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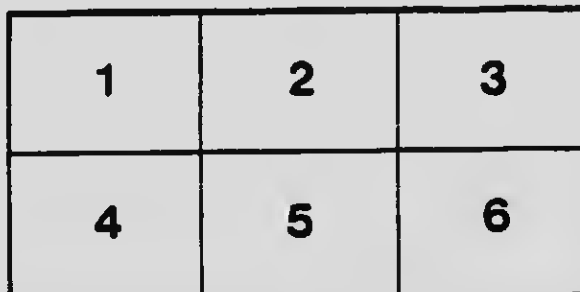
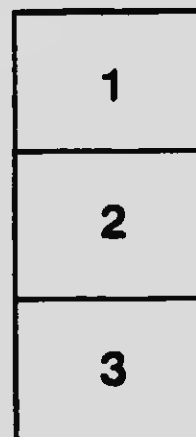
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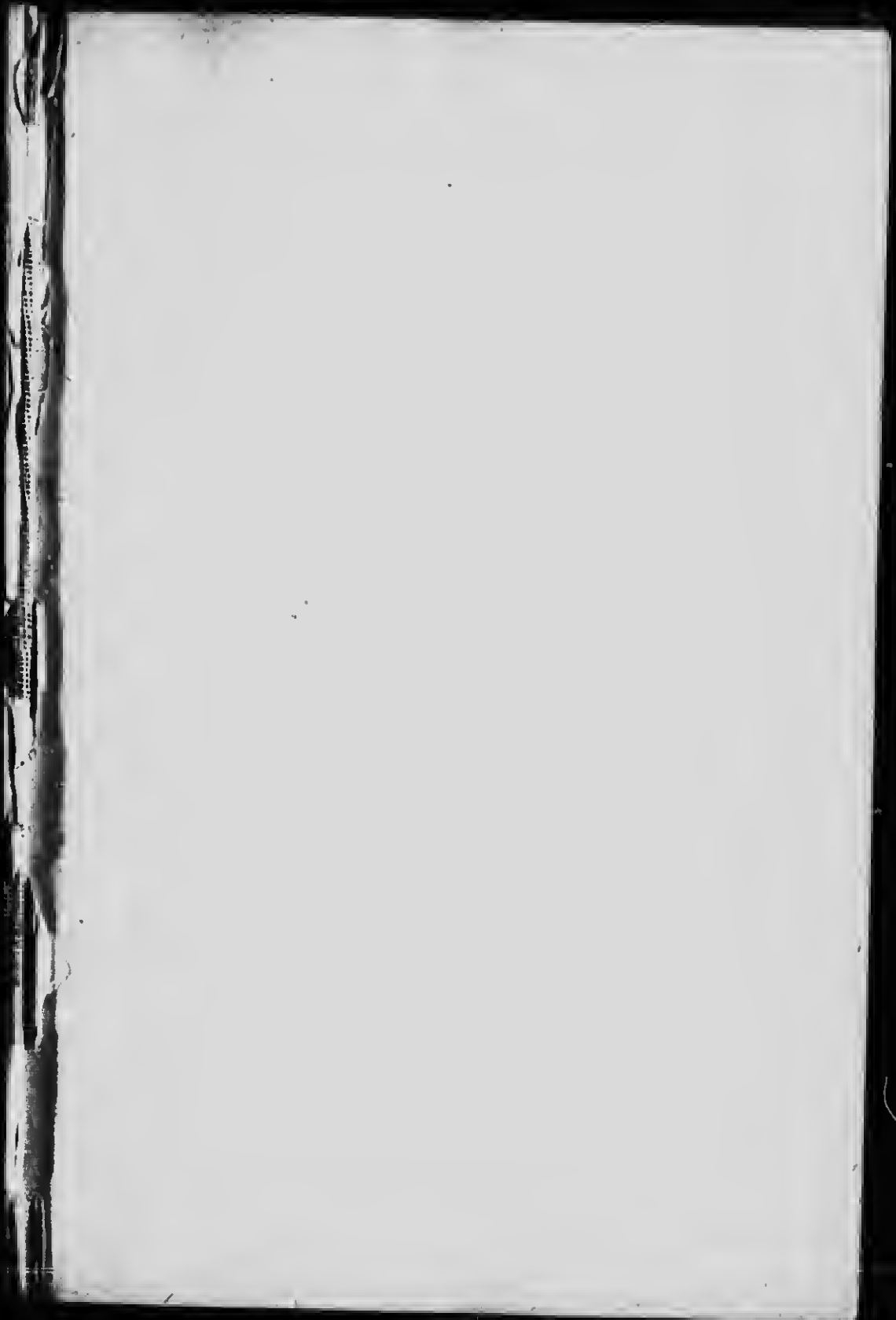
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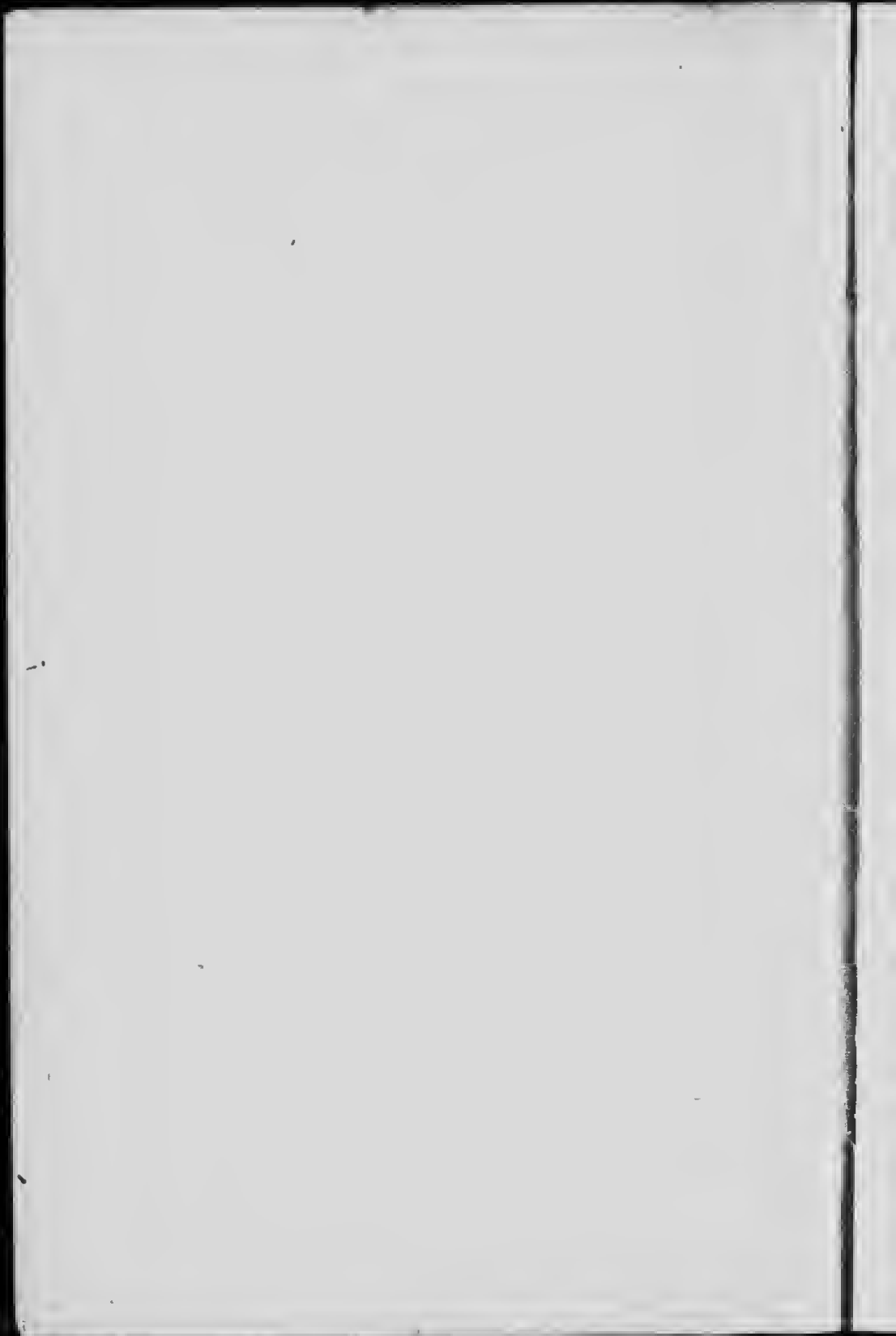
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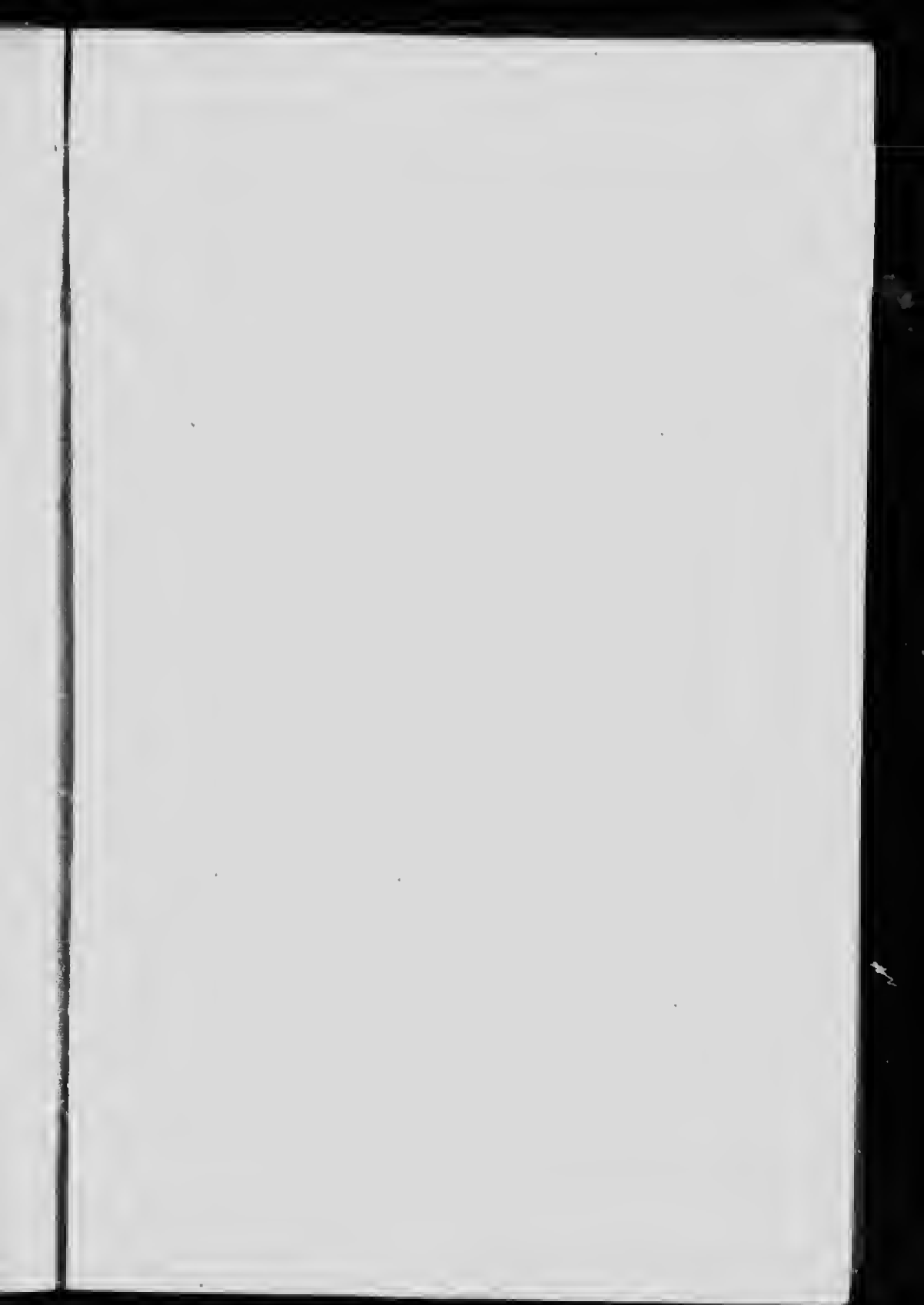


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MARY, QUEEN OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND AND
THE BRITISH DOMINIONS BEYOND THE SEAS

ONTARIO
PUBLIC SCHOOL
HISTORY OF CANADA

*AUTHORIZED BY
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HISTORY OF CANADA

CHAPTER I

THE INDIANS

1. **The Indians.**—The sight which met the eyes of the first Europeans who sailed up the St. Lawrence was a striking one, but very different from that which is seen to-day. Instead of fields covered by abundant harvests, there was almost impenetrable forest; instead of prosperous towns were seen single wigwams or a collection of smoky huts; instead of railways were narrow, winding trails, leading through the dense forest growth; instead of palatial steamers was seen an occasional bark canoe creeping silently along the shore. The changes of the last four hundred years have been marvellous. The story of these changes is unfolded in the pages that follow.

When European explorers first came to America they found the country occupied by a race of copper-coloured, black-haired people whom they called Indians. The two great families of Indians with which the story of Canada deals were the Algonquins and Huron-Iroquois. The Algonquins were widely scattered and known by many names. To this family belonged the Abenakis of Maine, the Micmaes of Acadia, the Montagnais above the St. Lawrence, the Ojibways to the north of Lake Superior, and the Crees of the far West. Of the other family the Hurons dwelt south of the Georgian Bay, and the Iroquois south of Lake Ontario. The Iroquois were sometimes called the "Five Nations," because they consisted of five tribes—Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas.

Later, after they had been joined by the Tuscaroras, the confederacy was known as the "Six Nations." West of Lake Superior dwelt a tribe called the Sioux, so like the Iroquois that they were known as the "Little Iroquois of the West."

2. **The strength of the Indian nations**—The Indian population of Canada was not, considering the size of the country, very great. By far the most numerous were the Algonquins, of whom there were about ninety thousand men, women, and children. The thirty-two villages of the Hurons contained twenty thousand. The Iroquois, powerful though they were in war, at no time mustered more than three thousand fighting men. The strength of the Five Nations, reduced by continual warfare, was recruited by a peculiar custom. When a warrior was slain, his relatives might adopt into their family one of the prisoners brought in by the war parties. The newly adopted, grateful for being saved from torture and death, became one with his captors and later fought with them even against his former kinsmen. So white men, both French and English, in this way became members of an Indian tribe, and, delighting in the freedom of forest life, refused to return to civilization, even when they had a chance to do so.

3. **Description of Indian life**.—The Algonquins were hunters, ever on the move: the Hurons and Iroquois were more settled. The former lived on game, the latter grew corn. Where the Indians settled in villages, they made many useful articles, such as earthen pots, mats woven from rushes, twine, stone axes, flint spear and arrow-heads, and bone fish-hooks. The most remarkable material, common to many tribes, was *wampum*, made at first of coloured shells, later of beads obtained from the white men. From *wampum* were made all kinds of ornaments—necklaces, collars, belts, and bracelets. *Wampum* was also used as money.

In most of the tribes the women, once they passed the period of youth, became drudges. To their lot fell the gathering of firewood, sowing, tilling, harvesting, smoking fish, dressing skins, making clothing, preparing food, and

carrying burdens. In summer and autumn the men were busy hunting, fishing, or waging war. During the remainder of the season, once their houses were built and their weapons and canoes made, they were idle. The New Year was the season of festivals. Then the warriors were idle and even the squaws had some leisure. To the village feasts the guests brought their own dishes and spoons. Seated about a huge kettle slung over the fire in the centre of the dwelling they would continue to eat often throughout a whole day. With most Indians gambling was a passion. One game of chance they played with plum stones, black on one



side and white on the other, which they tossed in a wooden bowl, betting upon the "turn-up."

All Indians were very superstitious, having strange ideas about nature. They thought that birds, beasts, and reptiles were like men. Thus an Indian has been known to make a long speech of apology to a wounded bear. They thought, too, that in lakes, rivers, and water-falls dwelt the spirits of living beings, and they strove to win the favour of these by means of gifts. Dreams played an important part in the life of the Indian. They told him the cure of diseases, taught him the position and plans of his enemy, or the haunts of game. The Indian's idea of a Supreme Being

was not a high one. When he tried to think of the One who made the world, he brought Him down to the level of a man. The Indian had no one word to express the idea of God; the word *Manitou* meant anything which he thought of as having more than human power.

Such were the people whom the pioneers of our own race found lordling it over the North American continent. In his dealings with these intruders the Indian displayed two very marked characteristics: a love of freedom and a spirit of revenge. This untamed savage of the forest could not bring himself to submit to the restraints of European life; so, as the newcomers pushed inland from the Atlantic, he withdrew farther and farther west rather than part with his beloved freedom. In the treatment of the Indians the settler was not always just, and his injustice drew down upon him the vengeful enmity of a foe that



INDIAN WITH TOMAHAWK
AND PIPE

never forgot an injury. Thus we find the early pages of Canadian history filled with the records of Indian warfare with all its horrors.

SUMMARY

When European explorers first came to America they found the country occupied by two great families of Indians, the Algonquins and Huron-Iroquois. The Algonquins were roaming hunters: the Hurons and Iroquois were more settled in their habits. The newcomers found the Indians very superstitious, fond of their freedom, and vengeful.

CHAPTER II

THE AGE OF DISCOVERY

1000-1534

4. **Who discovered America?**—Who, from the Old World, first discovered this new land over which the Indian held undisputed sway? Many answers are given to this question, several nations claiming the credit. The uncertainty is due to the fact that some early navigators have left no record of their travels. Others, again, have handed down minute accounts of their voyages, describing a wild race of men, strange animals, vast forests, and mighty rivers. Unfortunately, however, a few of these, in their desire to win fame, have not written the truth. There are, therefore, many questions connected with the period of discovery which cannot be answered.

