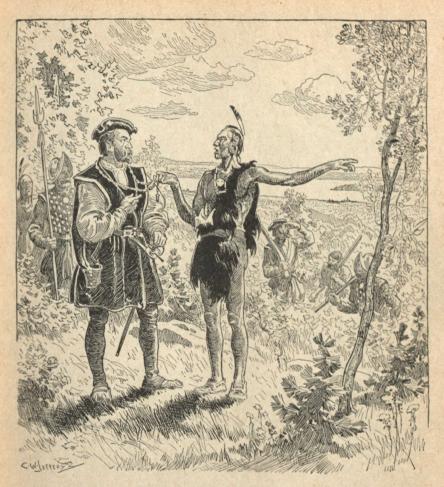
JOHN CABOT SIGHTING THE NEW FOUND LAND, 1497



CARTIER ERECTING A CROSS AT GASPÉ, 1534



CARTIER MEETS THE INDIANS OF THE ST. LAWRENCE, 1535



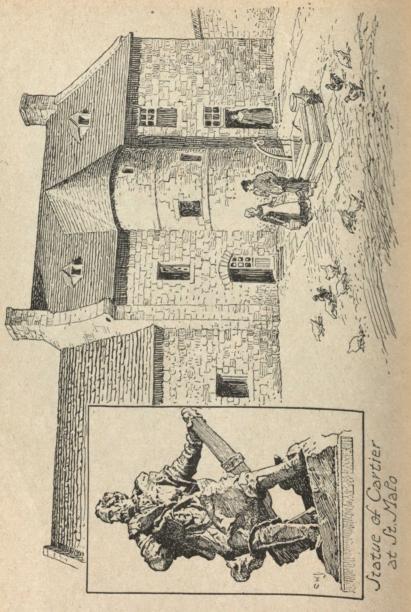
CARTIER AT HOCHELAGA, 1535

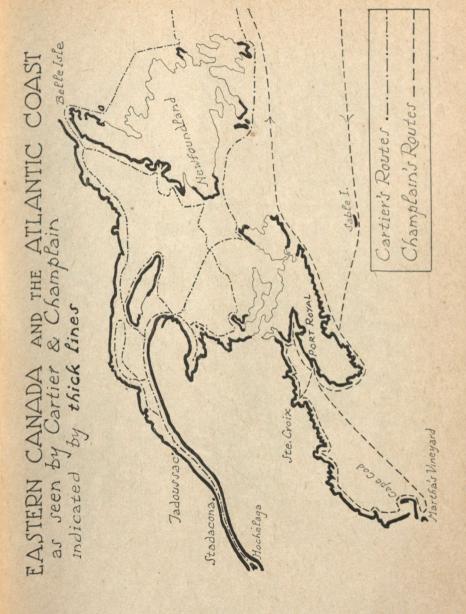


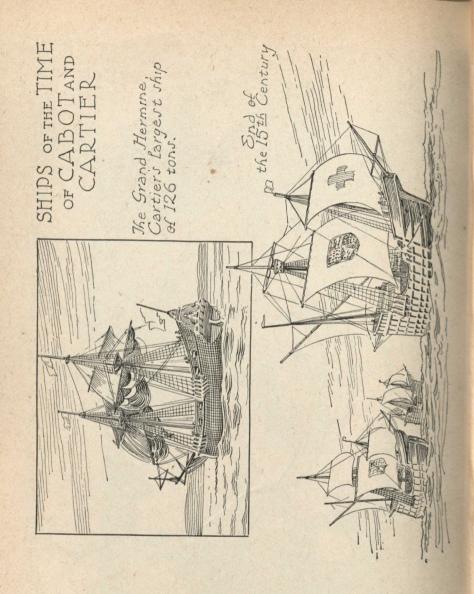
CARTIER'S COMPANY PRAY FOR RELIEF FROM THEIR SICKNESS IN THE WINTER OF 1535

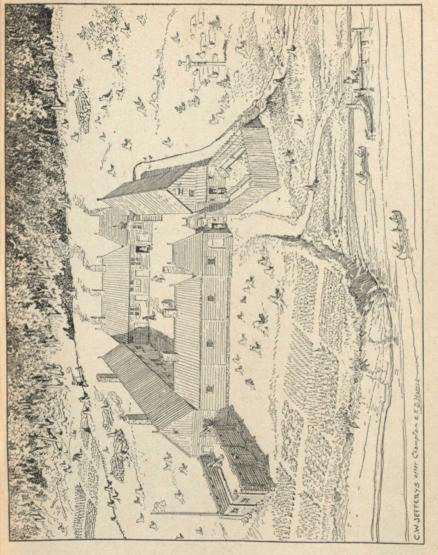


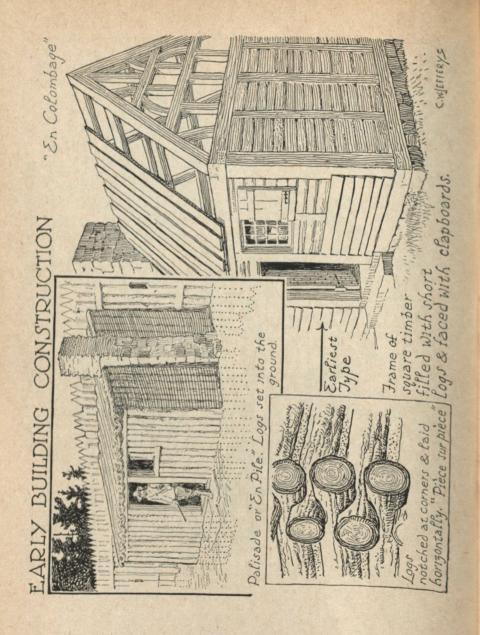
THE FIRST PRESCRIPTION IN CANADA, 1536



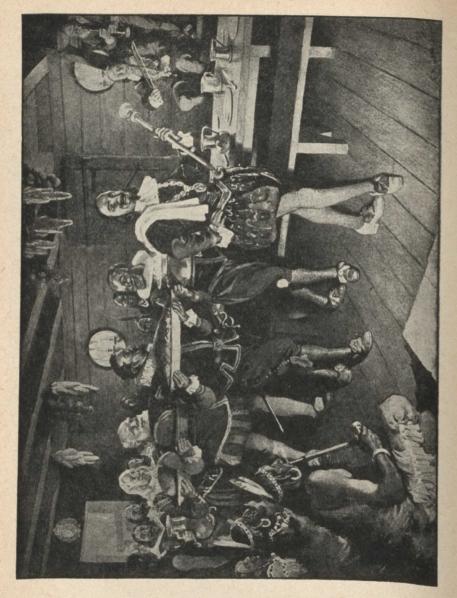


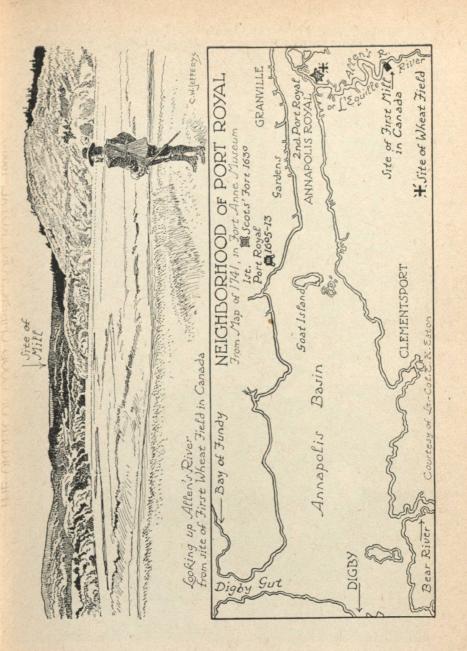






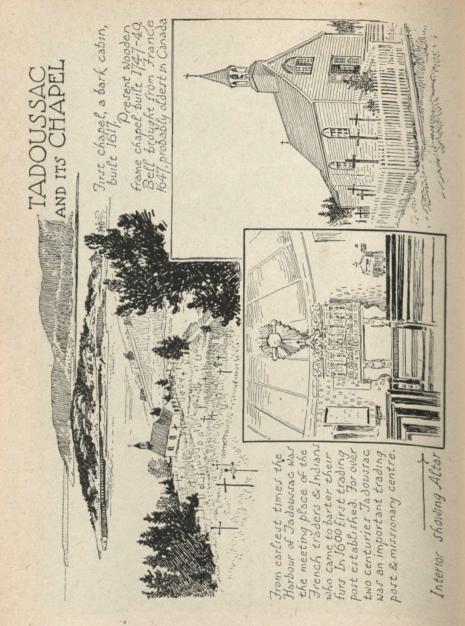


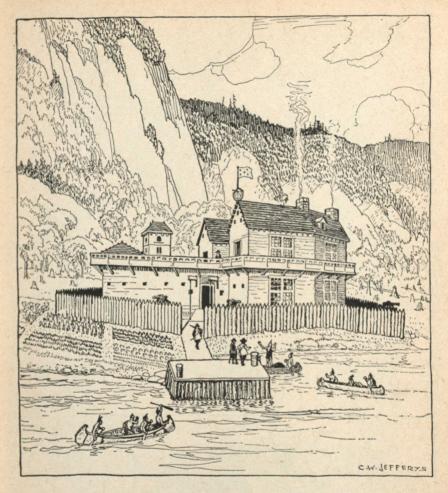






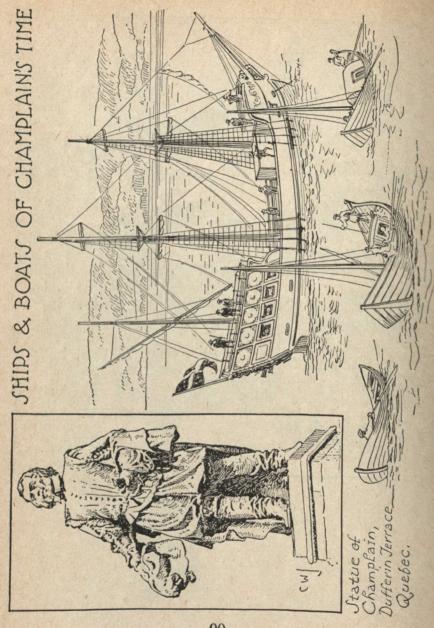




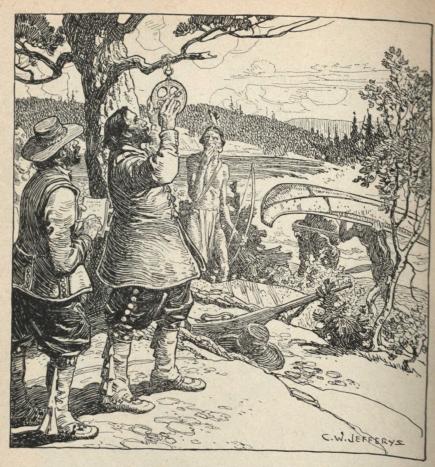


THE HABITATION OF QUEBEC, 1608

Redrawn from engraving in Champlain's Works

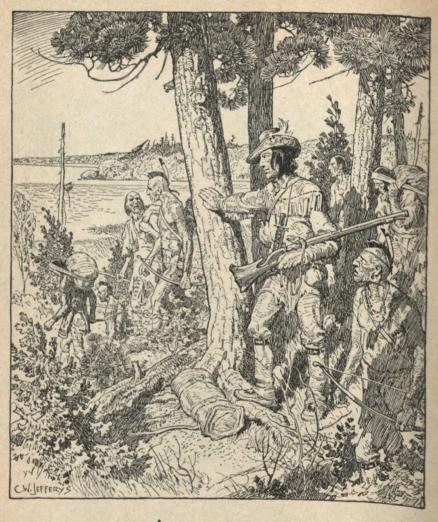


HAMPLAIN'S FIGHT WITH THE IROQUOIS, 1609



CHAMPLAIN TAKING AN OBSERVATION WITH THE ASTROLABE, ON THE OTTAWA, 1613

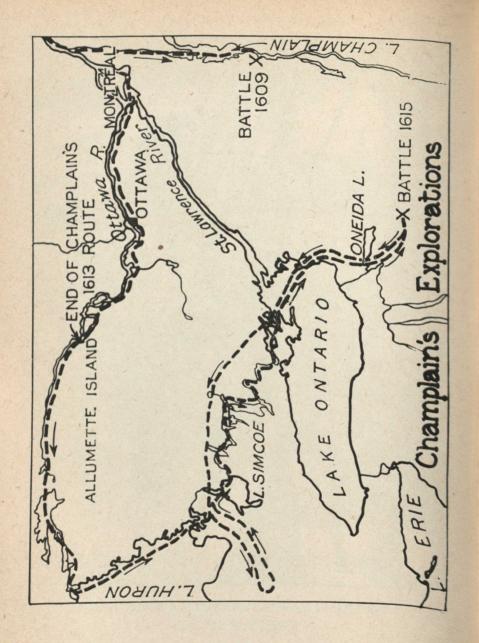




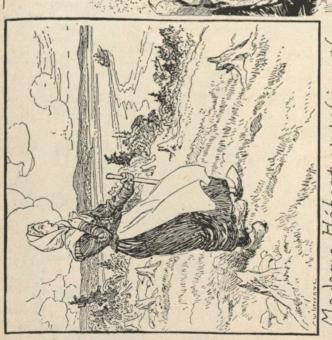
ÉTIENNE BRÛLÉ AT THE MOUTH OF THE HUMBER, 1615



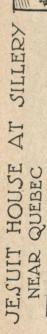
CHAMPLAIN LEAVING QUEBEC, A PRISONER ON KIRK'S SHIP 1629







Madame Hébert watching the departure of the French from Quebec after its capture 1628



Probably the oldest house in Canada. Built in 1637 by Father Le Jeune, occupied next year by the Jesuits as Indian Mission. Burned in 1657, only stone walls remaining. Rebuilt same year.

Tront View

Walls date from 1637.

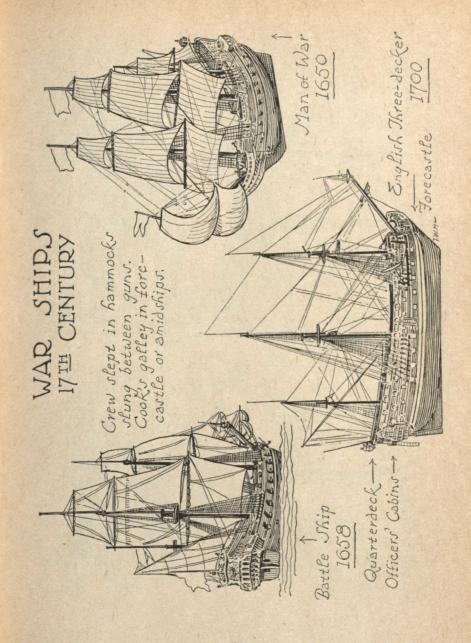
Wearly all the interior is of 1657. Roof partly wooden shingles, partly tin.

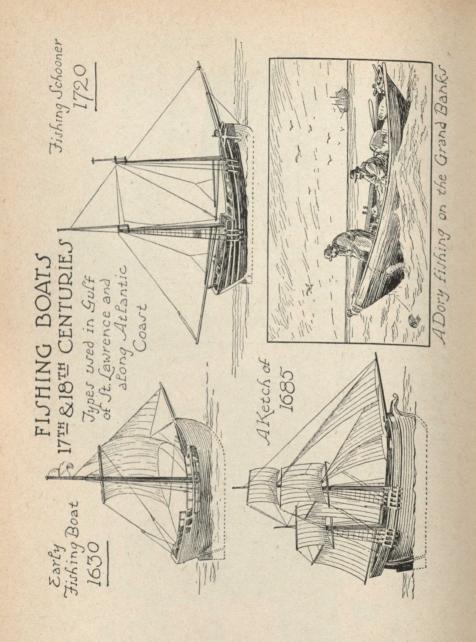
Tront and back plastered.

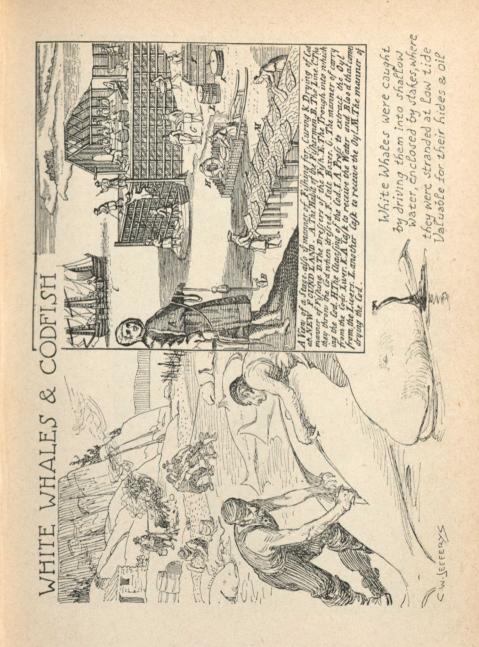
Tront and back plastered.

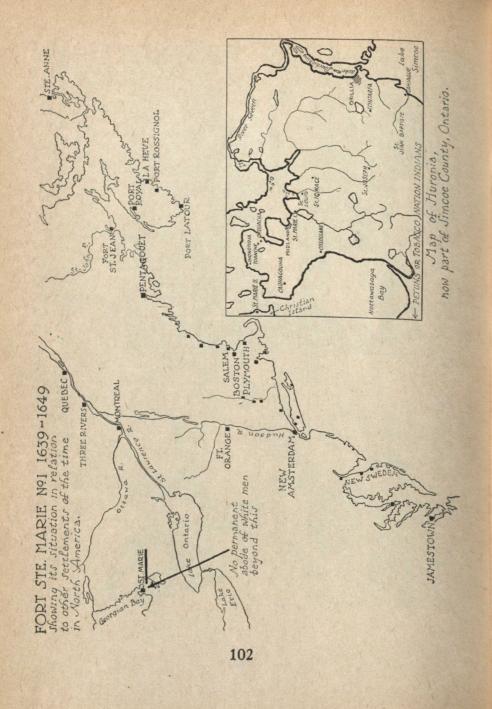
Sable ends covered with clapboards and shingles.

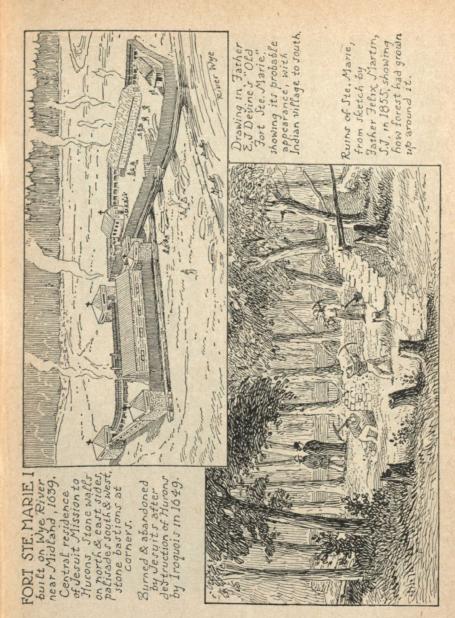
BackView

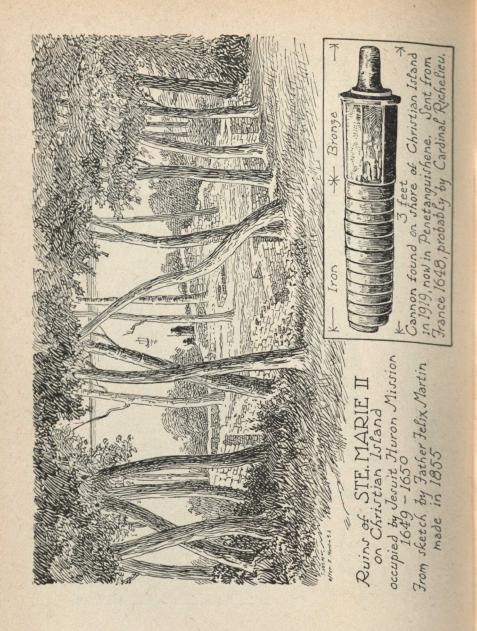












# JESUIT MARTYRS AND MISSIONARIES

Brébeuf, Salemant & Jogues were killed by the Iroquois & are now cononized as Jaints.



Jean de Brébeuf Silver Bust Containing his Skull. In the Hotel Dieu, Quebec.

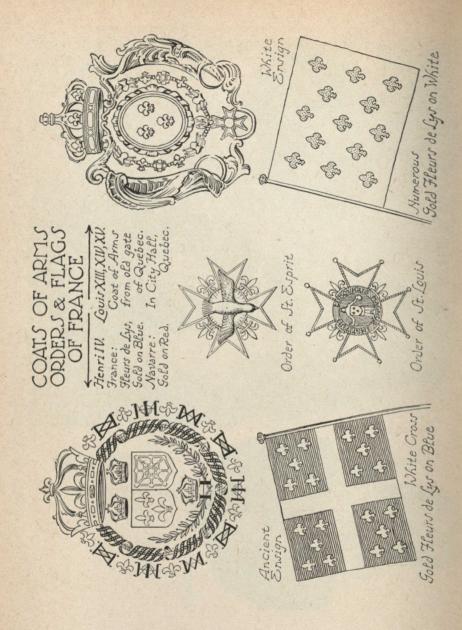
Losac Jogues
From Contemporary
drawing, showing
his mutilated
hands.





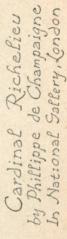
MARTYRDOM OF BRÉBEUF AND LALEMANT, 1649

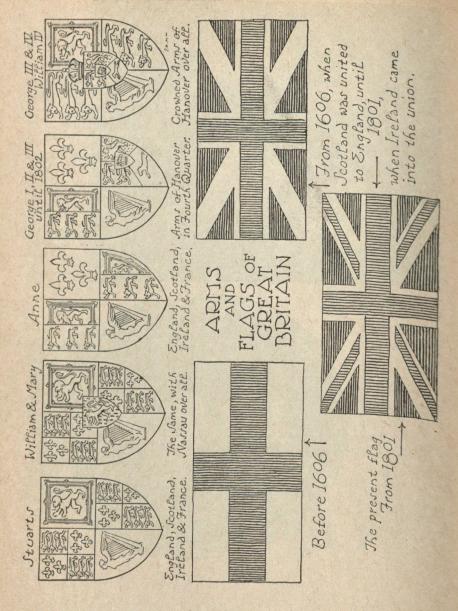
KINGS OF FRANCE DURING 17TH AND 18TH CENTURIES



Jean Baptiste Colbert
Minister of Marine & Colonies
1669 – 1683
Engraving in Chateau de Ramesay, Montreal.







