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VOL. I.

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INTRODUCTORY.

**I**T may be thought necessary that we should give some account of ourselves, and therefore we desire to state our aim and objects in venturing into print; believing that there has been a want of a Journal devoted to antiquarian pursuits, it is a matter of surprise that up to the present time there has not been in this city, any publication especially representing those interested in such study.

The only means hitherto existing, has been an occasional paragraph in a newspaper noticing the discovery of some relic, or (how frequently in Montreal,) the destruction of some ancient landmark, which transient notice has in its turn passed away; whatever has been done in this direction has been desultory and irregular, and the time seems certainly to have fully arrived, when those interested in studies so important to the historian, should possess some means of recording their views and experiences, and of giving and obtaining information concerning them.

Collectors of coins, and others interested in Antiquarian research are comparatively few in number, and are, for the

most part, scattered about the country; their favorite pursuit or study, consequently, too often wants the definite character which belongs to more combined efforts. This defect it is the object of this Journal to supply.

Every diligence will be used to obtain the requisite information on all topics which fall within the objects of the Journal.

The Editors pledge themselves, not to admit into its pages any communication which could possibly give just ground for offence, and that all articles shall have an elevating tendency; they resolve to exclude controversy, and to make the whole a repository of facts, rather than opinions, and a medium of general information to the reader.

With these ideas, this publication has been devised and originated by the Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Montreal, believing it to be a legitimate branch of the Society's work.

The "Canadian Antiquarian" is offered as an exponent of the opinions of those who make these subjects their study, with the hope that through the assistance of those students for whose interest it is designed, it may in time become a useful and valuable adjunct to historical and scientific literature.

The Editors approach their labors with considerable diffidence, well knowing the many wrecks amongst the periodical literature of Canada, but they now launch their frail bark, and trust, that supported by a reasonable share of public favor, they may be enabled to steer clear of shoals and quicksands, and bring their venture into a fair haven.

For themselves they promise to freight the vessel with a cargo, which they trust will be found profitable and with a good resolution in the discharge of their duty, they hope to succeed, well knowing in the words of Shakespeare:—

"'Tis not in their power to command success,  
But they'll do more, deserve it."

## OLD COLONIAL CURRENCIES.

BY S. E. DAWSON.

*(From The Canadian Monthly.)*

HOWEVER true it may be that the history of European nations is merely the biography of a few great men, such an assertion cannot be made concerning the history of America. Hence the history of the New World, though it may lack the strong personal interest which attaches to the record of great kings, statesmen, or generals, has the surpassing interest of being the record of experiments, political, social and religious, of some of the most highly gifted races of Europe, made under conditions of singular freedom, both from the straitened forms of old world society, and from the dominating individuality of great men. Social experiments in America have succeeded or failed in consequence of their inherent virtues or defects, and have not been strained by outward pressure beyond their natural limits. Our present purpose is to chronicle some of the experiments which have been made in the New World in the important department of finance. We do not hope to establish any theory of money, or elicit any new principle. Experiments are still being made, and, doubtless, the true theory will in time appear.

In America, within a comparatively short period, every conceivable form of currency has been tried. The accounts of the New Netherlands (now New York State) were, in 1662, kept in wampum and beaver skins. That currency does not appear to have been more stable than others; for, in that year, complaints were made of its increasing depreciation, and the Chamber of Commerce at Amsterdam credited all its colonial officials with twenty-five per cent. additional salary in beaver skins to cover their loss, a precedent too seldom followed in later and more progressive times.

During the earliest period of the history of the English

colonies whatever exchanges were not made by barter were made in a specie currency, consisting mainly of French and Spanish coins. These, being much worn and depreciated by constant clipping, were often weighed out in primitive style, and settlements were made, and salaries fixed, in ounces of silver-plate. Curious complaints were made to the Home authorities, and recriminations were frequent between the colonies regarding the clipping and defacing of coins. The dollar or piece of eight reals, passed at a different rate in each colony and the colonial legislatures all fancied that the best way of attracting money was to raise its nominal value. Competing traders, even in the same colony, vied with each other in giving the highest nominal value to the dollar. Pennsylvania endeavoured to draw money from New York by calling the legal value of a dollar 7s. 6d. New York had previously made the same attempt on Massachusetts by fixing upon 6s. 9d, and New Jersey got the better of both in the current opinion of that day by allowing 7s. 8d. for the same coin. These rates varied by colonial enactment from time to time, and Governor Hunter, of New Jersey, writing to the board of Trade at London, "doubts if it " be in the power of men or angels to beat out of the heads " of the people of this continent a silly notion that they gain " by the augmentation of the value of pieces of plate," (*i. e.* dollars.) This notion is held to the present day in Prince Edward Island where it is still supposed that money stays upon the Island because the nominal value of the shilling sterling is 1s. 6d. currency. The Boston people of those days were not, however, so easily beaten, although they kept the value of the dollar below the rate in the other colonies. One of the Governors of New York makes earnest appeal to London against them, "because having the main foreign " trade, they bring goods to New York which they will sell " only for good heavy money, which they carry away and clip, " and then send back this light money to New York for bread-



“ stuffs, which they ship to the West Indies and undersell “ the New Yorkers there in their own productions.” The indignant governor calls loudly for the interference of the Mother country to check those singular financial operations of the lively Bostonians. Throughout all the correspondence between the colonial governors and the Mother country the necessity of one general standard of value was continually urged, and the efforts of the Home Government and their officers to that end were as continually and pertinaciously thwarted by the colonists in their various assemblies.

Still at that time, the currency, such as it was, was of gold and silver. Schuyler and Dillon, who made an expedition into Canada in 1698, report with apparent surprise that there the currency consisted of paper only, but the power of a paper currency was shortly after discovered by the English colonists, and Massachusetts, as usual, took the lead. Although the need of it was not so much felt in the town of Boston, which had a large foreign trade, the people elsewhere were often in great straits for the want of some medium of exchange. The colonists could live in a rough sort of abundance—they had no need for food or shelter; but the pressing wants of existence being easily satisfied there soon arose a demand for Manufactured goods—the luxuries of the old world. Moreover the settlers were continually extending their boundaries—and subduing new land, and their capital was thus being fixed as fast as acquired, consequently they were always heavily in debt to the Mother country, the exportable money was incessantly swept away to England by the adverse balance of trade, and large communities were frequently reduced to barter, for want of a common measure of value.

The Navigation Laws, so far as they were observed, tended greatly to increase this inconvenience by compelling, or seeking to compel the colonies to trade with England alone, and thus aiming to centre in England all the profits of both sides of the American trade. The staples of America, such

as tobacco, indigo, and (from the West Indies) sugar, could be exported to no other European port but England; they might be sent to other British colonies but only on payment of an export duty. The colonists could legally import manufactured goods from England alone, thus paying the price demanded by the English merchant, while their own exports could not bring in the often glutted English markets their fair value in the markets of the world. No wonder, then, that the available money always gravitated towards England, and, if it had been possible to have enforced these laws strictly, the Americans could never have had any money with which to eke out their remittances in produce.

These laws were, however, in practice almost wholly disregarded. There grew up between the commercial colonies and the foreign West Indies and Spanish Main a large and lucrative traffic. The Boston merchants pushed their ventures everywhere, and the surplus produce of the colonies—the lumber, fish, and grain, found a near and ready market in the Spanish colonies of the Gulf of Mexico. There they were exchanged for specie—the gold and the silver, which were staple exports of Mexico,—and hence the coins of Spain, the doubloon, and especially the dollar, became the standard coins used in American trade, although the nominal currency was calculated in pounds, shillings and pence. With the money so obtained remittances were made to England; for the Spaniards had little the colonists stood in need of. The English trade was thus fed by a systematic infraction of English law, conived at by everybody, so long as the French power remained unbroken in Canada. When that fell the latent divergence of interest became apparent, and the attempt of Parliament to stop this illicit trade by enforcing the Navigation Act was the real cause of the American Revolution—the Stamp Act was the pretext.

The specie thus obtained and the heavy tobacco remittances from Virginia could not pay the debts of the colonists and

leave sufficient money for domestic use. The colonists were always pushing their settlements westward, and the drain of money to England was continual. Moreover the incessant wars with the Canadians and with the Indians often demanded great exertions from the Colonial Governments. Then the wonderful power of paper money was called into requisition. The various Governments (Virginia excepted) issued Bills of Credit for five shillings and upwards; with these they tided over great emergencies, and, as they became accustomed to them, they paid with these current expenses of Government. It seemed to the colonists that they had discovered a new El Dorado. In some colonies loan offices were opened by Government, and these bills loaned to private parties on land security at interest. In Rhode Island the interest might be paid in hemp, flax, or other produce, so that in appearance the Government derived an ample revenue without imposing a tax. The bills were made a legal tender, and as fast as one set of bills matured, others in increased amount were issued. The Government and the people were mutually accommodated, the currency passed readily from hand to hand, satisfying all the domestic exchanges, and causing for years a great apparent prosperity; but the inevitable result followed. There was no limit to the issue but the moderation of the people who were the issuers. In 1738 one specie dollar in Massachusetts would buy five, in North Carolina fourteen, and in South Carolina eight paper dollars. Massachusetts, ever in advance, was the first to push these issues to the utmost, and the first to abandon them. The great efforts made by that colony in 1745 in fitting out the expedition which resulted in the capture of Louisbourg, brought the currency and credit of the Province to its lowest ebb; and the evils of unrestrained paper issues became so apparent that when England, exulting in the prowess of her daughter colony, refunded the cost of the expedition, the grant was used to place the currency upon a specie basis,

which continued until the Revolution. The Government brought up all its outstanding bills by paying one Spanish dollar (six shillings legal par value) for every 45s. of the older, or 11s. 3d. of the more recent issue. This somewhat sharp financial operation was justified by the consideration that, the bills being no longer in possession of the original holders, and being largely depreciated, to pay their nominal value would be to impose a tax upon the people, to which the "people" generally objected.