5. **The Northmen.**—The sagas, or historical tales of the Northmen—the name applied to the people of Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Iceland—tell us that as early as the year 1000 Leif Ericson, “a large man and strong, of noble aspect,” together with thirty-five of his countrymen, reached the coast of North America, landing upon the shore of Labrador or that of Newfoundland. These Vikings,—sons of the fjord,—in their “dragon” ships, with high curved bows and sterns, driven by either oars or sails, coasted south to a land of great trees which they called Markland (woodland), probably Nova Scotia. A few days’ sail from this place brought them to a shore overgrown with grape-vines, to which they gave the name of Vineland. Another saga tells us of a rich Northman who founded a colony in Vineland, bringing over settlers and cattle, and beginning a trade in furs with the natives. Of these early visitors to America no trace remains.

6. **The treasures of the East.**—Towards the close of the fifteenth century the nations of Europe began to take an interest in the outside world, and voyages of discovery became very common. Wherever a new land was discovered, there people went to trade. The country to which the eyes of European merchants most eagerly turned was India—the land of silks and spices, of gold and precious stones. The old caravan route from the Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf was made laborious by the long stretches of desert, and dangerous by the hostility of the Turks. On this account mariners kept seeking a sea route to India. Stories were brought home by travellers in the East telling of the wonderful wealth of India and the island of Cipango (Japan). Gold, rumour said, was so plentiful that the royal palaces were covered with it. These stories spurred on the work of exploration, which was at this time made much easier by the invention of the mariner's compass. "Its trembling finger led men to dare the deeps of ocean in a way they never ventured to do before."

7. **Christopher Columbus.**—The most famous seamen of the age were the Portuguese, who had already visited many of the islands of the Atlantic, and were now trying to reach India by sailing around the Cape of Good Hope. With one of the Portuguese expeditions was a Genoese youth whose name has since become renowned the world over. Christopher Columbus early showed a strong liking for the study of geography and for a sea-faring life—a liking which led him to take service as a mariner at the age of fourteen. His dream was to find India by water, and this he purposed to do by sailing due west. For ages men had thought of the world as flat, and of the ocean as a great river flowing around it; but Columbus declared that the earth was round, and that by holding a westerly course he would reach India. Nor were there lacking, even at that time, traditions of a western land, which some Portuguese sailors were said to have sighted.

So little did men believe in the new idea of a round world, that Columbus had great difficulty in securing ships and men for his voyage. While his brother sought aid from the

kings of England and France, he himself visited the courts of southern Europe. Finally he met with success at the Spanish court, Queen Isabella pledging her crown jewels to raise money for the undertaking. Three small caravels were fitted out, and manned with one hundred and twenty men, most of them criminals set free for the purpose. On Friday, August 3rd, 1492, the tiny fleet put out from the port of Palos into the unknown ocean. One night, about seventy days later, the welcome cry of "land" was heard. In the morning light the richly wooded shore of one of the Bahamas rose

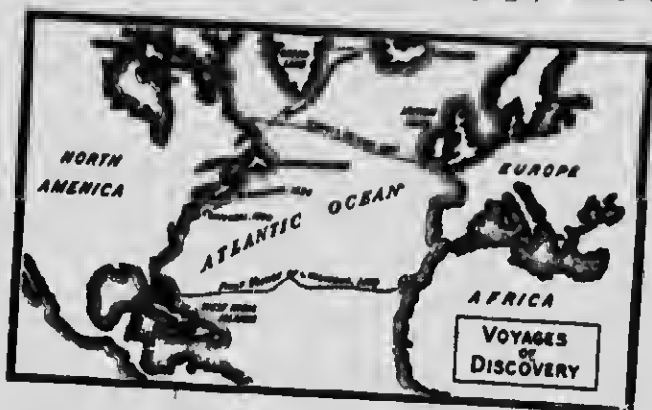


THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS

to view. The Europeans gazed in amazement upon a wonderful land of strange trees, plants, and animals, upon the copper-coloured savages who crowded eagerly to the water's edge. The astonishment of the natives may well be imagined. They saw in the fair complexion and strange costumes of the Spaniards, "children of the sun" come down to visit the world. The Old World had met the New, and the era of American history had dawned.

8. **The north-west passage.**—The veil of mystery overhanging the western ocean had partly lifted. Columbus

had pointed the way, and there were many to imitate his daring example. Voyage followed voyage, some in the



track of the great discoverer, others striking new courses to the north-west. Although India was still far distant, yet a new world had been discovered, the resources of which were ample to satisfy the ambition of explorers and the greed of fortune hunters. Nor did the knowledge that a barrier lay between them and India discourage those who sought that land of promise, for they still hoped to reach their goal by way of a north-west passage. For centuries the finding of this passage was to be the dream of bold mariners, and was to cost the world dear in ships and men.

9. **The Cabots.**—Among those whom the success of Columbus fired with a zeal for western exploration were John Cabot and his son Sebastian. The Cabots were of a Venetian family, which had moved to England and settled in the stirring seaport town of Bristol. In 1497 John Cabot, who had devoted himself to the study of geography, and who was, moreover, a keen merchant, succeeded in obtaining from Henry VII a charter granting trading privileges. His ambition was twofold—"to bring back so many fish that England will have no more business with Iceland," and to find a north-west passage to India. Needless to say the latter was the desire dear to the heart of Cabot; yet he, like Columbus, was doomed to disappointment.

It was no Eldorado that this daring sailor reached, but

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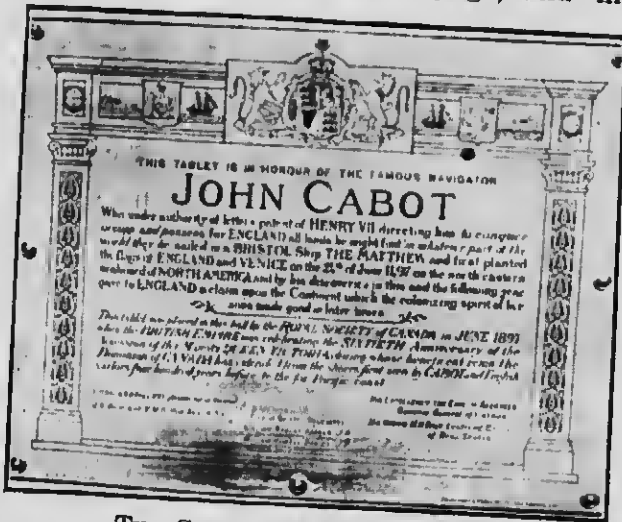
the bleak coast of Labrador, or, as some think, the rock-bound shore of Newfoundland. It is said that he heard the inhabitants of this new land speak of "Baccalaos"—the Basque for "cod"; and from this fact some men judge that even before this time French fishermen had visited these distant shores.

Cabot, upon his return to England, found himself in high favour. He had been the first to touch upon the mainland of North America. From the king he received, in recognition of his services, the rather modest reward of ten pounds, given to "Hym that founde the new ile." Sebastian Cabot had accompanied his father upon the first voyage, and in the following



SEBASTIAN CABOT

years they together made a second visit to the New World, this time following the coast southwards, some say to Cape Cod. A few years later Sebastian Cabot made a expedition, in



THE CABOT TABLET AT HALIFAX

a vain attempt to find the north-west passage. Though the Cabot voyages had failed to reveal a new

route to India, yet they resulted in a very real gain to England. In the first place, they opened up to English merchants an industry which has proved of permanent value. The gold mines of the much-sought East might fail, but not so the shoals of fish that cling to the Banks of Newfoundland. In the second place, the long-continued search for the north-west passage, begun by the two seamen of Bristol, together with the hardships and dangers of the cod fisheries, produced a race of hardy and daring seamen.

10. **Cortereal and Verrazano.**—Portugal and France also shared in the exploration of the new-found continent. In 1500 Cortereal, representing the former country, visited the coasts which the Cabots had traced. In 1524 Verrazano, under orders from the king of France, traced the coast from Carolina to Nova Scotia.

11. **The name of the new continent.**—Thus were the shores of the new continent visited by Europeans, who, clinging to the hope of finding India, explored the coast-line piece by piece. The land might well have derived its name from that of the dauntless mariner who first crossed the broad Atlantic, but this was not to be. The name of one Amerigo Vespucci, who, after paying several visits to the West, wrote an account of his wanderings, has been preserved in that of a great continent.

SUMMARY

According to the historical tales of the Northmen, Leif Ericson landed upon the coast of Labrador as early as the year 1000, and sailed south along the shores of Nova Scotia. Towards the close of the fifteenth century the nations of Europe, seeking a new route to India and Japan, discovered the continent of America. Christopher Columbus, the first of the discoverers, landed upon one of the Bahama Islands in 1492. A few years later the Cabots, sailing from England, reached Newfoundland. Further discoveries were made by Cortereal and Verrazano, the former representing Portugal, the latter France.

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CHAPTER III

JACQUES CARTIER

1534-1603

12. **Cartier's first voyage, 1534.**—From the old seaport of St. Malo, on the coast of France, many a bold sailor had ventured the perils of the sea, but none bolder than Jacques Cartier, who, in April, 1534, commanding two tiny vessels, laid his course for the land which Verrazano had visited. Cartier was to take possession of all lands in the name of France, seek for minerals and furs, and, if possible, find a way through to Cathay (China). After a safe passage of the Atlantic, Cartier entered the Strait of Belle Isle and coasted along the bleak shores of Labrador, barren enough, he thought, "to be the land allotted of God to Cain." Leaving this uninviting region, he sailed south across the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and, searching for an opening into the mainland, finally entered what he called La Baie de Chaleur (the Bay of Heat).



JACQUES CARTIER

Here Indians came flocking to the shore to see the strange intruders. "We," says the explorer in his account of the voyage, "sent two men ashore with hatchets and knives, beads and other merchandise, at which they showed great joy. Then they came in a crowd in their boats to where we were, with skins and whatever they had, to obtain our

wares. We saw that they were people whom it would be easy to convert." From this point Cartier followed the coast north-westwards and landed at Gaspé. Here he erected a huge wooden cross, thirty feet in height, bearing the inscription, "Long live the King of France," thus claiming the surrounding country in the name of his sovereign. From Gaspé the homeward voyage was begun, but not before two sons of a native chief were enticed on board and persuaded to visit France.

13. **The second voyage, 1535-1536.**—So great was the interest aroused in France by the story of his experiences, that Cartier was able, in the following year, to fit out a fleet of three vessels for a second voyage. Again he passed through the Strait of Belle Isle and entered the great gulf. This time the explorer held a westerly course, passing the island of Anticosti. Piloted by the two Indians whom he had brought back with him from France, he ascended the St. Lawrence to an island covered with vines, "such," he says, "as we had never before seen." Here the natives came swarming about the ships, the bolder even on to the decks, eager to hear the wonderful stories of their restored countrymen. "They showed their joy, danced, and performed various antics." Cartier gladly accepted the invitation of their chief, Donnacona, to visit the village of Stadacona, a mere cluster of wigwams upon the ground now occupied by the city of Quebec.

Farther up the river Cartier came upon a large settlement, the town of Hochelaga, situated at the base of a picturesque mountain, upon the site of the present city of Montreal. The place was strongly fortified with a triple row of tree trunks, the outer and inner crossing at the top. Within were as many as fifty oblong dwellings about fifty yards in length and fifteen in width, each accommodating several families. In the heart of the town there was a public square. Here the strangers were beset by a throng of children and women, who touched their beards, felt their faces, and gazed in wonder upon their strange dress and weapons. They brought to the French leader all their sick and maimed, "as if," he says, "a

god had come down to cure them." Before leaving, Cartier climbed the mountain, which he called Mont Royal, and from its lofty summit viewed the surrounding country. The party then returned to Stadacona, when preparations were made to spend what proved to be a very trying winter. Added to the suffering from cold and hunger, and to the danger of Indian treachery, were the ravages of scurvy, which carried off twenty-five men. In the spring Cartier returned to France, taking with him Donnacona and several of his chiefs.

14. **The third voyage, 1541-1542.**—It was not until May, 1541, that the great explorer again sought the shores of the St. Lawrence. The king had granted a commission to one of his noblemen, Sieur de Roberval, under whom Cartier was to act as captain-general. Roberval's object was not only to discover new lands, but also to found a settlement, and to convert the natives. Impatient of the delay caused by the difficulty of obtaining supplies for the fleet, Cartier set sail alone, and at the close of a stormy voyage dropped anchor off Stadacona. To the Indians' inquiries for their kidnapped chiefs, who had all died in France, Cartier admitted that Donnacona was dead, but falsely reported that the others had married and settled down in France. The Indians were by no means satisfied, and from this time became still more unfriendly to their treacherous visitors. Proceeding about ten miles further up the river, the Frenchmen began to make preparations for a permanent settlement. Trees were cleared away, forts built, and some seeding was done.

Disappointed at the delay of the fleet, Cartier, in the spring of 1542, abandoned the new colony, known as Charlesbourg Royal. Off the coast of Newfoundland he fell in with Roberval, who had just arrived with three ships and two hundred colonists. In defiance of an order to turn back, the captain-general escaped in the night and sailed for the coast of France, leaving his chief to continue alone the voyage to Charlesbourg Royal. Here a huge, castle-like structure was now erected, containing great halls, kitchens, chambers, and workshops, spacious enough to house the

whole colony. Provisions, however, soon ran short, and disease made inroads into the ranks of the unfortunate colonists, with the result that in the summer of the following year the ill-starred colony was again abandoned.



The fate of Roberval is shrouded in mystery. One writer would have us believe that he sailed up the Saguenay in

quest of a "kingdom of jewels," and that he never again emerged from the lofty portals of that gloomy stream. From a more trustworthy source we learn that this unfortunate colonizer met death by violence one night in the heart of Paris. Fortune dealt more kindly with Cartier, who passed the closing years of an eventful life amid the quiet of his old manor-house near St. Malo.

15. **English seamen of the sixteenth century.**—With these failures in colonization active interest in the interior of Canada practically ceased during the sixteenth century. Among Englishmen, however, it was the day of famous seamen, who continued to haunt the coasts of the western continent. The north-west passage was still the object of search. To find this, Martin Fr. bisher made three voyages, and John Davis as many more, but all to no purpose.

In 1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert took formal possession of Newfoundland in the name of Queen Elizabeth, and made the first attempt to plant an English colony in the New World. From the outset, misfortune followed the enterprise. One ship was forced by the outbreak of disease

among its crew to put back to England, while a second was wrecked off the rocky coast of Newfoundland. Finally, the colony was abandoned. Upon the homeward voyage S'r Humphrey, who sailed on board the *Squirrel*, a small craft of ten tons burden, went down in a storm. His last words—"Courage, my lads! Heaven is as near by sea as by land"—show how gallantly he died.

SUMMARY

The king of France took a keen interest in the newly discovered land. Under his command Jacques Cartier made a successful voyage in 1534, entering the St. Lawrence and landing at Gaspé. In the following year Cartier again sailed up the St. Lawrence, on this occasion discovering the Indian towns of Stadacona and Hochelaga, which stood upon the sites of Quebec and Montreal. Cartier's third voyage was not successful. Towards the close of the sixteenth century Sir Humphrey Gilbert took possession of Newfoundland in the name of Queen Elizabeth.

CHAPTER IV

EARLY SETTLEMENTS

THE ACADIAN SETTLEMENT. 1603-1613

16. **The French neglect Canada.**—For half a century after the voyages of Cartier, France, being fully occupied with civil wars, took little interest in the new land to which she had laid claim. Yet the fishing banks of Newfoundland were frequented by seamen of France, as well as by those of Spain, Portugal, and England. For a time, as many as two vessels a day sailed from French ports for the scene of the fisheries, and upon one occasion there were fully one hundred and fifty French ships off the Banks. Gradually these men of the sea were attracted to the land by the profits of the fur trade. Soon rude huts appeared, dotting the island of Anticosti and the mainland, where these enterprising foreigners carried on with the natives a trade in bear and beaver skins. In exchange they gave knives, hatchets, cloth, brandy, beads, and trinkets of various kinds.

17. **Failures in colonization.**—Towards the close of the sixteenth century, the Marquis de la Roche approached the French king with an offer to colonize New France in return for control of the fur trade. This undertaking ended in complete failure. A like fate befell a colony which Pontgravé, a merchant of St. Malo, planted at the mouth of the Saguenay. Henceforth the fur trade of Canada was controlled by companies, to each of which in turn the king granted a monopoly.

18. **Samuel de Champlain.**—In 1603 the work of exploration was taken up by a man whose services to the country have won for him the proud title of "Father of New France." Samuel de Champlain, although only thirty-six years of age, had already acquired considerable experience in war

and travel. We are told that his "purse was small, his merit great," a fact readily reconciled with the spirit of adventure which drew him to the new continent.

It was in company with Pontgravé that Champlain first visited Canada. A great change had come over the shores of the St. Lawrence. Where in Cartier's day bands of Indians had peopled Stadaeona and Hochelaga, all was solitude; only a few wandering Algonquins were to be found.

In 1604 Sieur de Monts, a gentleman of influence at the French court, obtained leave from the king to colonize Acadia, a country which included the present provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, together with part of the state of Maine. A monopoly of the fur trade was of course granted by the crown, but it was clearly stated that the task of christianizing the natives should be undertaken. It was a motley company that crowded the decks of the two ships set apart for the expedition: thieves and ruffians, forced on board, mingled with volunteers of good station in life, and in command were Sieur de Monts, Baron de Poutrincourt, and Champlain.