#### NOTES ON PART TWO

Page 61

From the sagas we learn that about 1000 A.D. the Norsemen found their way to North America by way of Greenland. For three hundred and fifty years they visited it continuously. Their routes and the locality of the places they reached are uncertain, and the attempt to identify them has caused much discussion. The general opinion was that the territory visited by the Vikings was somewhere on the Atlantic coast between Labrador and New England.

Within the last few years, the discovery of some Viking weapons in Northern Ontario has led archaeologists to consider the probability that some of them reached Hudson Bay through Hudson Strait and thence journeyed inland to the south and west.

In May, 1930, a prospector, working near Beardmore, about seven miles from Lake Nipigon, Ontario, exploded a charge of dynamite which exposed a mass of rock about three feet and a half below the surface of the ground. Lying on the rock were some pieces of iron, which the prospector later showed to several people, some of whom thought that they might be Viking relics. Their existence was made known to Dr. C. T. Currelly, of the Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology, who at once had them sent to the Museum. They were examined and identified by Dr. Currelly as genuine Viking weapons, dating from about 1000 A.D. They consisted of a sword, an axe head, and the grip of a shield. The story of their finding was carefully investigated, and the site was examined by Professor T. F. McIlwraith, of the Museum staff, who also found some scraps of similar metal which probably were fragments of the boss of the shield. There seems little reason to doubt that these weapons were placed where they were found by Norsemen at the time of their voyages to North America.

It is probable that the Vikings discovered not only parts of the Atlantic coast, but also penetrated into the interior of the continent by way of Hudson Bay. Both routes are shown on the map.

See articles by Dr. C. T. Currelly, Professor W. S. Wallace, and O. C. Elliott in *The Canadian Historical Review*, March, 1939, and Sept., 1941, and "Here was Vinland," by James W. Curran, Sault

Ste. Marie Daily Star, 1939.

#### Pages 63 to 71

Though the Eskimo differ from the Indians in so many ways, it is probable that both are descended from the Mongolian stock of Asia. Some of the ruins of their prehistoric dwellings and camping places show traces of their contact with the Norsemen. The region they inhabited was the coast country from Labrador to Alaska, bordering the northern seas which abounded in the aquatic mammals, seals, walrus, and polar bears, on which they depended for food, heat, and clothing.

The rigorous conditions of their surroundings developed in the Eskimo a remarkable ingenuity in making use of the scanty materials available to them. The igloo or snow-hut is an example of their skill. Built of blocks of snow cut out and skilfully put together in a dome shape, it afforded an efficient and quickly-constructed shelter.

In the absence of sufficient wood for fuel they used oil made from blubber, which they burned in a lamp carved out of soapstone, as were also their cooking vessels. The blubber lamp or stove was an original Eskimo invention, which gave a continuous and steady supply of heat for cooking and warmth, and a sufficient amount of light during the long winter.

Their clothing was equally adapted to the climate; it was generally made of caribou fur, in two thicknesses in winter, with the fur of the inner garment against the skin. Shoes and boots were made of seal skin, which was also used for waterproof outer shirts worn in misty and rainy weather. The long tail of their coat was useful when they had to sit for long hours on ice or snow.

For travelling they devised the kayak and the dogsled. The kayak was constructed by stretching the skin of the seal over a boat frame, including the top, leaving only a hole for the occupant who propelled the craft with a double-bladed paddle. The kayak was made water-tight by closely fastening the wide skirts of the paddler's oiled skin jacket around the manhole. It was as light and as portable as the Indian birch-bark canoe, and if the vessel overturned it could be righted by a strong sweep of the paddle. Their heavily-laden sleds were hauled by teams of half-savage dogs, trained to obey the whip and word of command. In the development and use of the dog they far exceeded the Indians.

The women were expert in the use of the needle, and the Eskimo were the only American aborigines to invent the thimble.

They were skilful workers in bone, antler, ivory, flint and quartz, manufacturing all sorts of useful articles from these materials. Frequently these various objects were decorated with incised, engraved or carved designs.

# Page 72

Cabot's name is frequently mispronounced by omitting to sound the final letter "t" of the word. His Italian name was Giovanni Cabotto, which in English becomes John Cabot. There is no contemporary portrait of him.

# Page 75

The Indians conducted Cartier to the summit of the near-by mountain, from whence could be seen the course of the St. Lawrence, and the Ottawa flowing into it from the north. Cartier's own account tells us that the Indian chief, seizing the silver chain of the whistle hanging around his neck, which he used for giving signals on ship-board, and pointing to the handle of a dagger made of copper gilt like gold, worn by one of the sailors, gave him to understand that materials like these were to be found in the country from which the Ottawa flowed. We have here the earliest mention of the mineral wealth of northern Canada, whose riches have been realized only in our own day, nearly four hundred years after the incident illustrated in the picture.

# Pages 76, 77

During the winter of 1535-1536, which Cartier's company spent in the neighbourhood of Stadacona (now Quebec), they suffered severely from scurvy, a disease caused by eating too much salt meat, and the lack of fresh fruit and vegetables. Indians, explorers and settlers were afflicted by this disease in the early days of Canada. Cartier's own account says:

"In December . . . the sickness broke out among us . . . and spread to such an extent that in the middle of February of . . . our company there were not ten in good health, so that no one could aid

the other . . . Our Captain (Cartier) . . . gave orders for all to pray, and had an image and figure of the Virgin Mary carried across the ice and snow and placed against a tree about a bow-shot from the fort, and issued an order that on the following Sunday mass should be said at that spot, to which all who could walk, both sick and well, should make their way in a procession, singing the psalms of David with the Litany, praying the Virgin to . . . ask her dear son to have pity upon us."

By the middle of April twenty-five of the seamen had died, and there was little hope of saving more than forty others, while

all the rest were ill excepting three or four.

While walking outside the fort one day, Cartier met an Indian named Dom Agaya, whom he had seen ten or twelve days earlier, extremely ill with the same disease from which his men were suffering. He was now well and in good health, and Cartier asked what had cured him. Dom Agaya replied that he had been healed by the juice of the leaves of a tree, and sent two Indian women to gather some of it. They brought back several branches, and the Indian told Cartier to boil them in water, to drink of it, and to place the dregs on the parts of the body which were swollen and affected. According to Dom Agaya this tree was called Annedda, and cured every disease.

The tree was either the hemlock or spruce. Cartier at once had some of it prepared. "As soon as they had drunk it they felt better . . . and after drinking it two or three times . all who were willing to use it recovered health and strength "

# Page 78

No portrait of Cartier, drawn from life, has been found. The profile portrait, seen in many books, and on prints and postage stamps, is an imaginative representation, the original of which is a painting made by François Riss, a French artist, in 1839, now in the town hall of St. Malo. It is possible that his work is based on an earlier portrait; but if this ever existed, it has been lost,

Although the familiar profile is not a genuine portrait, it expresses something of Cartier's character, and has fixed itself in popular appreciation as a typical representation of a Breton sailor.

The statue at St. Malo is, however, far superior as an imaginative conception, and vividly suggests the character and physical aspect of the rugged mariner.

#### Page 79

The map is intended to show those parts of the country that were actually seen by Cartier and Champlain. Other portions were probably visited by unknown sailors from France who left neither maps nor records of their voyages in quest of fish and furs. It is known, however, that the coasts of the Gulf of St. Lawrence were frequented for years before and after Cartier's time by Basque and Breton fishing vessels, as well as by many English

ships and still others from Portugal and Spain.

This method of map-making might be followed with advantage in schoolroom work. An outline modern map should be drawn on the blackboard: on this the routes and areas visited by the explorers should be marked by a heavier outline, or by coloured chalk, and the unexplored portions then rubbed out. Similar exercises might be done by the pupils on mimeograph copies of outline maps supplied to them. The explorations of La Salle, La Vérendrye and others thus represented would give to the pupil a more vivid realization of the lure and mystery of discovery, and an idea of the extent of the geographical knowledge of the period.

# Page 81

The Habitation of Port Royal was the first permanent white settlement in America, north of the Spaniards. We have some scanty descriptions of it in the writings of Champlain and Lescarbot, and a few references in the Jesuit Relations, in addition to an engraving in Champlain's works, presumably from a drawing made by him. It was built by De Monts, from plans by Champlain, in 1605, and lasted until 1613, when it was looted and burned by Argall and an English force from Virginia. When the French re-occupied the territory they built the new Port Royal about seven miles farther up the Basin on the south side, at what is now Annapolis Royal.

In 1938 the Dominion Government through the Department of Mines and Resources, undertook its reconstruction on the original site. No pains were spared to make it as accurate as possible; information was sought from every available source in Canada, the United States and France, and the plans were prepared and the buildings erected under the careful supervision of Mr. K. D. Harris, the Departmental architect, with whom I

worked as historical consultant. A happy feature of the undertaking was the collaboration of the "Associates of Port Royal," a group of Americans organized by Mrs. H. T. Richardson, of Boston, who had been interested in the project for several years.

The site was excavated with scientific accuracy by Mr. C. C. Pinckney, of Boston, and the work had the invaluable assistance of the knowledge and experience of Dr. C. T. Currelly, Director of The Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology. The foundation stones of the buildings were discovered, and it was seen that their positions agree with the descriptions and engravings in Champlain's works, and that they were grouped around a rectangular court of about sixty-four by fifty-two feet. A well was found in the middle of the courtyard, with many of its stones still in position. It was excavated to a depth of about eighteen feet, where a copious flow of water was reached. Every detail of construction was carefully worked out in accordance with the building methods and the style of the period. The massive chimneys were built of local stone, the fireplaces lined with bricks made from the near-by clay pits from which Poutrincourt made bricks over three hundred years ago. All the beams, planks, and shingles were hewn or sawn by hand, the nails and other iron work all hand wrought.

The drawing is copied from the architect's perspective view of the reconstructed buildings as they appear today, and should be

compared with the engraving in Champlain's works.

Consult for full details of the reconstruction and data upon early building construction, articles by C. W. Jefferys in *The Canadian Historical Review*, December, 1939, and by Kenneth D. Harris in *The Journal*, Royal Architectural Institute of Canada, July, 1940.

# Page 82

The earliest buildings erected in North America by white men were of wooden frame construction, similar to those of the districts of Europe from which they came. The first settlements in Acadia, Virginia, Canada and New England were made by colonization companies or associations which employed expert masons, carpenters, etc., who brought to this continent the traditional methods of their craft in their homelands. None of these first houses exists today.

The pioneer log house or cabin was not in general use until

well into the eighteenth century, since it was not known in England or France. It is possible that the Swedish colonists on the Delaware first introduced it, as such houses were common in Scandinavian countries. Before the end of the seventeenth century, however, defensive blockades and heavy log blockhouses were erected in outlying frontier settlements by both French and English colonists, and, as we have seen, the Huron-

Iroquois villages were surrounded by palisades.

In early records of the French régime we find references to various forms of construction, not only for houses, but for the first churches. "En Colombage" indicated a frame of squared timbers, filled in between the uprights with short thick logs, or with stones and mortar, or with clay. This was similar to the "half-timber" buildings of southern England and northern France. "Piece sur piece" signified a building made of squared timbers or round logs laid horizontally and notched together at the corners; the familiar log-house construction. Both these types were covered on the outside by clap-boards, or by a coat of plaster, and sheathed inside with sawn planks. "En pile" meant a building made by planting logs upright in a trench close together, as in a palisade, to form the walls.

Stone houses, however, were built in the early days of French settlement, and this type of building is prevalent throughout

rural Quebec today.

For further details on building see the pages on stone and wooden houses, early churches, and roofs and chimneys. Valuable information and many illustrations of early Canadian building may be found in *Old Houses*, *Old Manors*, and in *Old Churches*, published by the Historic Monuments Commission of the Province of Quebec, and in several brochures by Professor Ramsay Traquair, published by McGill University, Montreal. Consult also *The Log Cabin Myth*, by Harold R. Shurtleff, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., and *Domestic Architecture of the American Colonies*, by Fiske Kimball.

# Page 83

This pageant was presented on the waters of the Annapolis Basin at Port Royal. It was written by Marc Lescarbot, a member of the company, the author of an entertaining history of the colonizing experiment. This play, entitled *The Theatre of Neptune*, was performed on the 14th of November, 1606, to welcome

the return of Poutrincourt, the governor, from a voyage of exploration. Two English translations have been made within recent years: one by Mrs. Harriette Taber Richardson, published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Mass., and one by Professor R. K. Hicks, of Trinity College, Toronto, published in the Oueen's Quarterly, Kingston.

# Page 84

The costumes in the picture show considerable variety. It was a time when fashions were changing. Some of the figures still retain the older style of wide, short, padded trunk-hose and skin tights on their legs. Others wear knee breeches tied with knots of ribbon at the knees, a more up-to-date fashion. Many imitated the King of France of that period, Henri IV, who wore a wide square-cut beard, called a spade-beard, and brushed his bushy hair up straight, while some let their hair grow in long curls over their shoulders, and wore moustaches and a pointed chin whisker, which became the style throughout the first half of the seventeenth century. No authentic portrait of any of the company is known to exist.

# Page 85

The first wheat in Canada was grown in 1606 near the present fort of Annapolis Royal, N.S., on the land overlooking the junction of Allen's or L'Esquille River with the Annapolis River. The first grist mill in Canada was built at the head of tide water some distance up Allen's River, where faint indications of the dam may be seen in the alignement of the boulders still remaining in the stream and along the banks.

The outlines of the Scots' Fort can be traced today on the higher ground a short distance north-east of the French Habitation of Port Royal now reconstructed at Lower Granville.

# Page 87

Gold was the treasure which explorers first sought, as the Spaniards had done in Mexico and Peru. Disappointed in this, they found profit in the abundant fisheries, and in trading with the Indians for furs. Beaver was the most valuable, and for over two hundred years was in great demand in Europe for the making of fine hats. The Indians in return were eager to acquire blankets and cloth and trinkets for personal decoration; but

especially articles of steel and iron, such as hatchets, knives, needles and kettles. They had not learned to smelt metals, of which they used only native copper, which was too soft for heavy work.

#### Page 89

The picture, which is redrawn from the engraving in Champlain's works, is intended to show the position of the Habitation and to give some idea of the materials and the methods used in its construction. Its peculiar perspective makes it difficult to determine its exact shape; but it was probably a four-sided enclosure and its buildings were of wood. It was erected on the waterfront near the foot of the present Mountain Street.

In 1620 Champlain constructed a fort on the summit of the cliff, where the buildings forming the Chateau St. Louis were erected from time to time in the neighbourhood of the Chateau Frontenac of today. Views of these later structures are shown on pages farther on in the book.

# Page 90

No authentic portrait of Champlain exists. Nor have we any description of his physical appearance. The portrait which is so often seen is a copy of the likeness made by Moncornet, a seventeenth century engraver, of an entirely different personage of his time. The copy, with a few changes, was made two hundred years later by a French artist, Ducornet, and fraudulently titled as a portrait of Champlain. It is a most inadequate representation, and gives no suggestion of Champlain's active, enterprising and resolute character.

Paul Chevre's statue expresses much of the spirit of the explorer and the founder of New France, and is an excellent piece of sculpture, well suited to its commanding situation on the terrace at Quebec.

#### Page 91

The picture shows Champlain dressed in the costume of a musketeer of the early seventeenth century. Sometimes light steel armour, such as breastplates and thigh-pieces, was worn; but probably Champlain, travelling in summer and by canoes in

the wilderness, wore only a sleeveless outer coat of thick buffcoloured leather, an under coat or shirt with sleeves, loose cloth knee-breeches, buckskin leggings and moccasins, and a broadbrimmed hat. His heavy and clumsy weapon is an arquebus, which was loaded at the muzzle and fired by means of a slow-burning fuse, a long cord of rope or tow, the lighted end of which was brought into contact with the powder at the breech by pulling a spring trigger. A bag of bullets and two powder flasks hang from his belt. These early firearms were slow and cumbrous in their action; they took several minutes to prime, load and fire. and the kick was so heavy that sometimes it dislocated the shoulder or collar-bone of the shooter. Compared with them, the Indian's bow and arrows were quick-firing weapons. At first the Indians were surprised and panic-stricken by the noise, the smoke and flame, and the penetrating power of the white man's weapon; but they soon realized the superior efficiency of their own arms, and from the shelter of the forest, in many a surprise attack, they were able to pour a continuous and silent flight of arrows upon the French settlers before these could return the fire. It was not until the musket was improved by substituting a flint and steel lock, acting on a spring trigger, for the slow-burning fuse or "match," about 1670, that the whites were able to gain any decided advantage over the Indians.

It may not be known generally that Indians wore armour; but Champlain and other early explorers frequently refer to their shields of wood, and speak of their chest and leg protectors, made of reeds, or of sticks woven together with cotton fibre, roots or sinews. In the west shields of dried buffalo hide were used.

# Page 93

Over Champlain's shoulder is slung a bandoleer, to which are attached small tin or wooden cases, something like modern cartridges, each containing a charge of gunpowder. To load the weapon, one of these cases was detached, the top torn off, and the powder poured into the muzzle of the arquebus; a bullet was taken from the bag which hangs below the bandoleer and dropped into the arquebus, and pounded firmly down with a ramrod. From a flask which hung near the bullet bag a small quantity of finer powder was poured into the touch-hole at the breech of the arquebus, to be fired by contact with the lighted fuse.

# Page 94

Étienne Brûlé probably was the first white man to see Lake Ontario. Little is known about him, for he left no record of his own; but from scanty and scattered references, he appears to have been the first white voyageur by the Ottawa River route to Lake Huron, and the first to reach Lake Superior. He learned to speak several Indian languages, and became more at home among the Indians than with the whites. Brûlé's information and experience were of great service to Champlain, who made use of him, but discredited his character and ignored his discoveries, and most of the other writers of his time gave him an equally bad reputation.

It was in September, 1615, that Champlain set out with the Hurons on a raid into the Iroquois country south of Lake Ontario. Brûlé at the same time was sent to the Andastes, living on the upper Susquehanna River, to summon them to strike the Iroquois, their common enemy, from the south, while the Hurons and Champlain attacked them from the north.

Leaving Champlain's party at the narrows of Lake Couchiching, Brûlé, with twelve Indians, struck south across Lake Simcoe to the Holland River. From there a portage of twenty-eight miles led overland to the mouth of the Humber, a route which had existed for ages as the natural highway from the upper lakes to Lake Ontario. What course he followed thence to the country of the Andastes is uncertain; he reached them, however, and they made the attack upon the Iroquois, but it was too late, for the Hurons had retired from their seige of the Iroquois village before they arrived.

Brûlé spent most of the remainder of his life among the Indians and was murdered by the Hurons about 1632, somewhere in the present township of Tay, Simcoe County, Ontario.

The picture shows him halting for a moment in sight of Lake Ontario, at the end of the Toronto Carrying-Place, where the trail dips down to the Humber River bank.

See Toronto Under the French Regime, by Dr. Percy J. Robinson, The Ryerson Press, Toronto.

#### Page 101

White whales, a species of aquatic mammal, still frequent the Gulf and the lower St. Lawrence River. In the earliest days of

Canadian history we hear that they were hunted by the Basque and Breton fishermen for the oil which was procured by boiling down the fat which lay several inches thick beneath their hides, which were also valuable for making leather. In *Une Paroisse Canadienne au XVII Siècle*, by the Abbé H. R. Casgrain, a good description is given of the method of catching them and rendering the oil at Rivière-Ouelle, one of the principal places where this industry was carried on. In addition to the method of trapping them in enclosures of wooden stakes in shallow bays where the receding tide left them stranded on the mud flats, white whales were also hunted by harpooning or shooting them from small ships. One such vessel, a sort of fishing lugger, is mentioned in 1733 as being armed with small cannon for this purpose.

From the earliest times, the cod fisheries of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the waters around Newfoundland attracted large numbers of vessels from France, England, Spain and Portugal. Two kinds of fishing were employed. What was called "dry" fishing was done generally from boats near the shore, for the smaller fish, which were salted, then washed out, and spread out to dry on the stony beach or on wooden racks or staging. The areas favourable for this were those where there was less fog and damp weather. "Wet" or "green" fishing was carried on with ships, mainly on the "banks" distant from the coast, where the fish caught were larger. They were salted and taken direct to their market in their wet and briny condition without drying. The illustration showing the method of "dry" fishing is taken from Keith's Virginia, 1783.

Detailed accounts of the fishing industry are given in the Description of the Coasts of North America, written in the seventeenth century, by Nicolas Denys, who was engaged for many years in fishing enterprises in Acadia. A translation, with notes, by Professor W. F. Ganong, was published by the Champlain Society, Toronto. See also The Cod Fisheries, by Professor H. A. Innis, The Ryerson Press, Toronto.

# Page 102

For the history of the Jesuit mission to the Hurons and the locality of the various villages the general reader is referred to Old Huronia, by Father A. E. Jones, S.J., published by the Ontario Bureau of Archives, Toronto; to Indian Village Sites

in Simcoe County, by A. F. Hunter; and to The Martyrs of

Huronia, by Father E. J. Devine, S.J.

Fort Sainte Marie No. 1 has recently become the property of the Iesuits. The ruins are now being cleared and the whole area excavated under the direction of the Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology. The foundations of several buildings have been unearthed and numerous relics of the French occupancy have been discovered. See Article by K. E. Kidd in The Canadian Historical Review, Dec., 1941. The work of excavation was continued during the summer of 1942. The foundation stones of buildings, fireplaces, etc., were unearthed and show that most of the houses were grouped toward the western portion of the area. Among the many articles discovered were the leg bones of domestic fowl. They are much heavier than those of the fowl of today, and are armed with long, stout spurs. The discovery of these fragments enables us to estimate the degree of change that has been produced by the breeding of domestic fowl during the last three hundred years. The bird of the seventeenth century resembled more closely the original wild fowl from which it was developed.