The other colonies (Virginia excepted) never afterwards obtained a specie currency. Pennsylvania in 1723 issued a small quantity of paper at five years date. In 1729 Benjamin Franklin was one of the most strenuous advocates for a further issue. His pamphlet "Considerations on the necessity and value of a paper currency" largely influenced public opinion, and the printing of the issue which was entrusted to him probably tended to strengthen his convictions. Writing in his later years he confesses, however, that his views had changed, and that paper money might be abused; but the current theory among the people then was, that as gold was representative of value, so paper was a representative of gold, and of value, by a double substitution. So firmly wedded did the people become to paper money that even in Massachusetts, when the Assembly were making efforts to return to a specie basis, riots occurred among the country people, who fancied it was a plot of the rich Boston merchants to sweep up all the money for their English remittances.

Paper money being as before stated, a legal tender in most of the colonies, strange feats of finance were performed. Instead of remitting to England, payment was often made to a resident agent, who would be compelled to receive the amount in paper at its nominal value. Sometimes the debtor class would get control of the issues, then money would be abundant, and mortgages, contracted in more unpropitious

times, would be paid off. Again other interests would get the upper hand, issues would be checked and money would become scarce, then mortgages would be foreclosed and property brought to Sheriff's sale, when all who had ready money might buy to advantage. Specie was at a premium, varying in each colony with the amount of paper issue, and differing at different times in the same colony. The injustice became so great that in the year of the Stamp Act, Parliament passed a law forbidding Colonial Legislatures to make paper a legal tender, a law which caused great bitterness in the Middle Colonies, and which is alluded to among others in the Declaration of Independence, where the king is arraigned for "having refused his assent to laws the most wholesome, just and good."

Putting aside, however, for the present all considerations of the fluctuations caused by paper money, it must be observed that there was all the while a legal par of exchange, differing in each colony, based on a value of the pound sterling. Thus in Massachusetts £1 stg. = £1 6s. 8d. currency. In New York £1 stg. = £1 15s. 6¼d. currency. In Pennsylvania £1 stg. = £1 13s. 4d. currency. In South Carolina £1 stg. = £1 os. 8 8/9d. currency. The sterling pound had four different values in as many West India Islands, and a yet different one in Nova Scotia and in Newfoundland. The exchange book of Colonial days "Wright's American Negotiator," was a thick octavo, giving the rates of premium up to one thousand per cent. These old currencies even now linger in the speech of the country people. In Massachusetts 16⅔ cents is now often called a shilling, for it was the sixth part of a Spanish dollar, which used to pass for six shillings. In New York a shilling still means 12½ cents, because the Spanish dollar, was eight shillings at legal par in colonial days; and in Ontario the same usage, inherited from the U. E. loyalists, still prevails.

In all this chaos of currencies it is pleasant to find one

fixed value which endured during nearly all the period we have been concerned with, and which, although it has disappeared in outward form, is yet present latently in every exchange calculation made even at this present day—we mean the old Spanish dollar. We have already seen how it became the almost universal coin in America, and during nearly the whole Colonial period, namely, up to the year 1772, it contained the same quantity of pure silver.

There were in circulation four kinds of dollars, viz. :—"Seville pieces of eight," "Mexican pieces of eight," "Pillar pieces of eight," "Peru pieces of eight." These pieces, of the value of eight reals Spanish "old plate," were all called "dollars," and were all of the same weight—17 dwts. 9 to 12 grains of silver, of a standard fineness of 11 parts pure silver to one of alloy. But the legal par at which they passed differed very much in the colonies. At the time of the Revolution it was 6s. in Massachusetts, 8s. in New York, 7s. 6d. in Pennsylvania, and 4s. 8d. in South Carolina. Very early in Colonial history the inconvenience of a varying par was felt by many, and the governors especially urged the Home authorities to put a stop to it. Accordingly in 1707, the sixth year of Queen Anne, an Act was passed by the Imperial Parliament, declaring the value at which foreign coins should pass in the colonies. This enactment was based upon careful assays, and fixed the value of the Spanish coins as follows :—

Seville pieces of eight "old plate,"	-	4s. 6d. Stg.
Mexico " "	-	4s. 6d. "
Pillar " "	-	4s. 6¾d. "
Peru " "	-	4s. 5d. "

It was also enacted that in future the dollar should not be accounted for in any of the colonies above the rate of 6s. currency. This statute was utterly disregarded in America, and like most other Imperial statutes, became a dead letter. Some attempt was made in New York by the governor to

enforce it, but the proclamation was withdrawn, because, as the governor alleged in excuse, "it was injurious to the trade of New York to cry down the value of the dollar while the neighbouring colony of Massachusetts treated the Statute with contempt." The letters of the New York officials of those days are very plaintive concerning the misdeeds of the Boston people, who seem always to have done as they liked, and to have paid no more attention to an Imperial statute which might not meet their approval, than to a Papal bull. This statute had, however, the effect of placing an authoritative value in sterling money on the coin most in use in America.

The value of the Spanish dollar was based not only upon its weight and fineness, but, of course, upon a comparison with the weight and fineness of the British silver coins then in use. The standard remained unchanged for silver in England from the time of Queen Elizabeth to the year 1816. One pound of silver of the fineness of 11 oz. 2 dwt. was coined during all that period into £3 2s. 6d. stg. There were therefore 5,328 grains of pure silver in 62s. stg., and the dollar contained 385 grains pure. The proportionate value of the dollar is then easily seen to have been 4s. 5 4/5 precisely, and as, at that time, the standard value of silver was in reality less than its commercial value, 4s. 6d. was fixed upon by the Statute. This was practically underrating the dollar, and as fast as they arrived in England they were sold as specie and exported.

It thus happened that the par of 4s. 6d. stg. to the dollar became a fixed standard, to which all American values could be referred. And such it has continued during 164 years down to the present day, for this is PAR, or \$4.44 to the £ sterling. It is sometimes called old par—it is the par with which all our books of exchange tables commence—the par upon which all our calculations are based, from Montreal to New Orleans. The present legal par in Canada is a 9 1/2% premium on that par. The Spanish dollar has changed, the British silver

coins have changed, and the currencies of America have fluctuated, but the par of 1707 remains yet as the one fixed point in the sea of confusion.

We come now to revolutionary times. The extraordinary expedients of the Revolutionary Congress are among the best known incidents of history. The war was fought on the American side with paper money up to the time when the French expedition under Rochambeau landed, and brought the specie which was as necessary to success as bayonets. It would be tedious to narrate the steps by which the Continental money depreciated to 1000 to 1—until it finally disappeared. The leading spirits of the Revolution saw the necessity of laying a direct war tax, but they could not obtain the consent of Congress. "Do you think," said a member of Congress (quoted by Greene; *Historical studies*) "that I will consent to tax my constituents, when we can send to the printers and get as much money as we want?" The farmer who refused to take this money for his produce was treated as a traitor, and had his property taken from him for his disloyalty, but no enactment could keep it from depreciating. Meantime the presses of the different States teemed with issues of their own during the war, and up to the period of the full consolidation of the Union in 1790. Their paper added to the volume of the currency and to the utter confusion of values.

Immediately after peace was declared the efforts of all thinking men were turned towards consolidating the Union, and for several years the proposed Constitution was discussed in every town and hamlet. But even then the lurking attachment to paper money was evident. Some of the States were unwilling to resign the right of issue, and it was not until 1790 that Rhode Island joined the Union, and its citizens finally relinquished their cherished habit of paying their debts in paper. The State Governments were forbidden by the new Constitution to make anything but gold and sil-



ver a legal tender, or to issue Bills of Credit. Inconvertible paper money from that period disappeared in America, until the Federal Government, exercising a power not apparent in the Constitution, repeated, in our own times, the experiment with happier results.

So soon as the new Constitution began to work, it was, of course, necessary to provide a revenue, and to fix values. The first Congress in 1789 passed an Act imposing Custom duties. By this Act the pound sterling was valued at \$4.44, or 4s. 6d. stg. to the dollar. Thus the old par of Queen Anne was restored, and the rate was called *Federal currency*, to distinguish it from the various State currencies. Still, there was no Federal coinage, and coins from all parts of the world were taken at the Custom Houses at a statutory value. In 1792 Congress organized the United States mint, permitting the circulation of the foreign coins for three years longer, until the new national coinage should be ready, and establishing the national standards—the Eagle to be counted at \$10, and to contain 270 grains of gold of the fineness of 22 carats, and the dollar to contain 416 grains of silver .8924 thousandths fine.