The newcomers first settled at the mouth of the St. Croix, but at the end of the first season moved to Port Royal. In their new settlement the colonists were joined by one Marc L'Escarbot, a Parisian lawyer, who, having lost a lawsuit, was anxious "to fly from a corrupt world," and was quite in the mood for adventure. To this man, both poet and historian, we are indebted for one of the best pictures we have of early settlement in America. During the following winter the colonists, comfortably housed in a quadrangle of wooden buildings, passed the months of confinement with no little enjoyment. Ample supplies had been provided by



SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN

De Monts, each man having even his three pints of wine daily.

The fifteen leading men of the colony, who sat at Poutrincourt's table, organized "The Order of the Good Time." Each in turn was grand-master, holding office for one day, on which it was his duty to provide for the company's entertainment. For a week before, he might be found fishing, hunting, or bartering with the Indians. Moose, heaver, otter, hare, duck, geese, plover, sturgeon, and trout were the usual fare. The Indian chiefs were the invited guests, while humbler warriors, squaws, and children sat about the floor awaiting their share of the good things of the feast. 'Twas a pleasant winter these merry Frenchmen spent together; but spring brought disappointment in the news that De Monts had lost his charter. Port Royal had to be abandoned. In 1610, however, Poutrincourt revived the Acadian settlement and, with the aid of the Jesuits, undertook actively the task of christianizing the Indians.

19. The English destroy Port Royal, 1613.—Soon a new danger threatened the little colony. In 1607 an English settlement had been founded upon the banks of the James River in Virginia. Six years later, Samuel Argall of Jamestown, while cruising about the Bay of Fundy with three small vessels, came suddenly upon the French colony. The commander and most of his men happened to be absent on a visit to the neighbouring Indians, while the remaining colonists were at work in the fields some distance away. Argall's men, after destroying all the animals and plundering the buildings, set fire to the place. This disaster proved a death-blow to Poutrincourt's hopes, and it was many years before the French tried again to make a settlement in Acadia.

SUMMARY

For fifty years after the voyages of Cartier, France took little interest in Canada. However, in 1604, a colony was planted at Port Royal by Sieur de Monts, Poutrincourt and Champlain. The colony was abandoned for a time, but was afterwards revived. It was destroyed in 1613 by the English.

CHAMPLAIN'S INDIAN WARS, 1608-1610

20. Champlain on the St. Lawrence.—Meanwhile, Champlain, who had returned to Paris, was dreaming of the New World and its hidden mysteries. He was convinced that somewhere upon the banks of the St. Lawrence was the ideal site of a settlement from which the unknown interior



CHAMPLAIN'S PLAN OF QUEBEC IN 1608

A, Storehouse; B, Dovecote; C, Workmen's Lodgings and Armoury; D, Lodgings for Mechanics; E, Dial; F, Blacksmith's Shop and Workmen's Lodgings; G, Galleries; H, Champlain's Residence; I, Gate and Drawbridge; L, Walk; M, Moat; N, Platform for Cannon; O, Garden; P, Kitchen; Q, Vacant Space; R, St. Lawrence River.

might be explored and perhaps a route to China found. By the many streams, too, pouring their waters into the St. Lawrence, the fur-laden canoes of distant Indian tribes might make their way to the new capital. But to Cham-

plain, in whose eyes "the saving of a soul was worth more than the conquest of an empire," another thought was dear, namely, the winning of the wild, untamed natives from their state of cruel savagery.

Such were the thoughts of Champlain as, in 1608, he dropped anchor off the site of Stadacona. Here, between the river and the overhanging cliffs, he purposed to establish his headquarters. Without delay axe-men were set to work, and a few weeks saw the completion of several buildings, surrounded by a strong, wooden wall with a platform for cannon; the whole was encircled by a moat. Such was the birth of the now historic city of Quebec.

21. Indian wars.—The arrival in the spring of fresh supplies from France encouraged Champlain to continue his explorations, which, he hoped, would bring him at last to the long-sought China. An obstacle, however, stood in his way—the fear of Indian attack. To accomplish his object he formed an alliance with the Hurons and Algonquins against their deadly enemies, the Iroquois.

In June, Champlain and a few of his followers ascended the St. Lawrence to join their new allies. Many of the latter had never before seen white men, and gazed in amazement upon the steel armour and death-breathing firearms of the wonderful strangers. Arriving at the mouth of the Iroquois River, as the Richelieu was then called, they turned into the tributary stream. The sixty warriors of the party, manning twenty-four canoes, proceeded in orderly array. A few went on in advance of the main body to keep watch for the enemy, while others on the flanks and in the rear hunted for game to support the little army. The allies had entered Lake Champlain, so named in honour of their leader, when suddenly one night about ten o'clock they caught sight of a fleet of Iroquois canoes gliding in their direction. Both parties landed and prepared for the fight which took place on the next day.

The fight, as described by Champlain himself, was a strange one. "I looked at them," he says, "and they looked at me. When I saw them getting ready to shoot their arrows at us, I levelled my arquebus, which I had loaded with four balls

and aimed straight at one of their chiefs. The shot brought down *two* and wounded another. The Iroquois were greatly astonished and frightened to see two of their men killed so quickly, in spite of their arrow-proof armour. As I was reloading, one of my companions fired a shot from the woods, which so increased their astonishment that, seeing their chiefs dead, they abandoned the field and fled into the depth of the forest."

In the following year, Champlain with his allies again met the Iroquois, this time near the mouth of the Richelieu, and again the dreaded firearms won the day. The Hurons were now eager to have Champlain return homo with them, but he refused, having heard that the trading rights of his company had been withdrawn. This misfortune made it necessary for him to return to France to seek a new charter.

SUMMARY

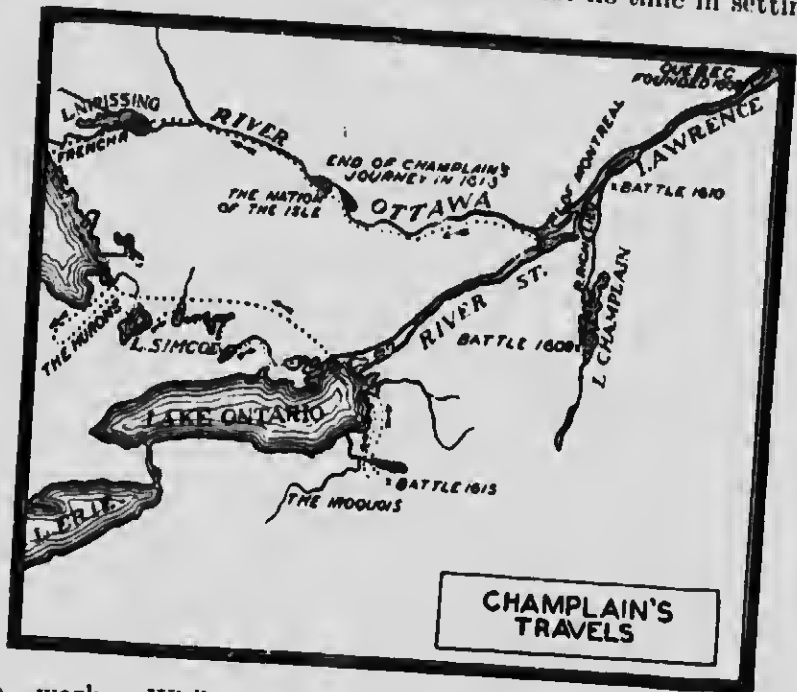
In 1608 Champlain founded Quebec. He was forced to take part in the Indian wars, taking the side of the Hurons and Algonquins against the Iroquois.

CHAMPLAIN'S EXPLORATIONS, 1610-1616.

22. **Champlain ascends the Ottawa, 1613.**—While in Paris, Champlain was visited by a young man named Nicolas de Vignau. Vignau told a wonderful story of how, in the previous year, he had ascended the Ottawa and had discovered a lake at its head-waters; how he had crossed this and descended another river to the sea; and how there he had seen the wreck of an English ship lying upon the shore. So convincing was this tale that Champlain, early in the spring of 1613, returned to Canada, chose two Indians and four Frenchmen, including Vignau, and with an equipment of two canoes pushed his way up the Ottawa. The adventurers had reached the point where the Ottawa dividing, encircles the Ile des Allumettes, when they learned from a local chief that Vignau had told a false story, and that he had never reached the upper waters of the Ottawa. Bitterly

disappointed, Champlain gave up his enterprise and returned to the St. Lawrence, and thence to France.

23. **The Recollet friars.**—Champlain's dearest object was to christianize the Indians, who were living "like brute beasts, without faith, without law, without religion, without God." In 1615, therefore, he brought out with him to Canada three friars of the Récollet order, Denis Jamay, Jean Dolbeau, and Joseph le Caron, and the lay brother, Pacifique du Plessis. The newcomers lost no time in setting



to work. While Jamay and Du Plessis remained at Quebec, Dolbeau followed the wandering Montagnais to their northern hunting-ground. Father Le Caron, attended by twelve armed Frenchmen, set out for the distant land of the Hurons. The route was by the Ottawa River. "It would be hard to tell you," writes Le Caron, "how tired I was with paddling all day, with all my strength, among the Indians; wading the rivers a hundred times and more, through the mud and over the

sharp rocks that cut my feet; carrying the canoe and luggage through the woods to avoid the rapids and frightful cataracts; and half starved all the while, for we had nothing to eat but a little *sagamite*, a sort of porridge of water and pounded maize."

24. **Champlain with the Hurons, 1615-1616.**—Close behind Le Caron came Champlain with a party including ten Indians, an interpreter, and one other Frenchman. His course lay up the Ottawa and Mattawan rivers, through Lake Nipissing, down the French River, and across Georgian Bay. In the chief town of the Hurons, Champlain had the great joy of meeting Le Caron, whose was the honour of saying the first mass in the land of the Hurons.

Champlain had scarcely begun to visit the Huron towns when he was asked to join in a raid upon the Iroquois. By a chain of lakes and rivers the war party reached Lake Ontario, which was crossed not far from its eastern end. Champlain taught his followers how to construct a movable wooden tower, from the top of which they could shoot over the fortifications of the enemy. He also showed them how to protect themselves with shields of wickerwork and skins. Failing to follow these instructions, the besiegers exposed themselves rashly and were again repulsed. Finally, losing faith in their great French captain, "the man with the iron breast," as they called him, they beat a cowardly retreat, which became a panic-stricken flight before the pursuit of the victorious enemy. Champlain, who had been wounded, was carried back to the Huron settlement. In the spring he at last returned to Quebec, where his friends, who had received from Indians a report of his death, welcomed him as one returned from the dead.

SUMMARY

Champlain ascended the Ottawa River in 1613. His dearest wish was to christianize the Indians, and in this he was assisted by the friars of the Récollet order. In 1615 he visited the Huron country and led an unsuccessful attack against the Iroquois.

THE LAST DAYS OF CHAMPLAIN, 1627-1635

25. **The fur trade retards growth of the settlement.**—Exploration and Indian warfare were now of the past in Champlain's experience. Hereafter he was to devote himself to the task of building up the weak colony which he had founded some nine years before. Montreal, Three Rivers, and Tadousac were but trading-stations, occupied during part of the year only, while Quebec, still the chief centre of population, boasted no more than fifty or sixty inhabitants; nor was there any good hope of an increase of population. The fur traders, although, as a company, pledged to promote the settlement, did all they could to retard it. It was to the interest of the fur trade that the population should continue small, and the land uncultivated. Champlain, however, did everything in his power to encourage settlement.

23. **The Hundred Associates.**—In 1627 the famous French statesman, Cardinal Richelieu, became aware of the wretched state of New France. Under his direction all existing trading privileges were withdrawn, and a new organization was formed, consisting of the Hundred Associates, sometimes called the Company of New France. A perpetual monopoly of the fur trade was granted, together with control of all other commerce for a period of fifteen years. The New France to which this monopoly applied included Canada, Acadia, Newfoundland, and even Florida. The Company, on its part, was bound to bring out two or three hundred settlers at once, and, within the next fifteen years, to raise the number to four thousand. They were to lodge and support these settlers for three years, and at the end of that time to give them cleared land.

27. **Kirke takes Quebec, 1629.**—Early in the spring of 1628, the Company sent out four vessels bearing colonists and supplies. About the same time there sailed from an English port a fleet of three ships commanded by David Kirke. Meanwhile, the inhabitants of Quebec, being short of provisions, were anxiously looking for aid from France. At length word was brought that a strange fleet was anchor-

ed off Tadousac, and later that the ships of the Hundred Associates were advancing up the St. Lawrence. Champlain, who was lieutenant-governor, was in command at Quebec, and knowing that an encounter of the two fleets was inevitable, waited anxiously for the appearance of friends or foes; but neither came. Some time later the India, brought him news of what had happened. Kirke had met and overpowered the provision ships, and then, fearing to attack Quebec, had sailed away. Kirke in the following year again entered the St. Lawrence, and from the Saguenay sent on three ships commanded by his two brothers to capture the French stronghold. Champlain, whose garrison had been reduced to a starved and ragged band of sixteen, was forced to surrender.

28. **The last days of Champlain.**—Not long did England hold Canada, for, by the treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, Charles I, who was in sore need of money and was at war with his Parliament, restored the country to France for the paltry sum of \$240,000. In the following year the Company of the Hundred Associates, with Champlain at its head, again entered into its possessions. For two years Champlain continued to direct affairs at Quebec, faithfully discharging his duties both to the Company and to the crown. But his end was near at hand:

On Christmas Day, 1635, Champlain died in the city he had founded. The deeds of this distinguished Frenchman, in war, in exploration, and in colonization, have won for him



CHAMPLAIN'S MONUMENT
AT QUEBEC

an honourable place in the memory of Canadians. A romantic spirit of adventure, coupled with a fervent zeal for the saving of souls, made light of treacherous rapids, the lurking dangers of pathless forest, and the haunting terrors of Iroquois vengeance. History has no greater tribute to pay to the memory of Champlain than to record that he founded the oldest city of Canada, and that he fostered its infant life during the years when the greed of the fur traders threatened every effort at colonization. Such unselfish devotion to the best interests of his country has given him the title "Father of New France."

SUMMARY

In 1627 the Company of One Hundred Associates was given control of the fur trade on condition that, within fifteen years, they would bring from France four thousand settlers. In 1629 Quebec was captured by the English, but was soon restored to France. In 1635 Champlain died.

PROGRESS OF ACADIA, 1613-1667

29. **Charles de la Tour.**—After the destruction of Port Royal by Argall, Poutrincourt returned to France. His son Biencourt and a few companions, among whom was Charles de la Tour, refusing to leave the country, settled at Fort Louis near Cape Sable. When Biencourt died, he left all his rights in Acadia to Charles de la Tour, who had been his personal friend from boyhood.

30. **The "Baronets" of Nova Scotia.**—About this time the attention of some prominent men in England was drawn to Acadia. One of these, Sir William Alexander, conceived the idea of planting a colony there. From the king he secured, in 1621, a grant of Acadia, which he renamed Nova Scotia. An order of Nova Scotian "baronets" was created, who were to undertake the settlement each of his "barony." But little came of Sir William's elaborate plan.

31. **The Charnisay-La Tour feud.**—The treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye restored Acadia to the French, and thereafter the latter took an increased interest in the colony. Isaac de Razilly, a distinguished military man, was sent

out as governor of all Acadia; and with him as deputy came Charnisay. From the very outset Charnisay and Charles de la Tour were rivals, and their rivalry became all the keener after the death of Razilly. Charnisay, succeeding to his late chief's power, removed the seat of government from La Hève, where Razilly had established it, to Port Royal. His rival had also moved from Cape Sable to the mouth of the St. John River. Here the latter had erected a strong fort, from which he carried on a profitable trade with the neighbouring Indian tribes.

A bitter feud set in between La Tour and Charnisay, which was ended only by the accidental death of the latter. On hearing the news of Charnisay's death, La Tour immediately proceeded to France. The king, acknowledging that he had been unfairly treated, made him governor of Acadia. Upon his return to Port Royal he married, strange to say, the widow of the man who had persecuted him so bitterly, "to secure the peace and tranquillity of the country, and concord and union between the two families."

32. Acadia changes hands twice.—Acadia was not long to enjoy peace. In 1654 an English fleet, which was lying idle in Boston harbour, was pressed by some New Englanders into an expedition against Port Royal. Without a struggle the whole country passed into the possession of England, and even the staunch La Tour placed himself under English protection, becoming Sir Charles de la Tour. This Acadian hero spent the remainder of his life in the land of his choice, and died only a year before the treaty of Breda was concluded, in 1667, restoring Acadia to France. At this time the population of Acadia numbered four hundred and ten.

SUMMARY

Sir William Alexander secured from the king of England a grant of Nova Scotia, and made an unsuccessful attempt to create an order of Nova Scotia baronets. The restoration of Acadia to France ushered in a bitter feud between Charnisay and La Tour. In 1654 Acadia was once more seized by the English, only to be again restored by the treaty of Breda in 1667.

CHAPTER V

THE FOUNDING OF MONTREAL

1635-1645

33. **The Associates fail to settle the country.**—Champlain was succeeded in the governorship of Canada by Charles de Montmagny. With the new governor came several families to swell the population of the young colony. The reinforcement was sorely needed, as even some years later Quebec did not contain more than two hundred people. Most of these were servants of the company, priests, or nuns, very few being actual settlers. The surrounding country was still a wilderness, as no real attempt at farming had yet been made. The Associates, more interested in the fur trade than in settlement, had failed to carry out the terms of their contract. Instead of directly providing a population, they granted large tracts of land to private persons on condition that they would furnish settlers to clear and till the soil. There was nothing to induce the settler to come out to Canada. He could trade with the Indians only on condition that he sold his furs to the company at its own price. He was not allowed to fish. For several years, until he succeeded in cultivating the soil for himself, he was dependent upon the company even for his food.