# Page 104

The cannon is a curious piece of artillery, unlike that of the period, and possibly is a discarded specimen of an earlier date. The fore part of the barrel consists of thick wide rings of iron welded together; the rear portion is of bronze, octagonal in shape, and with a projection from the butt, which suggests its use as a handle to direct the cannon when mounted on a swivel, as shown in the illustration on page 176.

# Page 105

About the middle of the seventeenth century the Roman Catholic clergy were clean shaven. Earlier portraits, as those of Olier and Richelieu (q.v.), show them wearing moustaches and chin whiskers. Missionary priests, however, were allowed to let their beards grow. But, they were ordered to be careful to clip the hair around their lips, so that in partaking of the sacred elements in the ceremony of the Mass, no fragments of the bread and wine should be lost. This feature is observable especially in the accompanying portraits of Jogues and Lalemant.

#### Page 107

In order to understand French Canada, something of the history of France must be known. Old France was the social, political and religious background of New France. Canadians of British birth or ancestry from their childhood imbibe some knowledge of the history, the institutions and manner of life of their forefathers in their homelands; but in general they know little of the type of civilization which formed their French fellow Canadians. Both people were modified in character by their new world surroundings, but each retained and is still influenced by its ancestry.

The reigns of the French kings whose portraits are here included, cover most of the period of French rule. Since the French monarchy was largely personal, the character of the king influenced the colonial policy very strongly, even when exercised through a powerful minister like Richelieu or Colbert.

Henri IV reigned from 1589 to 1610, his son, Louis XIII from 1610 to 1643, his son Louis XIV from 1643 to 1715, and his great-grandson, Louis XV from 1715 to 1774, though during his earlier years the government was under a Regency, and his connection with Canada ceased with the Treaty of Paris which in 1763 ceded Canada to the British Crown.

Observe that Henri IV and Louis XIII are depicted as wearing their own hair, while Louis XIV and XV are shown in wigs. It was in the reign of Louis XIV that the wig came into general use by men throughout Europe, and continued to be worn in various forms in France until the Revolution, and elsewhere until the beginning of the nineteenth century. Portraits of Louis XIV as a young man show him with his own hair worn in long curls. The wig he is shown as wearing in the portrait here reproduced imitated this long-haired Cavalier style of hairdressing and was known as a "full-bottomed wig."

# Page 108

The flag of France varied from time to time and according to circumstances. At the time of Champlain merchant vessels carried a flag with a white cross on a blue ground. Such a flag is shown on Champlain's map of 1612. This flag, called the old ensign of France, was therefore that flown on the vessels of the trading companies of New France.

Neither flags nor uniforms were so standardized as they are today. Vessels and troops often carried the colours of their commanders. But the flag of the royal navy and of the army in the early seventeenth century appears to have been like that of the merchant marine, with the difference that the ground was sprinkled with golden fleurs-de-lis, and the royal arms was placed on the centre of the cross.

An edict of Louis XIV in 1661 ordered that the royal naval ensign should be white, with the arms of France in the centre. This is the first official order prescribing the use of white as a background. Later this became general throughout the nation, with the addition of the golden fleurs-de-lis.

See Le drapeau français au Canada, by Régis Roy, in Le

Bulletin des Richerches Historiques, November, 1941.

When Henri IV came to the throne of France in 1589 he already was King of Navarre, a small territory in the south-west of France, bordering on Spain. His title therefore was King of France and Navarre, and the royal arms consisted of the shields of both kingdoms. The title remained in use, but the arms of Navarre were discarded under Louis XIV. The circle surrounding the arms is composed of fleurs-de-lis alternating with monograms of the initial letters "H" and "M" of the names of Henry and his queen, Marie de Medici.

The Order of Saint Esprit was founded by Henry III. It was the highest order of nobility, and was limited to a membership of one hundred Chevaliers. The cross bore a dove descending

with outstretched wings: the symbol of the Holy Spirit.

The Order of Saint Louis was founded by Louis XIV in 1693, and was conferred only for military or naval service. Those who received it must have distinguished themselves by some noteworthy action, or have served at least twenty-eight years as an officer. There were three grades in the Order: the most numerous class were the Chevaliers, above them were a smaller number of Commanders, while a few were awarded the Grand Cross, the highest rank. The recipient, kneeling before the King, or his representative, bareheaded and with his hands clasped, swore to live and die in the Catholic religion, to serve the King faithfully, to reveal all conspiracies against him or the state which might come to his knowledge, and promised not to leave his service for that of any other prince without his permission. The cross was of white enamel bordered with gold, and set with pearls and

golden fleurs-de-lis, and was suspended from a flame-coloured ribbon. On the death of the wearer the cross was returned to the King.

Page 109

Armand Jean du Plessis, Cardinal Richelieu (1585-1642) was the greatest French statesman of the seventeenth century, and controlled the government under Louis XIII. He broke the power of the turbulent nobles, and united the country under the monarchy, and thus prepared the way for the personal and absolute rule of Louis XIV. On his death he was succeeded by Cardinal Mazarin, under whom Colbert received his training in governmental administration. Richelieu's connection with Canada consisted principally in his foundation of the Company of New France, known as The Hundred Associates, and in his support of missions.

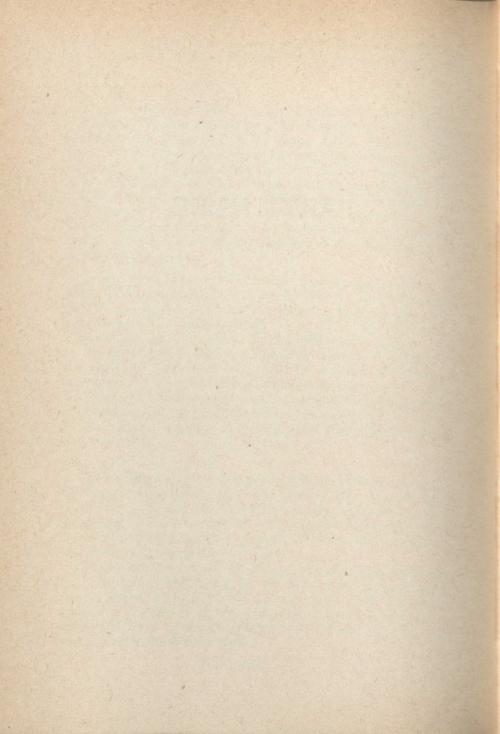
Jean Baptiste Colbert (1619-1683) became chief minister of Louis XIV after the death of Mazarin in 1661. He reorganized the finances, stimulated trade and industry, built up the navy, and directed the colonial policy of France. His economical administration was frustrated by the King's extravagance, and he was supplanted in the royal favour by Louvois, who flattered the vanity of Louis and encouraged his schemes of European supremacy. Colbert's administration put new life into Canada. He instituted the Sovereign Council, supported Talon's policy of developing industry and commerce, and reinforced the colony by sending out the regiment of Carignan, and assisting emigration and settlement.

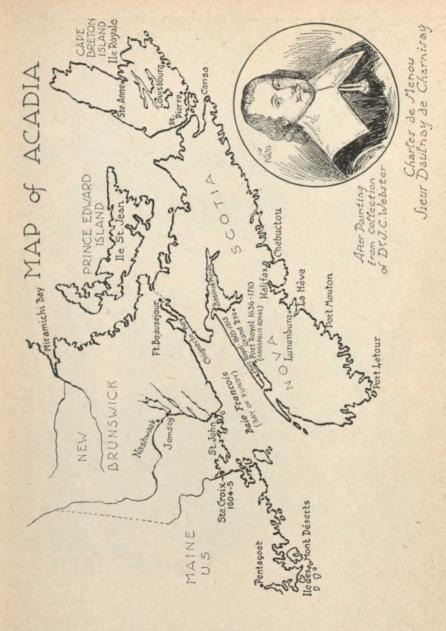
#### Page 110

The British kings from George I to William IV were also rulers of Hanover, and consequently the arms of that country were carried on the British shield until the accession of Queen Victoria. According to its laws no woman could reign over Hanover, which therefore became a separate kingdom in 1837, under the rule of her uncle, the Duke of Cumberland.

Observe that until 1802 the arms of Great Britain bore also the fleur-de-lis, symbolizing the old claim of the English kings to the throne of France. To indicate in a black and white engraving the colours of flags and coats of arms, it is usual to make horizontal lines to represent blue, vertical lines for red, and small dots for gold or yellow.

# PART THREE

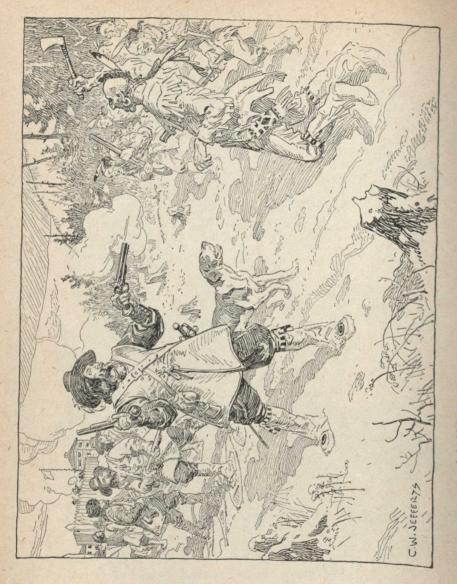




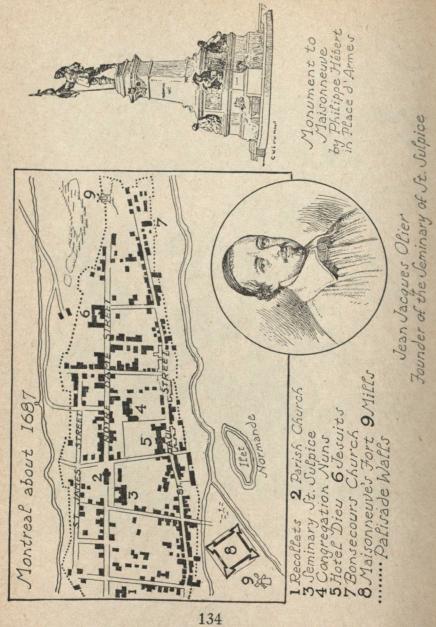
MEETING OF FRANÇOISE MARIE JACQUELIN AND CHARLES
DE LA TOUR

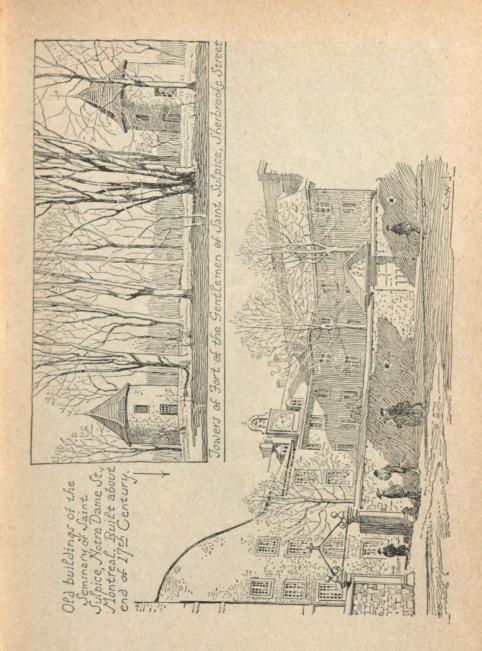


131



MAISONNEUVE CARRIES A CROSS TO THE SUMMIT OF MOUNT ROYAL





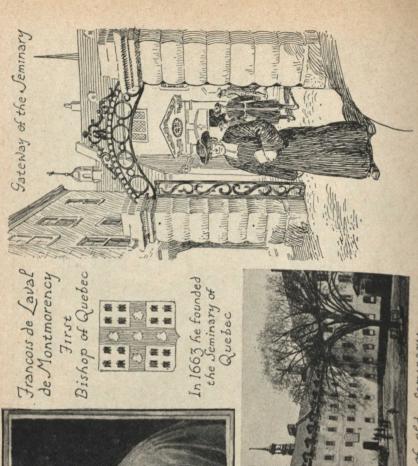


Marie de l'Incarnation (Marie Suyart) First Mothèr Superior of the Ursulines of Quebec.

First Convent of the Unit of the Unit in 1641-42, on the vite which they still occupy in the City of Quebec. In the foreground is the house of Mme, dela Petrie. From an old painting which shows the forest then surrounding the buildings.

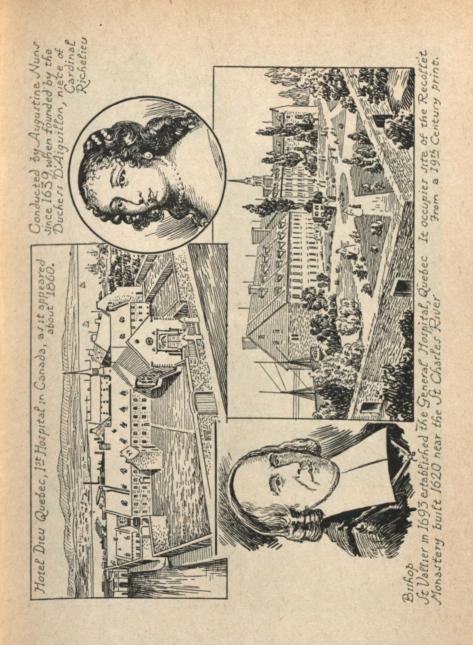


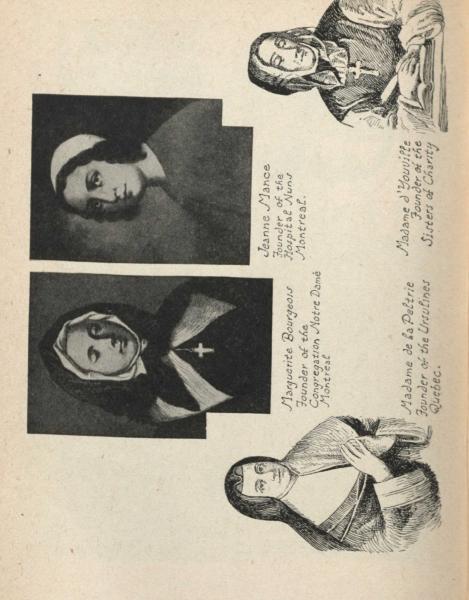
MOTHER MARIE DE L'INCARNATION TEACHING INDIAN CHILDREN

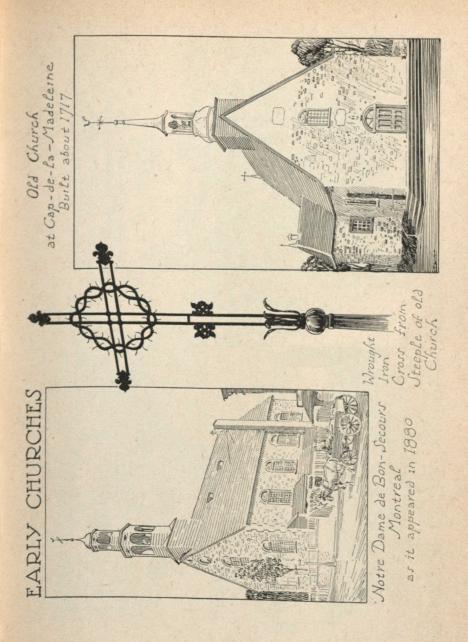


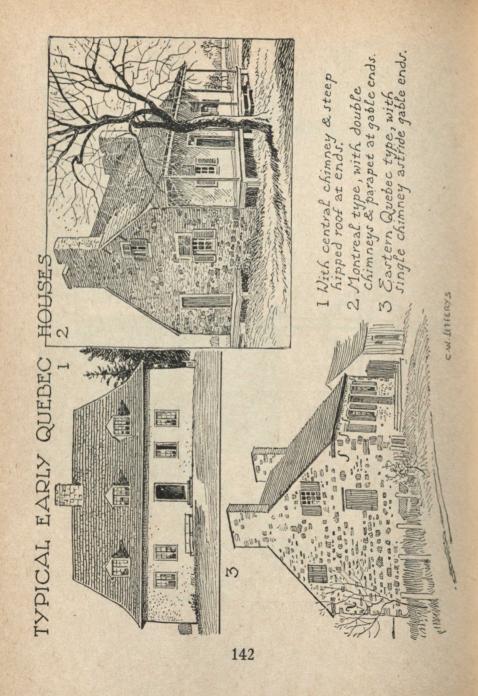


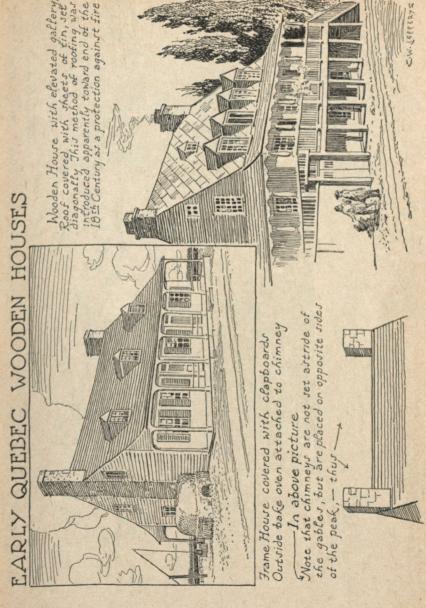
Courtyard of old Seminary

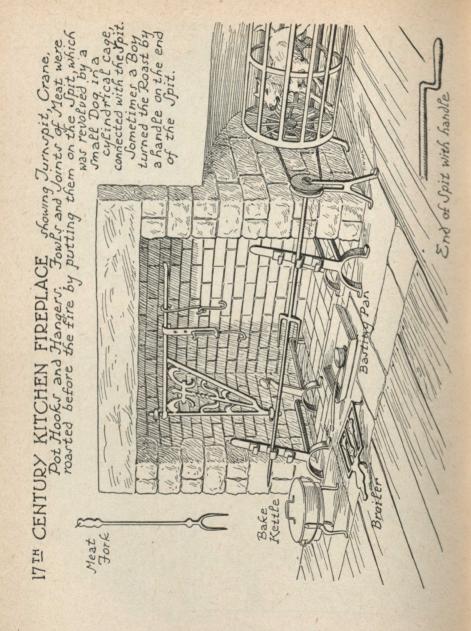


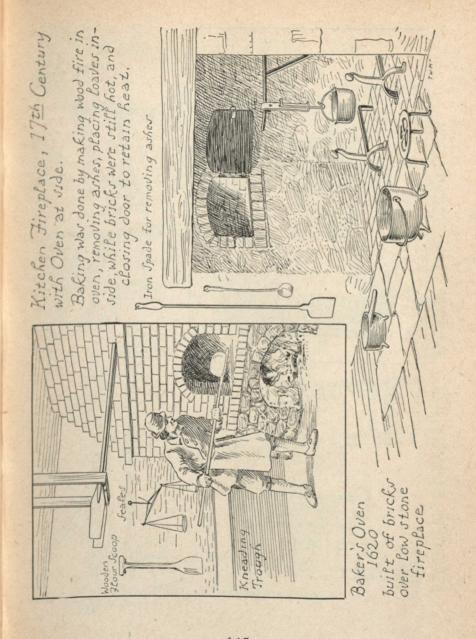


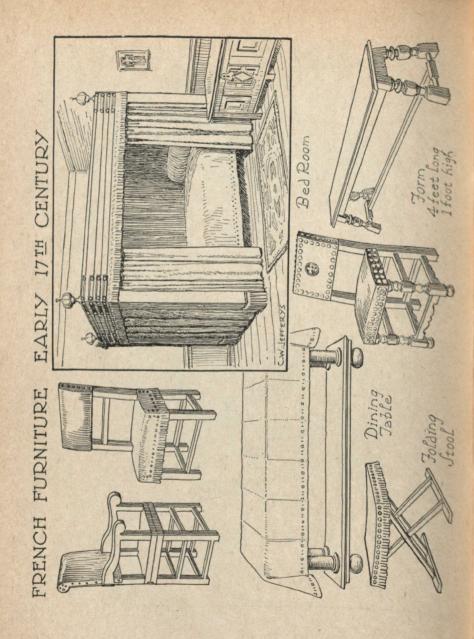


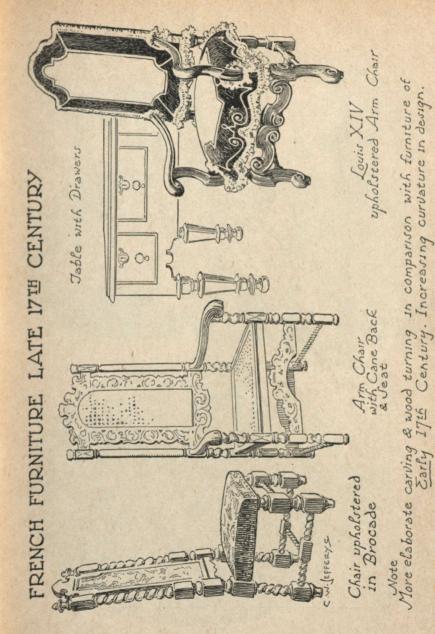




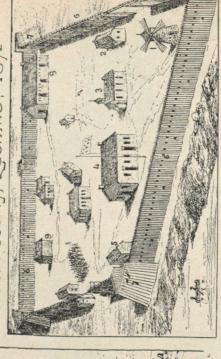








Atypical seigneurial fort Fort Remy, Lachine, 1671



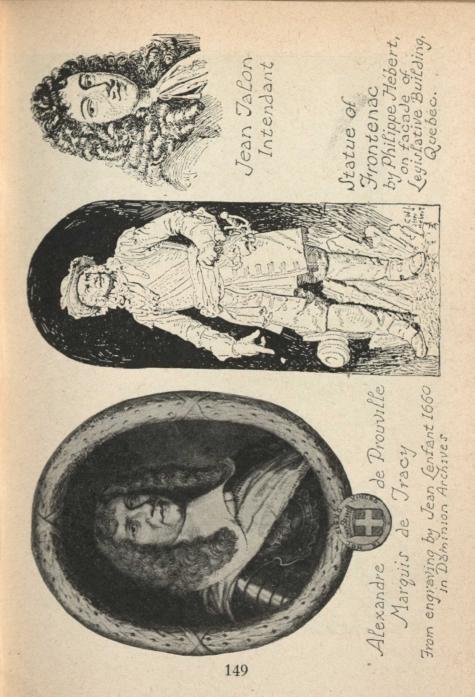
From Sirouard's "LeVieux Lachine"