Changes in the currencies of Spain, of England, and of America now concurred to disturb the par of \$4.44. In 1772 the fineness of the Spanish dollar had fallen from 11-12ths to 10 $\frac{3}{4}$ -12ths. In 1774 silver had ceased to be a legal tender in England (in sums over £25) excepting at the rate of 5s. 2d. an ounce. The exchange between America and England was thenceforward regulated by the intrinsic value of their gold coins alone, a change which became more apparent in 1816, when England adopted the gold standard exclusively, and made her silver coins tokens only by coining the same weight of silver into 66s., which had previously (since the year 1666) been coined into 62s. The average value of the dollar of Spanish and American coinage in 1795, 1798 and 1803 was 4s. 4d. stg., calculated at the Mint

rate of 5s. 2d. sterling per ounce. In other words the par of exchange on the basis of the dollar was  $3\frac{7}{8}$  premium on old par. The Federal dollar remained unchanged until 1837, when it was reduced. The weight was made  $412\frac{1}{2}$  grains, and the fineness  $\frac{9}{10}$  tns; since that time the dollar has not been altered. In 1853 the half dollars and smaller coins were still further reduced, but without affecting the exchanges, for, as before stated, all estimations of exchange after 1793 should be made on gold and not on silver standard.

In order then to ascertain the various changes of new par since the revolution, the gold currency of England must be considered. This had been fixed by advice of Sir Isaac Newton in 1717, and has ever since remained unchanged. One pound of gold, of 22 parts pure to 2 alloy was, and is yet, coined into £46 14s. 6d.; but the Eagle, the standard American gold coin, has undergone three changes as follows:—

VALUE OF THE EAGLE COMPARED WITH THE SOVEREIGN.

Date.	Weight.	Fineness.	Weight of Fine Gold.	Value stg.	Par.	Value of Sovereign in U.S.
1792	270 gr.	Same.	$247\frac{1}{2}$ gr.	43s. 9d.	$2\frac{7}{8}$	4.57 £ stg.
1834	258 gr.	$\frac{890}{1000}\frac{1}{4}$	232 gr.	41s. $\frac{1}{4}$	$9\frac{5}{8}$	4.87 £ stg.
1837	258 gr.	$\frac{900}{1000}$	232.2 gr.	41s. $\frac{3}{4}$	$9\frac{9}{16}$	4.87 £ stg.

It therefore clearly appears how the present par of exchange became fixed at so large a premium upon the old par of Queen Anne.

These changes in the value of the United States coinage affected in course of time the legal par of the loyal colonies. The currency of Canada was for a long period in great confusion, for having no Colonial coinage, the coins of all na-

tions passed at values fixed by Statute with little apparent relation to intrinsic value. The first Statute is that of 1777. In 1795 the Customs Act declares that £5,000 stg. is equivalent to £5,555 11s. 1 $\frac{1}{3}$ d. currency. The old par of 1707 was evidently then the legal par. In 1808 a Currency Act was passed enumerating the most common coins—these were French coins, remaining from the period of French rule, Spanish and Portuguese coins, British coins, and United States coins. The guinea (21s. stg.) was valued at 23s. 4d. currency, the 1s. stg. at 1s. 1d., the Eagle at 50s., and the Spanish and American dollar at 5s. Thus the attempt was made to keep the currency at old par when reckoned in English coins, and at 27 $\frac{1}{8}$  prem. (or American par) when reckoned in United States coins. For if the guinea (21s.) was worth only 23s. 4d. currency, the eagle, which at that time was of intrinsic value for 43s. 9d. stg., could be worth only 48s. 7d. currency, instead of 50s. as enacted. The shilling sterling was undervalued as regards the dollar in the same ratio. This seems to have had the very natural effect of driving all the British coins out of circulation, and in 1825 an Imperial Order in Council was issued, fixing the value of the dollar at 4s. 4d. stg. in British silver coin, and making provision for the introduction into the colonies of British silver in large quantities, by means of the Commissariat, and ordering that such coin should pass at its nominal value as in England. These regulations do not appear to have had much effect, for in that same year the value of the shilling was raised in Upper Canada to 1s. 2d. currency. In 1836 the same Province again raised the value of the shilling stg. to 1s. 3d. currency, and also fixed the value of the pound sterling at 24s. 4d., assimilating the legal par to the change of 1834 in the United States par, but over-valuing the sterling shilling.

An effort was made in 1839 by both Provinces to remedy this anomaly, but the bills passed failed to receive the Royal

assent, and it became one of the first duties of the Parliament of United Canada in 1841 to remedy the confusion. The par of 24s. 4d. to the £ stg. was retained, but the silver was reduced to its proper proportionate value, and could only be used as a legal tender to the amount of 50s. currency. The convenience of easy reckoning and the competition of traders still kept up the current value of the British shilling to 1s. 3d. in spite of the Act, and the currency gradually became overloaded with British silver.

The subsequent changes in our currency are too recent to require much notice. The dollar which in 1841 had been raised to 5s. 1d. was reduced in 1850 to 5s. And in 1851 the decimal system displaced the intricate and cumbrous denominations of pounds, shillings and pence. Every reader will recall the circumstances which led to the pouring of all the United States silver coinage into our already overloaded silver currency, and the various expedients vainly resorted to for relief until the effectual remedy of the present finance minister was applied. The Act of 1854 fixed our currency on its present basis, confirming the par of 1841 of \$4.86 $\frac{66}{100}$ , or 24s. 4d. currency to the £ stg. or 9½ % premium on the par of Queen Anne.

The Confederation of the British North American colonies and the consequent extension of the Canadian par has left but two anomalous currencies among the English speaking people of this continent. In Newfoundland the par of 4.80 to the £, or 8% premium prevails, and the little Island of Prince Edward still rejoices in the enormous premium of 35½ % or 30s. to the pound stg. We may surely hope that the time will shortly arrive when, not only these anomalies will disappear, but when the mother country will adopt a decimal system which will facilitate computation, and thus increase trade with all her children throughout the world.

## AMERICAN ANTIQUITIES.

BY NUMA.



PURPOSE contributing a few pages to our quarterly on the subject of American Antiquities, and shall preface my remarks with a quotation from that venerable and interesting publication "*Archæologia*," a publication, which, under the able management of the Society of Antiquaries of London, has done good service by communicating Antiquarian discoveries to the public, and fostering a desire for Archæological research. "The history and antiquities of nations and societies have been objects of enquiry to curious persons in all ages, either to separate falsehood from truth, and tradition from evidence, to establish what has probability for its basis, or to explode what rested only on the vanity of the inventors and propagators. The first traces of every history were rude and imperfect; better methods of preserving facts succeeded. The unchiseled stone or rudest hieroglyphic accompanied the songs of the bards, to perpetuate the achievements of a whole nation, or a few individuals; till the use of letters, and the complicated transactions, claims, and interests of men, taught them to multiply memorials, and to draw them up with more skill and accuracy. The arrangement and proper use of facts is History;—not a mere narrative taken up at random and embellished with poetic diction, but a regular and elaborate enquiry into every ancient record and proof, that can elucidate or establish them. For want of these, how large a proportion of history, from the creation of the world to the present age, remains yet to be sifted by the sagacity of modern criticism! To this neglect is owing, that we have no more certainty about the first ages of Rome and Mexico; and, if the same darkness overspreads the early periods of our own history, it is from the same cause. The only security against this, and

the accidents of time and barbarism is, to record present transactions, or gather the more ancient ones from the general wreck. The most indistinct collection has this merit, that it supplies materials to those who have sagacity or leisure to extract from the common mass whatever may answer useful purposes. Here begins the province of the ANTIQUARY, who will never be deemed an unserviceable member of the community, whilst curiosity or the love of truth subsists; and least of all, in an age wherein every part of science is advancing to perfection."

America abounds in antiquities so extensive, so beautiful, and so majestic, as to rival those of Thebes or Nineveh. Ruins of ancient cities, of immense extent; fortifications, obelisks, pyramids, temples with walls built of hewn stone, showing a refined taste in architecture, and adorned with figures, beautifully executed; large altars, ornamented with hieroglyphics; remains of ancient palaces, beautiful specimens of sculpture and painting, with many other marks of ancient greatness, prove that this is not a new world, but that a powerful empire existed at a very remote period of time, teeming with a population highly skilled in arts, and in a state of civilization far beyond anything we have been lead to conceive of the aborigines of this continent.

It is now admitted by Geologists that America is the oldest world physically. This primeval region stands partly in Canada and partly in the United States.

Captain Dupaix, who visited Central America in 1805, supposed the Central American ruins were left before the deluge.

Mr. Ogilby, Cosmographer to King Charles the Second in 1671, thinks that men and animals came, immediately after the flood, from Arminia to Tartary, and from the later place to this continent, by a continuous range of land extending from Asia to America, by Behring's Straits.

Georgii Hornii, in a Latin book, published in 1629, says that the migration to this Continent took place immediately after the Confusion of Babel.