34. **The Jesuits.**—Apart from the fur trade the life of the colony centred in missions, convents, schools, and hospitals. The Récollets, the first religious order upon the scene, were now gone; but the work well begun by them was taken up actively by the Jesuits. The latter founded at Quebec a school for Huron boys. So great was the interest aroused in France by the Jesuit accounts of the missionary work, that there was no lack of volunteers to take it up.

35. **The founding of Montreal, 1642.**—A French nobleman, with pious zeal, resolved to found a new order of

nurses, and to build a hospital on the island of Montreal. Sieur de Maisonneuve was the man he chose to carry out this charitable project. Governor Montmagny, fearing that the proposed settlement would prove a dangerous rival to Quebec, attempted to dissuade its promoters from their purpose by pointing out the danger of Indian attacks. But the fearless answer of Maisonneuve was characteristic of the man. "I have not come here," he said, "to deliberate, but to act. It is my duty and my honour to found a colony at Montreal, and I would go, if every tree were an Iroquois." It was in May of 1642 that this chivalrous gentleman, accompanied by two pious women, Madame de la Peltrie and Mademoiselle Mance, ascended the St. Lawrence and landed upon the shore of that already historic island which Cartier had discovered, and which Champlain had fixed upon as a strategic trading-point. Tents were pitched and campfires lighted, and amid this simple scene of pioneer life, the city of Montreal had its beginning.

It was now thirty-two years since Champlain had joined in an attack upon the Iroquois. All these years the latter had nursed their enmity. From the Dutch traders, who made Albany their headquarters, they had secured fire-arms, like those which at first had so terrified them. And now all classes in Canada—settlers, traders, and Indians—were made the object of their murderous attacks. Early in the spring they would leave their villages, in small or large bands, and sweep down Lake Champlain and the Richelieu. Upon the St. Lawrence and Ottawa they stopped the canoes of the Hurons on their way to or from the fur market at Quebec. The Algonquins beyond the St. Lawrence, even in the distant hunting-grounds of the north,



SIEUR DE MAISONNEUVE

were not safe from these tireless foes. The position of the unfortunate colonists was most distressing. "At Quebec, Three Rivers, Montreal, and the little fort on the Richelieu, that is to say in all Canada, no man could hunt, fish, till the fields, or cut a tree in the forest, without peril to his scalp. The Iroquois were everywhere and nowhere. A yell, a volley of bullets, a rush of screeching savages, and all was over. The soldiers hastened to the spot to find silence, solitude, and a mangled corpse."

Montreal, which the French hoped to make the centre



THE FIRST MASS AT MONTREAL

of an agricultural district, enjoyed a period of security as long as its existence was unknown to the Iroquois. Unfortunately the enemy, in pursuit of a small band of Algonquins who were seeking a refuge, discovered the new colony. All feeling of security was then at an end. The men went out to the fields in strong parties, fully armed, and worked with their firearms close at hand. Danger lurked on every hand. A single Iroquois warrior would lie hidden for days, in the hope of cutting off some careless straggler. Again, a band of a hundred Indians would lay an ambuscade for the whole body of workers.

Maisonneuve, discreet as he was brave, kept his garrison well within the defences of the settlement, knowing that the enemy were more than his match in bush-fighting. His men, eager to attack the foe, grumbled at the restraint put upon them, and even began to question their commander's courage. At last, overcome by their eagerness, Maisonneuve consented to lead them in a sally. Thirty in number, they advanced boldly through the forest, only to be met with a sudden shower of bullets and arrows from a hidden enemy. Closely pressed by the Iroquois, who arose from the bushes in front and on both flanks, the over-valiant Frenchmen were forced to fall back. In the retreat Maisonneuve brought up the rear, encouraging his disheartened men, and keeping the pursuers in check. The last man to enter the gate was the gallant Maisonneuve, who from that day was the hero of the little garrison at Montreal.

36. **A change in government.**—In 1647 the first Canadian Council was formed, including the governor-general, the superior of the Jesuits, and the governor of Montreal. This body had absolute control of the making and enforcing of the laws, and of the administration of justice. For a time three of the leading inhabitants were also members of the Council; but this arrangement did not last long, as the French king was opposed to a government in which the people had any voice.

SUMMARY

The Company of the Hundred Associates failed to carry out the terms of their contract. Few colonists were brought out from France, and even these were not encouraged to till the soil. The main interests of the colony were the fur trade and the missions. In the field of missions the Récollets had given place to the Jesuits. Stories of the missionaries aroused great interest in France. They inspired a pious nobleman to found a colony at Montreal.

CHAPTER VI

THE JESUIT MISSIONS

THE MISSION TO THE HURONS, 1633-1649

37. **Father Le Jeune among the Algonquins, 1633.**—It was not only to care for the French colonists that the Jesuits came to New France, but also to convert the natives. Father Le Jeune, foremost in this missionary enterprise, set himself to learn the Algonquin dialect. His teacher was an old Indian named Pierre, who had been taken to France and trained in the art of Christian living, but who, upon his return to Canada, had lapsed into the vices of his former life. Seated beside his wayward instructor, the persevering priest made some progress. "How thankful I am," he writes, "to those who gave me tobacco last year. At every difficulty I give my master a piece of it to make him more attentive." To accomplish his purpose, Le Jeune followed the roving Algonquins throughout their winter huntings, and endured untold sufferings from cold, hunger, and filthy surroundings.

38. **The Huron Mission, 1634.**—It was to the country south of the Georgian Bay that the Jesuits looked for a fruitful field of labour, thinking that if once the Hurons were converted, the faith would quickly spread among the kindred nations to the south and west. So, up the Ottawa, with its dangerous rapids and rocky *portages*, toiled three heroic missionaries, Brébeuf, Daniel, and Lalemant, ready for any experience if only it was "to God's greater glory."

No sooner was their journey completed than they set to work upon their mission house. "Without, the structure was strictly Indian; but within, the priests with the aid of such tools as they had, made changes which were

the astonishment of all the country. They divided their dwellings by transverse partitions into three apartments, each with its wooden door—a wonderful novelty in the eyes of their visitors. The first served as a hall, an ante-room, and a place for the storage of corn, beans, and dried fish. The second, the largest of the three, was at once kitchen, workshop, dining-room, drawing-room, schoolroom, and bed-chamber. The third was the chapel. Here they made their altar, and here were their images, pictures, and sacred vessels. Their fire was on the ground, in the middle of the second apartment, the smoke escaping by a hole in



FRENCH PRIEST ADDRESSING A BAND OF MOHAWK INDIANS

the roof. At the sides were placed two wide platforms after the Huron fashion, four feet from the earthen floor. On these were chests in which they kept their clothing and vestments, and beneath which they slept, reclining upon sheets of bark, and covered with skins and the garments they wore by day."

The Jesuits were strangers to comforts. They ate their meals seated upon logs around the fire over which their kettle was slung. Their ordinary food consisted of boiled Indian corn mixed with pieces of fish. In their eagerness to bring with them the ornaments and vestments used in

the religious services, they found no room for the necessaries of life, not even for salt. Their time was divided with great regularity. At four o'clock in the morning a bell roused them from their beds of bark. From four until eight they busied themselves with masses, reading, and breakfast. At eight the door was thrown open and the Indian visitors were admitted. These some of the priests continued to teach at intervals throughout the day, while others went forth to visit the remainder of their flock, baptizing and instructing as they passed from house to house. About four or five o'clock the Indians were dismissed and the door was closed. The evening was spent in reading, writing, and conversation.

The Jesuits were called upon not only to endure great hardships, but also to face extreme dangers. The Hurons were still very superstitious, and, when trouble came upon them or danger threatened, their faith in the missionaries was shaken. "It is *la prière*" (the prayer), they said, "that kills us. Your books and your strings of beads have bewitched the country. Before you came we were happy and prosperous. You are magicians. Your charms kill our corn, and bring sickness and the Iroquois."

39. **The destruction of the Huron nation, 1648-49.**—Soon a great danger threatened priests and converts alike, the enmity



of the Iroquois. The town of St. Joseph lay on the south-eastern frontier of the Huron country. Formerly the head town, it still contained a population of two thousand, and, being most exposed to the enemy's attack, was strongly fortified. St. Joseph was the scene

of Father Daniel's missionary work. One morning in July the town presented a picture of quiet and security, and in the church Father

Daniel had just finished the mass, when suddenly there arose the terrifying cry, "The Iroquois!" The brave priest, refusing to flee, vainly tried to rally his terror-stricken people, but soon fell, overwhelmed by a shower of arrows. Setting fire to the town, the Iroquois disappeared as quickly as they had come, carrying away nearly seven hundred prisoners. In the following year they holdly entered the very heart of the Huron country, and destroyed St. Ignace and St. Louis. In this raid two other devoted missionaries, Brébeuf and Lalemant, perished under the most fiendish torture.



FATHER BRÉBEUF

These attacks broke the courage of the surviving Hurons. Stunned and hopeless, they thought of nothing but flight. Burning their towns, they scattered in every direction, some seeking safety with neighbouring nations to the south and west, others fleeing to the islands of Lake Huron. The greater number took refuge on Ile St. Joseph. The Huron nation had disappeared, and with it the greatest hope of the Jesuits.

THE MISSION TO THE ONONDAGAS, 1653-1658

40. **A perilous mission.**—In 1653 the Iroquois, heing at war with their western neighbours, made peace with the French. The Jesuits took advantage of the peace to establish a mission among the Onondagas. At first the mission was a success, but soon the priests were informed of a plot among the Onondagas to put them to death. Nothing daunted, the missionaries formed a plan for making their escape. Secretly, in the loft of the mission house, they prepared as many canoes and flat-boats as would carry their whole company. They then invited all the warriors

to a mystic feast, in connection with which it was a point of honour with each guest to eat everything set before him. Sleep, induced by this gluttony, gave the Jesuits their opportunity. Stealing down to the shore, whither some of their number had already carried the boats, they embarked, and quickly put many miles between them and their treacherous guests.

41. The Iroquois threaten the French colonies.—The uncertain peace was at an end, and once more the horrors of Indian warfare were the lot of the French and their allies. "Everywhere," writes the superior of the Jesuits, "we see infants to be saved for heaven, sick and dying to be baptized, adults to be instructed, but everywhere we see the Iroquois. They haunt us like persecuting goblins. They kill our new-made Christians in our arms. If they find us on the river, they kill us. If they find us in the huts of our Indians, they burn us and them together."

One day the Algonquins captured an Iroquois, and brought him to Quebec to torture. Before he expired, the victim made the startling announcement that a band of eight hundred Iroquois was encamped below Montreal, and that four hundred more, who had wintered up the Ottawa, were to join these in an attack upon Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal. Instantly the whole colony was in a panic, and everything was made ready for a desperate defence against the expected attack.

42. The heroes of the Long Sault, 1660.—Adam Daulac, or Dollard, Sieur des Ormeaux, a young man of good family, applied to Maisonneuve for permission to lead out a small body of picked men in an attack upon the enemy. His purpose was to waylay the Iroquois as they descended the Ottawa and to check their advance upon the settlements. Sixteen young men had sworn to follow him. At length the consent of the governor was gained, and the intrepid youths prepared for their perilous venture. After having made their wills, they confessed, and knelt for the last time before the altar.

Below the rapids of the Long Sault, near Grenville on the Ottawa River, in a palisade fort built the year

before by some Algonquin hunters, the youthful heroes took up their position. Here they were joined by a band of forty Huron and Algonquin warriors, eager to share in striking a blow at their sworn foe. Two days later the enemy were upon them, confident of an easy victory over such a mere handful. Again and again, however, the assailants were driven back, each time leaving a number of their men lying dead or wounded about the palisades. Becoming more cautious, they enticed the Hurons to desert by promising them safety. Even then,



THE DEATH OF DOLLARD, SIEUR DES ORMEAUX, THE HERO OF
THE LONG SAULT

despairing of success, the Iroquois despatched messengers to the mouth of the Richelieu for reinforcements. Meanwhile, the gallant band of Frenchmen, supported by four Algonquins and one Huron, despite the distress of hunger, thirst, and fatigue, continued for eight days to keep the enemy at a distance. When the end came, it was before the onset of seven hundred yelling, blood-thirsty savages that the tottering palisades went down, and the undaunted defenders, scorning to accept quarter, were cut to pieces.

The heroism of Dollard and his companions-in-arms was not in vain. The colony was saved; the Iroquois had had enough of fighting, and, crestfallen, departed for their homes.

SUMMARY

Great zeal marked the labours of the Jesuits among the Indians. It was to the Huron country that these devout missionaries mainly gave their attention, hoping that from the Hurons the gospel would spread to the other nations. Great hardships were their lot—rude dwellings, poor food, unceasing labour, and ever-present dangers. The destruction of the Huron towns by the Iroquois proved a death blow to the hopes of the Jesuits.

During a truce between the French colonists and the Iroquois, the latter invited the Jesuits to found a mission in their country, and then treacherously planned their destruction. The missionaries barely escaped with their lives. A determined attack by the Iroquois upon the French colonists was checked only by the gallant stand of the heroes of the Long Sault, led by Adam Daulac, Sieur des Ormeaux.

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CHAPTER VII ROYAL GOVERNMENT

1663-1672

43. **Strife within the colony.**—As if war upon her borders had not brought disaster enough, Canada's internal affairs were far from being in a peaceful state. The quiet of the colony was disturbed by the rivalry of traders, the quarrelling of priests, and the strife between bishop and governor. One cause of contention between the religious orders was the selection of a bishop. François Laval, Abbé de Montigny, who became the first bishop of Canada, was strongly in sympathy with the Jesuits. Laval, although earnest and sincere in all his actions, was fond of power, and was continually being drawn into struggles with the governor and with priests of a different order. Up to this time the Jesuits, being the most highly educated men in the colony, had exerted a strong influence, not only in church matters but also in government. This influence had been the greater because of the pious character of the early governors. But a change was now taking place. From being missions and trading-stations, Quebec and the other centres of population were becoming real colonies. Priests and traders were joined by soldiers and lawyers. The later governors, too, were less inclined to listen to the advice of the priests, and it was with these more independent officials that Laval continually dis-



MONSEIGNEUR DE LAVAL

agreed. Bishop and governor disputed over many matters, but perhaps the greatest cause of friction was the liquor question, especially the sale of brandy to the Indians.

44. Laval's service to the church and to education.—Laval brought about very important changes in the church and in education. He established a seminary at Quebec for the training of priests, and opened a lesser school for the education of boys, which began with eight French and six Indian pupils. To these two schools there was added, many years later, Laval University, which very fittingly bears the name of the real founder of the Roman Catholic Church in Canada.

45. Royal government, 1663.—In the year 1663 a very noteworthy change took place in the government of Canada, bringing to a close the rule of the fur companies. For thirty years the Company of the Hundred Associates had been on trial, and had failed to fulfil the terms of its agreement with the crown. Less than two thousand colonists had been brought out, and even of these, few were real settlers. Outside of Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers, no protection was afforded those who were willing to cultivate the soil. Complaints of this unsatisfactory state of affairs had reached France, both from the inhabitants themselves and from Laval, and now the king decided to make Canada a crown colony. Authority rested in a small Council, of which the most important members were the governor, the intendant, and the bishop. The governor commanded the army and conducted all dealings with foreign powers, including the Indians; the intendant controlled the finances of the colony and the administration of justice; the bishop ruled the church. The exclusive control of trade was given to a new company called the West India Company, and this monopoly lasted for ten years.

46. De Mezy and Laval.—Laval, who by his great influence at court had already secured the recall of two governors with whom he had quarrelled, was asked to name a successor. His choice was Saffray de Mézy, a veteran in war, who had passed out of a somewhat reckless youth into a middle age of extreme piety. In spite of his piety the new governor

soon fell into a quarrel with the bishop. He expelled from the Council three members who were under the influence of the bishop, and proposed to have the people elect new ones. In appealing to the people, although he did so from no love of popular government, De Mézy made a fatal mistake, of which Laval was quick to take advantage. The French king would allow no election by the people, and, upon hearing from the bishop of the governor's proposal, he immediately recalled the latter.

47. **Courcelle, Talon, and De Tracy.**—The year 1665 saw the arrival at Quebec of three notable officials, the new governor, Daniel de Rémy, Sieur de Courcelle, the intendant, Jean Baptiste Talon, and a lieutenant-general in the person of the Marquis de Tracy. The coming of these officials marked the beginning of an era of settlement. During the same season two thousand people landed at Quebec. Real settlers were sent out, and horses and sheep were supplied by the home government. No longer were the struggling settlements to be exposed to the raids of a savage foe, for De Tracy had been commissioned to subdue or destroy the Iroquois. The instrument of this work of destruction was to be the famous Carignan regiment, the first force of regulars sent to America by the French. De Tracy lost no time in preparing for war, and at once set about the erection of a new fort near the mouth of the Richelieu.