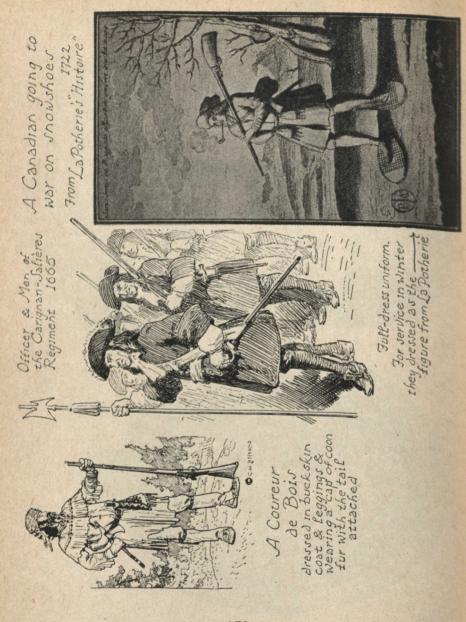
1 Mill 2 Prievt's House 3 Chapel

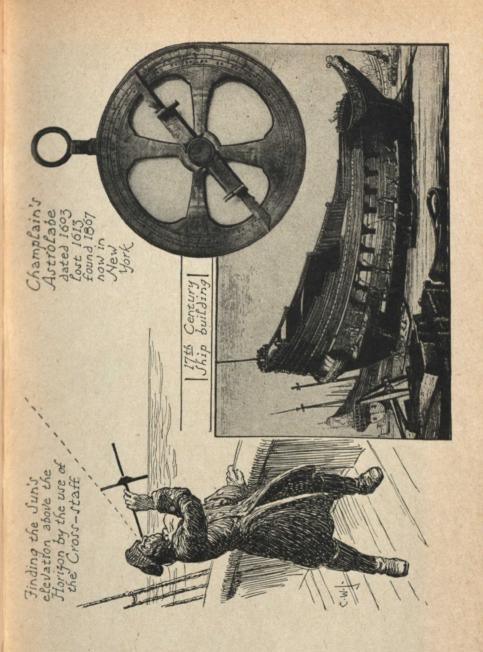
4 La Jalle's House 5: Barn

6 Palisades 7 Bartions

The Jeigneur had to build a Mill where his Jenants were obliged to have their grain ground







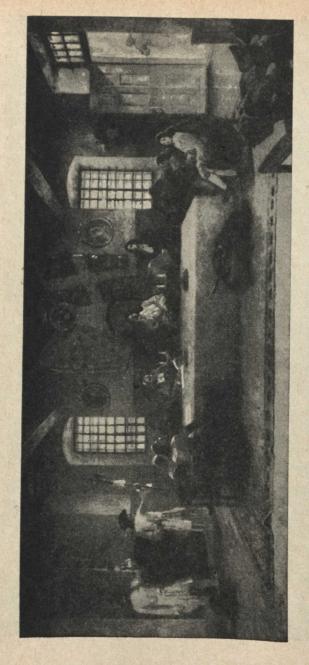


TALON INSPECTING SHIP-BUILDING AT QUEBEC

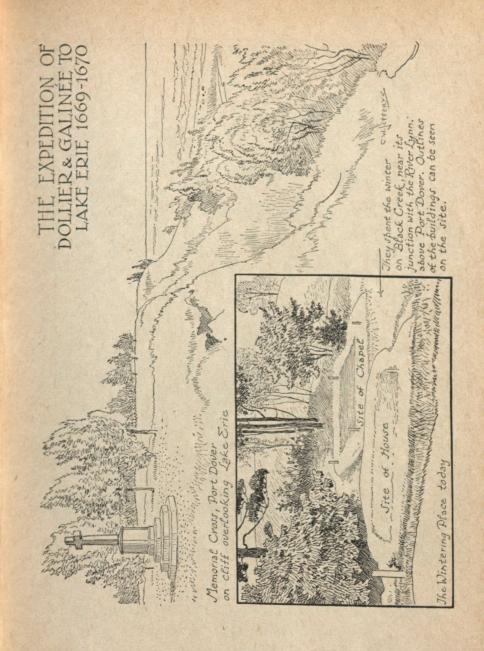


ARRIVAL OF THE BRIDES AT QUEBEC

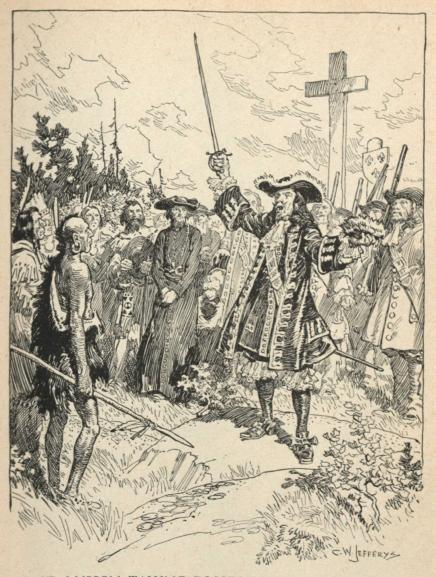
From the original painting in the Archives of Canada, Ottawa.



MEETING OF THE SOVEREIGN COUNCIL, 1663 From the mural painting by Charles Huot in the Legislative Building, Quebec.

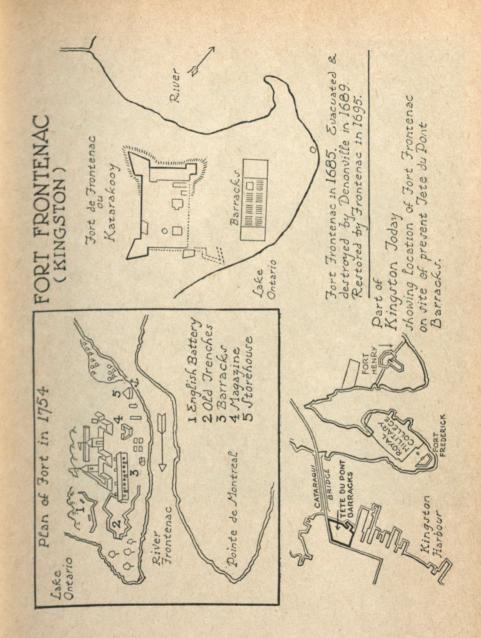






ST. LUSSON TAKING POSSESSION OF THE WEST AT SAULT STE. MARIE, 1671

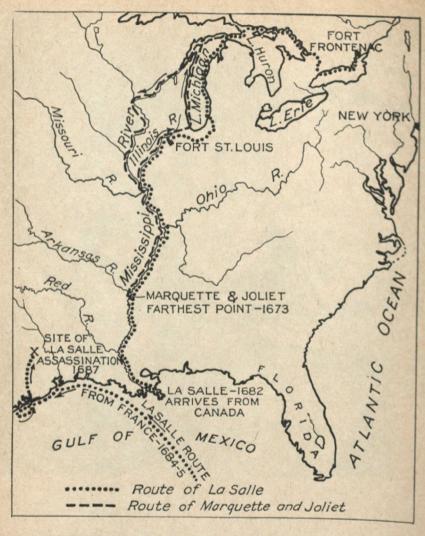




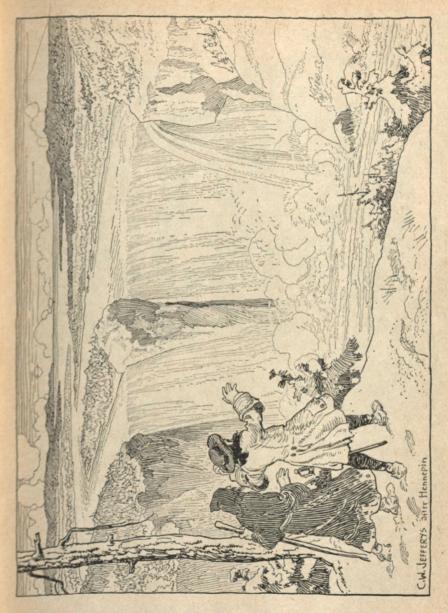




MARQUETTE AND JOLIET ON THE MISSISSIPPI, 1673



EXPLORATIONS OF MARQUETTE AND JOLIET AND OF LA SALLE





HENNEPIN MEETS DULHUT AMONG THE SIOUX

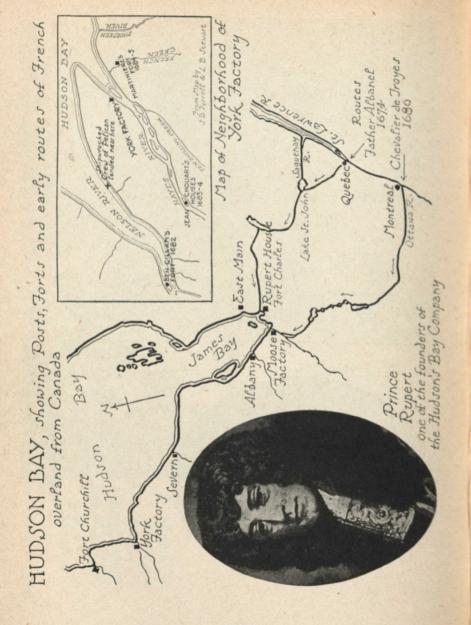


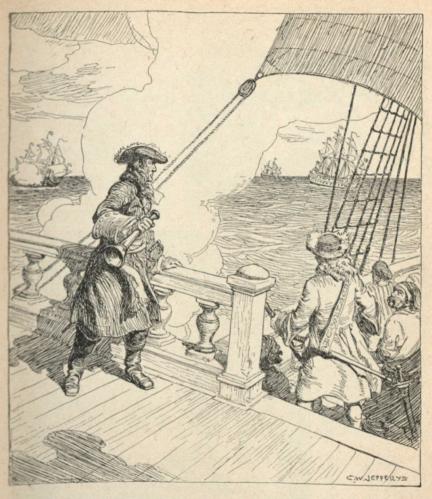
LA SALLE WATCHING FOR THE GRIFFON 165



LA SALLE ON THE TORONTO CARRYING-PLACE, AUGUST, 1681, ON HIS WAY TO THE MISSISSIPPI







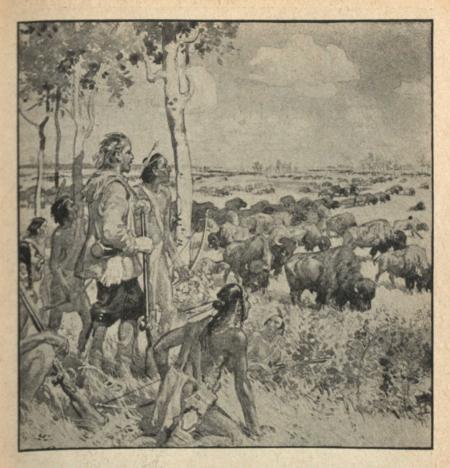
D'IBERVILLE'S DEFEAT OF THE ENGLISH SHIPS IN HUDSON BAY, 1697



From engraving in La Potherie's Histoire

Dierre Le Moyne Sieur d'Iberville





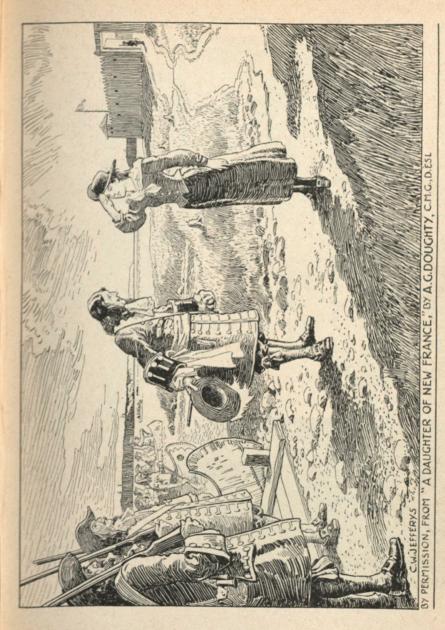
HENRY KELSEY SEES THE BUFFALO ON THE WESTERN PLAINS

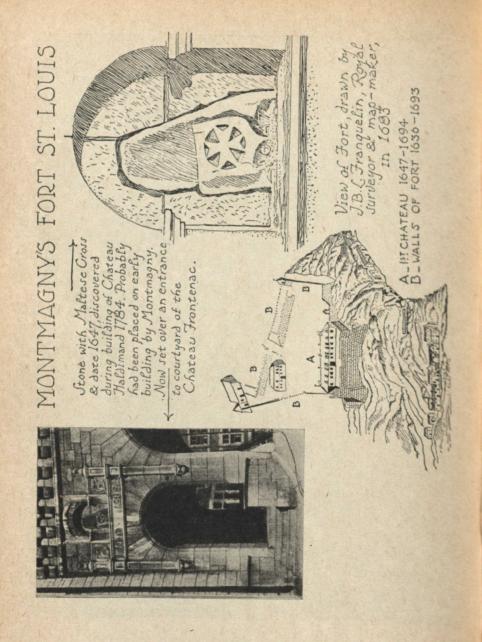
From sketch for the original painting in the possession of the Hudson's Bay Company

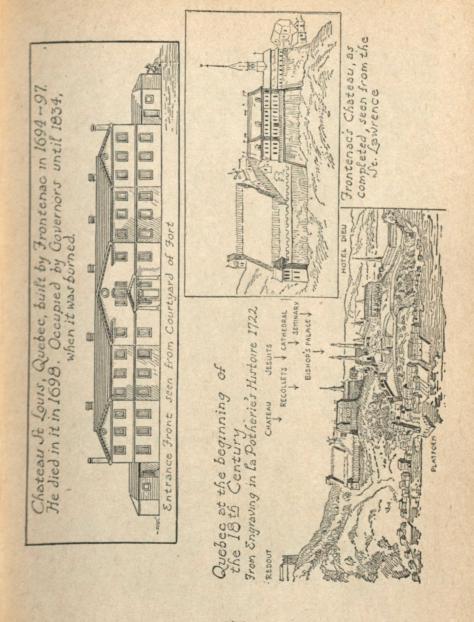


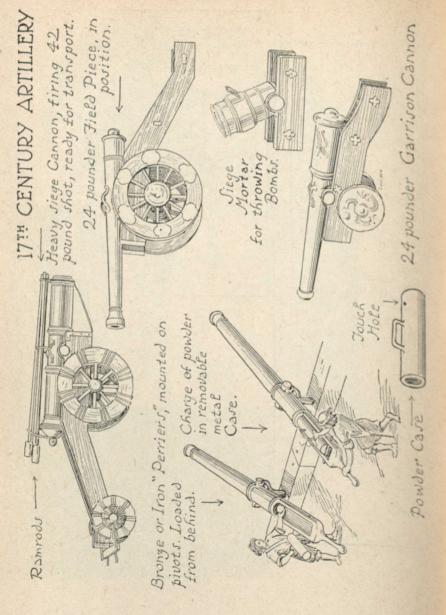
MADELEINE DE VERCHÈRES DEFENDS HER FATHER'S FORT, 1692

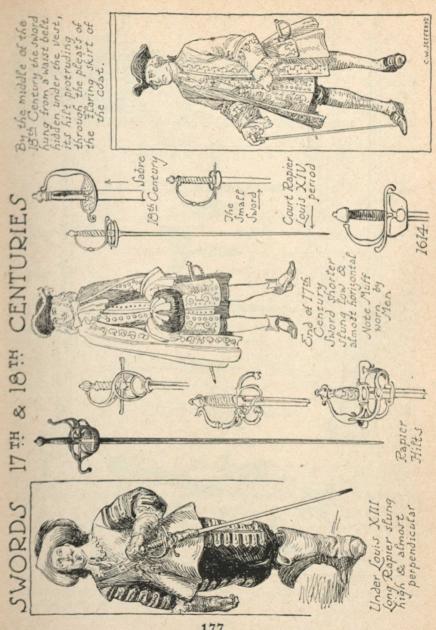
From original painting in The Archives of Canada

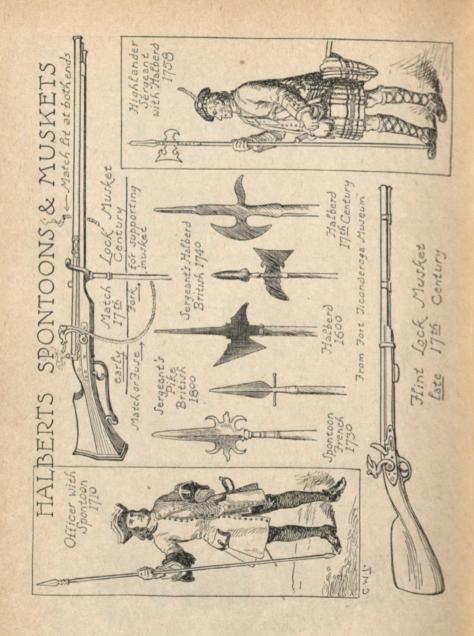












## NOTES ON PART THREE

#### Page 129

Charnisay built a fort and established a settlement, the second Port Royal, about six miles from De Mont's Port Royal of 1605-1613. This new settlement was on the south side of the Annapolis Basin. After its capture by the British in 1710 its name was changed to Annapolis Royal, in honour of Queen Anne.

For the history of Acadia, read New England's Outpost, by Dr. J. B. Brebner, and Le Drame Acadien, by Antoine Bernard.

## Page 130

For the story of La Tour and his wife see Canada's Past in Pictures, The Ryerson Press, Toronto.

## Page 131

The picture gives an idea of the arms and costumes of the time. At close quarters the fight was carried on with pistols, swords, and pikes sixteen feet long. Some of the combatants probably wore steel helmets and breastplates, while others would be clad in wide-skirted coats of thick buff leather. The cannon were of small calibre, three or four inches, in comparison with their heavy construction, with very thick barrels of cast iron or brass, and wheels bound with iron bands.

#### Page 134

J. J. Olier, 1608-1657, a Paris priest, took a leading part in the Catholic revival of religion in France. With La Dauversière, he founded the missionary society of Notre Dame de Montreal, which received a grant of the island. He sent out four priests of Saint Sulpice in 1657 to establish the Seminary of Montreal.

Paul Chomedy de Maisonneuve, 1612-1676, served in the army. He came to Canada as leader of the missionary settlement of Montreal, which he established in 1642, and of which he was Governor for twenty-two years.

Philippe Hébert, R.C.A., was one of the most distinguished Canadian sculptors. He executed many public statues, of which the Maisonneuve monument was perhaps the most important. The figures at the base represent Lambert Closse, Jeanne Mance, and Charles Le Moine.

#### Page 135

The Seminary of St. Sulpice, on Notre Dame Street, Montreal, is especially interesting historically since its buildings still appear much as they did two centuries and a half ago. Situated in the midst of the business section of the city, its quiet courtyard, its secluded private garden, its loopholed stone wall and timedarkened masonry belong to an age far removed from the bustling noisy modern world that surrounds it.

The central building dates from about 1683, and was constructed by the Superior, Dollier de Casson, he who thirteen years before had made the exploration of the Great Lakes with de Galinée (See pp. 155 and 191). The projecting wings were built a few years later, probably at the end of the seventeenth century or early in the eighteenth. The central doorway, from the stone-carved date above it, 1740, is a later addition. The picturesque belfry and clock face which crowns the façade is said to have been erected early in the eighteenth century, and was the only clock and bell that publicly gave the time for more than a hundred years.

Several of the Sulpicians had a practical knowledge of architecture, and from their plans and under their supervision, these buildings and others, as well as numerous churches, were erected. Besides Dollier de Casson, the Abbé Vachon de Belmont was responsible for the construction of a large portion of the building on Notre Dame Street, while he was at the same time the architect of the Mission and Fort of the Mountain, of which only the towers on Sherbrooke Street remain.

Le Vieux Séminaire, by l'abbé Olivier Maurault, gives an intimate and detailed account of its history and the life within its walls.

#### Page 137

The ash tree under which tradition says that Mother Marie taught her Indian pupils, shattered by storms and broken by years, survived until 1873, when its stump was dug out of the garden in excavating the foundations for an extension of the convent buildings.

It was difficult to induce the Indian children to wear the clothing of the whites, and it is not strange that they should have preferred their own loose easy buckskin garments and soft moccasins to the tight-laced bodices and stiff clumsy boots or wooden sabots of the French of that period. Doubtless a compromise was made in most cases, and their clothing in consequence was a mixture of Indian and white fashions and materials.

#### Page 139

The Hotel Dieu, Quebec, was the first hospital established in North America, north of Mexico.

#### Page 140

We do not know who painted or drew the portraits of many of the personages connected with the early history of Canada, nor how authentic some of them may be. That of Marguerite Bourgeoys is said to have been painted by our first known Canadian-born artist, Pierre Le Ber, brother of the pious recluse of Montreal, Jeanne Le Ber. This portrait of Marguerite Bourgeoys probably depicts her features truly, and formed the basis of the engraving made in France by C. Simonneau (1656-1728) which is here reproduced.

The headdress which Marguerite Bourgeoys is depicted as wearing was known as a Miramion. This was so named after Madame de Miramion, a French widow, who founded an association of women devoted to work among the poor. They wore a sort of thick, black kerchief, which was tied under the chin in a large bow with flowing ends. The name of their foundress naturally became attached to their familiar head-covering.

In 1680 Mother Bourgeoys went to France to seek advice in drawing up rules for the Sisters of the Congregation, which she had established in Montreal. Among others she consulted Mme. de Miramion, whose association in many ways resembled her own. She adopted many of their regulations, and apparently copied the pattern of their head-dress.

The origin and meaning of this word have been described in the *Bulletin des Recherches Historiques*, February and April, 1933, by E. Z. Massicotte, to whose researches we are indebted for information on numerous details of the daily life of Canada's past.