Mr. Josiah Priest makes the following remarkable statement: "A gentleman who was living near the town of Cincinnati in 1826, on the upper level, had occasion to sink a well for his accommodation, and persevered in digging to a depth of eighty feet without finding water, but still persisting in the attempt, his workmen found themselves obstructed by a substance, which resisted their labour. They cleared the surface and sides from the earth bedded around it, when there appeared the stump of a tree, three feet in diameter, and two feet high, which had been cut down with an axe. The blows of the axe were yet visible. It was nearly of the color and apparent character of coal, but had not the friable and fusible quality of that substance. His reflections on this discovery are, 1st.—That the tree was undoubtedly antediluvian. 2nd.—That the river, now called Ohio, did not exist anterior to the deluge, inasmuch as the remains of the tree were found firmly rooted in its original position, several feet below the bed of that river. 3rd.—That America was peopled before the flood, as appears from the action of the axe in cutting down the tree. 4th.—That the Antediluvian Americans were acquainted with the use and properties of iron, as the rust of the axe was on the top of the stump when discovered."

In Morse's Universal Geography, the discovery of the stump is thus corroborated: "In digging a well in Cincinnati, the stump of a tree was found in a sound state, ninety feet below the surface; and in digging another well, at the same place, another stump was found at ninety-four feet below the surface, which had evident marks of the axe, and on its top there appeared as if some iron tool had been consumed by rust."

Professor Mitchell mentions a certain class of antiquities as distinguished entirely from those which are found in and about the mounds of the west. These objects were discovered in the section of country about Fredonia, on the south

side of Lake Erie, in digging from thirty to fifty feet below the present surface of the ground, and consist of fire brands, split wood, ashes, coals, tools and utensils. As these antiquities were discovered much below the bed of Lake Erie, they must have been antediluvian, and agree with the discoveries of the stumps.

The early Spanish writers inclined to the opinion that the Romans and other ancient nations, centuries before the present era, were well acquainted with the existence of this country, and have concluded from the strongest evidence, that the Carthagenians had much to do in colonizing America, as had also the descendants of the ancient Tyrians, or Hivites, who built the City of Otobum, the remains of which are thirty-two miles long by twelve miles broad ; full of palaces, monuments, and statues. On the stones of this city are sculptured representations of Apis, Isis, and Osiris, the gods of the ancient Egyptians, and numerous inscriptions. The similarity of the letters of these inscriptions to those of Africa, as in use thousands of years ago, is almost exact ; showing beyond a doubt that the same nations, the same language, and the same arts, which were known in ancient Libya, were also known in North America.

Calmet brings forward the most classic authors of ancient times respecting the discovery of America. Honorius, son of Theodosius the Great, says, that in very remote ages three voyages were made to the country now called America ; the first by the Atlantes, or descendants of Atlas, who gave his name to the Atlantic Ocean.

Strabo, the Historian and Geographer, was of the same opinion,

Diodorus Siculus, says that the Phœnicians had navigated the Atlantic very far, and, upon the authority of Josephus, the transmigration of Phœnicians to this Continent on a Syrian Fleet, in the employ of Solomon, is mentioned, and it seems probable that Canada was discovered by them, from



the fact, that glass beads of accepted Phœnician manufacture have been found in an ancient estuary, of the Copper age, at Beverly, in the Province of Ontario.

Humboldt says that in Canada he has seen lines of defence and entrenchments of extraordinary length, the work of some people belonging to the early ages, and that amidst the extensive plains of Upper Canada, dykes of a considerable length, weapons of brass, and sculptured stones are found, which are the indications that it was formerly inhabited by industrious nations.

The antiquities of Rome refer for the most part to the time of the empire, of the kingly period few remains can be found, and of these few the prison of the Apostles is the most interesting. The Marmatine Prison was built in an ancient quarry, at the eastern side of the Forum. It was begun by Ancus Martius, fourth King of Rome, B.C. 640-B.C. 616, from whom it derives its name, and was enlarged by Servius Tullius, Sixth King of Rome B.C. 578-B.C. 534. Formerly there were no stairs into it, and the prisoners were let down from an opening above. I have visited these dungeons, but when doing so, was not aware that in the State of Missouri, the remains of a stone building had been discovered, in form and size resembling the Marmatine Prison. These remains are strong evidence that the Romans had a knowledge of the existence of America, prior to their invasion of Britain.

*(To be Continued.)*

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DISCOVERY OF ANTIQUITIES.—Excavations for archaeological purpose have been lately undertaken at Jupille, in an ancient place of sepulture in Belgium, and have resulted in the discovery of a considerable number of skeletons, one of which had on the neck a golden collar. A remarkably fine mosaic pavement was also discovered. An archaeological commission has been sent to visit the spot.—*European Mail.*

THE ROMAN BRICK IN MARK LANE,  
AS TESTIMONY OF THE EARLY JEWISH SETTLEMENTS  
IN ENGLAND.

BY THE REV. PROFESSOR DE SOLA, LL.D.



T has been thought by some historians, that as no mention is made of the residence of Jews in England previous to that found in the Canonical Excerptions of Ecbright, Archbishop of York, published in the year 750, that none of that ancient race had settled there before the commencement of the eighth century. But their own historians and chronologists claim a much earlier date for their first settlement. One of the most esteemed of these chronologists, R. David Gaus, in his "Tsemach David," under the year 3775 of the Creation, and 15 of the Christian era, has the following remarks which we translate from the original Hebrew :—" The Emperor Augustus was a pious, God-fearing man. He executed justice and righteousness with Israel, and was a great friend to them. Therefore, the author of the 'Sceptre of Judah,' who writes that this Emperor promoted a great slaughter of Israelites, is surely deceived. I, on the contrary, have never met with the least allusion to any such slaughter in any historical book with which I have ever met, but both in Gentile historians, as also in Josephus, (Chapter xv.), we find that he was a true friend to Israel. And further, Josephus writes in his 46th Chapter, that the Emperor sent letters of franchise to all the Jews throughout the countries under his dominion, eastwardly beyond the Indian Ocean, and westwardly throughout the Island of Britain, that is the Province\* of England." The discovery of a Roman brick in Mark Lane,

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\* It is worthy of remark, that the writer uses here the word *medinah*, "province," in the same sense as in Esther i. 1, evidently adopting the opinion of those who consider Britain to have been a dependancy of Rome immediately after its invasion by Cæsar. The moderns believe, however, that it was not until the reign of Claudius, that the Britons were subdued, by the expedition under Plautius.

London, with a representation of an incident recorded in the Hebrew Scriptures, has led, at least, one eminent English antiquarian, without knowledge of Jewish opinion or statement to regard it, as in every way probable, that there was a Jewish settlement in England in the days of the first Roman Emperor, and before the Christian era. In the first volume of Leland's "Collectanea,"\* is a letter, in which the writer,† speaking upon the antiquities of London, says: "And now, I shall take notice of a very great curiosity found in Mark Lane, more properly *Mart* Lane, it being a place where the Romans, and not improbably, the Ancient Britons used to barter their commodities, as tin, lead, &c., with other nations, it may be with the Greeks, who often came into this island to purchase the like goods. Whence, I am apt to conjecture, that the name of the lane hath been continued ever since the time of the Romans, and that the names of some other lanes and streets, as Cornhill, Grace (Church) Street, Icknold's Way, Walling Street, and, perhaps, Old Fish Street, are of equal antiquity, and were so called from the same kind of accidents. The curiosity I am speaking of is a brick, found about forty years since, twenty-eight feet deep below the pavement, by Mr. Stockley, as he was digging the foundation of a house that he built for Mr. Nalley. Near to this place, were dug up many quarters of wheat, burnt very black, but yet sound; which were conjectured to have lain buried ever since the burning of this city, about 800 years before. This brick, is of a Roman make, and was a key brick to the arch where the corn was found. It is made of a curious red clay, and in bas-relief; on the front it hath the figure of Samson, putting fire to the foxes' tails, and driving them into a field of corn. It seems to be the same story that is mentioned in Scripture, of (Samson) destroying the Philistines' corn. Whence came the fable of

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\* Ed. 1774, Lond.

† John Bagnsford.

Hercules to be the guardian of the corn stores, or granaries, as they had their peculiar deities for all domestic affairs in, or near their houses and camps, as Priapus was the protector of their garden, &c., not to mention many other household gods of several names and uses. This brick is at this time (the latter end of the eighteenth century), preserved in the museum, belonging to the Royal Society, in Fleet Street, from whence I have caused an accurate draft\* of it to be sent you, at the same time not forgetting to acquaint you that the late ingenious Richard Waller, Esq., (whose death is much lamented by the virtuosos of this place), communicated to me the following account of the measure of it, as exactly taken, viz. :

On the picture, or largest face, { broad..4 inches.  
  { long ..5 1/10 "

On the other, or reverse side, { broad..3 7/10 "  
  { long ..5 1/10 "

Its thickness is ..... 2 4/10 "

At the same time, Mr. Waller observed to me in his letter, that the proportions of the bas-relief are so very fine, that it is plain from thence, that it cannot be a work of the bas-entire; 'but then,' says he, 'how the story of Samson should be known to the Romans, much less to the Britons, so early after the time of the propagation of the gospel,† seems to be a great doubt, except it should be said, that some Jews, after the final destruction of Jerusalem, should wander into Britain, and London being, even in Cæsar's time, a port or trading city, they might settle here, and in the arch of their own granary, record the famous story of their delivery from captivity under the Philistines.' Be that as it will, the thing is very curious, and it is very plain by the impression, that it was made by a mould or stamp, so that doubtless there were many of the same mode."