48. **De Tracy destroys the Mohawk towns.**—The first movement against the Iroquois failed, but a second attempt was more successful. De Tracy and Courcelle penetrated the forests of the Mohawks with a force of thirteen hundred men, consisting of six hundred Canadians, an equal number of regulars, and one hundred mission Indians. The enemy, warned of the threatened attack, had prepared to defend their homes, but the sound of beaten drums and the sight of long files of soldiers threw them into a panic that ended in a general flight. Five towns in all, stored with ample supplies of food, were captured and burned before the very eyes of their late inhabitants, who looked out from their hiding-places in the forest upon the scene of destruction. The enemy now sued for peace, and Canada entered upon

the enjoyment of a rest from war, which lasted for a period of twenty years

49. **Progress of the colony.**—Having humbled the war-proud Iroquois, De Traey returned to France, leaving Courcelle and Talon to govern the country. Talon was an able



JEAN TALON

official, and entered with zeal upon the task of making Canada a prosperous colony. He built a ship at the king's expense, in order to teach the people to build for themselves. He sent out engineers to search for coal, lead, copper, and other minerals. He set the example of making tar, woollen cloth, and shoes. In 1668 Talon was forced by ill health to seek his recall, but two years later, fortunately for the colony, he resumed office

Under the direct rule of the crown, the population of Canada was increased by an annual shipment of settlers. Most of the soldiers of the Carignan regiment, which had returned to France, were sent out again, and on receiving their discharge became settlers. Rewards were given to actual settlers. For example, fifteen hundred *livres* were given to one officer who had married and taken up an estate in the country. Each soldier who settled was promised a grant of land and one hundred *livres*. Later, girls were sent out from France to become the wives of the settlers, care being taken to choose members of the peasant class who could withstand the hardships of life in a new country. In order to encourage marriage, bounties were offered, and fathers who neglected to have their children married at an early age were fined. Bachelors were discouraged by Talon's order that no man unmarried should hunt, fish, or trade with the Indians. To parents with ten children was granted a pension of three hundred *livres* a year; to those with twelve, one of four hundred.

In the upper part of the colony, which was most exposed to Indian attacks, the settlements took on a military character. Down the St. Lawrence from Montreal to the Richelieu, and up the latter stream for a considerable distance, the land was bestowed in large grants upon the officers of the Carignan regiment. They in turn divided their estates among the discharged privates of the regiment, who, under these altered circumstances, served in the double capacity of farmers and soldiers. The officers, for safety, built their houses in groups and surrounded them with a palisade. In the neighbourhood of Quebec, where the settlers were less exposed to danger, the houses were scattered along the river front, the narrowness of the farms bringing them close together. This line of homes, as distinguished from a village, was called a *côte*. So commonly did the settlers build upon the river front, that a traveller, it was said, could see every house in Canada by paddling up the St. Lawrence and the Richelieu.

SUMMARY

In 1663 a change took place in the government of Canada. The fur companies, which had done little to develop the colonies, gave place to what was called "Royal Government." Power rested in a small Council, including the governor, the intendant, and the bishop. The governor commanded the army; the intendant controlled the finances of the colony; the bishop ruled the church. The Iroquois were subdued, and with the restoration of peace the colony made marked progress. Many settlers were brought out from France, and many discharged soldiers settled in Canada.

CHAPTER VIII

FRONTENAC

FRONTENAC'S FIRST TERM, 1672-1682

50. **Count de Frontenac, 1672.**—Louis de Buade, Count de Frontenac, who succeeded Coureelle as governor, was the strongest ruler Canada had seen since the death of Champlain. Frontenac was the descendant of an ancient French family, and had early shown a strong desire to become a soldier. This desire was fully gratified by active service in Holland. At nineteen he was colonel of a regiment, and at twenty-six a brigadier-general. After a brilliant career in the army he was appointed governor of New France. Although then fifty-two years of age, Frontenac retained the keen, fiery energy of his youth. A man of action, he was delighted with the scene of his new work. "I never," he wrote, "saw anything more superb than the position of this town (Quebec). It could not be better situated as the future capital of a great empire."



COUNT DE FRONTENAC

In order to understand Frontenac's career in Canada, two facts must be remembered. In the first place, he had left France a ruined man financially, and as a result some of his later plans were entered into, not wholly for the public good, but partly for his own profit. In the second place, he was unable to tolerate rivalry, and opposition often provoked him to great rashness.

51. **Frontenac and the Indians.**—In order to control the Iroquois and to attract the trade of the upper lakes, Frontenac built Fort Frontenac, where Kingston now stands. To this fort the Iroquois were summoned to meet the "Great Onontio," as the governor was called. Frontenac fondled the children, feasted the squaws, and won over the warriors with lavish gifts. Yet there was no lack of firmness in his manner, as may be gathered from his address. "Children, Mohawks, Onidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas, I am glad to see you here, where I have had a fire lighted for you to smoke by, and for me to talk to you. You have done well, my children, to obey the command of your Father. Take courage; you will hear his word, which is full of peace and tenderness. For do not think that I have come for war. My mind is full of peace." Then, in a warning voice, he continued, "If your Father can come so far, with so great a force, through such dangerous rapids, merely to make you a visit of pleasure and friendship, what would he do if you should awaken his anger, and make it necessary for him to punish his disobedient children?" The Iroquois departed from the council deeply impressed by the "Great Onontio's" mingled kindness and firmness.

52. **Frontenac's first quarrel.**—The new governor's aggressive spirit early drew him into a quarrel with Perrot, governor of Montreal. Perrot had married Talon's niece, and this connection he used for his own gain. Building a storehouse above Montreal, he intercepted the Indians on their way with furs to the regular market lower down the river. Further, he permitted his men to escape to the woods, where as *coureurs de bois* they traded with the Indians, sharing their illegal profits with their commander. Frontenac sent a lieutenant with an order for the arrest of one of the Montreal offenders. Perrot, upon receiving Frontenac's letter, threw it in the face of the bearer, crying, "Take it back to your master, and tell him to teach you your business better another time. Meanwhile, you are my prisoner." This hot-headed official, obeying a summons from Frontenac to appear at Quebec to

explain his conduct, was put in prison and finally was sent back to France, but after a short imprisonment he was restored to his governorship. The hanging of one *coureur de bois* had the effect of checking the lawlessness which was becoming common.

53. **Strife between Frontenac and Duchesneau.**—The king, while upholding Frontenac in his quarrel with Perrot, wished to put a check upon such a headstrong governor, and so sent out an intendant, Duchesneau, to watch his movements. Almost from the outset, the governor and the intendant were rivals, their rivalry becoming keenest in connection with the fur trade. Upon this question the entire population—*habitants*, traders and merchants—was divided, the governor leading one faction, the intendant the other. Duchesneau wrote home charging Frontenac with having *coureurs de bois* in his employ, and thus making illegal gains out of the fur trade. Frontenac brought similar charges against his rival. At length the king, becoming impatient at such continual discord, recalled both officials.

SUMMARY

In 1672 Count de Frontenac, the strongest ruler of New France since the death of Champlain, became governor. A bitter quarrel between the governor and the intendant over the fur trade soon led to the recall of both officials.

THE OPENING OF THE WEST, 1670-1682

54. **The Jesuits in the West.**—Meanwhile, men had not lost interest in the still unexplored West. The Jesuits, driven from their chosen field of labour by the destruction of the Huron nation, turned to the north-west, renewing their work by the shores of Lakes Huron, Superior, and Michigan. Their missionary enterprise led them to take a keen interest in exploration and in the extension of French influence. In this work they found a strong supporter in the energetic intendant, Talon. When, in 1671, St. Lussou, an explorer sent out by Talon, reached

Sault Ste. Marie, he found a Jesuit mission already established. There, upon a neighbouring hilltop, he took formal possession of the "Great West" in the name of the king of France.

55. **The Hudson's Bay Company founded, 1670.**—Meanwhile, in the north, representatives of another nation were gaining a foothold, from which they were soon to dispute with the French the possession of the territory to which St. Luson had laid claim. As the Jesuit missionaries pressed westwards they were closely followed by the fur traders. Among the latter were two traders of Montreal, Groseilliers and Pierre Radisson, who had together made several trips into the country beyond Lake Superior. Here they had fallen in with Indians of the Assiniboine tribe, who told them of a great body of water lying far to the north. Henceforth Groseilliers' mind was filled with the purpose of finding this northern sea. Failing to gain the support of the French company which controlled trade in Canada, this persevering trader sought aid elsewhere, first at Boston, then at Paris, and finally in England. By good fortune he gained an audience with Prince Rupert, a cousin of



Charles II, who at once became interested in his strange story. Groseilliers and his partner, Radisson, were placed in charge of two small ships. Owing to a storm, Radisson was compelled to turn back, but Groseilliers reached the bay in safety. At the southern extremity of the bay he erected Fort Charles, so called in honour of the English sovereign; and here, without loss of time, he entered into trade with the northern Indians. So favourable was the report carried back to England, that the king granted, in 1670, a charter to "The Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson Bay," an organization which from that time has continued to play an important part in the development of western Canada.



MARQUETTE AND JOLIET SETTING OUT TO SEARCH
FOR THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER

56. **Marquette and Joliet discover the Mississippi, 1673.**—In 1673 the Mississippi River was discovered by two young Canadians, Louis Joliet, the son of a humble wagon-maker, and Jacques Marquette, a Jesuit priest. The course taken by these explorers lay across the upper end of Lake Michigan into Green Bay, and up the Fox River to its source. Here they made a *portage* of a mile and a half over prairie and through marsh, emerging upon the bank of the Wisconsin. Down this stream they paddled to the Mississippi, which they beheld, as Marquette writes, "with a joy which I cannot express." The voyagers descended the great river as far as the mouth of the Arkansas, but at this point, fearing the hostility of the Indians, they decided to turn back.

57. **La Salle.**—Of all the men who sacrificed ease, and in some cases even life, to the service of France in the West, probably the most devoted was René-Robert Cavelier, commonly called La Salle. We find La Salle, shortly after his arrival in Canada, in possession of a valuable estate at Lachine, eight miles above Montreal. La Salle, however, was not ambitious to acquire wealth. In trading with the Indians, he heard that the Ohio River flowed into a distant sea, and he dreamed, like Champlain, of China and Japan. To convert his dreams into realities he sold his estate, and with the proceeds bought canoes and the outfit necessary for a journey of exploration. There is great uncertainty about La Salle's early wanderings; yet he seems to have learned enough to convince him that the Ohio and Illinois rivers found their outlet, not in a western ocean, but in the Gulf of Mexico.

58. **La Salle's explorations.**—It was through Frontenac's aid that La Salle was at last able to undertake his western explorations. In August, 1679, accompanied by Henri de Tonti, he embarked upon the waters of Lake Erie in the *Griffin*, a vessel he had built above Niagara. Detroit, Michilimackinac, and Green Bay marked the course of his voyage. From Green Bay he sent back the *Griffin* laden with furs, while he, with the remainder of his party, pushed on in canoes to the lower end of Lake Michigan. In December he crossed over to the head-waters of the Illinois, and drifting down this stream, discovered a large Indian town. Here the explorers built a fort which they called Crèveceur. From this point La Salle, with four picked men, returned to Montreal to secure fresh supplies and equipment for a new vessel. At the end of a painful and dangerous journey the travellers were met with the dis-



SIEUR DE LA SALLE

couraging news that the *Griffin* had been lost and that a ship from France bearing supplies had been wrecked.

La Salle's affairs were now in a desperate state. His friends were in despair and his opponents in triumph. A weaker man would have lost hope and abandoned his purpose, but not so this indomitable Frenchman. Without loss of time he set about the equipment of a small force wherewith to retrace the long, wearisome journey to the Illinois. At his journey's end a second great disappointment awaited him. He found Fort Crèvecoeur in ruins and no trace of Tonti. The gallant Italian and five faithful followers, deserted by the majority of the garrison, had been set upon by an Iroquois war party and had barely escaped with their lives. It was not until the end of the following summer that La Salle again met Tonti. The joy of their reunion went far towards reconciling La Salle and his faithful lieutenant to the great misfortunes through which each had passed.

In making their third venture La Salle and Tonti abandoned the idea of building a vessel, and embarked in canoes. On February 6th, 1682, they pushed out into the broad current of the Mississippi, and early in April the waters of the Gulf of Mexico burst upon their view. Rearing a column bearing the royal arms of France, La Salle formally took possession of the surrounding country and named it Louisiana in honour of his king. On his return to France he was loaded with honours and hailed as one of the great discoverers of the age.

Sad, indeed, was the fate of La Salle. Five years later, in an effort to found a colony at the mouth of the river he had explored, he was foully murdered by one of his own men, and his body left lying upon the open prairie, the prey of bird and beast.

SUMMARY

The Jesuit missionaries, driven from their chosen field of labour by the destruction of the Huron towns, were now extending French influence to the shores of Lake Superior and Lake Michigan. At the same time the English, through the Hudson's Bay Company, were gaining a foothold on the shores of the great inland sea to the north. In every

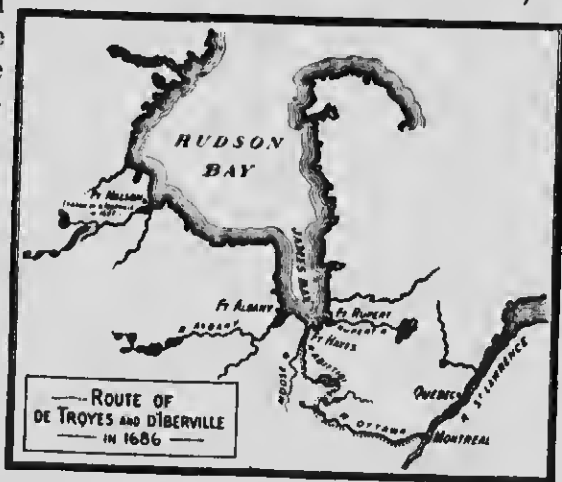
move westwards the missionaries took an active part. It was a young Jesuit, Jacques Marquette, who, with Louis Jollet, discovered the Mississippi. Then followed the wider explorations of La Salle, who, undaunted by two failures, at last made his way down the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico.

THE IROQUOIS SCOURGE, 1682-1680

59. **Le Febvre de la Barre, 1682.**—Frontenac's successor was Le Febvre de la Barre, an officer who had served in the West Indies. The greatest difficulty the new governor had to face was the hostility of the Iroquois. These shrewd warriors thought that if they subdued the Illinois, Ottawas, and Hurons, they would be able to divert the current of trade, which was pouring its wealth of furs into the French settlements, and cause it to flow in the direction of New York. Such was the situation with which La Barre had to cope, and as he was more interested in trade than in war, he soon made peace with the Iroquois. As this policy made the Indians still more insolent, he was recalled, and in 1685 his place was taken by the Marquis de Denonville.

60. **Commercial rivalry.**—It was not only the hostility of the Iroquois which the French had to fear, but also the aggressive policy of the English colon-

ists. These laid claim to all the country south of the Great Lakes, and were seeking to gain a hold upon the fur trade of the West and North-West. To add to the difficulty of the situation, the Hudson's Bay Company was drawing off



the trade of the northern tribes. English and French were face to face in a struggle for commercial supremacy, and their rivalry was bound, sooner or later, to break into a clash of arms. If the French won, the English colonies would be hemmed in along the Atlantic coast; if victory rested with the English, their rivals would be confined to the valley of the St. Lawrence.

The Hudson's Bay Company had strengthened its position by the establishment of four trading-posts: one upon the west shore near the Nelson, and the other three, Forts Albany, Hayes and Rupert, on James Bay. In Canada the fur trade was controlled by the Company of the North, whose members now resolved to destroy their English rivals. This resolution met with the favour of the governor. In the spring of 1686 Chevalier de Troyes, at the head of a company of eighty Frenchmen, including Pierre le Moyne D'Iberville and his two brothers, left Montreal for Hudson Bay. Ascending the Ottawa, these adventurers worked their way slowly by stream and lake over the height of land. So sudden was their coming and so spirited their attack, that the English posts fell almost without a struggle.



THE MARQUIS DE DENONVILLE

61. Denonville's difficulties.—
Meanwhile, Denonville was preparing to strike an effective blow at the Iroquois, more particularly at the Senecas who were giving most trouble to Canada. His object in doing so was to foil the English, who were undoubtedly urging on the Senecas, and to regain the confidence of the northern tribes, which had been shaken by the weakness of La Barre. Preparations for a great expedition were hastened.

The main force gathered at Fort Frontenac, while messengers were sent to summon the Indians and *coureurs de*

bois of the West. At the place of meeting on the south shore of Lake Ontario, all the forces arrived upon the same day: from the east, the French and the mission Indians; from the west, the warriors of the Illinois under Tonti, and the Ottawas and Hurons of Michilimackinae; in all three thousand fighting men. Marching inland twenty-two miles, Denonville destroyed the town and the corn supplies of the enemy. Before leaving the country, he erected a fort at Niagara, where he left a garrison of one hundred men. The grand expedition strengthened the wavering allegiance of the western tribes; but it failed even to cripple the Senecas, who quickly rebuilt their town. Denonville had overturned a wasp's nest, and must now kill the wasps if he would not be stung.

The invasion of the Seneca country and the building of Fort Niagara aroused the anger of the New York colonists. The governor of New York demanded the destruction of the fort. Denonville had but little choice in the matter. Disease, caused by the use of bad provisions, had carried off all but a dozen of the garrison. The order was given to abandon Niagara.

Canada was in a wretched plight. The hostility of the Iroquois had put a stop to the fur trade for two years, and, as a result, famine threatened the unfortunate colony. The enemy were everywhere, usually in small bands, seeking some straggling victim. The fields were abandoned, while the settlers sought safety in the forts. It was felt that peace must be bought at any price. Denonville, who held a number of Iroquois prisoners, sent two or three of them home to induce their countrymen to send envoys to a peace council, promising, if they did so, to release the remainder of the captives. It looked as if peace were to be concluded, for the Iroquois sent their representatives as requested. These had reached Lake Ontario on their way to Montreal, when an unexpected event changed the whole situation.