#### Page 141

Many of the earliest churches were built of wood, sometimes of logs in palisade form, covered with planks and roofed with thatch. But as soon as the means of the parishioners made it possible, they built more substantial churches of wooden framework, filled in with rubble, or with field stones and mortar, or of solid stone wall construction. In 1681 there were only seven churches built of stone in the colony, besides those in the city of Quebec. All the others were of wood, in log or frame construction. Today there exist only about twenty churches which were built during the French régime, and nearly all of these have undergone considerable alteration. In some cases only their foundations can be assigned definitely to that period.

The architectural style prevalent during the eighteenth century and well into the first half of the nineteenth was that of the late Renaissance, classic in origin and feeling, and sometimes referred to as Jesuit or Baroque. This was the contemporary style in France and throughout almost all Europe, and it is possible that some of the plans for Canadian churches were prepared in the mother country. We know the names, however, of several architects, sculptors and church builders, natives of New France, such as Levasseur, Baillarge and Quevillon, in whose families the profession was carried on for two or three generations.

The typical early French Canadian church was built to withstand a rigorous climate. The steep roofs shed the snow, the plain, flat walls without projecting ornament gave no lodgment to water, ice or snow. In general the churches fitted admirably into their landscape surroundings. Their beauty consists principally in their harmonious proportions, and the contrast between

the massive simplicity of the building and the slender grace of the spires and open belfries.

Fire was a constant menace to all wooden structures, especially in the days of primitive methods of heating. The early churches were not heated. Sometimes there was an open brazier with charcoal to warm the chancel, and the priest had to wear heavy woollen garments under his vestments, while the congregation carried various heating devices such as foot warmers into their seats. Sometimes a heated room was provided in the priest's house where the worshippers might warm themselves.

Roofing was a problem for both houses and churches. Wooden shingles were a fire hazard. There was no satisfactory slate to be found in Canada, and tiles were expensive to manufacture, difficult to fasten on the steep roofs, and cracked under severe frost. A roof covering affording better fire protection was found in sheets of tin, which came into use probably as early as the middle of the eighteenth century.

See Old Churches of the Province of Quebec, published by the Commission of Historic Monuments, Quebec, and monographs by Professor Ramsay Traquair, McGill University, Montreal, and Dr. Marius Barbeau, the leading authorities on early French Canadian building.

#### Pages 142 and 143

Note that if the chimneys are set at the sides of the gables it shows that the house is divided lengthwise of the building, so as to place one fireplace in the front portion and the other in the rear. When the chimney is set astride of the gable the house is divided from front to back, with a fireplace midway of the wall at each end. Double chimneys with a high stone parapet extending above the roof were adopted for houses with fireplaces in the upper storey, especially in Montreal and other towns where houses were built adjoining each other. The parapet was intended to prevent the flames from a burning roof communicating to its neighbour. As a further protection the roofs of some houses were lined with stone or mortar, and sometimes the floor of the upper storey was also paved with stone, so that though the attic burned the lower part of the house was spared. Tin covered

roofs and iron shutters later added to fire protection. The overhanging curved eaves shed the snow and icicles toward the road, beyond the doorway and footpath.

#### Page 144

A fireplace with a recess in the wall for the dog's revolving cage is to be seen in the vaulted kitchen in the basement of the Chateau de Ramezay, Montreal.

## Pages 146 and 147

Early seventeenth century furniture and interior decoration was square and angular in character. Chair backs came no higher than the shoulders, legs were either straight and square in section or with corners slightly bevelled, sometimes the legs and uprights of the back were twisted in spirals alternating with

spindles and straight pieces at junction points.

This tendency toward curving shapes increased during the century until straight lines had almost disappeared. At the same time the height of the back increased, extending above the head, so that the general shape of the chair was perpendicular rather than square. This upward movement coincided with higher ceilings and the upright panelling of the walls, while at the same time the earlier low chests or "armoires" developed into taller chests of drawers, wardrobes and "highboys."

During the first half of the century seats and backs of chairs generally were covered with leather, fastened by large-headed brass nails set close together. Sometimes the seat leathers were cut into ornamental fringes around their borders. Gradually materials such as silk, stout cloth, plush and velvet, came into use. These fabrics were often decorated with floral designs, stamped, woven or embroidered, and were gathered into frills and fastened with braid along the borders.

Beds were of the four-poster type, the wooden framework entirely hidden by canvas or leather canopies and corner strips falling to the floor, while drapery curtains enclosed the whole, to exclude the draughts.

Dining tables were long, and capable of extension by various devices. Benches as well as chairs were used to seat the guests.

The foregoing notes describe, and the drawings depict the furniture of the better houses, much of which was brought from

France. In the pioneer homes on the frontier, and in most of the habitant houses, the furniture was much simpler, often being hand-made; but the proportions and general shape were much the same as those pictured and described. For chair seats deerskin or rushes or splints of inner elm bark were used, while the backs were made of wooden slats and rails. The earliest beds were bunks, made of poles driven into the walls and supported by posts, covered with pine or spruce twigs or marsh hay. As conditions improved mattresses were used, stuffed with these materials or with feathers, and built-in beds were made of planks entirely enclosing the sleeping place from floor to ceiling, with a sliding door and wooden barred ventilating panel. Low, roughly-squared logs were used as seats and dining tables for the younger children until well into the nineteenth century in many habitant homes.

#### Page 148

Among the first needs of a settlement was a mill for sawing logs, and another for grinding grain. Both sawmills and grist mills were built on the streams and run by a water-wheel. For grinding grain, windmills were used also. These were built along the shore of the St. Lawrence and the other broad rivers where their sails could get the full sweep of the breezes.

Several of these early windmills are standing today, though no longer in use. They are built of roughly dressed stone, heavily mortared, with walls two or three feet thick. They are circular in form, and three storeys high, surmounted by a high conical wooden attic or top storey, which can be turned round on a cog-wheel built on the top of the wall, so that the wings can be set to catch the wind from any quarter. On the opposite side to the wings a long beam slopes from the roof to the ground, where a small wheel is attached to it. This beam is pushed around until the right position is reached, when the wings, over which canvas sails are stretched, begin to revolve.

Early forts, whether on the frontier or in the more settled seigneuries, were generally built of logs set upright into the ground side by side to form a palisade. The logs usually were sunk about three feet into the earth, and extended fifteen or sixteen feet above the ground. Their tops were pointed, and along the inside of the palisade was built a platform on which the defenders could stand to fire over the top, or through loop-holes cut high enough to make it impossible for the attackers to put their own guns through them and thus shoot those inside. In most cases at the angles of the fort were placed blockhouses, built of heavy logs laid horizontally. These corner blockhouses, called bastions, projected beyond the palisades and were pierced by loop-holes through which the defenders could fire along the outside line of the connecting palisade, which was called the curtain. Sometimes a blockhouse was built over the entrance gateway, and a few small cannon were mounted there and in the bastions.

The more important forts were surrounded by a ditch, and the earth dug out was thrown up on the inner side to make an embankment in which the palisades were set. Over the ditch or moat, at the entrance, was a hinged bridge, which could be drawn up by ropes or chains to close the gateway in times of danger.

## Page 149

There is no authentic portrait of Frontenac. Some years ago an engraving purporting to represent him on his deathbed was circulated in Quebec; but in 1891 it was proved to be really the portrait of a Swiss theologian, Heidegger, engraved in 1778 for Lavater's book on physiognomy. Hébert's admirable statue of Frontenac in Quebec, is a spirited imaginative conception which vividly expresses the character of the fiery governor. One small detail is incorrect, Frontenac is shown wearing the sash and order of St. Louis. This was not conferred upon him until 1696, six years after his defiance of Sir William Phips, which the statue depicts, and which took place three years before the order was founded.

Jean Talon (1625-1694) was the greatest Intendant of New France. Under his administration of a little more than five years, 1665-1668 and 1669-1672, commerce and industry were stimulated, the population increased, and colonization was organized and extended. See *Jean Talon*, *Intendant de la Nouvelle France*, by Thomas Chapais, Quebec, 1904.

Alexandre de Prouville, Marquis de Tracy (1603-1670) was an able military officer. Appointed Lieutenant-General of the French possessions in America, he arrived at Quebec in the summer of 1665. He spent eighteen months in Canada. His principal undertaking was an expedition which he led into the Iroquois country in 1666 which inflicted great damage to their villages.

In the latter half of the seventeenth century it became the fashion for men to wear wigs. At the same time the moustache and the beard disappeared, and for the next hundred years or more, in civilized society, the face was clean-shaven. No doubt, however, sailors, explorers and soldiers in the wilderness allowed their beards to grow, as did missionary priests, to whom special permission was granted. Almost without exception, the portraits of the eighteenth century until towards its last years, show clean-shaven faces.

There were many styles of wigs—some introduced by the caprice of fashion, some adopted by the professions, the law, the church, the army. Only a few broad differences can here be indicated. The full-bottomed wig, extending down the back and breast and over the shoulders in a mass of curls, gradually grew smaller, until about 1725 the wig fell no lower on the sides than the ears, and was gathered into a tail at the back. All later variations were confined to various styles of curling, frizzing, braiding, etc., within this area.

Mistakes are sometimes made in imaginative pictures or in dramatic representations by dressing a character in a costume copied from an authentic likeness of the person, but painted at a time either later or earlier than that of the play or picture to be produced.

# Page 150

The regiment of Carignan was the first body of troops belonging to the French regular army sent to Canada. The arrival of these veterans, numbering from twelve to fifteen hundred, was an important addition to the strength of the colony, where never more than one hundred and fifty soldiers had ever been assembled before.

They arrived in the summer of 1665, after several years' active service, their last campaign being in Hungary against the Turks. After marching on foot across Europe, they made the tedius Atlantic voyage in crowded, ill-provided, fever-infected ships, and on their arrival were sent as quickly as possible to build forts on the Richelieu River, the gateway through which the Iroquois invaded Canada. By the end of autumn four forts were built and garrisoned. Duty in a new frontier post was itself no easy task, but there was still more arduous work ahead of them.

Many of the Carignan veterans settled along the frontier in the neighbourhood of Montreal. Some became Indian traders or coureurs-de-bois, while others found employment in the towns. Several of their officers received grants of land and became seigneurs. Their names survive today in the names of such places as Sorel, Chambly, Lavaltrie, Verchères, St. Ours, Contrecoeur, Varennes, and others.

The drawing shows the Carignan parade uniform: brown coat, grey stockings, white belt, black low-crowned hat with wide turned-up brim. In winter they no doubt wore fur caps, leggings and moccasins. The Canadian militia wore thick homespun or blanket coats, and woollen caps or tuques. Those from the Quebec district were clothed in red, those from Three Rivers in white, and those of Montreal in blue.

For detailed history of the Carignan regiment and its Canadian connections consult *Le Régiment de Carignan*, by Benjamin Sulte, 1922, and the book bearing the same title, which completes Sulte's work, by Régis Roy and G. Malchelosse, 1925, both published by G. Ducharme, Montreal.

The "Runners of the Woods" or Coureurs-de-Bois greatly aided the French explorers in penetrating into the interior of the continent. They served as canoemen and were invaluable as scouts and explorers.

They adopted many of the habits of life of the Indians. They were moccasins and fur caps, leggings, and buckskin coats,

cut into fringes at the shoulders and skirts and along the seams, and ornamented with beads and dyed porcupine quills. They smeared their faces with grease and paint, as did the Indians, as a protection against mosquitoes and black flies, while at times of festivity they donned gay coloured laced coats of French cloth, feathered hats, and silk scarves and sashes.

## Page 151

Among the instruments used by travellers to find their positions was the cross-staff, generally in use on ships. It consisted of a staff, along which was slid a cross-bar set at right angles, which could be fixed tightly at any required distance by a screw. The observer applied his eye to one end of the staff and raised it until it was in line with the sun or star by which he measured. He then moved the cross-bar along the staff until its lower extremity touched the horizon. If the sun was high, the distance from the near end of the staff to the bar was short; if low, the bar would have to be moved farther along the staff. This was marked at regular intervals, which gave the degree of the sun's altitude above the horizon. From this the observer could calculate roughly his position.

The astrolabe was a flat circular plate of brass, divided into degrees, across the face of which moved a bar pivoted on the centre. The bar was pierced with an eyelet through which the traveller sighted the sun. The point on the circle at which the har rested when in line with the eye and the sun gave the degree of the sun's elevation. From this angle the latitude was calculated. In order to take a correct observation it was necessary to hold the astrolabe in an exactly perpendicular position. It was therefore suspended by a ring at the top from the thumb or finger of the observer, or from the projecting branch of a tree. or, if on shipboard, from some portion of the rigging. The astrolabe was slightly thicker at the bottom and had a short projection to give it more steadiness when thus suspended. Some pictures show Champlain holding an astrolabe by this projection at the base, supposing that it was a handle, but this was not the way it was used. See picture on page 92, showing Champlain using his astrolabe on the Ottawa, and Canada's Past in Pictures for the story of its loss and recovery.

The astrolabe was superseded by the quadrant and the sextant in taking astronomical observations.

#### Page 153

By the middle of the seventeenth century marked changes in costume had occurred. The sleeveless short outer jerkin gave place to a coat with sleeves and long skirts extending to the knees. It was an age of ribbons and laces, frills, feathers, buttons and braid.

Compare the male costumes shown in pictures on pages 130, 150, 157.

#### Page 154

Charles Huot, the painter of the picture here reproduced, was born in Quebec in 1855, worked in Europe from 1874 until 1886, when he returned to Canada. He lived for several years at Sillery, where he died in 1930.

He is probably best known by his large mural decorations in the Legislative Building in Quebec. These consist of two large wall paintings, one in the Assembly Chamber, depicting the meeting of the First Legislature of Lower Canada in 1792, and the other in the Council Chamber, portraying the first sitting of the Sovereign Council of New France, while another painting of allegorical character decorates the ceiling of the Assembly Chamber. These are the most important works of their kind in the country, and represent the most ambitious project for the decoration of a public building which Canada has undertaken.

The painting of the Meeting of the Sovereign Council occupies a panel twelve feet high and thirty feet long, above the Speaker's Chair. It was the last work of the painter, who died before it was finished. Messrs. Charles Maillard and Ivan Neilson, of the Quebec School of Fine Arts, completed the picture. The details of architecture, costume and furnishings have been studied with care, and the picture is an accurate historical record as well as an admirable decoration.

#### Page 155

In 1669 two Sulpician priests, François Dollier de Casson and René de Bréhant de Galinée left Montreal on a missionary exploration of the West by way of the Great Lakes. Dr. James H. Coyne has translated their narrative of the expedition with an introduction and explanatory notes which add greatly to the interest of the original story. It was published by The Ontario Historical Society, Toronto.

The party reached the neighbourhood of modern Port Dover on Lake Erie in the middle of October. Here, in a sheltered spot on Black Creek where it joins the River Lynn, they built a couple of small cabins wherein they spent the winter.

On Passion Sunday, March 23rd, 1670, on the cliff overlooking the lake shore, they put up a cross bearing the Royal Arms and an inscription stating that they and seven other Frenchmen had been the first Europeans to winter there and that they had taken possession of the country in the name of Louis XIV. In 1922 the Sites and Monuments Board of Canada erected a memorial cross on the cliff to mark their discovery of the north shore of Lake Erie.

Their journey took them as far as Sault Ste. Marie and from there back to Montreal by the Ottawa River after nearly a year's absence.

#### Page 157

St. Lusson holds in one hand a sod of earth. This was part of the procedure in taking possession of land. This ceremony was performed by discoverers and often also by seigneurs on entering on territory granted them by the king. Sometimes a twig taken from a tree was used as a symbol. Explorers frequently marked the ownership of their sovereign by erecting a cross, as did Cartier, or by burying an inscribed metal plate, like La Vérendrye. St. Lusson, in addition to taking the sod, put up a cross bearing a metal plate engraved with the King's arms.

The rights of the native inhabitants to their country were ignored, and it is doubtful whether, during the French régime, any treaty was made with the Indians which included a purchase or a formal surrender of their lands.

#### Page 163

Hennepin's own book gives us the first detailed description of Niagara Falls. It contains also the first picture of them, an engraving on which the drawing herein is based. The engraving probably was made from a drawing by Hennepin, or from his own description and under his supervision. It is out of proportion, but its general features give an accurate idea of the falls at his time, and is valuable because it shows the changes that have taken place in their shape since he saw them. On the right of the picture, in front of the western end of the Horse Shoe Fall, is seen a small cross fall which plunges over an overhanging rock projecting from the edge of the cliff. This fall no longer exists, for the rock, later known as Table Rock, split off and fell some years ago, and the course of the river has altered considerably, owing to the gradual wearing away of the crest of the Falls.

Hennepin is wearing the brown grey robe of the Franciscan order, of which the Recollets, to which body he belonged, was a branch. Around his waist is girt a knotted cord, and over his head is pulled the pointed hood, which could be thrown back to hang behind his shoulders. The rules of his order prescribed that he should wear sandals on his bare feet; but in severe weather and when travelling through the wilderness he would wear moccasins.

## Page 165

In 1679 La Salle began the building of a vessel on a creek on the east bank of the Niagara near Lake Erie. She was named The Griffon, in honour of Frontenac, whose coat of arms bore that mythical monster. On August 7th, La Salle and his followers embarked, and the vessel, the first to sail on the upper lakes, proceeded on her voyage to Green Bay, Lake Michigan, Here she was laden with furs, and in the middle of September was sent back to Niagara with orders to return as soon as her cargo was discharged. Meanwhile La Salle proceeded to the southern end of the lake, where he was to await The Griffon bringing the supplies he needed for his journey down the Mississippi. He watched and waited in vain until December, when reluctantly he set out to winter in the Illinois country. No word of the fate of The Griffon reached him; somewhere in Lake Huron or Lake Michigan she was wrecked; but to this day no one knows how or where.

Hennepin's *Voyages* contains an engraving depicting the building of *The Griffon*, but we cannot tell how authentic any of its details are, and some of them are absurdly incorrect, such as the inclusion of a palm tree in the landscape setting.

#### Page 166

From the earliest times, voyageurs, both Indians and whites, on their way up and down the Great Lakes, followed the route between Lake Ontario at the mouth of the Humber and the Holland River and Lake Simcoe. Though it entailed an overland march of about thirty miles, much of it through rough, hilly country, it avoided the roundabout journey by way of Niagara, Lake Erie, the Detroit and St. Clair, and Lake Huron.

La Salle passed over it three, or possibly four times. In August, 1681, he spent about three weeks in getting his canoes and baggage over the carrying place, on his way to the Mississippi. Eight months later, in April, 1682, he reached the mouth of the great river, the first white man to trace it to its outlet into the Gulf of Mexico.

The canoes he used were twenty feet long and three feet wide, capable of carrying twelve hundredweight of merchandise. It was probably the arduous labour involved in transporting these heavy loads over the rugged hills of the height of land that made La Salle call them mountains, although at most they are only about eleven hundred feet above sea-level.

The name Toronto was originally applied to Lake Simcoe and the region between it and the southern shore of Georgian Bay. The word does not appear on maps before 1673, and was first mentioned by La Salle.

The history of the Toronto Carrying Place is told with complete and picturesque detail in *Toronto During the French Régime*, by Dr. Percy J. Robinson, The Ryerson Press, Toronto.

## Page 167

The history of a country includes the history of its literature, its arts and its sciences. This collection therefore includes some pictorial records of Canada's development in these directions. Michel Sarrazin has been called the founder of Canadian science.

He was born in 1659, in Burgundy, of a family long connected with the law. His own inclinations led him to the study of the physical sciences and the practice of surgery. He came to Canada in 1685, and was appointed surgeon-major to the troops. In 1694 he returned to France, gained the degree of Doctor of Medicine, and returned to Canada in 1697.

While in France he frequented the society of scientists, among them the great botanist, Tournefort, then also studying medicine. Tournefort nominated him as corresponding member of the Royal Academy of Sciences. Sarrazin sent to him and to Reaumur, the celebrated physicist, zoological and botanical specimens, among them two hundred plants for the Royal Gardens, as well as memoirs and descriptions of many Canadian animals and plants. He dissected and made microscopical examinations of the porcupine, the beaver, the muskrat and the seal, the blueberry, the sugar-maple, and the pitcher-plant. This latter species received its scientific name, Sarracenia, in honour of his researches.

In attendance upon the sick at the Hotel Dieu he contracted ship's fever, from which he died in 1735.

His most eminent successor was Jean François Gaultier, born in Normandy, who came to Canada in 1742 as a King's Doctor, and like Sarrazin died while attending the sick soldiers brought in the fleet in 1756. He also carried on scientific researches in meteorology, in the effect of climate on health, and in botany. He communicated papers on these subjects to the Academy, and his name also is commemorated in that of a native plant, the wintergreen, known scientifically as Gaultheria.

#### Pages 169 and 170

The story of D'Iberville's exploits in Hudson Bay is told in The History of North America, by Bacqueville de la Potherie, 1722. An English translation has been published by The Champlain Society, Toronto, in Documents Relating to the Early History of Hudson Bay, edited with introduction and notes by Dr. J. B. Tyrrell.

In September, 1697, D'Iberville, with his ship, *The Pelican*, defeated three English vessels near Fort Nelson. Two days after his victory, *The Pelican* and an English vessel he had captured in the fight were wrecked in a gale with the loss of several of his men. The rest reached the shore and suffered severely from cold and exposure. Next day three others of his ships arrived, and the French attacked the fort so vigorously that it was forced to surrender four days later.

## Page 171

Henry Kelsey, a young man in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company, was sent, in 1690, to establish trade relations with the Indians of the plains. He spent two years among them, and penetrated farther into the prairie than any previous white man, but his route and the distance he travelled are not certainly known. He was the first white man to see and describe the mu kox, the grizzly bear and the buffalo.

His journals and letters have been published by the Public Archives of Canada in *The Kelsey Papers*, with an introduction by Sir Arthur Doughty and Professor Chester Martin, which gives all the information available concerning Kelsey, his journey. his connection with the Company, and his subsequent career.