\* A copy thereof may be found in Leland's Collectanea, in the edition before quoted.

† Joseph of Arimathea is said to have preached the gospel in Britain, A.D. 35.

We propose to show now that the assertion of Gans and the opinion of Mr. Waller are supported by various important considerations. And, first, we remark that Britain, and London in particular, were highly celebrated for their commerce, in the time of Augustus, and even before the invasion by Julius Cæsar. Without stopping to examine the probability of the assertion made by Godfrey of Monmouth, the Welch Historian, who "reporteth that Brute\* builded this citye (London) about the year of the world 2858, and 1108 before the Christian cra, near unto the river now called Thames or Trenovant,† and named it Troynovant;" or whether the far-famed King Lud, the royal and original proprietor of Lud's gate, known to the Londoners as Ludgate.‡ "did reparaire this citye, and also increased the same with many fayre buildings, calling it Lud-din, *i.e.* the City of Lud or Lloyd;§ we remark that Tacitus,|| about half a century after Augustus, tells us that London had become a "nobile emporium," a city highly favored for her great conflux of merchants, her extensive commerce, and plenty of all things. And Strabo, who flourished under Augustus, says, "Britain produceth corn, cattle, gold, silver and iron; besides which skins, slaves, and dogs,° naturally excellent hunters, are exported from that island." And even Cæsar admits that the Britons, already before his time, were very numerous and powerful, and had, more particularly in the south-eastern

\* Said to have been lineally descended from the demi-god Eneas, son of Venus and grandson of Jupiter. He must have been contemporary with Samuel and Saul; and London, according to this account, must have been founded before the building of the first Temple.

† Some would make the *Civitas Trinovantium* of Cæsar synonymous with this Trenovant, by changing the *t* into *v*.

‡ When Ludgate was taken down to be rebuilt, in 1508, the following inscription was found on one of the stones, "*This is the ward of R. Moses son of Isaac.*" (Pennant, Account of London.) This of course would not prove that there were Jews in England at the early period assigned for building Ludgate; but the stone, most probably, formed part of the domicile of those unfortunate Jews, whose houses were pulled down by the turbulent barons in the reign of King John, to repair the city.

§ Stowe's Surveys, &c. Fol. Lond. 1633.

|| He is the first who calls the city *Londinum*.

° A rather ominous classification.

parts, considerably advanced in the arts of tillage and agriculture. From these authorities, some have concluded that it is only from the time of Cæsar that Britain began to be known as a place famous for its commerce; but it can soon be shown that such was not really the case. For, in the first place, if, from her peculiar situation, Britain presented many advantages for commerce, her situation was always the same, and consequently the same inducements for visiting the island always existed. Secondly, It would appear very improbable that during the few years intervening its invasion, and the accession of Augustus, it should have become such a place for commerce as Strabo describes it, (see above); and lastly, we know that the Phœnicians traded with the Britons in lead and tin\* long before the Roman eagle had made its appearance in the "sea-girt-isle;" so that we have here sufficient grounds for rejecting the supposition that "Britain was a place of but little note in point of commerce before its conquest by the Romans,"† and for adopting the opinion of such as maintain that "London grew into a city of importance by her trade with the Greeks and Phœnicians."‡

We remark, next, that from the days of King Solomon, the Jews more fully applied themselves to commercial pursuits, and in the reign of Augustus Cæsar, they were so occupied very extensively. The Jews nationally, appear to have displayed but little spirit of enterprise and taste for commerce, previous to the reign of King Solomon. But when this monarch, who "passed all the kings of the earth in riches and wisdom," made a navy of ships in Ezion Geber, which went to Tarshish with the servants of Horam (Hiram) and came once every three years bringing gold and silver, ivory, apes and peacocks,§ the nation appears to have grad-

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\* "They refined, and transported the metals by the Isle of Wight into Gaul, and thence by land on horseback, in thirty days to Marseilles," (Owen, *Vindic. Brit. ap. Stowe.*)

† Bishop Stillingfleet, *An. Lond.* p. 533.

‡ Owen, *Vindic. Brit. pass.*

§ 1 Kings ix. 26; 2 Chron. xx. 37.

ually acquired a taste for so exciting an avocation. And although the navy which King Jehoshaphat made to trade to Tarshish was destroyed as a judgment of God for joining himself with Ahaziah;\* still does the nation appear to have regarded it merely as such, and their newly imbibed spirit of traffic was not at all damped. Thus, previous to the Babylonian captivity, their trade had become so extensive that even those who had always held the first rank as a commercial people,—the Tyrians,—are represented by the prophet Ezekiel as being envious of them, rejoicing at the overthrow of Jerusalem, and congratulating themselves that they would be replenished “now that she is laid waste,”† But to draw nearer to the period with which we are most concerned, we shall find that in the time of Pompey, there were many Jews engaged in naval and commercial pursuits; for the ambassador of Hyrcanus accused Aristobulus before him of having been privy to, and concerned in, the many piracies which had lately taken place.‡ And although this accusation, proceeding as it did from an opponent, may not be entitled to much credit *per se*, yet it is sufficient to show us that there must have been some considerable portion of the Jewish nation engaged at this time in naval matters, or the ambassador would scarcely have dared to prefer such a charge, when experience would lead Pompey to question its probability. Again, when Pompey after profaning the holy temple with his “heathen presence,” had incurred the displeasure and hatred of the Jews, these generally joined themselves to the party and interests of Cæsar, who, according to Josephus, did not prove ungrateful; but granted them many privileges, and even made a pillar of brass for the Jews at Alexandria, “and declared publicly that they were citizens of Alexandria,”§ Thus, in Cæsar’s time, we find

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\* 2 Chron. xx. 17.

† Ezekiel xxvi. 2.

‡ Josephus Antiq. lib. xiv. cap. 3, § 2.

§ Antiq. lib. xiv. cap. x. § 1.

them enjoying all the privileges of their gentile countrymen. Stimulated by these advantages, their spirit of enterprise sought and found full scope ; so that Herod found it necessary to build Cæsarea, a seaport, the beauty and grandeur of which called forth alike the astonishment and praise of Jewish and Gentile writers. And, although this city may be justly regarded as being a proof of what Milman calls Herod's "costly adulation" to Augustus ; yet if we look to the extent of its commerce, its favorable situation, reputation, and magnificence, we shall be satisfied that the Jews at this time had obtained a celebrity in commercial matters such as they had never before possessed.

From the foregoing, it becomes in the highest degree probable, that Jews began to settle in England shortly after its conquest by Julius Cæsar. If Britain was a place of most important and inviting character for commerce in the time of Augustus ; if the Romans then traded with Britain ; if the Jews then residing in Rome were enjoying particular privileges ; if their taste for commerce and spirit of enterprise which had sprung into existence as early as the days of Solomon, had now arrived at its fullest development, and if probability be at all of any weight or value in argument, then we think that in support of the assertion of R. David Gans and the opinion of Mr. Waller, we have presented considerations than which nothing can be more conclusive or satisfactory. Indeed, it would be entirely opposed to reason and experience to suppose, that the Roman Jews in the reign of Augustus, should have slighted the advantages which were then within their grasp, and settled down in a slothful indifference, when we know that many of them at this time reached very great eminence in the paths of literature and science. Now, if we admit this, and we think that we should not be wrong to do so ; then it would be no more than consistent and proper for us to admit, that it is from this time that the Jews must have commenced settling



in England. For it would have been most difficult, if not impossible, for them to have embarked in pursuits such as the pearl or slave trades, which were the principal and most profitable sections of British commerce, unless they were on the spot ; as in these transactions their judgment would be necessarily required. A person carrying on the chief part, if not the whole of his business in a certain place, is much more likely to reside in that place than elsewhere. The same must it have been with Jewish merchants trading with Britain. And in this connexion we cannot but observe that it is very remarkable that the Roman brick before spoken of, should have been found in Mark Lane, a place it will be remembered, where the Romans, and not improbably, the Ancient Britons, used to barter their commodities. From this coincidence, we have probability supporting probability ; for if the Jews traded into Britain, and the one probability tells us they did, then we have every reason to believe that some of them did actually reside in Mark or Mart Lane, the then chief spot for trade, and that the brick was really the work of an Israelite, since its subject (a scriptural one) would not allow us, as Mr. Waller observes, to suppose it to be of Roman make. And if this brick was really the work of a Jew (and the other probability tells us it was), then it is equally probable that it was the work of a Jewish merchant residing in Britain ; since it is most likely, as we have before observed, that they should settle where their avocations principally called them. Here then we have again, some important, though small particulars tending to show the correctness of the view we, jointly with R. David Gans and Mr. Waller, have taken of the matter. But we would leave it with our readers to decide, and we must not deprive them of their vocation. This much, however, we would add in conclusion : If, as Rollin remarks, where certainty is not to be had, a reasonable person should be satisfied with probability ; then we most assuredly should not slight in our in-

quiry the use of those means, which, if they will not permit us to decide with certainty, will, nevertheless, lead us to something which approaches very nearly to it. And, if the means which we have just employed, shall be considered as partaking of this character; if the considerations which we have urged to show that the earliest settlements of Jews in England must have taken place while that country was a dependency of Rome, be regarded as satisfactory, and if we have shown through them the correctness of the assertion made by one of the most able of the Hebrew chronologists, then will the purpose for which we originated this inquiry have been served.