Among the Hurons about Michilimackinae was a clever chief named Kondiaronk, or the "Rat." This warrior had given the French much trouble, but they had overcome his

hostility by promising never to make peace with the Iroquois. The Rat, with a band of his followers, had taken the war-path in search of the enemy, when he suddenly learned at Fort Frontenac of the proposed truce. Enraged at this breach of faith on the part of his allies, the revengeful chief formed a plot to break off the peace negotiations. Leaving Fort Frontenac, apparently for Michilimackinac, he hastened across Lake Ontario to La Famine, a point which he knew the Iroquois envoys must pass on their way to Montreal. When at length the latter appeared, they were met with a volley of bullets, and all but one were killed or wounded. Binding his captives, the Rat informed them that he was acting under orders from Denonville; whereupon the Iroquois protested that they were messengers of peace. Their captor, craftily pretending that the French governor had deceived him, released his prisoners, saying: "Go, my brothers, go home to your people. Though there is war between us, I give you your liberty. Onontio has made me to do so black a deed that I shall never be happy again till your five tribes take a just vengeance upon him."

The Rat's plan was completely successful, and the "vengeance" was not long delayed. Under the black shelter of a stormy summer night in 1689, fifteen hundred warriors fell upon the settlement at Lachine, and began a massacre which, even amid the bloody horrors of border warfare, stands out in lurid colours. Subercase, the commander of the fort three miles away, had been absent in Montreal, and on his arrival next day, houses were still burning, the ground was strewn with dead bodies, and corpses were hanging where the Indians had tortured their victims the night before. He and his men, full of fury, were setting out to attack the Iroquois, who had withdrawn about a mile and a half further on, when a messenger arrived with strict orders from Denonville to stand on the defensive. The next day eighty men, in the attempt to join Subercase in the fort, were cut in pieces before the eyes of the infuriated and chafing garrison. The inhabitants of Montreal were crazed with fear, while for miles about the town the ruthless invaders burned and pillaged at their will. Finally, they withdrew, hurling back

their cry to the French, "Onontio, you deceived us, and now we have deceived you."

It was evident that Denonville was not the man to deal with such a situation, and he was accordingly recalled.

SUMMARY

The French were not without rivals in their move to occupy the West with its wealth of furs. The trading posts of the Hudson's Bay Company drew many of the Indians to the north. On the other hand, the traders of the New England colonies put forth every effort to attract the western tribes to Albany. The Iroquois, controlling the channels of trade flowing into the French and New England colonies alike, held the balance of power. Frequently the fur trade was interrupted by fierce outbreaks of Indian warfare. These found their climax in the massacre of Lachine.

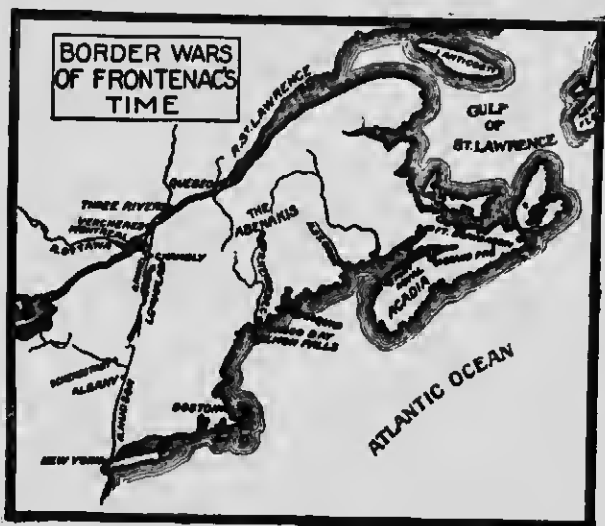
FRONTENAC SAVES NEW FRANCE, 1689-1698

62. **Frontenac again governor, 1689.**—In this crisis the king of France turned to the man whom he had a few years before recalled from the governorship. In spite of his seventy years, Frontenac again assumed the burden of office. Warmly welcomed at Quebec, he lost no time in proceeding to Montreal to relieve Denonville. To his disgust he found that the latter had given an order for the destruction of Fort Frontenac. The outlook was gloomy indeed. The boldness of the Iroquois in attacking Montreal, and the inaction of the French soldiers during the massacre, had the effect of making the western tribes look with contempt upon their allies. Word was brought to Frontenac that a rising of the Indians about Michilimackinac might take place at any moment. There was real danger of an alliance of these Indians with the Iroquois, a combination which, backed by the English, would bring about the ruin of the French in Canada. By sending back some prisoners whom he held, Frontenac hoped to restore peace with the Iroquois, but unfortunately the latter were not so ready as before to listen to the voice of the "Great Onontio."

63. **Attacks upon the English colonists.**—Frontenac

began to make preparations for a threefold attack, not upon the Iroquois, whom he could not reach, but upon the English, whom he regarded as the cause of Canada's misfortunes. In 1690 three war parties were fitted out: one to attack Albany, a second the border of New Hampshire, a third that of Maine.

It was in the depth of winter that the first party, made up of two hundred and ten men, mainly *coureurs de bois* and Christian Indians, left Montreal on their long tramp up the Richelieu and Lake Champlain. The march proved so arduous that it was decided to divert the attack from



Albany to the little town of Schenectady. Through deep drifts, in the face of a blinding snowstorm, the invaders finally approached the town. It was about midnight; the inhabitants, all unsuspecting of danger,

lay buried in sleep; the gates stood wide open. The unfortunate inmates had scarcely time to leap from their beds when they were beaten down by tomahawk or knife. Women and children shared a like fate with the men. Sixty persons, we are told, were killed, of whom ten were women, and twelve children. About forty captives were carried off by the victors when, after setting fire to the town, they began their retreat. The other two raids were equally successful, equally brutal.

64. **The English colonists aroused.**—The three raids produced the effect which Frontenac desired. Success

inspired the French colonies with fresh courage. If, however, the French governor hoped that by such inhuman methods he would reduce the English colonists to a state of fear, he mistook their character. The spring of 1690 found the English busy upon a plan for the invasion of Canada both by land and by water.

A large force of colonists and Iroquois was to muster at Albany for an attack upon Montreal. Meanwhile, a fleet was entrusted to Sir William Phips, who had earlier in the season taken Port Royal in Acadia. Nothing came of the movement against Montreal. Phips, however, reached Quebec with a fleet of thirty-four trading and fishing vessels of all sizes, manned by about two thousand sailors and soldiers. The English commander at once despatched an officer with a letter to the French governor, demanding the surrender of Quebec, an answer to be given within an hour. The officer was not kept waiting an hour. "I will answer your general," cried Frontenac, "only by the mouths of my cannon, that he may learn that a man like me is not to be summoned after this fashion. Let him do his best, and I will do mine." If Phips looked for any such easy capture of the Canadian stronghold as fell to the lot of Kirke, he was doomed to disappointment. While he was casting about for a plan of attack, a reinforcement of eight hundred regulars and *coureurs de bois* succeeded in entering the besieged town. Phips's plan was to land a strong force of militia to attack the palisades in the rear, while the fleet bombarded the town from the river. Unfortunately he allowed his fleet to be drawn into action too soon, with the result that his ammunition was exhausted before the time came to co-operate with the land force. Moreover, his ships suffered so much in the exchange of fire, that he was forced to raise the siege.

65. Border warfare.—The next four years were filled with border warfare, in which both sides suffered. The Iroquois continued to make their deadly raids upon the outlying settlements, but as their very success rendered them careless, they often drew down upon themselves severe punishment. Quick to see that the bulk of the furs reached the French

by way of the Ottawa, they continually beset that stream in strong bands. Since the continuance of the fur trade was essential to the welfare of the colony, every effort was put forth by Frontenac to keep the Ottawa open. As a conse-



FRONTIER VILLAGE PALISADE

quence, the banks of that important river were the scene of many desperate encounters between the French and the Iroquois.

66. The heroine of Vereheres.

—In this period of distress and danger it was the settlers of

the upper St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Three Rivers, who suffered most. Every precaution was taken against sudden attacks. The farmers worked together, passing in a body from one field to another, and were often guarded by a detachment of soldiers. At night all took refuge in the nearest fort. The story of an incident of this period reads like a romance. About twenty miles below Montreal lay the seignior of Verehères, which, in the absence of the seignior, had been left in charge of two soldiers, two boys, an old man, and a few women and children. Madeleine, the fourteen-year-old daughter of the seignior, standing one morning near the river, was suddenly startled by the cry of a hired man, "Run, Mademoiselle, run; here come the Iroquois!" The maiden ran for the fort with the bullets whistling about her head, and closed and barred the gate. All within were panic-stricken, the women crying and the soldiers hiding; Madeleine alone was calm. Assuming command, the little heroine prepared to defend her father's home. With the aid of the two soldiers and her young brothers, she succeeded in keeping off the Indians for a whole week, until help arrived from Montreal.

67. **The war upon the Acadian border.**—The struggle between the French and English colonists spread to Acadia, Newfoundland and Hudson Bay. The French, while fighting with the English of New York and their Iroquois allies, were also harassing the New Englanders, or "Bostonnais," from the borders of Acadia. There were not more than a thousand colonists in Acadia, the principal settlements being at Port Royal, Beaubassin, and Les Mines. Scattered along the coasts were the fishermen, and throughout the forests the fur traders. The territory lying between the Kennebec and the St. Croix, claimed by both French and English, was occupied by the Abenakis. The French incited these Indians to attacks upon the English and supplied them with guns, powder, and lead. To restrain the Abenakis the English built a stone fort on the river Pemaquid.

68. **Pierre le Moyne D'Iberville.**
—No man did more in this period to uphold the power of France in North America than did Pierre le Moyne D'Iberville. He had been the right-hand man of De Troyes in the seizure of the English posts upon Hudson Bay. In Acadia he captured the fort on the Pemaquid; in Newfoundland he seized every English settlement. He was the best man, therefore, to take charge of the fleet which had been fitted out for an attack upon Fort Nelson, called by the French Fort Bourhon, the most important trading-post on Hudson Bay. With a single ship he met and overcame three English vessels belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company. The reward of this signal victory was the possession of Fort Nelson.



D'IBERVILLE

69. **Death of Frontenac, 1698.**—In 1697 the peace of Ryswick put an end to the war between England and France, and restored peace to the troubled border that lay between

their American colonies. In the following year, at the age of seventy-eight, Frontenac died. The grief of the people was great, for with the poorer classes his generosity had made him very popular. His entire career bears testimony to his remarkable ability in managing the Indians. Upon the whole, his work in Canada was a success. At his coming he had found the country upon the verge of ruin; at the hour of his death the French cause in Canada was almost triumphant.

Three years after the peace of Ryswick, the object of Frontenac, the bringing of the Indians into peaceful relations with the French and their allies, was accomplished. A great council was held at Montreal, where thirteen hundred warriors met to smoke the pipe of peace and exchange belts of wampum. Abenakis were there from Acadia, Hurons and Ottawas from Lake Superior, Crees from the far North-West, Miamis from the St. Joseph, and Illinois from the distant river which had witnessed the disasters of La Salle.

SUMMARY

Seeing that his colonies were in serious danger through the weakness of incompetent governors, the French king restored Frontenac to power. Immediately upon his arrival at Quebec, the governor planned a threefold attack upon the New Englanders. The borders of the New England States were subjected to all the atrocities of Indian warfare. The English retaliated by sending a fleet to attack Quebec and a land force to attack Montreal. The struggle between the French and English colonists spread to Acadia, Newfoundland, and Hudson Bay. D'Iberville was the greatest champion of the French cause. To him are credited the capture of the New England stronghold on the border of Acadia, the seizure of every English settlement in Newfoundland, and the defeat of an English fleet on Hudson Bay, a victory which placed Fort Nelson at his mercy. The peace of Ryswick, 1697, restored peace to the troubled borders of the American colonies.

CHAPTER IX

SOCIAL CONDITIONS

70. **Feudalism in Canada.**—As far as the conditions of the country allowed, French-Canadian society was modelled after the feudal system, which flourished in Europe in the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries. The theory was that the king received his land from God as a fief, or feud,—hence the term *feudalism*. In reality, the king owned the soil by right of the sword. Dividing the land, he granted it to the great nobles who had helped him in war. Each noble, in turn, sublet the greater portion of his fief to his followers. He who granted the fief was called a suzerain, liege, or lord; he to whom the grant was made was known as a vassal, liegeman, or retainer. The relationship existing between lord and vassal was one of mutual benefit. The lord gave protection, the vassal service.

It was the great statesman, Cardinal Richelieu, who introduced feudalism into Canada, in connection with the charter of the Hundred Associates. His object in doing so was twofold: first to create a Canadian aristocracy, and second—the main reason—to establish an easy system of dividing the land among settlers. The seignior, as the suzerain was called in Canada, receiving a fief from the king, became his vassal, and in turn made grants to the *censitaires*, those who held their land on the



OLD HOUSES AT LÉVIS

payment of *cens*, or quit-rent. The lowest class in Canadian society, the cultivators of the soil, were known as the *habitants*.

That the land might not lie waste, the seignior was forced by the terms of his grant to clear his estate within a certain time. As he was usually too poor to do this himself, and as he was not allowed to sell any part uncleared, he was compelled to grant it to others at a small rental. The rental varied from half a cent to two cents for each acre, and was paid, part in money, part in wheat, eggs, or live fowls. The land of the *censitaire* passed at his death to his children; but if he sold it, he was called upon to pay to his seignior one-twelfth of the price received. In like manner, if a seignior parted with his estate, the king was entitled to one-fifth of the purchase money. Some demands made upon the *censitaire*, though not often enforced, were that he should grind his grain in the seignior's mill, make his bread in the seignior's oven, and give him one fish out of every eleven for the right to fish in the river flowing past his land.

The nobles of France were too fond of the court to exchange its pleasures for the privations of colonial life. The Canadian nobility was, therefore, composed of some officers of the Carignan regiment and a few of the more prominent colonists, prosperous merchants and farmers, to whom the king had granted patents of nobility. In some cases money bought this honour. Thus, we are told, a certain shopkeeper of Montreal was made a gentleman on payment of six thousand *livres*. The lot of the more aristocratic of these Canadian nobles was not a very fortunate one, their poverty being extreme. Prevented by their rank from cultivating the soil or engaging in trade, they quickly fell into debt. In spite of the aid which they received from the king, their position grew from bad to worse. Under such circumstances it is not surprising that they took advantage of the only occupation open to them; namely, the fur trade. It was from this class of exiled gentlemen, steeped in forest-lore, that the great explorers were drawn, and, in time of war, the most gallant defenders of New France.

71. **The government.**—Subject to the will of the king, the

absolute rule of Canada rested with the governor, the intendant, and a Council which carried on the government, made laws, and saw that justice was done. The governor, save during the early years of the colony, was usually a military leader and a noble, often of high rank. The control of the army lay in his hands, and also the power to deal with the Indians. The intendant, on the other hand, was usually of the legal class, and being of humble rank, was the more dependent upon the king. Yet the power of this official within the colony was very great. He controlled the public funds and presided at the meetings of the Council. In fact, according to his commission, he



CHATEAU DE ST. LOUIS, 1698

was "to order everything as he should see just and proper."

For the administration of justice there was an attorney-general to hear complaints, and, if necessary, submit them to the Council. At Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal, there were local judges, appointed by the king; from their appeal might be made to the Council. In less important cases the seigniors administered justice among the *habitants*. There was also the bishop's court at Quebec, to deal with offences against the church. Above all courts, and even the Council, was the intendant, who had the right to try any case.

The people were never consulted in matters of government. When a meeting of the people of Quebec was called to discuss the price of bread and the supply of firewood, it was promptly suppressed. For a time each town had been allowed to choose a local leader, called a *syndic*, but, at the bidding of the king, this privilege was taken away. All classes were subject to the crown. "It is of very great consequence," writes one intendant, "that the people should not be left at liberty to speak their minds."

72. **The fur trade.**—From the earliest times the people had not been allowed to engage freely in trade. The government strove to retain control of the fur trade by inviting the

Indians to bring their furs to the settlements, and by preventing the traders from going into the forests. In order to further this object, a great fair was held annually at Montreal to which the Indians were urged to bring their furs for barter. Hither fleets of canoes, laden with beaver skins, made their way down the Ottawa. When the fair had been formally opened, usually by the governor, the merchants fell to trading with their dusky visitors, receiving costly furs in exchange for the necessaries of the hunt or ornaments for the person. Brandy was freely sold, so that too often the fair ended in drunken rioting. Nor was the plan altogether a commercial success. The more daring traders, in defiance of the



A CANADIAN TRAPPER

laws, settled above Montreal, intercepted the Indians on their way to the fair, and by a liberal use of brandy, persuaded them to part with their furs at low prices.

73. The *coureurs de bois*.

—Nor did lawlessness stop here. Many adventurous youths, some of good families, advancing beyond the outmost settlements, visited the Indians in their distant villages and there secured the choicest furs. These *coureurs de bois* were a constant source of anxiety to the governor. Once outside the settlements, they passed from under his power, and made it impossible to control the fur trade. Efforts to punish these head-



COUREUR DE BOIS

strong youths only served to make them outlaws, and there was serious danger of their becoming enemies of their country.

So quickly did their number increase that at one time they made up one-twelfth of a population of ten thousand. It was love of adventure that won these restless spirits from the unattractive work of farming within the colony. Such was the freedom of life in the forest, where they consorted with the Indians, that the return of a party of *coureurs de bois* to Montreal was usually the occasion of unrestrained revelry. When the lust of their dearly earned furs had been thrown away as the price of their entertainment, they plunged again into the woods, to take up once more the wild life which a brief season of dissipation had interrupted.