#### Pages 174 and 175

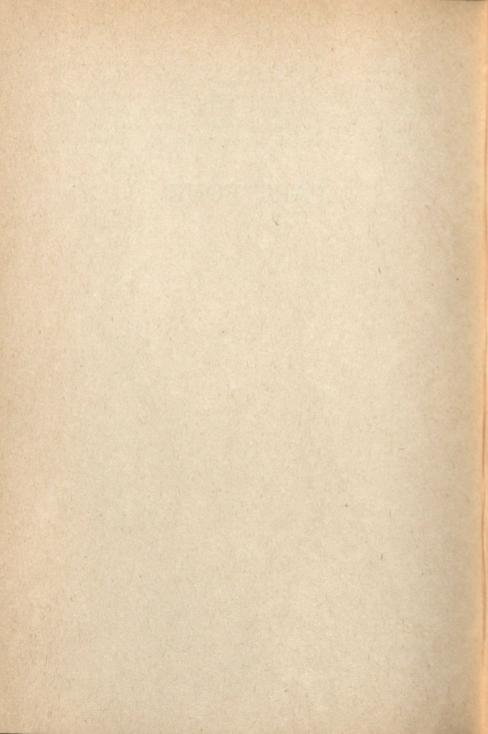
The area in the city of Quebec where now are situated the Chateau Frontenac, the Governor's Garden, Dufferin Terrace, and the Bishop's Palace, was occupied from the time of Champlain, throughout the French régime, and during the earlier years of British rule by the successive residences of various governors, generally known as the Fort or the Chateau St. Louis. The illustrations, taken from contemporary prints or plans, show the appearance of the promontory at different periods until the conquest.

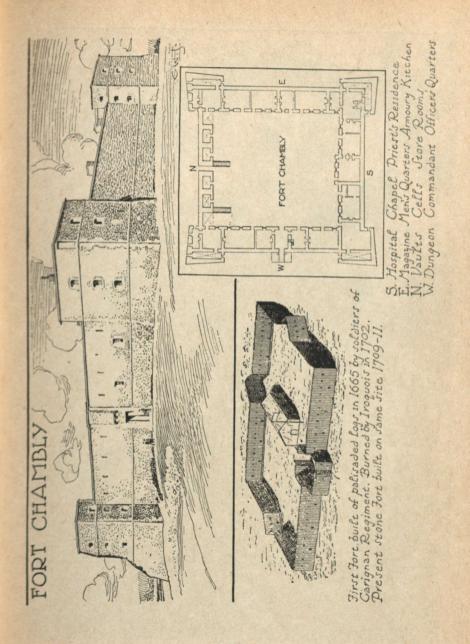
# Page 177

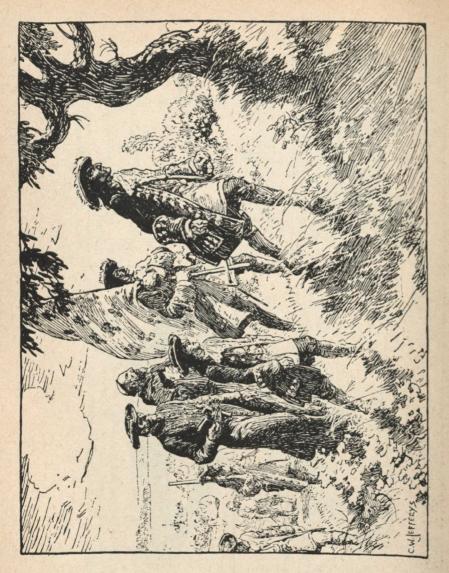
Note the gradual change from the long rapier of the early seventeenth century, which was worn almost upright and suspended from a baldric over the right shoulder, to the shorter sword of the late eighteenth century, worn almost horizontally, and later hung from a belt around the waist.

Kirby, in the first page of his romance, *The Golden Dog*, makes a minor error in describing officers in 1748 as *leaning* on their swords. This would scarcely have been possible: it was contrary to the custom of the time, and it is doubtful whether the short sling from the cross-belt to the scabbard would admit of it. Only in the early nineteenth century could this be done, when cavalry and artillery swords were hung by longer slings from the waist belt.

# PART FOUR





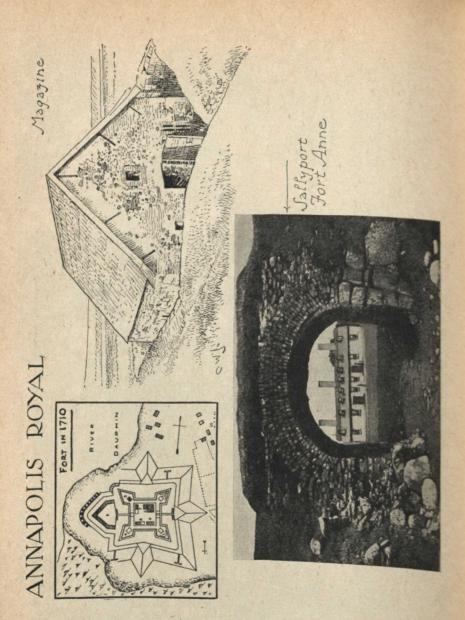


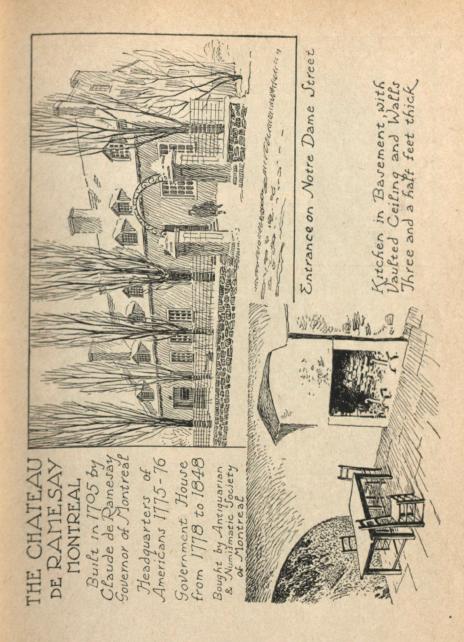
French Sarrison marching out of Port Royal after its surrender 1710

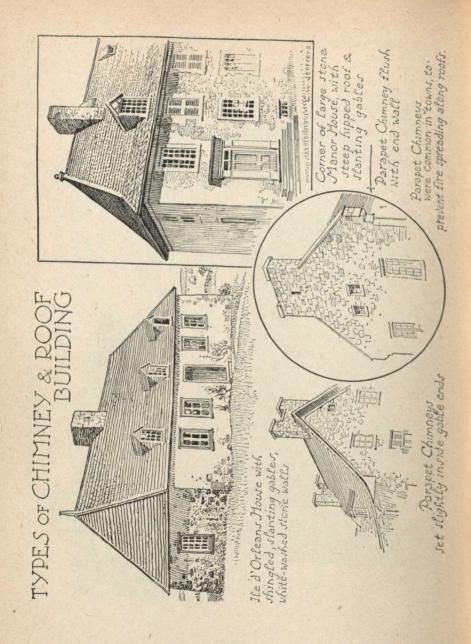


Daul Mascarene First Governor of Annapolis Royal under British rule

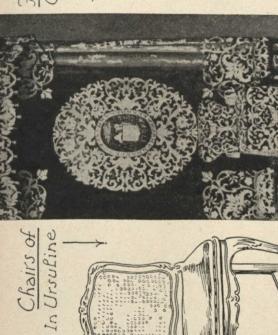






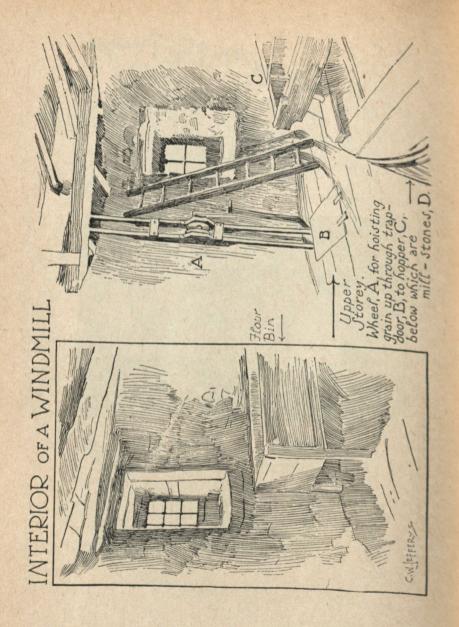


## 18th Century Furniture



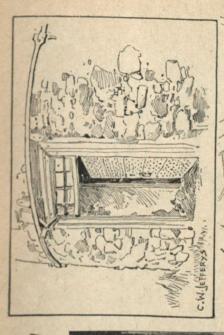
French Régime
Convent Quebec
(String of String of String

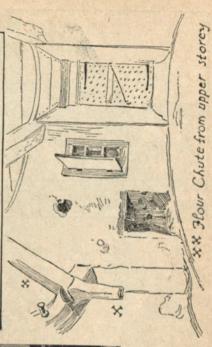
Throne & Dair of Bishops of Quebec, dated 1703. In Wotre Dame Museum, Montreal.



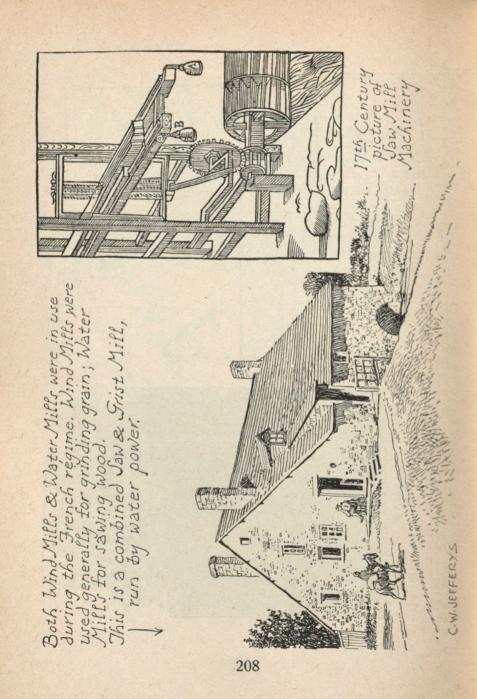
## WINDMILL DETAILS



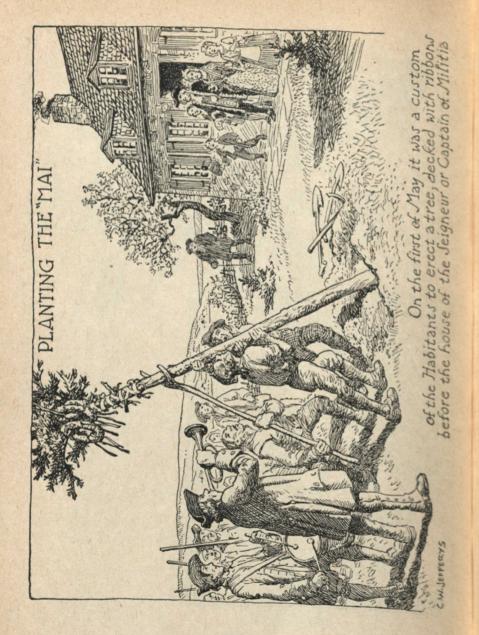


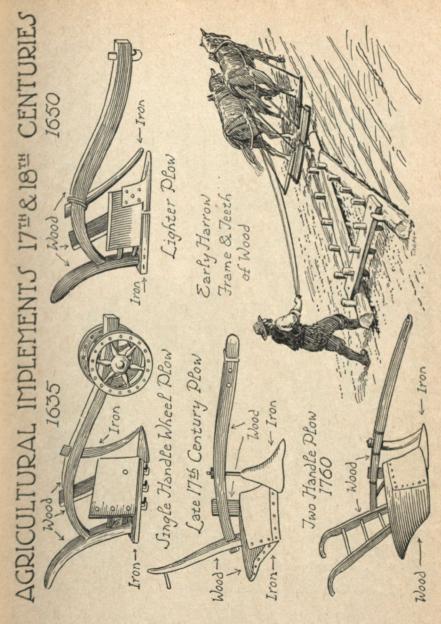


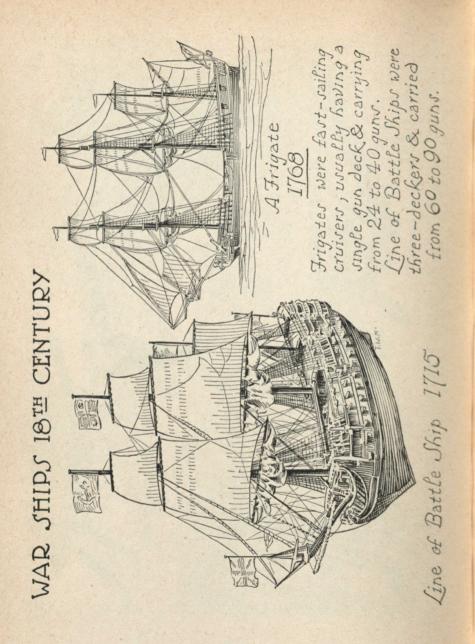


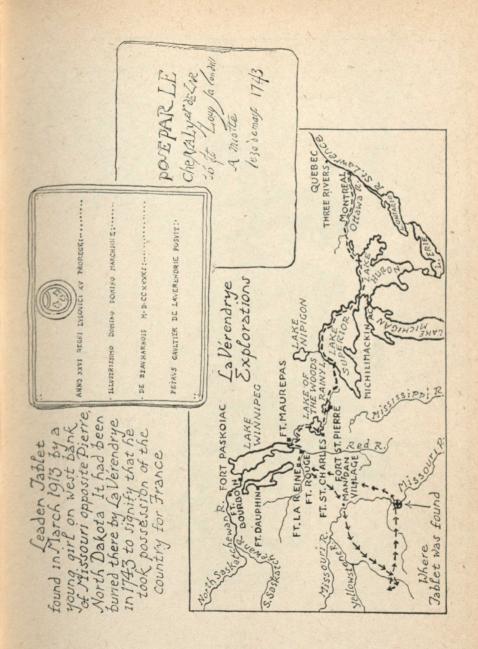


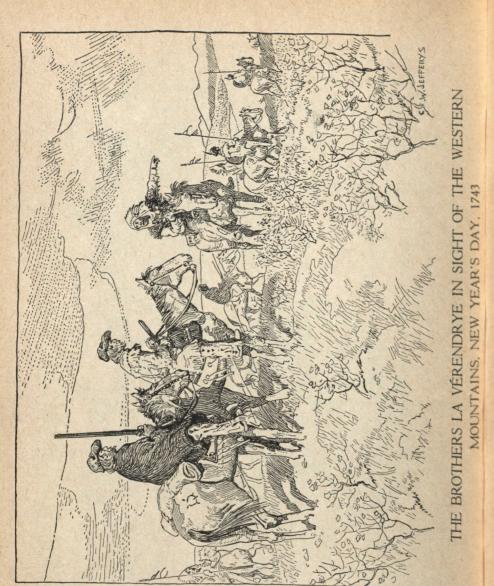
THE SEIGNEUR

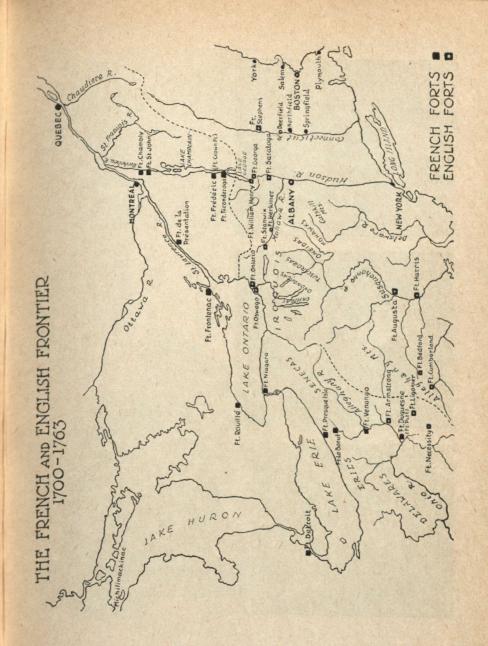


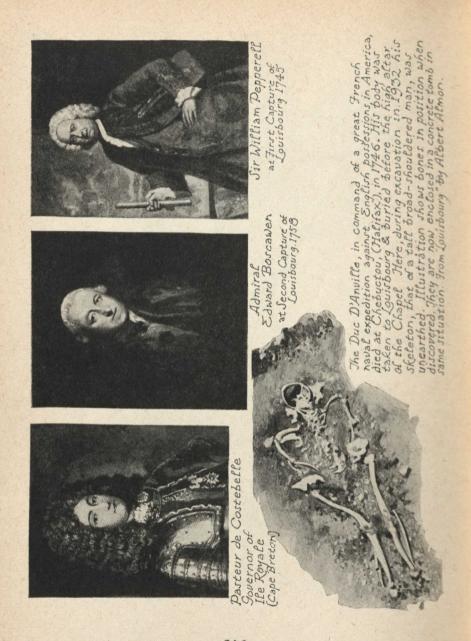


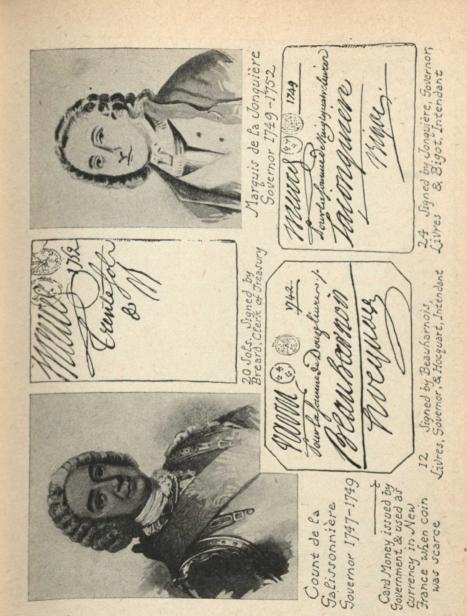


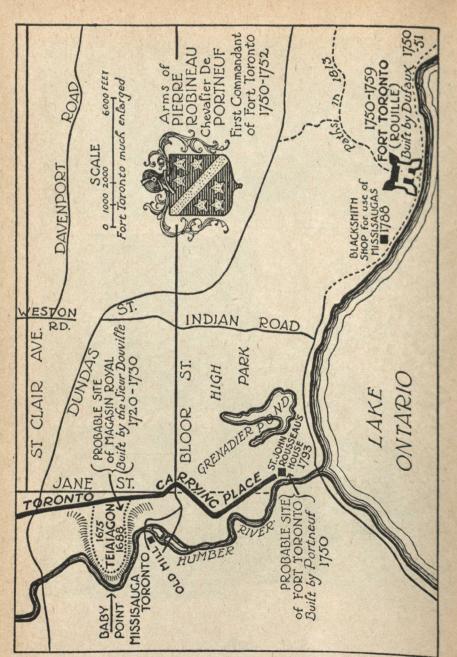










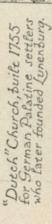


MAP SHOWING THE POSITION OF THE FRENCH POSTS AT TORONTO



THE FOUNDING OF HALIFAX, 1749

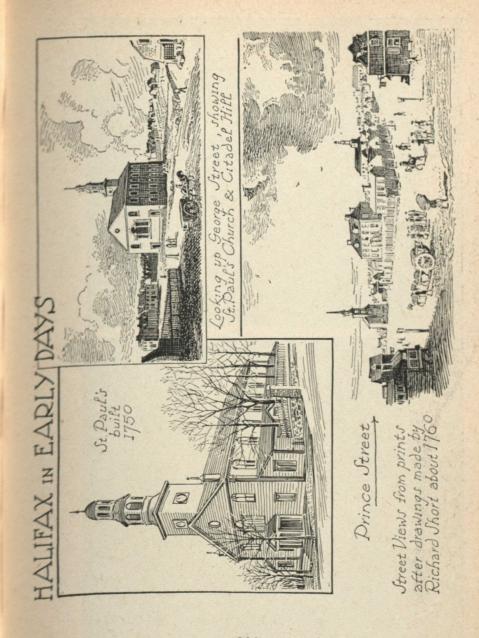
From the original painting in the possession of the Art Gallery of Toronto.





Sarliest view of Halifax, taken from the topmast of a vessel in the harbour. Published in 1750 by J. Jefferys, London.

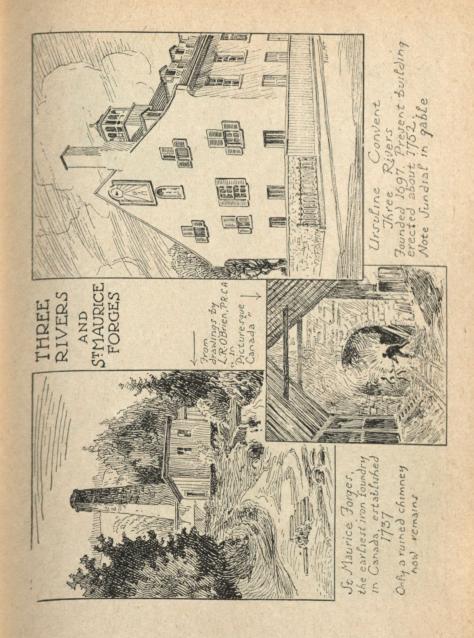
Note palisade & fortified bastions, & stocks & gallows in foreground.