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**THE FIRST SCHOOL IN CANADA.**—The first school in Canada was kept by Father Lejeune, at Quebec, in 1632. It consisted of a negro boy, and an indian boy, to whom the good father taught reading and writing. He wrote to France that he would not exchange his class for the best university. The following year he had twenty pupils, most of whom came on foot every day from several miles in the country. That school was the foundation of the famous Jesuit College, which produced men of eminence under the French regime.

**THE FIRST HISTORY OF CANADA AND THE FIRST VOLUME OF POETRY WRITTEN BY A FRENCH CANADIAN** were both published by M. Michel Bibaud, who may be called the pioneer of French Canadian Literature. He was born at La Cote des Neiges, near Montreal, in 1782, and died in this City in 1857, aged 75.

NESTOR, the father of Russian History, died 1113; Snorro, the father of Icelandic History did not appear until a century later; Kadlubek, the first historian of Poland, died in 1223, and Struman could not discover a scrap of writing in all Sweden older than 1159.

## A MONTREAL CLUB OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

BY ALFRED SANDHAM.



THE "Beaver Club" was instituted at Montreal in the year 1785, by the merchants then carrying on the Indian trade of Canada. Originally the Club consisted of but nineteen members, *all voyageurs*, having wintered in the Indian Country, and having been engaged in the trade from their youth. Subsequently the law respecting the limit to the membership was altered and it was decided that not more than 55 ordinary, and 10 Honorary Members should be admitted. Why this number should have been chosen is not made known, but it appears that the rule was thereafter strictly adhered to, and to secure admission, a unanimous vote was required. On the first Wednesday in December of each year, the social gatherings were inaugurated by a dinner at which all members residing in the Town were expected to be present. At the same time, they were required to notify the Secretary, if they should find themselves so situated as to prevent their attendance during the season, otherwise they were "considered of the party, and subject to the Rules of the Club." The Club assumed powers which would, in the present day, be strongly resisted; among the most notable of them was the rule, that "no member shall have a party at his house on Club days, nor accept invitations; but if in town, *must attend*, except prevented by indisposition." The meetings were held fortnightly, from December to April, and there was in addition a Summer Club for the Captains of the Fur vessels, who, in some instances, were honorary members: The object of the meetings, (as set forth in the Rules), was "to bring together, at stated periods, during the winter season, a set of men highly respectable in society, who had passed their best days in a savage country, and had encoun-

tered the difficulties and dangers incident to a pursuit of the Fur trade of Canada."

At these gatherings an opportunity was afforded of introducing into society such traders as might, from time to time, return from the Indian Country. They were first invited as guests, and if eligible from standing and character, became, by ballot, members of Club. At the meetings the members would call to mind, and recount the scenes through which they had passed, which, with whatever peril they had in reality been attended, now afforded gratification and amusement to each other. It was also customary to pass round the Indian emblem of peace, (the calumet), after which the officer appointed for the purpose made a suitable harangue. The evening was then devoted to more questionable forms of entertainment, and wine was freely used. Between these indulgences was often heard the animated song of the voyageur. There was a regularly established list of Club Toasts, five in number, which were compulsory, but after these had gone round, every member was at liberty to retire at his pleasure. The Club, with little interruption, continued to meet regularly until about the year 1824, when it became extinct, probably from the fact that but few of those who had taken active part in the Fur trade remained to entertain the meeting with accounts of their hair-breadth escapes and their ventures by land and water. Of the original members, there remained in the year 1819, but one living representative, Mr. Alex. Henry. It is a matter of interest to Canadians generally, but more particularly so to Montrealers, to know that the founder of "McGill College," was one of the original members, and that the records shew his first voyage to the interior to have been made in 1766. In the list of members appear names known to the older residents of the city, many of them made familiar to the present generation by the institutions, streets and squares which bear their names. McGill, Chaboillez, Desriviere and Cotte

are familiar as household words; while many interesting recollections are awakened at the names of Frobisher, Finlay, McTavish, Gillivray, Gillespie, DeRocheblave, Moffatt, and LaRocque. These men have all passed away, and of the 93 Ordinary and 11 Honorary Members, whose names were enregistered down to the year 1819, it is doubtful if a single representative now lives. In connection with this Club is a point of considerable interest to Canadian Numismatists. One of the rules strictly enjoined, that on Club days members should wear their *medals* suspended with a light blue ribbon. Failure to do so was punished with a fine of one dollar for each offence. No account is given of this particular medal beyond that just named. It is however known that the Club, on several occasions, awarded medals for bravery, or for distinguished services rendered by the voyageurs. At a sale of Coins and Medals held in New York, in April, 1871, one of these medals was sold for \$33. The medal was gold, very thin, and with a raised edge. On the obverse was engraved a representation of a beaver, gnawing at a tree; below which was a ribbon inscribed "Industry and Perseverance." Above this appeared the title "Beaver Club, Montreal, Instituted 1785." On the reverse was an engraved representation of a canoe shooting a rapid. The inscription being "Archibald McLennan, Fortitude in distress, 1792." The circumstances which led to the bestowal of this medal will probably remain unknown, but that the person who received it was worthy of association with the fur magnates of the day, is shewn by his election in 1814 as an ordinary member of the Club. This medal, with others awarded at various times to members of the Club, are probably those referred to in the rules. The vessels at that time engaged in the fur trade were the *Eweretta*, commanded by Captain Featonby, and subsequently by Captain Patterson; the *Integrity*, Captain Gibson; The *Indian Trader*, Captain Edwards; the *Montreal*, Captain Edward Boyd, and the *Mary*, Captain Sarmon.

SIR JOHN FRANKLIN LAYING THE FIRST  
STONE OF THE RIDEAU CANAL.



T may not be generally known that the first stone of that important work, the Rideau Canal, was laid by the lamented Sir John Franklin. The following account of the event we find in the "*New Montreal Gazette*," for August —, 1827 :

"A letter we have just received from a correspondent at the Rideau Canal, dated August 16, 1827, says :—

I have this evening to communicate to you one of the most important events that ever occurred in the Canadas— an event which will doubtless form an era in the history of this country for ages to come. It was no less than depositing the first stone of the locks of the Rideau Canal. Yesterday evening, at a late hour, Captain Franklin, the celebrated traveller, arrived at the head quarters of the detachment of the 71st Regiment, now doing duty here, when Colonel By decided upon welcoming this enterprising traveller to the regions of hospitality and civilization in a way that would identify his return with a grand undertaking so highly beneficial for the Continent he had spent so long time and labour in exploring,—namely, the laying the first stone of the locks of the Rideau Canal. The high stage of popularity on which the Colonel so deservedly stands, places his desires and their accomplishments almost co-eval. This morning all was bustle to get ready,—at 4 o'clock, p.m., the stone weighing above 1¾ ton was brought to its bed. Colonel By met Captain Franklin on the spot, when the Captain gave the final knock to the stone in due form.

*I understand there is to be an inscription on the stone detailing the circumstances under which and by whom it was laid.*

Notwithstanding the briefness of the notice, (a cause of disappointment to many), there was congregated on the

occasion as large and respectable a concourse of spectators as had ever been witnessed at this place."

*In this, Canada possesses her Franklin" relic," connecting the name of the lamented explorer with one of her most useful public works.*

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## A FEW WORDS UPON THE KNOWLEDGE OF COINS, MEDALS, AND MISCELLANEOUS ANTIQUITIES.

BY HENRY W. HENFREY,

*Member of the Numismatic Society of London, &c., &c., &c.  
Author of "A Guide to English Coins."*

"Ambition sighed; she found it vain to trust  
The faithless column, and the crumbling bust,  
Huge moles, whose shallow stretched from shore to shore,  
Their ruins perished, and their place no more!  
Convinced, she now contracts her vast design,  
And all her triumphs shrink into a coin."



THE truth of these well known lines of Pope can admit of no denial. Coins and Medals are the only historical memorials which are "of undoubted authority, of necessary use and observation, not perishable by time, nor confined to any certain place; properties not to be found in books, statues, pictures, buildings, or any other monuments of illustrious actions." (*Swift*.)