74. **The missions.**—The missions to the Hurons and to the Onondagas had closed in disaster, but no sooner had De Tracy's military display restored peace than the Jesuits again entered the field. The Iroquois were the object of their missionary care. They endeavoured to convert them, and used their influence to win them over from the English and Dutch to the side of the French. After events show that their efforts met with little success. The greatest obstacle with which the missionaries had to contend was the liquor traffic, carried on both by the Dutch and the English traders among the Iroquois, and by the *coureurs de bois* and garrison soldiers among the Canadian Indians. One missionary writing to the intendant says, "Our missions are reduced to such extremity that we can no longer maintain them against the infinity of disorder which the infamous traffic in brandy has spread universally among the Indians of these parts." He charges the soldiers of the garrisons with making unlawful gain out of the fur trade by the free use of brandy, and with sharing the profit with their commander. This same missionary is equally severe in his criticism of the *coureurs de bois* and their practice of trading with the Indians. "It serves only to rob the country of all its young men, . . . to accustom the *coureurs de bois* to live in constant idleness, unfit them for any trade, and render them useless to themselves, their families, and the public."

The Jesuits strove to have the brandy traffic stopped, on the ground that it was ruining the missions. Those, on the other hand, who were interested in the traffic urged that

without the use of brandy the French would lose the fur trade; the Dutch and the English merchants made use of liquor in trading, and the Indians went wherever "fire-water" was to be had. Influenced by the argument of the traders, the king refused to stop the liquor traffic, although he ordered it to be controlled.

75. Social disorders.—The moral state of the colony prior to 1663 was much better than after that date. The population was small and well under the control of the missionaries. But with the establishment of "royal government" came a change. When the tide of immigration set in, many of the newcomers were found to be of a doubtful character. The soldiers of the Carignan regiment, accustomed to all the license of camp life, did not improve the morality of the young settlements in which they were stationed. Some of their officers were far from setting a good example, as they made profit out of the sale of brandy to the Indians.

76. A picture of town and country life.—One historian has given us a picture of the town and country life of the early French-Canadians. "August, September, and October were the busy months at Quebec. Then the ships from France discharged their lading, the shops and warehouses of the Lower Town were filled with goods, and the



THE URSULINE CONVENT, QUEBEC
Founded in 1639

habitants came to town to make their purchases. When the frosts began, the vessels sailed away, the harbour was deserted, the streets were silent again, and like ants or squirrels, the people set to work to lay in their winter stores. Fathers of families packed their cellars with beets, carrots, potatoes,

and oranges, and, at the end of autumn, with meat, fowls, game, fish, and eels, all frozen to stony hardness. . . . of the shops closed, and the long season of leisure and amusement began. . . . In the country parishes there was an autumnal storing away of frozen vegetables, milk, fish, and eels, and unfortunately the same surfeit of leisure through five months of the year."

SUMMARY

The French introduced feudalism into Canada. Under this system the king granted the land in large tracts to members of the aristocracy, who were called seigniors. These in turn rented small farms to their dependants, called in Canada *habitants*. This plan proved far from successful. The government was carried on by a governor, an intendant, and a Council. The governor controlled the army, and the intendant held the public funds. This division of power led to frequent quarrels. The whole system was despotic, the people having no voice in the government. Just as the government was despotic, so was the system of trade kept under the control of the great companies. Private trade was discouraged. In defiance of law many of the colonists penetrated the wilds of the West, and carried on trade with the Indians. These lawless citizens, called *coureurs de bois*, at one time numbered one-twelfth of the population.

CHAPTER X

A HALF-CENTURY OF CONFLICT

QUEEN ANNE'S WAR. 1697-1713

77. **French and English interests in the West.**—Canada and the northern English colonies had but a short breathing space after the peace of Ryswick. Both were tired of war and needed rest; yet both promptly prepared for a renewal of the struggle which they knew was certain to come. During the early years of the war, there was very little fighting, except along the eastern frontier, Maine being the scene of action. The explanation of this fact is to be found in the history of the fur trade. The French drew all their valuable furs from the tribes of the western lakes. The English and the Dutch were putting forth every effort to attract these same tribes to Albany. Between the English and the western Indians lay the shrewd Iroquois, who were anxious to act as middlemen between the West and the East. While French, English, and Iroquois were rivals in trade, they were united in their efforts to avert war, which would block the channel of their common gain.

There were two parties in French Canada. The one wished to confine settlement to the banks of the St. Lawrence; the other favoured planting military posts throughout the West. The most active of those who favoured the forming of western settlements was Antoine Cadillac, at one time commandant of Michilimackinac. He proposed that a settlement and fort should be established at the "Strait" (Détroit) connecting Lakes Huron and Erie. The importance of this point was very great indeed. If it were occupied by the English, the French would be cut off from the base of their fur supply; if, on the other hand, it were held by the French, it would serve as a check upon both the English and the Iroquois in their

dealings with the western tribes. In spite of the merchants, who feared that the Indians would no longer bring their furs down to Montreal, Detroit was occupied as a trading-post in 1701.

78. **The war in Acadia.**—The struggle between the French and English colonists began, as has been said, on the border between Acadia and Maine, and the principal actors were the Abenakis. These savages, easily influenced by the French agents among them, had dyed their hands in the blood of English settlers during the recent war and were again ready for the warpath. Left to themselves, the Abenakis, attracted by the cheapness of the goods offered by the Boston traders, would have been disposed to keep the peace. The French, however, incited them to war. No settlement on the New England border escaped. In one month as many as one hundred and sixty persons of all ages were slain or captured. The English colonists, finding the land route to the French colonies barred by the Abenakis, struck back at the point which was most easily reached by sea. Port Royal, the seat of the Acadian government, became the special object of attack. In 1710 this fort fell into the hands of the English and was named Annapolis Royal. As there was no other stronghold in the country, the capture of Port Royal carried with it the possession of all Acadia.

79. **Failure of a movement against Quebec.**—In 1711 aid from Britain arrived, and a gigantic scheme for the conquest of Canada was entered into. A land force was to advance



FRENCH SOLDIER AT END
OF SEVENTEENTH
CENTURY

against Montreal by way of Lake Champlain, while an unusually large fleet, made up of nine ships-of-war and about sixty transports, carrying in all twelve thousand men, sailed for the St. Lawrence. Amid the elaborate



BRITISH SOLDIER AT END OF
SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

preparations, however, pilots had been forgotten, and at the mouth of the St. Lawrence the fleet was driven ashore and eight transports were wrecked. This mishap was not serious enough to stop the expedition, but the two leaders, Hill and Walker, the one a mere court favourite and the other an incompetent, were only too glad to avail themselves of any pretext for retreating.

80. **The treaty of Utrecht, 1713.**—The treaty of Utrecht closed the war for a time. France acknowledged the Iroquois to be British subjects, and ceded to Great Britain Hudson Bay, Newfoundland, and Acadia, "according to its ancient limits." Yet many important questions remained unsettled. In Acadia, was Britain gaining a vast extent of territory, or only a strip of sea-coast? Were the Abenakis French or British subjects? Above all, was Britain or France to hold the valley of the Mississippi and the Great Lakes, and with them the virtual control of a continent? Any one of these questions carried with it the germ of a future war.

SUMMARY

There were two parties in French Canada. One wished to confine settlement to the banks of the St. Lawrence; the other favoured plant-

ing outposts throughout the West. The latter party triumphed, and as a first step Detroit was founded. The outbreak of Queen Anne's War, in 1697, again plunged the American colonies into war. In Acadia the French stirred up the Indians against the British colonies. The latter, through their fleet, captured Port Royal, which was renamed Annapolis Royal; but a gigantic naval undertaking directed against Quebec ended in complete failure. The treaty of Utrecht closed the war in 1713.

A TROUBLED PERIOD. 1713-1744.

81. **The French build Louisburg.**—While giving up Acadia the French clung to Cape Breton, or, as they called it, Ile Royale. By fortifying this island they hoped to guard the entrance to the St. Lawrence, and also to have a convenient base of operations for the recapture of Acadia at a later date. The south-east shore presented a rock-bound harbour easy of access and defence. Here the French planted a strong fortress, calling it, in the king's honour, Louisburg. Although unattractive to settlers, Louisburg was admirably situated as a fishing-station and as a military stronghold.

82. **Acadia under British rule.**—The French were eager to remove the Acadians to Ile Royale; but the British were equally anxious to have them remain, both because they were necessary to the prosperity of the country and because at Louisburg they would be dangerous neighbours. From the treaty of Utrecht until the outbreak of the next war the Acadian situation was a strange one. Britain owned the country, and yet to enforce ownership had but a handful of men shut up within the fort at Annapolis. The French inhabitants were rapidly increasing. Nor had the French government really given up the Acadians. The governor of Ile Royale was charged with the supervision of Acadian affairs. His agents were constantly going and coming among the Acadians, persuading them to refuse obedience to the British crown. It took ten years to induce the Acadians to become British subjects. They finally took the oath of allegiance on condition that they should not be called upon to take sides against the French or the Indians; they themselves agreed not to take up arms against the British.

83. **French influence in the West.**—Meanwhile, the rivalry of western traders became keener every day. The British of New York were forced, as we have seen, to trade through the Iroquois. The aim of the French was to keep all the Indians at peace, yet to prevent the western tribes from trading with the Iroquois. The goods of the British traders, better and cheaper than those of the French, were a great attraction. True, the Indians liked the taste of French brandy better than that of English rum, but, after all, the latter was much cheaper and had a similar effect. Thus, many were induced to trade at Albany instead of at Montreal.

In 1699 Le Moyne D'Iberville, the hero of the sea-fight off Fort Nelson, realized the dream of the explorer La Salle by founding a settlement at the mouth of the Mississippi. In the ambition of France, Louisiana played a great part. The two colonies, the one on the Gulf of Mexico, the other on the St. Lawrence, were to be joined by a line of forts, making good the French claim to the Mississippi valley and the Great Lakes. By this means the British colonies were to be hemmed in along the Atlantic, and so shut out from western expansion.

84. **Pierre de la Vérendrye and his sons.**—The Frenchmen who were trading in furs beyond Lake Superior had not lost interest in the "Western Sea." The most noted of these traders was Pierre de la Vérendrye, the commander of a little post on Lake Nipigon, north of Lake Superior. Vérendrye had listened to Indian tales of a great river flowing into a western sea. Eager to solve the mystery of the unknown land, he applied to the king of France for permission and aid to equip a party of exploration. Permission was readily given, but no aid other than the right to trade with the Indians by the way. The obstacles were great,—the dangers of a strange country swarming with hostile Indians, the labour of building forts in which to store supplies and furs, and the opposition of rival merchants. But great as were the obstacles, greater still was the courage of this valiant Frenchman.

Late in August, 1731, Vérendrye and his party, including

his three sons, a nephew, and a Jesuit priest, reached *Le Grand Portage*, forty miles south-west of the Kaministiquia River, leading over the height of land to the waters flowing towards Lake Winnipeg. While the leader spent the winter here with part of his company, the remainder proceeded to Rainy Lake, where a fort was built. The following spring, the whole party pushed on westwards, descending to the mouth of the Maurepas (Winnipeg) River. At this point a series of misfortunes—the failure of funds, the death of his nephew, and the massacre by the Sioux of twenty-one of his party—checked Vérendrye's explorations for a period of six years.

The course of the Vérendrye travels was marked by a series of trading-posts built, at successive stages, on Rainy Lake, on the Lake of the Woods, at the mouth of the Winnipeg River, on the eastern shore of Lake Winnipeg, on the Assiniboine, on Lake Manitoba, and on the Saskatchewan. The work, well begun by the father, was ably carried on by his sons. The youngest son ascended the Saskatchewan as far as the forks of the river. The elder Vérendrye did not succeed in winning his way through to the "Western Sea," but his perseverance in the face of great difficulties had opened channels of trade running to the heart of the Great West.

SUMMARY

For about a quarter of a century a troubled peace prevailed. Though she had lost Acadia, France still clung to Cape Breton. Here the French planted the strong fortress of Louisburg, from which point they continued to exert a strong influence over the Acadians. Throughout the West, French and British were keen rivals in the fur trade. In the hearts of the fur traders was ever present the desire to penetrate the unknown West. In search of the "Western Sea," one French trader, Vérendrye, promoted explorations which extended to the headquarters of the Saskatchewan.

KING GEORGE'S WAR. 1744-1748

85. Upon the eve of war.—It was inevitable that the commercial rivalry of the French and British colonists

should lead to a renewal of war. Channels of trade had to be protected by forts, and the erection of forts implied a claim to territory. The issue was clear. Either the British were to be confined to the Atlantic seaboard or the French to the St. Lawrence valley.

Fully alive to the necessity of preparing for the coming struggle, the French began to strengthen their position by the erection of new forts. Once more Niagara was occupied. The governor of New York, not to be outdone by his rivals, built a fort at Oswego, hoping that the Indians, attracted by the cheap goods of the British traders, would pass by Niagara and come to the new post. This was what happened. The French in turn made a move which gave them a great advantage. On Lake Champlain, the military highway between the two countries, where it narrows down to the width of a river, there was a spot called by the English Crown Point. At this outpost the French erected a strong stone fort.

86. The outbreak of war, 1744.—The situation was ripe for war, and only the pretext lacking. Now, as at the



SIR WILLIAM PEPPERELL

beginning of the century, a European war was the signal for a renewal of hostilities in America. The news of the War of the Austrian Succession came first to Louisburg. The military governor at this point, acting before the British knew of the war, moved against Annapolis. Despite the weakness of the British garrison and the support of the French by some of the Acadians, the attack was a complete failure.

87. The capture of Louisburg.—The attack upon Annapolis angered the British colonists, and

drove them to an undertaking in the very madness of which lay the best hope of its success. Louisburg, next to Quebec, was the strongest fortress on the North American continent,

and a constant source of danger to the British fisheries. For a quarter of a century the French had been fortifying this stronghold, sparing neither skill nor money, and the colonists with their raw troops proposed to capture this apparently impregnable fortress. In 1745 the expedition, consisting of four thousand men, set sail under the command of William Pepperell, a merchant and colonel of militia. Commodore Peter Warren joined the colonists with ten ships-of-war.

Warren blockaded the entrance to the harbour and effectually prevented aid from France. Pepperell landed his troops about four miles up the coast, and cannon were dragged over two miles of marsh to the hills in the rear of the town. A French battery was captured and others planted where they could command the fortress. Meanwhile, Warren had captured a French ship-of-war carrying reinforcements and supplies to the garrison. At last, after a siege of seven weeks, during which the town had been almost destroyed, Warren and Pepperell prepared to make a combined attack; the French commander surrendered.

88. The French lose two fleets.—The French, enraged at the capture of their great stronghold, sent out a fleet of sixty-six sail under the command of the *Duc D'Anville* to recover Louisburg. Disaster followed in the wake of this squadron. The loss of several ships in a gale and the sudden death of the admiral removed all hope of success. It was but a shattered remnant of a proud fleet that sailed back to France. In the following year a second fleet, on its way to conquer Acadia, was met by a British squadron and completely defeated.

89. French designs upon Acadia.—The French, expecting to capture Louisburg, had already prepared to make a descent upon Acadia. A force of several hundred Canadians under M. de Ramesay, had been sent overland from Quebec to aid in an attack upon Annapolis. Upon hearing of the wreck of D'Anville's fleet, Ramesay fell back and took up his position at Chignecto. Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, alarmed by the movements of Ramesay and his Canadians, stationed Colonel Arthur

Noble with a force of five hundred men in the village of Grand Pré. Ramesay, making a sudden dash in mid-winter, caught the British troops off guard and scattered throughout the houses of the settlement. The surprise was complete, and after a stubborn fight in which many of the defenders, including Noble, were killed, the British surrendered. If the Acadians rejoiced at the misfortune of the British, their joy was short-lived, for Shirley at once sent a fresh force to re-occupy the village.

90. French and British dealings with the Iroquois.—And now to turn to the western frontier. Here the balance of power rested with the Iroquois, who, although now nominally British subjects, were yet disposed to avoid a rupture with the French. Both nations were striving to win the friendship of these powerful tribes. British influence in this quarter had been greatly weakened by the failure of two recent expeditions against Montreal, and by the abandonment of an outpost guarding the way to Albany. Just at this time there appeared among the Mohawks a young Irishman named William Johnson, whose popularity with the natives rendered him an invaluable agent of the British. Johnson, who was in charge of an estate upon the Hudson, quickly became a great favourite with the Mohawks, joining them in their games and dances, imitating their dress and manners, they in turn adopting him into their tribe and making him a war chief.

91. A border warfare.—Meanwhile, the French and their allies were inflicting upon the British borders all the tortures of Indian warfare. Within the space of four months, we are told, as many as thirty-five war parties made descents upon the enemy's territory, falling upon lone travellers, killing unprotected women and unarmed labourers. For two years longer the war dragged on, until, in July, 1748, there arrived the welcome news of the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. Both sides were to give up all conquests. As a consequence, Louisburg, was restored to France.

SUMMARY

The opening of channels of trade made necessary the establishment of military outposts. The French occupied Niagara and a strong point

on Lake Champlain. The British colonists in turn built a fort at Oswego. Only the pretext for war was lacking, and this was furnished by the announcement of another European war. From Louisburg the French made an unsuccessful attack upon Annapolis. This attempt provoked the New Englanders to a counter attack. Under the combined assault of a British fleet and a land force of New Englanders, the stronghold of Louisburg was forced to surrender. Meanwhile, the French, with the aid of their Indian allies, were inflicting upon the New England borders all the cruelties of Indian warfare. In 1748 hostilities were again brought to an end by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

PREPARATIONS FOR THE STRUGGLE. 1748-1754

92. **Rival claims of France and Britain.**—That the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was a mere truce, was certainly true as far as America was concerned. In the short period during which the truce continued, there was scarcely a year that did not witness acts of hostility on the part of both French and British. Nor was this unnatural, seeing that the late war had settled none of the differences which had caused it. The claims of France and Great Britain remained unchanged. The French claimed all but the Atlantic seaboard; the British all but the valley of the St. Lawrence.