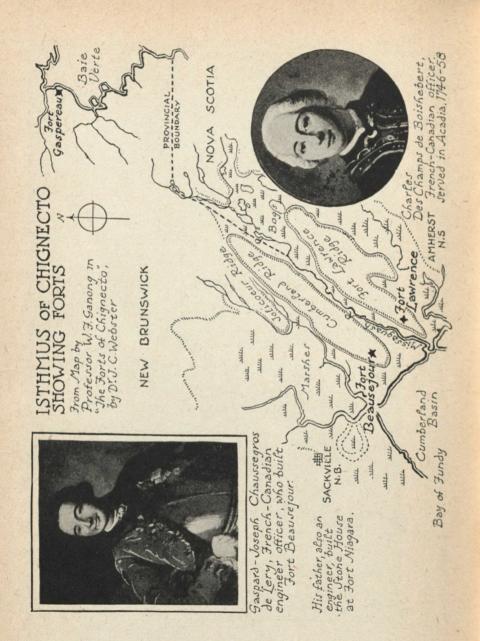


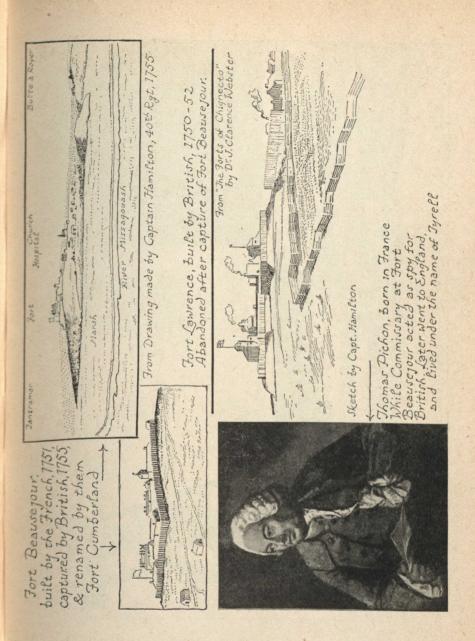




Hon. Edward CornWallis from painting by Sir G. Chalmers 1755









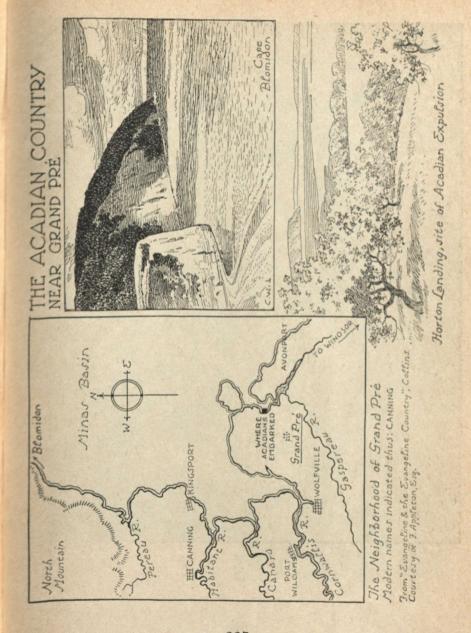


Painting showing Watson's exploit of recovering strayed cattle at Chignecto, April 1755

Sir Brook Watson John Singleton Copley showing him as ford Mayor of London

Pictures in the collection of Canadiana, owned by Dr.J. Clarence Webster, thy whose courtesy they are herein included.







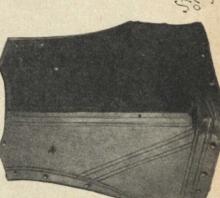


## RELICS OF MONTCALM



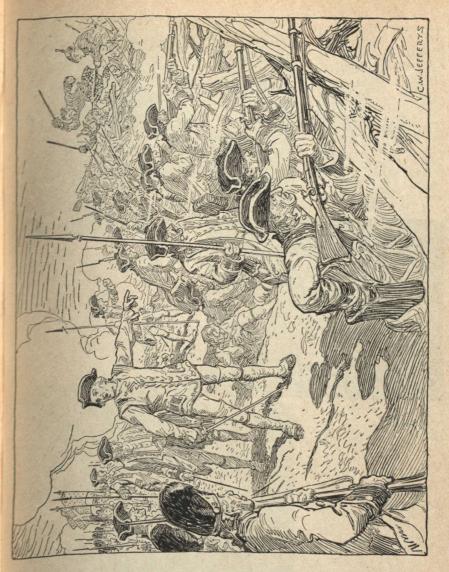
Arms of Montcalm

Jilver Cup wood Joy Jontcalm.
In 715 Cord Mineum. Montreal.



Montcalm was buried in the Chapel of the Ursuline Nuns. His skull is carefully preserved in the Convent.

The Cuirass which probably he wore in the Battle of the Plains is kept at the Chateau of his family at Candiac in France. See his portrait, which shows him wearing fuch a currass.

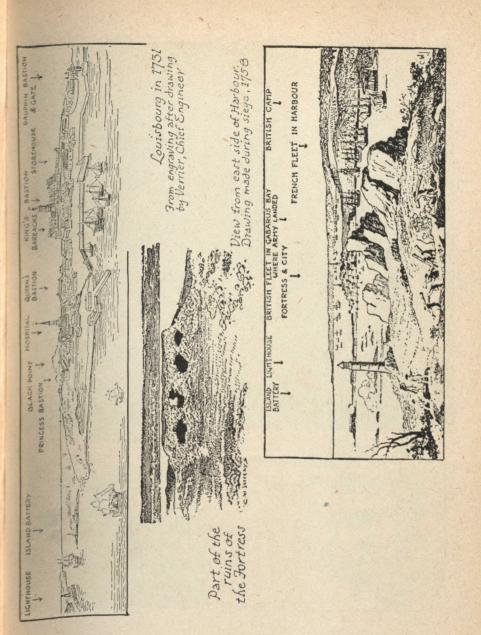




Sir Jeffery Amherst Painting by Sir Joshua Reynolds









Courtesy of the Canadian Bank of Commerce.

DEPARTURE OF THE BRITISH TROOPS FROM LOUISBOURG FOR THE CAPTURE OF QUEBEC





Louis-Antoine de Bougainville

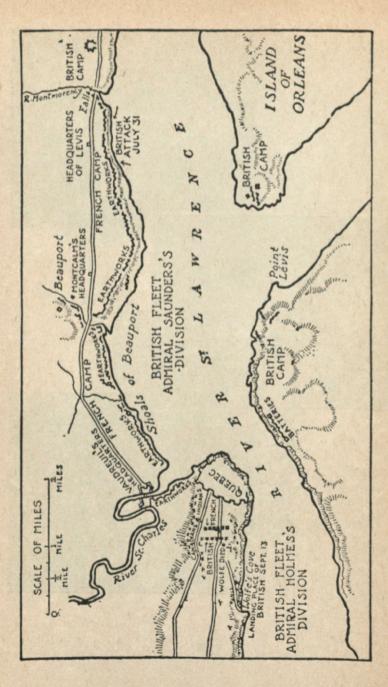


Pierre Rigaud
Marquis
de
Vaudreuil
Last Governor
of New France

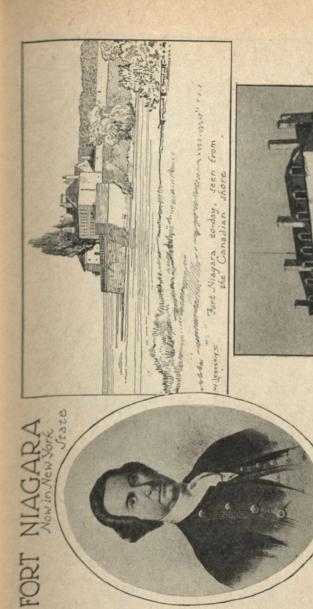


The Chevalier de Levis





MAP OF THE SIEGE OF QUEBEC, 1759



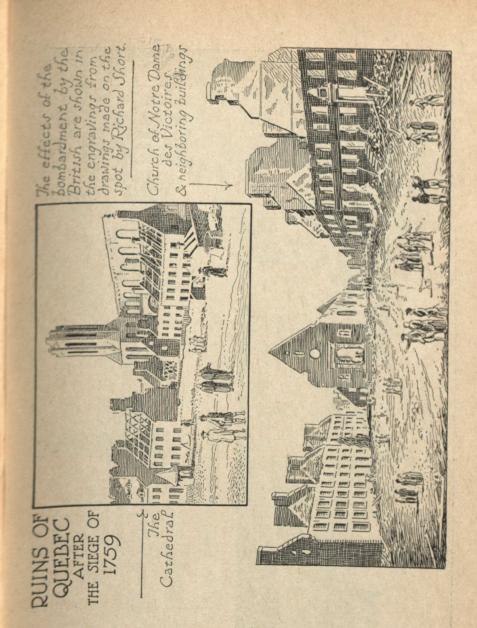
oldest existing building hest of Albany, built 1725-27 by Saspard Chaussegros de Léry, engineer, father of the de Lery who supervised building of Fort Beausejour, Chighecto.

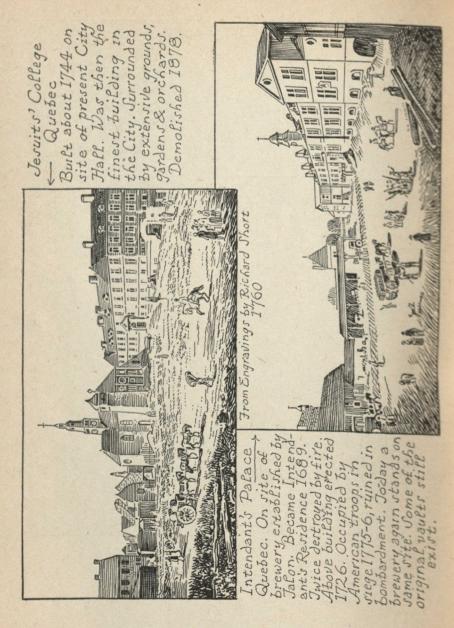
Sir William Johnson

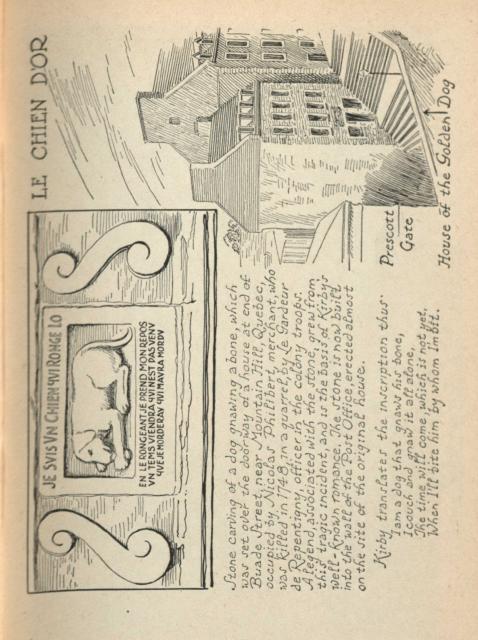


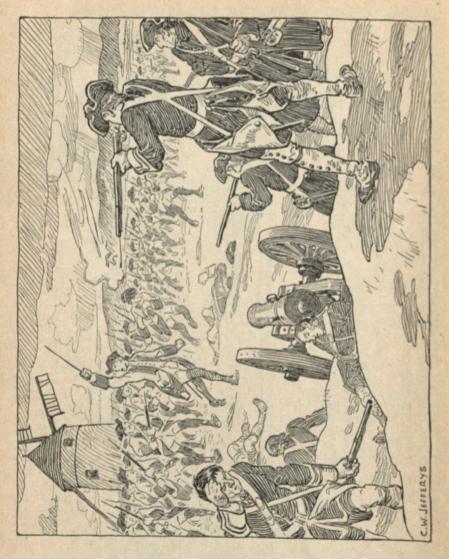


WOLFE LEADING THE LINE AT THE BATTLE OF THE PLAINS, SEPTEMBER 13, 1759



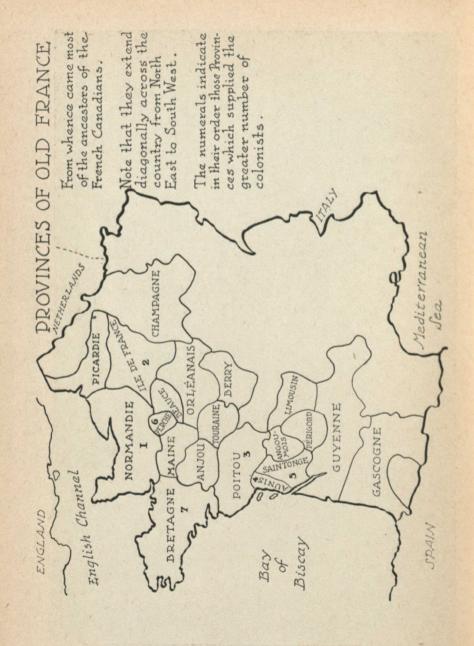








VIEW OF MONTREAL, 1760
Drawn on the spot by Thomas Patten, engraved by P. Canot.



#### NOTES ON PART FOUR

Page 199

The Richelieu River, with Lake Champlain and the Hudson Valley, formed a waterway leading directly to the heart of French Canada. Again and again by this route the Iroquois raided the settlements from the Mohawk country. To stem this continuous menace a chain of forts was built along the Richelieu.

Fort Chambly was situated on a projecting point where shallow rapids obstructed the river. It was a square of 144 feet on each side, surrounded by a palisade of logs fifteen feet high. It was built by Jacques de Chambly, a captain of the Carignans, who was its commandant for some years. This first wooden fort gradually fell into decay, was abandoned in 1702, and burned by the Indians.

But the growing power of the British colonies and the danger from their allies, the Iroquois, made it necessary to maintain a strong fortress here as an outpost to protect Montreal. The colonists themselves undertook the work of rebuilding, and in 1710 began the construction of the existing fort of massive masonry.

In 1760, after the fall of Quebec, three British armies converged upon Montreal from east, west and south. Fort Chambly, which was feebly garrisoned and short of provisions, was compelled to surrender to the force advancing from Lake Champlain.

In 1921 the Fort was placed under the charge of the Dominion National Parks Bureau, and today is carefully preserved as a historical memorial. For details of its history see the *Guide to Fort Chambly*, published by the Canadian National Parks Bureau, Ottawa, and *Le Fort de Chambly*, by Benjamin Sulte and Gerard Malchelosse, published by G. Ducharme, Montreal.

# Page 200

In the summer of 1701 La Mothe Cadillac was sent to found a post at Detroit. He took with him one hundred men, his young son, and two missionaries, a Récollet and a Jesuit. Next year his wife made the long journey from Montreal to join him. She was the first white woman to enter that territory.

### Page 201

Jean Paul Mascarene was born of Huguenot parents in the south of France in 1684. He went to England, was naturalized, and entered the army. He took part in the expedition that captured Port Royal in 1710. Thereafter he served for many years as commander of the garrison of Annapolis Royal and as councillor and administrator of Nova Scotia, striving to secure the loyalty of the Acadians and to counteract the influence of the French agents among them. In 1751 he retired to Boston where he died in 1760.

## Page 203

The Chateau de Ramesay is situated on Notre Dame Street East, opposite the City Hall. It was built by Claude de Ramesay for his residence as Governor of Montreal, in 1705. He was descended from a noble family of old France, possibly related to the Ramsays of Scotland, as seems indicated by his coat of arms which bears the figure of a ram. After his death his family sold the Chateau to the Company of the Indies, which controlled the fur trade and the wholesale commerce of the country. The building which had been the centre of social and administrative life became an office and warehouse.

After the British conquest it passed into private ownership until 1773, when it was leased to the Government, and became the Montreal residence of Governor Sir Guy Carleton until the invasion of the American revolutionists in 1775.

During their possession of Montreal the Chateau was the headquarters of the American army. Here were held the councils-of-war and receptions of Generals Montgomery, Arnold and Wooster, and the conferences of the commissioners, Benjamin Franklin, Chase and Carroll, who had been sent by Congress to try to win over the French-Canadians to the Revolutionary cause. Franklin brought with him a printer, Mesplet, a Frenchman, to print their proclamations, and it is said that the first printing press in Montreal was set up by him in the vaulted basement of the Chateau.

In 1778, after the British had recovered Montreal, the Chateau was bought by Governor Haldimand, the successor of Carleton, and served for seventy years as the headquarters of civil and

military administration. In 1895 it was bought by the city to be converted into a historical museum, and was leased to the Antiquarian and Numismatic Society of Montreal for this purpose.

The Chateau is one of the few buildings surviving from the French régime in Montreal. It gives a good idea of the solid building construction of the period. Its basement with walls three and a half feet thick, its vaulted ceilings and huge fireplaces and ovens, and its other rooms are as interesting as their contents, which include old furniture, vehicles, implements, historical portraits, views and documents, French-Canadian handicrafts and Indian relics.

See Les Ramezay et leur Chateau, by Victor Morin.

## Page 210

It was the custom in old France as well as in Canada, on the first of May, to plant a tree before the house of the Seigneur, or of the local captain of militia. The tree, generally a spruce, was stripped of its branches except a few at the top, where a circle of wood was fastened, from which hung garlands and streamers.

Early in the morning, the habitants brought the "Mai," as the tree was called, accompanied by a drummer and a trumpeter, if there was either in the community. The butt of the tree was placed in a hole and the trunk raised by pushing it up with long spiked poles, in the same way as a modern telegraph pole is raised. When the tree was planted firmly, those among the inhabitants who had brought their guns, fired several charges of powder at the tree until it was well blackened, to the accompaniment of the drum and trumpet and the loud cheers of those assembled. The seigneur or captain then invited the company to partake of a breakfast, which taxed the accommodation of the house to the uttermost, and generally lasted throughout the morning. The health of the host was drunk and the old chansons of France were sung. The custom continued for many years after the British conquest.

A graphic description of the ceremony may be read in Chapter 8 of De Gaspé's romance, The Canadians of Old.

### Page 214

La Vérendrye tells us that the Indians near the Missouri had large numbers of horses, mules and asses. This information is of great interest, since it shows us how far north the horse had reached at this date. The Spaniards had brought the first horses to this continent, and from their settlements in Mexico and California, from time to time, horses escaped, or were purchased or stolen by the Indians. They passed from tribe to tribe by capture or trade. The possession of these animals made an entire change in the life of the Indians, and gave the tribes who used them an enormous advantage in hunting, in travel and in warfare. The buffalo, on which they depended for their food. clothing and shelter, now could be surrounded, or ridden down by hunters on horseback. Formerly all journeys were made on foot; the dog was their only beast of burden, and these could carry only small loads. Now they could travel rapidly, and heavy loads could be transported easily by means of the travois. Indians never developed the wheel.

### Page 217

Under the French régime in Canada money was counted in livres, sols and deniers. Until 1717, the livre, equivalent to the franc, was worth 15 sols in Canada and 20 sols in France, while the sol consisted of 12 deniers. Old French accounts often use the signs L, s and d, these, of course, refer to the livres, sols and deniers, and it is only a coincidence that they should be the same as those which indicate the English pounds, shillings and pence.

There was always a scarcity of coinage in New France. The Intendants, who had charge of the finances of the colony, in order to provide a medium of currency, issued card or paper money at various times until the conquest. The first issues were put into circulation in 1685 by the Intendant, Meulles, and since there was neither press nor paper mill in Canada he used playing cards, writing the denomination and his signature on their plain backs and stamping them with his seal. This was the first paper money issued in America. Card money was suppressed in 1717, but twelve years later the need for currency compelled the authorities to resume its use; henceforth it was made from

plain cardboard, and bore the royal arms. In the last years of the French régime, Bigot, the corrupt Intendant, adopted the form of ordonnances, orders on the Quebec Treasury, which were printed in France in blank form on ordinary writing paper, and filled in by him in Canada. He flooded the country with over eighty million livres of this paper money.

The denominations of card money ranged from 7 sols to 100 livres. Of several issues no specimens have survived; but of others a number are to be found in various public and private collections.

Interest in the natural sciences was stimulated greatly in Canada by the Count de la Galisonnière, during his short term of office as Governor, 1747-1749. He was himself an associate member of the Academy, and he sent instructions to the commanding officers of posts throughout the west and north, urging them to collect and transport specimens of the natural products of the country. While he was Governor, the celebrated Swedish botanist, Peter Kalm, visited Canada in the course of his travels in North America, and was cordially welcomed by Galisonnière. Kalm speaks with admiration of the scientific knowledge of the Governor, and remarks on the keen interest in literature and natural history shown by the leading people of the colony.

Jacques Pierre de Taffanel, Marquis de la Jonquière, served in both the French army and navy, attaining the rank of Admiral. Appointed Governor of Canada, the fleet in which he sailed in 1747 was defeated and Jonquière was captured and held prisoner in England for two years. Galisonnière was sent to Canada as Administrator during his imprisonment. On his release, Jonquière proceeded to Canada and took up his government, which he held until his death at Quebec in 1752.

## Page 218

Dr. Percy Robinson has shown in his Toronto during the French Régime that a trading post was established at Toronto thirty years earlier than the date generally given for its foundation. The map shows the location of the three successive positions occupied by the French in relation to the topography today.

### Page 221

Richard Short, who drew these views of early Halifax, was purser of H.M.S. The Prince of Orange, belonging to the fleet of Admiral Saunders. From these sketches Dominic Serres, marine painter to George III, made six paintings which were reproduced

in line engravings and published in 1764 and in 1777.

All of Short's drawings show careful attention to details, and may be relied upon as authentic representations of the aspect of the places depicted at the time. They are among the best pictorial records of the early days of Canada. Especially valuable are his views of Quebec after the siege of Quebec. These were "drawn on the spot by the command of Admiral Saunders," and show with great accuracy the effect of the British bombardment. See pages 243 and 244.

#### Page 222

Hon. Edward Cornwallis, born London, 1713. Son of Baron Cornwallis. Entered the army and fought at Fontenoy and in the Jacobite rebellion of 1745 in Scotland. In 1749 he was given charge of a body of settlers sent to establish a colony at Chebuctou Harbour, designed as a naval station to checkmate the French stronghold at Louisbourg. Here he laid out the town of Halifax. He was Governor of Nova Scotia until 1752 when he returned to England. He served in various campaigns, attained the rank of Lieutenant-General, and was appointed Governor of Gibraltar in 1762, where he died in 1776.

John Winslow, born Massachusetts, 1702. Great-grandson of Edward Winslow, first Governor of the Plymouth colony. Served in the Provincial troops, and was a Lieutenant-Colonel at the siege and capture of Fort Beauséjour in 1755. Acting under the orders of Governor Lawrence, he took a prominent part in the deportation of the Acadians. Later he held various military and judicial positions in New England, where he died in 1774.

### Page 224

Several members of the de Léry family became distinguished military engineers. The first of them connected with the history of Canada was Gaspard Chaussegros de Léry, born in Toulon in 1682. He was trained as a military engineer under his father,

and after serving for some years in Europe, was sent to Canada in 1716 to make plans for the fortifications of Quebec and Montreal. Thenceforward until 1751 all of the forts and public buildings in New France were made after his plans and under his direction. He worked on Forts Chambly and Niagara, on the Chateau St. Louis at Quebec, and at the St. Maurice Forges. He was made a Chevalier of St. Louis in 1741 and died ten years later.