Besides their great and acknowledged value to the student of history, coins and medals should, by an educated man, be regarded in the same light as books. "I soon perceived," says Admiral Smyth, "the mischievous error of the too general opinion, that an acquaintance with ancient coins is more the province of the antiquary than of the scholar, that it was of little permanent advantage to the general reader, and that it was useless to him whose avocations in life admit of but brief intervals for literary researches. My

conviction, on the contrary, showed that without these infallible vouchers, independent of their intimate connexion with the fine arts, there cannot be a clear understanding of many customs, offices, and historical events : that an experimental acquaintance with medals is a higher advantage than the ignorant will admit it to be ; and that no one can be disparaged by a pursuit which engaged the attention of and enrolled among its votaries such men as Alfred, Cromwell, Napoleon; Selden, Wren, Canova, Camden, Evelyn, and Chantrey. Looking backwards to antiquity, is not at all going back to it ; but the process inculcates various and invaluable cautionary lessons."

Ovid tells us "*factum abiit—monumenta manent.*" We should therefore, like Cicero, endeavor to collect and preserve these "*monumenta*" or memorials : "*Omnia antiquitatis monumenta colligo*" ought to be the motto of every member of this and kindred societies.

It is surely a noble pursuit which preserves the memories of great men, perpetuates their portraits, their actions, or their maxims ; and which thereby excites the emulation of the present generation.

By the preservation of every class of ancient remains, science and art are extended, and the honor and estimation of their patrons and protectors are kept alive.

In conclusion, I cannot too strongly impress upon the readers of this Journal the necessity of collecting, preserving, and studying every object of antiquity which comes to his own particular notice ; and as the value of any such object is proportionably enhanced by the number of persons to whom it is known, I recommend a prompt communication of all antiquarian facts and remains, especially such as may be connected with the early history of Canada, to the " Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Montreal."



## A PLEA FOR AN ARTISTIC COINAGE.

BY R. W. M'LACHLAN.



**A** GREAT country, holding commercial relations with other great countries, all over the world, should strive to excel in the character of its circulating medium; and by character, we mean *truthfulness and beauty*. An elevating standard of coinage is one of the evidences of civilization. A low class of coinage represses the arts of design, and fosters vulgar and depraved tastes. That we "cannot handle pitch and not be defiled," is a truth equally strong when the application is reversed, for we may say that a people or nationality cannot handle an artistic coinage without their tastes being to some extent elevated. It is a well-known fact, that a much higher degree of art than is at present displayed on our coinage, can be attained; therefore, as the majority of our people have no other means for the cultivation of this taste, should not the stereotyped designs as the conventional head of the sovereign, the wreath or arms, be to some extent superseded by historical designs such as graced the money of Greece and Rome. Even these were changed from time to time, so that the people did not tire of the figures thereon presented. By following this example, there would be furnished a free school of art and design, extending to the whole community, and costing the government little if anything beyond the expense of sustaining the mint. This idea has been advocated by leading numismatists in Europe and America, who take the example of Greece to shew the benefits derived from this source. The Greek cities issued the most beautiful series of coins that ever appeared, and Greece stood far before all other nations in the fine arts, their work still holding its place among modern nations. Although the first rise of art among them cannot be attributed to their coinage, for it must have been known

and cultivated ere it could be thus developed, yet we are assured, that its long continuance is due to this cause, and that she was indebted to it for many an artist whose first love for the beautiful was awakened by examining the coinage.

In this new country, especially when residing far from cities, persons cannot visit the stores of art that are ever open to the people of the old world. But one great medium whereby the people might be instructed and elevated can be made available by the coinage. Therefore let us not rest satisfied until a higher degree of art is attained, and the people of our Dominion placed in possession of a truly artistic coinage.

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There is in possession of the Earl of Ormonde, a charter, pendant from which is an impression in green wax, of the seal of Strongbow. The seal has on the obverse a mounted knight in a long surcoat, with a triangular shield, his head covered by a conical helmet, with a nasal. He has a broad straight sword in his right hand. Reverse: A foot soldier, with the legend "*Sigillum Ricardi Filii Comitis Gilleberti.*"

RARE COINS.—One of the finest collections of Greek, Roman, and English coins has lately been purchased by MM. Rolin and Feuardent, of London and Paris. It belonged to the late Mr. Wigan, who spent many years in gathering together these splendid specimens of art. He never bought a coin unless in the best preservation, and never hesitated to give the utmost value for any he wished for. The number of Greek in the most perfect state is quite surprising. It would take up too much space to describe them; many are unique, and amongst them a splendid coin of Agrigentum, one of Sicily, &c. The Roman first brass are also grandiose, and many of them with the most beautiful patina upon them. Amongst the modern there is the only crown ever known of the first Pretender of James III.

## COINS OF SIAM.

BY SIR JOHN BOWRING, F.R.S.



ONEY that circulates in Siam consists principally of silver *ticals* or *bats* of the value of *2s. 6d.* sterling, with smaller coins, constituting its subdivisions. The coin is an irregular ball, but has two impressions, made by blows, bearing the King's mark. There is a double tical—a half tical, called *song-salung*—a quarter tical, the *salung*—and the half *salung*, or *fuang*, which represents 1200 cowries. These shells are generally employed for the small purchases of the people, about 100 of them representing a farthing. They are collected on the Siamese coast. Pallegoix says, that for a *fuang* (less than *4d.*) fifty or sixty varieties of vegetables may be purchased in the public markets. Four ticals make the Siamese ounce—20 ounces the catty, or Siamese pound of silver. The larger amounts are reckoned in pounds of silver, of which the sterling value is about *10l.* Gold coins resembling the silver in form and size, are issued, but in small quantities. Copper coins are issued by individuals in the provinces; and stamped glass, or enamel bearing inscriptions, is also used as a circulating medium. The Government issues promissory notes of various amounts, even to one-eighth of a tical. They do not seem extensively current, and, I believe, have not experienced any depreciation.

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“ To have a thing is little, if you're not allowed to show it ; and to know a thing is nothing unless others know you know it.”—*Lord Neaves.*

“ It is more easy to write about money than to obtain it ; and those who gain it jest much at those who only know how to write about it.”

## THE HERALDRY OF COINAGE.

*(From Boutell's English Heraldry.)*

THE Heraldry of the Coinage, in addition to the Shields of Arms of successive sovereigns, exemplifies the changes that have taken place in the form and adornment of the Crown, and it also is rich in various Badges and Devices having an historical significance.

In Coins the Royal Shield is sometimes quartered by a cross charged upon it, as in the the silver penny of EDWARD VI. A mediæval ship having a sail covered with heraldic blazonry, appears on the *Noble*—a coin worthy of its name. A figure of the King in armour (not particularly well proportioned to the size of the Vessel), his sword in one hand, and his Shield of arms in the other, is also represented in these fine examples of mediæval numismatic art. A ship without any sail, but in its stead charged with the Royal Shield heightened by a Cross, forms the reverse of another excellent coin, the *Angel*, the obverse bearing a figure of ST. MICHAEL with his lance thrusting down the dragon. The Angel of EDWARD IV. on either side of the Cross has the initial E and the white rose of York; and the legend is—PER : CRUCEM : TVA : SALVA : NOS : XTE : REDEMPT : (“By thy Cross save us, O Redeemer Christ!”). A Crowned Rose, with a Royal Cypher, is another favorite device; as in the shilling of HENRY VIII., with the legend—POSVI : DEV : ADIVTOREM : MEVM ) (“I have placed God (before me as) my helper”).

Such are a few examples of the early Heraldry of English coins. More recently, and particularly in our own Coinage, Heraldry and Art have declined together so that feeble designs, but too commonly executed with lamentable consistency, are associated with heraldic inaccuracies which continue uncorrected to this day—witness the *treasure of Scot-*



MEDAL OF THE LOYAL AND PATRIOTIC  
SOCIETY.

*land* always incorrectly blazoned on the Royal Shield; and poor BRITANNIA sitting forlorn on the copper and bronze coinage, as if conscious of being constrained to display on her oval Shield an obsolete blazonry, that places the reign of QUEEN VICTORIA in the eighteenth century.

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### MEDAL OF THE LOYAL AND PATRIOTIC SOCIETY OF UPPER CANADA.

BY ALFRED SANDHAM.



HIS Society grew out of the peculiar circumstances of Upper Canada, when war was declared by the United States against Great Britain in 1812. Utterly unprepared for war, the militia of the Province was suddenly called to the frontier to oppose invasion. It had neither arms nor clothing.

The first attention of their gallant leader, after arming them at the expense of the enemy, was to provide clothing suitable to the severity of the then approaching season.

From some cause, not explained, actual relief was so long delayed, that individual sympathy was excited, and the inhabitants of York (now Toronto), by a private subscription, aided by the personal labors of the young ladies of the place, afforded a supply of clothing to the companies doing duty on the lines, between Niagara and Fort Erie. It was soon discovered, that great distress must unavoidably, in many cases, result to families deprived of their sole support, the labor of fathers, husbands, sons and brothers, employed in arms. To meet in some degree, and to alleviate such distress, an Association, to be known as the Loyal and Patriotic Society of Upper Canada was projected, and instantly adopted, with a zeal creditable to the inhabitants of York.

At the first meeting, a subscription, to be renewed annually, during the war, as circumstances might admit, amounted in some instances to a tenth part of the income of the subscribers. This example was followed in several Districts of Canada; and the Cities of Montreal and Quebec, most liberally seconded the views of the Society. Its object was no sooner known in London, England, than a subscription was opened by Lieut. Gov. Gore, encouraged by the countenance and patronage of H.R.H. the Duke of Kent, who was pleased to preside at a meeting held at the City of London Tavern. A liberal subscription from individuals in the Island of Jamaica, made a large addition to the means of the Society, and, altogether, its funds were so augmented, as to induce the Committee of Directors to forbear any further call on the annual subscribers.