His eldest son, Joseph-Gaspard, was born in Quebec in 1721, was educated under his father and employed on numerous fortified places from Acadia to Detroit. In 1751 he built Fort Beauséjour. He also took part in the fight at Grand Pré in 1747, the capture of Oswego, the battle of Ticonderoga and the battle of the Plains of Abraham, where he was wounded. After the surrender of Montreal he went to France, but finding no employment there he returned to Canada. Governor Guy Carleton gave him the post of Grand Voyer (Superintendent of Highways), and later he was appointed to the Legislative and Executive Councils. He had been given the order of St. Louis, and while serving faithfully under the British Crown, continued to receive his French pension. He died at Quebec in 1797. Shortly after the conquest of Canada he and his wife, who was very handsome, were presented at the court of George III. The king gallantly remarked, "If all the ladies of Canada are as beautiful as you, Madame, I have indeed made a conquest."

One of his sons, François-Joseph, whom he left in France to be educated for the army, achieved high distinction as an officer in the army of Napoleon, who made him Commander-in-Chief of Engineers of the Grand Army. De Léry's name is included among those of Napoleon's generals inscribed on the Arc de Triomphe in Paris.

Charles des Champs de Boishébert, born in Quebec in 1727, served principally in Acadia, where he became known as an enterprising partisan leader, and was engaged in protecting Acadian refugees. He led a force of Indians and French to the relief of Louisbourg during its siege by the British, but was unable to accomplish anything. He fought at Quebec under Montcalm, and next year commanded the Grenadiers at the battle of Ste. Foye. After the conquest he went to France, where he was imprisoned in the Bastille on the charge of being

involved in the peculations of the Intendant Bigot, but was exonerated and released. He married a cousin and retired to an estate near Rouen, and died some time after 1783.

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The story of Brook Watson reminds us of the legend of Dick Whittington. Born in 1735, Watson was left a penniless orphan when ten years old. He was sent to a distant relative at Boston, Massachusetts, who got him employment on a vessel trading to the West Indies. While swimming in the harbour of Havana, he was attacked by a shark that bit off his right leg. On his recovery and return to Boston, he got work with a trader who sold supplies to the British garrison of Fort Lawrence at Chignecto. While there, in April, 1755, Watson swam the Missiguash River through the floating ice, naked and with only one leg, to rescue a number of cattle which had strayed across to the opposite French shore. His exploit was watched by some of the French, who, in admiration of his plucky action, refrained from molesting him. Later in life a painting of the incident was made in London, a reproduction of which is here given.

Watson's diligence, his ability in business and his obliging manners attracted the attention of the officials, and he was employed to help in keeping the books of the Commissary.

In 1758 he started in business in partnership with a Halifax merchant and next year went to London, and thenceforward was engaged for many years in trade with Nova Scotia. He prospered, became a prominent citizen and filled many important positions.

When Sir Guy Carleton became Commander-in-Chief in North America, Watson was appointed Commissary-General and assisted in the evacuation of the Loyalists, and it was largely on his suggestion that many of them were taken to Nova Scotia. On his return to England he continued to act as their steady friend, strongly supported their claims for compensation by the Government for their losses, and was appointed agent in London for the new colony of New Brunswick.

He was elected a Member of Parliament in 1784. He acted as Commissary-General to the Army, and was a Director of the Bank of England. In 1796 he became Lord Mayor of London, and in 1805 was made a baronet.

The story of John Singleton Copley and his son bears some resemblance to that of Watson. Copley was born in Boston in 1737, became an artist and attained considerable reputation in New England as a portrait painter. On the eve of the Revolution he sailed for England. On the vessel he met Watson returning from a government mission, and the two formed a life-long friendship. Copley later painted a large picture representing Watson's encounter with the shark, and the portrait of him as Lord Mayor which is here reproduced. Copley executed many portraits and historical pictures. His work in general shows marked artistic quality.

His son, also named John Singleton, had a long and successful career. His ability and eloquence made him a distinguished figure in Parliament for many years. He was a cabinet minister, was raised to the peerage as Lord Lyndhurst, and though the Boston painter did not live to see the attainment of these honours, his son became Lord Chancellor of England.

## Page 229

There are fewer contemporary portraits of Montcalm than of Wolfe. The most familiar portrait of Montcalm is that by an unknown artist, showing him wearing a cuirass. Both the portrait and the cuirass are in the possession of his descendants. Reproductions of them are included in this collection. The other portrait here reproduced is less well known; it is from an engraving which depicts him as a younger man, and probably was made before his appointment as Commander in America.

# Page 231

The day on which the battle of Ticonderoga was fought was extremely hot, and it is recorded that Montcalm threw off his coat and directed the combat in his shirt sleeves, as shown in the picture.

### Page 232

The portrait of Amherst shows him wearing armour, while in front of him is seen a helmet. Armour such as this had been discarded for over a hundred years before Amherst's time, with the exception of a cuirass or breastplate, which French officers sometimes wore in battle, as did Montcalm.

It was an artistic convention of the time to paint the portraits of military men in armour, as symbolical of their profession. Such representations are apt to be misleading to those ignorant of the history of arms and armour, and must not be taken as evidence that it was actually worn by the person so depicted. Sir Joshua Reynolds followed this practice also in his portrait of Brigadier-General Townshend.

It will be seen also that there is considerable variety in the costume of officers when they are pictured wearing the dress of their time. Military and naval uniforms, especially in the higher ranks, were not so standardized as they were later, and much individual caprice in cut and trimmings was shown.

The three-cornered cocked hat was worn by officers of both the army and the navy; but it should be observed that naval officers wore it broadside in front, and with the peak behind, while in the army it was worn with the peak or point in front. See the picture of the Departure of the Troops from Louisbourg, where the officer standing beside Wolfe belongs to the navy.

### Page 233

The view made during the siege was drawn on the spot by Captain Ince of the 35th Regiment. Many officers of the army and navy were capable, trained draughtsmen, and it is to their skill that we owe many of the most authentic early views of places connected with the history of Canada. See, for other examples drawn by an officer, the views of the Chignecto Forts, on page 225.

### Page 235

For portraits of Wolfe consult Wolfe and the Artists, by Dr. J. Clarence Webster, and The Siege of Quebec, by A. C. Doughty and G. W. Parmalee.

The sketch of Wolfe by Brigadier-General Townshend is little known. It is interesting as being one of the last portraits made of him, and as showing Townshend's ability as an artist. For the most part he displayed his skill in caricatures of Wolfe's Nank figure and pointed profile. These, while clever and amusing, were often malicious, for Townshend had no respect for his commander.

Other noteworthy portraits of Wolfe are those by Captain John Montresor, and by Hervey Smythe, his aide-de-camp, both made during the Quebec campaign. The original mezzotint plate, engraved by R. Houston, after the Smythe portrait in the Sigmund Samuel Collection in The Royal Ontario Museum. His earliest known portrait was painted in 1749 by Highmore. In contrast with the custom of most men of his time, Wolfe

In contrast with the custom of most field of an apparently wore his own hair which was red in colour, instead of a wig. It was dressed in somewhat the same fashion, and was tied in a tail at the back with a ribbon or buckle, as was a

Wolfe took a miniature of his fiancée, Miss Lowther, with him to Canada. In his will he left five hundred guineas to provide a jewelled frame for it, with instructions that if he died, it should be given to her. After his death, his friend, John Jervis, later Admiral, took it back to England and delivered it to Miss Lowther. It is now in Lowther Castle.

# Page 239

Sir William Johnson (1715-1774), born in Ireland, came to Province of New York, to manage the estates of his uncle on the upper Hudson. He gained great influence over the Indians, and defeated the French under Dieskau at Lake George, 1755. At the siege of Fort Niagara, 1759, when Prideaux was killed he succeeded to the command and received the surrender of the fort.

# Page 240

Wolfe wrote his last despatch to England on a dreary wet Sunday, four days before he fell in battle. His concluding words reflect his state of mind: "My constitution is entirely shattered, without the consolation of having done any considerable service to the state, and without any prospect of it."

# Page 241

On September 10th, 1759, Wolfe made an observation from the south shore of the French position across the river, in the hope of finding a spot where a landing might be made, and the Heights

of Abraham could be climbed. He and the officers who accompanied him wore private soldiers' coats, to deceive any of the French on the opposite shore who might see his party, and would suppose it to be only a passing patrol.

From his point of observation Wolfe perceived through his glass the narrow path leading from a cove on the river beach up the cliff to the open ground above, and noticed that only a small guard was stationed there. With this knowledge he decided to make a landing there, and three days later succeeded in placing his army on the Plains of Abraham in position to give battle.

### Page 242

The British troops at the Battle of the Plains consisted of six battalions. They were drawn up in a line two men deep, each man rubbed shoulders with his comrades, and the rear rank was a pace behind the front. By this arrangement the rear rank could fire over the shoulders of the man in front of him. This two-deep formation was Wolfe's own invention, and is the first "thin red line" in British military history, the previous disposition being a three-deep line.

Four of the battalions were clothed in the uniform common to regular line regiments of the army. One company in each battalion was composed of the tallest and heaviest men. This was known as the Grenadier Company. They wore high conical yellow caps with a tuft at the peak, and decorated in front with a crown and the royal monogram, G.R., beneath it, and immediately above the brow the figure of a running white horse on a red ground, the arms of Hanover. In addition to the usual infantry weapons, they carried stiff black leather pouches in front of their belts, containing grenades, small cannon balls, or bombs, with fuses attached, which they lighted and threw by hand as they advanced. Wolfe, on this occasion, grouped the Grenadier companies of the various regiments into one separate battalion. Another distinctive battalion was the Fraser Highlanders, wearing kilts and Scotch bonnets, and armed with basket-hilted swords as well as muskets. The line regiments wore black three-cornered hats, white knee breeches and stiff pipe-clayed belts and gaiters. All six battalions had red coats, distinguished by yellow, buff or blue facings.

Wolfe himself wore a sharply-cocked black hat, laced with gold braid, a bright new red coat with long skirts tucked back showing the inner lining of blue satin, and white knee breeches, over which were drawn gaiters reaching to mid-thigh and gartered below the knee. He carried a short, straight, cross-hilted sword without a guard, called a hanger. Such swords were more convenient than the longer parade sword for travel in boats or in rough bush-tangled country. The hanger carried by him in the battle is preserved in an English military museum.

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The windmill shown in the picture was on the Ste. Foye Road, not far from St. John's Gate. The principal fighting in the battle took place around it.

#### APPENDIX

### SOURCES OF INFORMATION

I have included only those sources which I have found most useful for the pictorial reconstruction of Canadian history. The accompanying list covers but a small portion of the material available.

Valuable details often are mentioned incidentally, and can be found only by reading through many pages of matter irrelevant to our purpose in the hope of coming across the specific piece of information required. There is no short-cut: no quick and easy method of acquiring the knowledge of those minor facts which give life and authenticity to a historical reconstruction. This collection is intended to provide an outline of the territory to be explored and a guide to the searcher in making his own discoveries.

In addition to the library and museum material, one must know the geography and climate of the various parts of the country. The best way to learn this is by visiting and observing the actual localities in which historical events occurred. Parkman realized this to the full: from the beginning he studied the history of North America as much in the open air as in the archives. It is this personal acquaintance with the natural world wherein his personages lived that makes his story so intensely real, alive and picturesque. Though the appearance of the country has changed greatly during the centuries since its settlement, certain features are permanent. East is still east, mountain, plain and sea-coast show but little alteration, the round of the seasons is perennial. The weather, the time of day, the topography are essential elements of the pictorial story, they set its background, and determine its atmosphere and colour.

#### I. GENERAL WORKS DEALING WITH THE PERIOD

France and England in North America: Francis Parkman.

Histoire du Canada (5th Edition): F. X. Garneau.

Canadian History, a Syllabus and Guide to Reading: R. G. Trotter. Valuable outline of topics, and lists of books.

Alphabet of First Things in Canada: G. Johnson.

Canadian Historical Dates and Events: F. J. Audet.

Catalogue of Pictures in the Public Archives of Canada: J. F. Kenney.

Contains excellent prefatory essay on pictorial historical material, with clear and comprehensive description of methods employed in making engravings and other forms of pictorial reproduction. Notes on the individual pictures give complete details as to authorship, size, dates and technical information. Catalogue covers period until 1700, only a fraction of the large amount of pictorial material available in the Archives.

Narrative and Critical History of America: Justin Winsor. Cartier to Frontenac: Justin Winsor.

Both these works contain many early maps and illustrations.

Histoire des Canadiens-Français: B. Sulte. Histoire de la Seigneurie de Lauzon: J. Edmond Roy. Histoire de la Notariat au Canada: J. Edmond Roy. Makers of Canada Series. Chronicles of Canada Series.

Pageant of America Series.

Canada and its Provinces.

The Rise and Fall of New France: G. M. Wrong.

## II. REPRINTS OF EARLY NARRATIVES AND CONTEMPORARY DOCUMENTS

The Voyages of Jacques Cartier: Translated and edited by H. P. Biggar. (Public Archives of Canada)

Champlain's Works-Champlain Society Edition.

Lescarbots' History of New France: Translated and edited by W. L. Grant and H. P. Biggar. (Champlain Society)

Sagard's Long Journey to the Country of the Hurons: Edited by G. M. Wrong. Translated by H. H. Langton. (Champlain Society)

Description and Natural History of North America: Nicolas Denys. Translated and edited by W. F. Ganong. (Champlain Society)

New Relation of Gaspesia: Translated and edited by W. F. Ganong. (Champlain Society)

Documents Relating to the Early History of Hudson Bay: Edited by J. B. Tyrrell. (Champlain Society)

All the publications of the Champlain Society give both the original French text and a good translation, together with introductions and complete notes.

- Histoire véritable et naturelle des moeurs et productions du pays de la Nouvelle France: Pierre Boucher.
- A New Discovery of a Vast Country in America: Father Louis Hennepin. Translated with introduction and notes, by R. G. Thwaites.
- New Voyages to North America: Baron Louis A. de Lahontan. Translated with introduction and notes by R. G. Thwaites.
- The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents: Edited by R. G. Thwaites.

  A complete index makes reference easy to the 72 volumes of original texts and translations.
- Exploration of the Great Lakes: Narrative by Galinée, translated and edited by J. H. Coyne. (Ontario Historical Society)
- History of Montreal: Dollier de Casson. Translated by R. Flenley.

Relations et Mémoires: Edited by P. Margry.

Découvertes et établissements: Edited by P. Margry.

- Journals and Letters of La Vérendrye: Translated and edited by L. J. Burpee. (Champlain Society)
- Journal of a Voyage to North America: Pere F. X. de Charlevoix. Translated and edited by Louise Phelps Kellogg.
- Historical Journal of the Campaigns in North America—Knox: Translated and edited by A. G. Doughty. (Champlain Society)
- The Journal of Jeffery Amherst: Edited by J. C. Webster. (The Canadian Historical Studies, The Ryerson Press)
- The Kelsey Papers: Edited by A. G. Doughty and Chester Martin. (Public Archives of Canada)

Kalm's Travels into North America.

Montcalm and Levis Papers.

### III. BOOKS RELATING TO SPECIAL TOPICS AND PERIODS

The Indians of Canada: Diamond Jenness. (National Museum of Canada, Ottawa)

The best general survey of the subject; profusely illustrated.

Huronia: Rev. A. E. Jones, S.J. (5th Report of the Ontario Bureau of Archives)

Album of Prehistoric Canadian Art: Harlan I. Smith. (National Museum of Canada, Ottawa)

Precursors of Jacques Cartier: H. P. Biggar.

The St. Lawrence, Its Basin and Its Borderlands: S. E. Dawson.

The Search for the Western Sea: L. J. Burpee.

Toronto During the French Régime: P. J. Robinson. (The Canadian Historical Studies, The Ryerson Press)

Quebec: P. G. Roy.

Old Houses, Old Manors of the Province of Quebec: P. G. Roy.

Old Churches of the Province of Quebec: P. G. Roy.

The Island of Orleans: P. G. Roy.

These volumes are sumptuously illustrated with many reproductions of photographs, paintings, drawings and old prints.

Sir William Phipps devant Québec: Ernest Myrand.

Glimpses of the Monastery: Scenes from the History of the Ursulines of Quebec. By a member of the community.

Les Ramézay et leur Chateau: Victor Morin.

Le Fort et le Chateau de St. Louis: E. Gagnon.

Le Fort de Chambly: B. Sulte.

Le Drame Acadien: A. Bernard.

The Forts of Chignecto: J. C. Webster.

Louisbourg, from Its Foundation to Its Fall: J. S. McLennan.

The Conquest of New France: G. M. Wrong. (The Chronicles of America)

An excellent one volume history of the French and English conflict for the continent.

The Siege of Quebec: A. G. Doughty and G. W. Parmelee.

The six volumes of this work give the fullest details on the subject, and are profusely illustrated.

Le Marquis de Montcalm: T. C. Chapais.

Les Lettres, les Sciences et les Arts au Canada sous le Régime Français: Antoine Roy. Moeurs, Contumes et Industries Canadiennes-Françaises: E. Z. Massicotte.

Seigneurial Questions: Lower Canada Reports, Opinions of Sir Louis H. Lafontaine, Bart., C.J., 1856.

This report contains much information on the laws and customs of the feudal system of French Canada, such as mining, fishing and timber regulations, dues and rents, mills, etc.

Les Petites Choses de Notre Histoire: P. G. Roy.

A series of small books which contain many useful details about life in early French Canada.

Essai sur l'Industrie au Canada sous le Régime Français: J. N. Fauteux.

The Romance of Medicine in Canada: J. J. Heagerty.

Documents Relating to the Seigniorial Tenure in Canada: Edited by W. B. Munro. (Champlain Society)

An Economic History of Canada: Mary Quayle Innis.

The Seven Years' War: Sigmund Samuel.

Contains reproductions of many important prints illustrating the later years of the French régime.

Aboriginal Skin Dressing: Otis T. Mason. (United States National Museum, Washington.)

Handbook of Indians of Canada: Supplement to Annual Report of Department of Marine and Fisheries, Ottawa.

Distinguishing Characteristics of Algonkian and Iroquoian Cultures: W. J. Wintemberg. (National Museum of Canada, Ottawa.)

Wild Rice: Faith Fyles. (Dominion Experimental Farms, Ottawa.)

The Double-Curve Motive in Northeastern Algonkian Art: Frank G. Speck. (Department of Mines, Geological Survey, Ottawa.)

#### IV. PERIODICAL PUBLICATIONS

Much information is to be found in articles contributed to historical periodicals and in papers and records published by learned societies. The index of most of these will guide the reader in search of specific information, but often the detail required is too minute or incidental to be listed. For the period covered by this book the following list will be useful:

Canadian Historical Association-Reports.

The Royal Society of Canada, Literary and Historical sections— Proceedings and Transactions.

Literary and Historical Society of Quebec-Transactions.

Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Montreal—Canadian Antiquarian and Numismatic Journal.

Société Historique de Montréal-Mémoires.

Nova Scotia Historical Society-Collections.

Acadiensis.

Bulletin des recherches historiques:

The forty-six volumes of this monthly publication contain invaluable material on the social life of New France, in particular inventories giving information regarding furnishings, clothing, etc.

Canadian Historical Review, and its predecessor, Review of Historical Publications Relating to Canada.

Le Canada Français.

La Revue Canadienne.

#### V. Museums

Some of these have published catalogues of their collections, others from time to time issue monographs or hand-books on special subjects; but personal examination and study of the objects themselves is indispensable, and photographs or, better still, drawings of them should be procured. The museums listed contain material relating to the French regime and to the Indians of Canada.

Archives of Canada, Ottawa. Various publications.

ROYAL ONTARIO MUSEUM, TORONTO.

Extensive collections of Indian and Eskimo material, excellently displayed, and scientifically grouped. Drawings and paintings of Indian life by Catlin, Kane, Morris and Heming. Sigmund Samuel Collection of early Canadian prints and drawings. The Museum contains many specimens of weapons, furniture, etc., of the 17th and 18th centuries, indispensable to students of Canadian history. These have been gathered under the direction of Dr. C. T. Currelly, and correctly titled, dated and described by him to illustrate their development.

NATIONAL MUSEUM OF CANADA, OTTAWA.

Valuable Indian material. Useful monographs and hand-books.

McCord Museum, Montreal. (Closed temporarily.) Prints and drawings of early Montreal.

CHATEAU DE RAMEZAY, MONTREAL.

Valuable collection, including Indian canoes, snow shoes, and cradle boards, numerous portraits, views of early Montreal, furniture, tools, vehicles, etc. Catalogue published.

JOHN ROSS ROBERTSON COLLECTION, PUBLIC LIBRARY, TORONTO.

Though mainly consisting of items relating to early Toronto, includes also many prints, drawings and paintings of persons and places connected with the history of Canada from coast to coast.

NEW BRUNSWICK MUSEUM, SAINT JOHN.

Local Indian material. Also valuable for the J. Clarence Webster collection of paintings, drawings and prints illustrating Canadian history; especially rich in items in relation to the Maritime Provinces and to General Wolfe. Copiously annotated catalogue published.

QUEBEC PROVINCIAL MUSEUM, QUEBEC.

Many pictures illustrating French Canadian life and the history of New France. Also articles of handicraft.

Notre Dame Museum, Montreal.

Ecclesiastical vestments, Church furniture, decorations and vessels.

THE MANOIR RICHELIEU, MURRAY BAY, QUEBEC.

This hotel contains the remarkable W. H. Coverdale Collection of Canadiana, consisting of paintings, drawings and prints. Particularly-rich in early views of the St. Lawrence and Ottawa, Niagara and the Great Lakes, but also including a wide range of Canadian pictorial material of historic interest.

THE WALTER H. MILLEN COLLECTION, ROCKCLIFFE PARK, OTTAWA.

Contains many rare Canadian prints. Carefully annotated catalogues
of these two private collections have been prepared by Captain Percy

F. Godenrath.

Museums have been established at The Canadian National Parks at Fort Chambly, Quebec, Fort Beauséjour, N.B., Annapolis Royal and Louisbourg, N.S., which contain many useful and interesting local relics. The Parks Bureau has published a series of small handbooks, containing short accounts of the history of these and other places under its administration.

University of Western Ontario, London.

Aboriginal Indian material. Small scale models of pioneer log house, barn, implements, etc.

QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY, KINGSTON.

Collection of prints, drawings, etc., illustrating Canadian history.