The meeting at which the Society was formed was held at York on Tuesday, 15th December, 1812, the chairman being the Hon. Chief Justice Scott.

At this meeting a Board of Directors was appointed, on which appears the names of Hon. Wm. Campbell, Rev. Dr. Strachan (Bishop), Mr. Dummer Powell (Chief Justice), Hon. J. B. Robinson, and others well known in history. The objects of the Society was to afford aid and relief to such families of the militia, in all parts of the Province, as appeared to experience particular distress in consequence of the death or absence of their friends employed in defence of the Province; also to such militia man as had been disabled from labor by wounds received in service. It was also part of the plan to reward merit, excite emulation, and commemorate glorious exploits, by bestowing medals or other honorary marks of public approbation and distinction for extraordinary instances of personal courage or fidelity in defence of the Province by individuals, either of the regular or militia forces, or seamen.

One hundred pounds were first voted to "procure as many

medals of silver as it could afford ;" and the following description of the desired medal was sent to England :

Medal to be " 2 inches and one-half in diameter." In a circle, formed by a wreath of laurel, the words " For merit." Legend, " Presented by a grateful country." On the obverse, A streight between two lakes, on the north side a Beaver, (emblem of peaceful industry), the ancient armorial bearing of Canada. In the back ground an English Lion slumbering. On the south side of the streight, the American Eagle planing in the air, as if checked from seizing the Beaver by the presence of the Lion. Legend, " Upper Canada preserved."

It appears from the records of the Society, that the artist (whose name is not given), did not adhere to the design and instructions given, and the medals prepared by him were rejected. A committee was appointed to further consider this question, and at a meeting held June 12, 1813, it was recommended and adopted "that £1,000 sterling be placed at the disposal of the Treasurer, to procure medals of the same device as that previously ordered." Also, "towards carrying into effect the third object of the Society, that 200 silver medals be struck, and that a communication of the resolution be made by the President to His Excellency Lt.-Gov. Gore, with a request that he would cause them to be executed."

The dies for this medal were prepared by Mr. Leonard C. Wyon, and the order was completed to the entire satisfaction of the Committee. Until the 14th April, 1815, the records bear no further reference to the medal. At a meeting then held, Lieut.-Col. Chewitt and Solicitor General Robinson were named to report upon names presented as deserving of "marks of distinction and for medals." The names of the persons thus distinguished do not appear in the published proceedings of the Society; but that a very large number were deemed worthy of the honor is clearly



shown by a resolution adopted at a general meeting held May 1st, 1815, when it was decided "that the silver medals received from Lieut.-Gov. Gore be reserved for non-commissioned officers, and to order 500 bronze medals of uniform size for privates, and that 50 gold medals be ordered for the present for general and field officers, of the value of three guineas each, also 12 gold medals of the value of five guineas each."

It would appear from this resolution, that a second die had been ordered, as it is quite evident that a gold medal  $2\frac{1}{2}$  inches in diameter could not be procured for 3 or even 5 guineas. I have not been able to procure any particulars respecting the gold medals, nor of the lot first received, and subsequently rejected, by the Society. If any person can furnish information on these points, I shall feel greatly obliged. The bronze and silver medals are but seldom met with, and the existence of the medal was unknown to a majority of collectors, until a recent date, when a specimen was sold in New York for a very large amount.

I learn that a number of these medals are still to be found in possession of persons residing on the Niagara frontier, and in other parts of Ontario, and that they are looked upon with great reverence, nothing short of actual want being likely to induce their owners to part with these records of their ancestors' loyalty and courage.

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"There is nothing so obscure of which time may not reveal some use; there is nothing so insignificant or so trifling, that may not ultimately prove of paramount importance."

"Here's Nestor,—  
Instructed in the antiquary times;  
He must, he is, he cannot but be wise."—*Shakespeare.*



## NUMISMATIC AND ANTIQUARIAN SOCIETY OF MONTREAL.

**I**N the month of December, 1862, several gentlemen of Montreal, desirous of cultivating the study of Numismatics,—and judging the formation of a properly organized association as the most efficacious means of attaining that end, assembled and formed “The Numismatic Society of Montreal.”

The seal of this society was the obverse of the Canadian bronze cent, with an outer circle inscribed “*Société Numismatique de Montréal. Fondée 1862.*”

On the formation of the Society, the attention of members was directed to Numismatics *in general*. It was not long, however, before the members very naturally directed their researches towards the Coins of Canada. The comparatively great variety,—the artistic excellence of numerous specimens,—and divers curious incidents bearing on these coins, furnished ample material for many interesting reflections and surmises.

In January, 1866, the name of the Society was changed to that of the “Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Montreal,” and a new seal was adopted, viz. : a round shield quartered by a tomahawk and calumet, bearing an antique lamp, an Athenian coin with head of Minerva, a Canadian cent with head of Victoria, and a Beaver ; the shield encircled with a garter bearing the words, “*Numismaticæ et Archæologicæ Marianopolitanæ Societatis Sigillum.*”

In addition to the study of Numismatic science, the members now directed their attention to Antiquarian research, and the result of the extended sphere of study has been to largely increase the membership, and the interest in the Society. Since the organization of the Society, many very interesting and able papers have been read, which it is hoped will be published at some future day.

In 1870 the Society was incorporated by Act of Parliament, and in 1871 its usefulness was publicly acknowledged by a grant from the Quebec Legislature, to be continued annually.

The Society's cabinet has been enriched by several valuable donations of Coins and Medals, and the Library contains many works upon Numismatic and Antiquarian subjects. The members are desirous of co-operating with similar Societies throughout the world, and will be happy to open and maintain communications upon subjects of general interest. At present, the attention of the members is specially directed towards securing a complete collection of Canada coins and medals, of which some very fine specimens are already found in the cabinet.

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### Q U E R I E S.



AN any of our correspondents furnish information with reference to the inscription on the first stone of the locks of the Rideau Canal, laid by Sir John Franklin, August 16, 1827?

— In a report of the meeting of subscribers to the Wolfe and Montcalm Monument at Québec, held November 1st, 1827, the Governor-in-Chief, the Marquis of Dalhousie, in the Chair,—it is said, "We are informed that a medal will be given by the Committee to the person who shall prepare the best and most appropriate inscription, *in the fewest words*, in Latin, French and English." This medal was awarded to Dr. Fisher, Editor of the *Quebec Gazette*; can information be given of its present existence?

## EDITORIAL.

**D**ESCRIPTION of the Paper Money issued by the Continental Congress of the United States and the several colonies," with illustrations by the Photo-Zincographic process. Such is the title of a work recently received from the author, Mr. John W. Haseltine of Philadelphia, a copy of which should be secured by every collector, as it contains reliable and invaluable information. It is neatly printed on tinted paper, the price being \$1.60, postage paid.

— MR. HENRY W. HENFREY, is at present engaged in collecting materials for a complete account of the Coins and Medals of Oliver Cromwell, and the Medalllic History of the Protectorate, and will be glad to receive any information relating either to these subjects or to the Life and Works of Thomas Simon, the celebrated medalist. Collectors in America are particularly requested to send descriptions of any Coins, Medals, or Tokens with the head of Oliver Cromwell, which they may happen to possess, no matter in what metal or how common. Descriptions should be accompanied by the weights of the coins in Troy grains, and the sizes of the medals in inches and tenths of an inch, (or the French metric system can be used.) All communications should be addressed 75 Victoria Street, Westminster, England.

— MR. J. W. KLINE, of 212 S. 8th Street, Philadelphia, announces that he will issue in large numbers to supply collectors and the trade, Campaign Medals for 1872. There are 10 varieties named, and the same will be issued immediately on the nomination being made by the Democratic Convention in July.

— NEW COPPER COINAGE FOR PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.  
—We are indebted to Hon. Jas. Warburton, Treasurer of the Colony, for the following information with reference to the new coinage of the Island :

## TREASURER'S OFFICE, P. E. ISLAND,

*June 22d, 1872.*

SIR,—In answer to your letter of the 17th instant, I have to state that last year the Government of this Colony obtained an order from the Colonial Office authorizing a copper coinage for the Island. Consequently 2,000,000 cents have been or are being put into circulation here. At present there is no silver coin specially prepared for the Island. I enclose two cents as a specimen of the copper coinage.

I am, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

JAMES WARBURTON,

*Col. Treasurer.*

The new coinage is very chaste. The obverse bears the head of Her Majesty, encircled in an outer rim with the legend "Victoria Queen 1871." The reverse bears the arms of the Island, viz., a small oak tree growing under the shelter of a large and flourishing tree, with the motto, "*Parva sub ingenti*," encircled in outer rim, with legend "Prince Edward Island. One Cent."

There is also a new copper coinage for Newfoundland, the design being similar to that of 1865, but bearing the date 1872. In our next issue we will give an account of a number of Canadian medals, some of which are not as yet published.