A MOHAWK CHIEF

93. **The Acadian situation.**—When war broke out in 1745, some of the Acadians remained neutral, others aided the French. When, at the close of the war, Louisburg was restored to France, the British saw the necessity of strengthening their hold upon Acadia. In 1748 Chebucto harbour was chosen as the site of a new, fortified town, now the city of Halifax. The founding of Halifax caused the French to redouble their efforts to keep a hold upon the Acadians. Two hundred were influenced by threats to

move to Ile St. Jean (Prince Edward Island) and to Ile Royale (Cape Breton). The position of the British was strengthened by the building of a fort at Beauhassin, a step taken in spite of the threats of the Micmacs. Upon a low ridge beyond the river Missaquash, within sight of the British fort, the French erected Fort Beausejour. From this point, as well as from Louishurg, they hoped to retain their control over the Acadians

94. **The Ohio valley.**—The outposts which guarded French interests in the West were Niagara, Detroit, Michilimackinac, and Ste. Marie.



THE OHIO VALLEY

Of these the most important was Niagara, controlling as it did both the route to the Upper Lakes and that to the Ohio. To capture this point of vantage would be to cut off the West from Canada. Upon the Ohio the British traders were doing all in their power to seduce the Indians from their friendship with the French, and their efforts were meeting with no little success. To meet this danger the Marquis Duquesne, the governor of Canada, caused two small forts—Le Bœuf and Presqu'île—to be built on the route from Lake Erie to the Ohio.

Meanwhile, the British were not idle. Scarcely had Le Bœuf been erected, when, one December evening, there rode out of the forest before the fort a young officer of the Virginia militia, Major Washington, bearing a letter from the governor of his state warning the French to keep off British territory. Thus did agents, both of Canada and of

the British colonies, take formal possession of the West. Early in the spring of the following year, a small band of Englishmen reached the Ohio River, where now stands the city of Pittsburg, and there proceeded to erect a fort. The work had scarcely been begun when the workmen were interrupted by the sudden appearance of a fleet of canoes manned by Frenchmen. As the newcomers had cannon, resistance would have been madness. The British force promptly withdrew, leaving their rivals in possession of the key to the Ohio valley. This encounter, although bloodless, practically marked the beginning of war, as far, at least, as America was concerned.

Nor was it long before blood was shed. Major Washington, while in command of a detachment engaged in cutting a wagon track in the direction of Fort Duquesne, as the French called their new stronghold, came suddenly upon a scouting party of the enemy. Firing was begun by the British, and the French force, being outnumbered, was forced to surrender. "This obscure skirmish began the war that set the world on fire." Learning of the approach of a larger force of French and Indians, Washington fell back and entrenched himself at a point fittingly called Fort Necessity. Here took place a stubborn fight lasting nine hours, the combatants fighting for the greater part of the time in a down-pour of rain. Washington, whose men were now outnumbered two to one, consented to surrender on condition that he be allowed to march out with all the honours of war. Thus the western campaign of 1754 closed in disaster to the British cause. The loss of Fort Necessity left the country beyond the mountains in the hands of the French, who by their success had completely recovered the good-will and support of the Indian tribes.

SUMMARY

As far as America was concerned, the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was a mere truce. The causes of the recent war had not been removed. The French claimed all the country except the Atlantic seaboard, the British all but the valley of the St. Lawrence. Preparations were made on both sides for a final struggle. In Acadia the British built Fort Beaubassin, and the French Fort Beausejour. The French outposts in the west were Niagara, Detroit, Michilimackinac, and Ste. Marie. On the Ohio, upon the site of the city of Pittsburg, Fort Duquesne was erected.



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CHAPTER XI

THE FALL OF NEW FRANCE

THE CAMPAIGN OF 1755

95. **Lack of unity in the British colonies.**—Although the New England States had had bitter experience of the barbarities of the French and their bloodthirsty allies, the southern colonies could not be brought to realize that a great struggle was impending and that their enemy was seizing the vantage-ground. Already the French had fully occupied the Ohio valley. The colonial assemblies, jealous of one another and hostile towards their governors, could not be brought to united effort against a common foe.

96. **French and British colonies compared.**—It is interesting to estimate the strength of the two parties in the coming conflict. The British colonies contained a population of over a million; the French, including Acadia, only eighty thousand. At first glance it would seem that victory must inevitably have rested with the British colonies, since they outnumbered their enemy twelve to one. Many circumstances, however, tended to make the rival powers very evenly matched. In the first place, the French colony was united and completely controlled by those in authority, while the British colonies were divided, and were not, even as individual states, ready to follow the lead of their governors. Again, the French-Canadians were trained to war, either by service in the army or by experience of fur-trading and bush-fighting, while the British colonists were farmers or tradesmen, who fought only when forced to defend their borders. In Canada, moreover, the governor, or the commander-in-chief, when war broke out, was given a free hand, while the leaders of the English troops were continually hampered by the interference of the colonial assemblies. Finally, the situation of Canada made it easy to defend,

as it could be reached only by a few routes, and those of great difficulty.

97. **Preparations for war.**—Upon the eve of the struggle which was destined to put an end to their long-standing jealousies, Britain and France possessed vastly different resources. The British navy contained over two hundred ships-of-war, the French about half that number. France, on the other hand, had an army of one hundred and eighty thousand,



Britain only a tenth of that force. Each nation realized that supremacy in America was vital to its welfare, and



THE MARQUIS DE VAUDREUIL.

each was now prepared to send more aid to its colonists than had been sent in previous wars. At almost the same time, General Braddock with two regiments of regulars, sailed for New York, and Baron Dieskau with three thousand French troops for Quebec. With the latter force came the Marquis de Vaudreuil, who was to succeed Duquesne as governor.

98. **Braddock's march upon Fort Duquesne.**—Without delay, the British plan of campaign was outlined. The French were to be

attacked at four points: Duquesne, Niagara, Crown Point, and Beausejour. Braddock took command in person of

the expedition against Fort Duquesne. So great were the difficulties of the march that the army made little more than three miles a day; it took nearly two months to reach the neighbourhood of the French fort. The French commander, on learning of the enemy's approach, decided not to await an assault, but to march out and lay an ambuscade for the invaders. Braddock's main body was just entering a thickly wooded ravine when it was met with a shower of bullets from a force of nine hundred French-Canadians and Indians, who lay completely hidden in the surrounding woods. The British regulars stood firm and returned the fire, while the Indians began to close in upon both flanks, still keeping to cover. Sixty-three officers and nine hundred men fell under the deadly fire of the hidden enemy. Braddock had four horses shot under him, and was mounting a fifth when a bullet entered his breast. The fall of their leader was a signal for a general retreat of the invaders.

99. **The British capture Beausejour.**—Meanwhile, on the scene of the eastern conflict, important events had happened. Fort Beausejour, the strongest post in Acadia, had fallen into the hands of the British after a feeble defence. Several smaller French forts on the Bay of Fundy shared the fate of their more powerful neighbour. All Acadia was now in British hands. Fort Beausejour was renamed Fort Cumberland.

100. **The removal of the Acadians.**—Immediately after the fall of Beausejour, the British authorities, feeling that for many years the Acadians, while nominally subject to Great Britain, had in reality been in sympathy with the cause of France and had in some cases aided the French in war, resolved that it was no longer safe to allow this condition of affairs to continue. It was decided to require of them an unconditional oath of allegiance to the British sovereign, and, in the event of their refusal, to remove them from the country. Practically all declined to take the oath, and the work of deportation was at once begun. After some delay, occasioned by the difficulty of securing the necessary ships,

the unfortunate Acadians were placed on board and removed from the country, care being taken to keep families together, and even members of the same village. The total number of exiles, men, women, and children, was about six thousand. Most of them were carried to the British colonies, being scattered here and there from Massachusetts to Georgia.

101. **Johnson defeats Dieskau.**—The third move in the campaign of 1755 was directed against Crown Point, the stronghold from which the French had for many years threatened the New England colonies. William Johnson, because of his influence over the Iroquois, was chosen to lead this expedition. No sooner had he gathered his three thousand provincials than he was joined by a swarm of Mohawk warriors. The whole force moved up to the lower end of Lake George, where, before the close of the season, Fort William Henry was constructed. Baron Dieskau, too impatient to await the advance of the invaders, threw his force of three thousand five hundred upon Johnson's camp. In the battle that followed, the French, though at first victorious, were finally beaten and put to flight, and Dieskau himself was captured. Although the whole retreating force was at his mercy, Johnson made no use of his victory.



SIR WILLIAM JOHNSON

102. **Shirley fails to reach Niagara.**—The fourth and last movement of the year was that against Niagara, entrusted to the command of Major-General Shirley. The Mohawk River and Lake Oneida, with the intervening *portage*, afforded a route to the stream flowing into Lake Ontario at Oswego. Here the news of Braddock's defeat so discouraged the invaders that many deserted. Deciding

that his force was not strong enough to take Niagara, Shirley reinforced Oswego and then returned Albany.

SUMMARY

The British colonies entered into the final struggle for the supremacy of North America with an overwhelming advantage of numbers. They outnumbered the French twelve to one. This advantage was fully offset by other decided advantages possessed by the French—unity, discipline, experience in bush-fighting, and a territory easy of defence. Both Britain and France gave greatly increased aid to their colonies. In the campaign of 1755, the British were defeated in their advance upon Fort Duquesne, and failed in their attempt upon Niagara; but won a victory at Lake George, and completed the conquest of Acadia. The French succeeded in holding Fort Duquesne, Niagara, and Crown Point; but were defeated by the New Englanders and lost their last hold on Acadia.

THE CAMPAIGNS OF 1756 AND 1757

103. **The Marquis de Montcalm.**—It was not until the spring of 1756, after a year of hostilities in America and on the sea, that Britain and France formally declared war. No war in which Great Britain ever engaged has had a greater effect on the growth of the British Empire than this Seven Years' War, as it is called.



THE MARQUIS DE MONTCALM

France recalled Dieskau and placed in command of her colonial troops the Marquis de Montcalm, "an honourable man, of good morals, brave, and a Christian." Montcalm entered the army at the age of fifteen, so that at the time of his appointment to command in Canada he had seen thirty years of service. With the commander-in-chief came the Chevalier de Lévis as second in command.

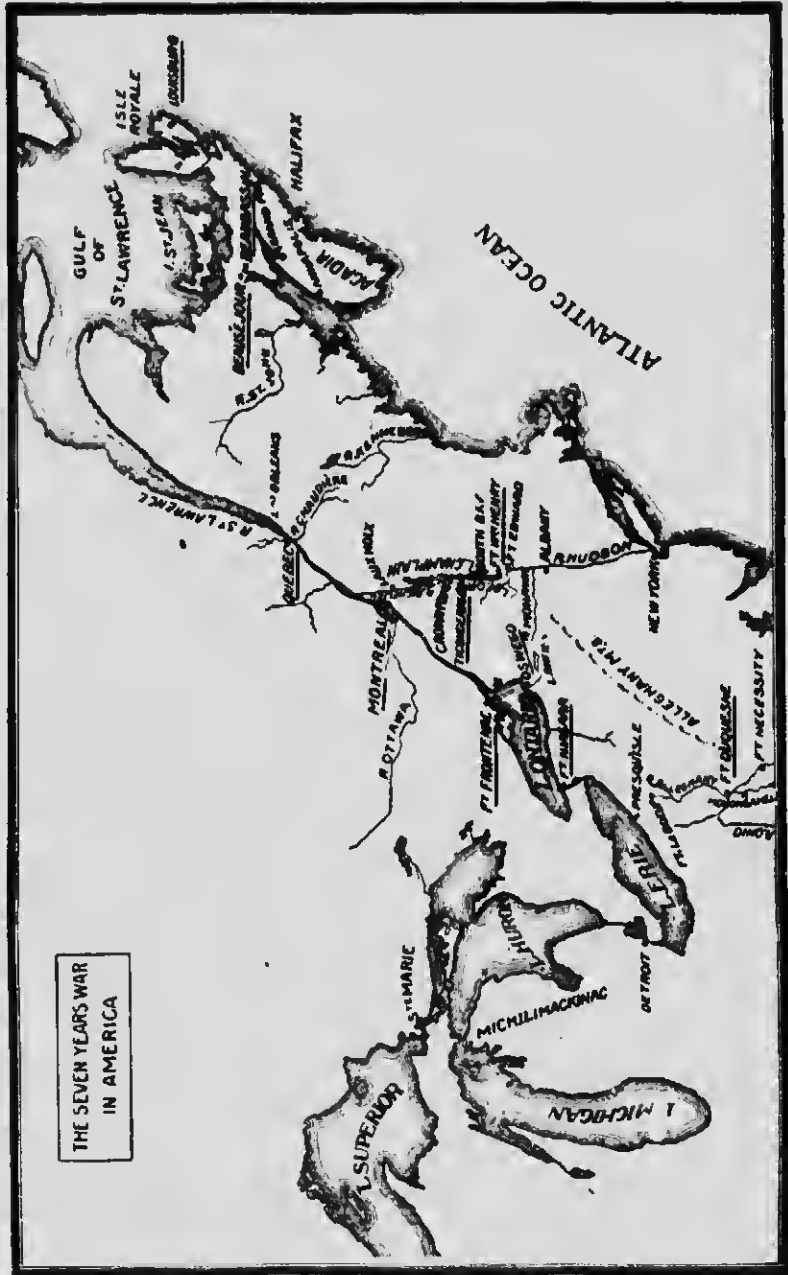
The meeting of Montcalm and Vaudreuil, the governor, was far from friendly. The latter, jealous of power, had hoped to command the French forces in person, and moreover, being a Canadian by birth, he did not get on well with the officers who came out from France. Montcalm, on the other hand, although of a more frank and generous disposition, was often impulsive in his dealings with the governor. Vaudreuil was his superior in office, but vastly his inferior in military capacity.

Meanwhile, the French, alarmed by exaggerated reports of the British plans for the coming campaign, were putting forth every effort to strengthen their defences. Ticonderoga, a point controlling the junction of Lakes Champlain and George, was fortified, Niagara was rebuilt, and the defences of Fort Frontenac strengthened.

104. The campaign of 1756.—The year of 1756 was one of failure and disaster for the British, due mainly to the incapacity of their leaders and to frequent changes in command. Shirley, who was in charge of affairs at the opening of the campaign, was succeeded by General James Abercrombie, and he in turn by the Earl of Loudon. Taking advantage of Loudon's slowness, the French made a sudden move against Oswego. Fort, vessels, and stores were all destroyed. This easy victory was one of great importance, as it gave to the French complete control of Lake Ontario.

105. The campaign of 1757.—The capture of Oswego had won over the Indian tribes, all except the Mohawks, who were still kept faithful to the British by Johnson's influence. Montcalm's forces were strengthened by a reinforcement of over two thousand regulars from France. Hearing that a British fleet was about to attack Louisburg, Loudon withdrew most of his troops from Lake George to co-operate with this movement. Montcalm seized the opportunity to hurl his whole force of eight thousand men against Fort William Henry. The fall of the fort was inevitable as the result of Loudon's blunder, yet the record of three hundred killed tells of the stubborn stand made by the plucky garrison.

106. Corruption at Quebec.—While New France was being faithfully served by Montcalm and his men on the



field of battle, her strength was being sapped by the roguery of dishonest officials at the capital. Quebec was, and had been for years, filled with corruption. At the head of its corrupt citizens stood the intendant Bigot. The intendant, even in time of war, entertained lavishly. All were made welcome to his huge dancing-hall. Gambling was the common feature of his entertainment, the host himself playing for enormous stakes. Bigot, at the head of a group of men as unscrupulous as himself, was guilty of all manner of frauds, perpetrated alike upon the king and upon the people.

SUMMARY

The cause of France was strengthened by the appointment of Montcalm to command. Ticonderoga was fortified, and the fortifications of Niagara and Frontenac were strengthened. The campaigns of 1756 and 1757 were disastrous to the British, mainly through the incapacity of their leaders and frequent changes in command. Oswego, on Lake Ontario, and Fort William Henry, on Lake George, were captured by the French.

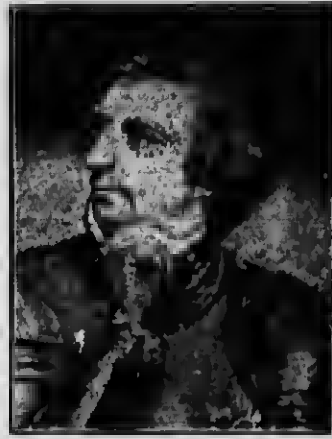
THE CAMPAIGN OF 1758

107. **William Pitt.**—The campaign of 1757 had been disastrous to the British; the outlook for the coming year was gloomy indeed. But through the prevailing gloom there shot one gleam of sunshine; a change had taken place in the British government; control of the war had passed from the corrupt and incompetent Newcastle to the upright and capable Pitt. The latter had a free hand in the appointment of generals and admirals. The new minister had no lack of self-confidence. "I am sure," he said, "that I can save this country and that nobody else can." And save it he did. Not only did he choose strong leaders in the place of weak, but he put heart into many who had failed under Newcastle's direction.



WILLIAM PITT,
EARL OF CHATHAM

The campaign of 1758 aimed at the capture of three places, Louisburg, Ticonderoga, and Duquesne. There were radical changes in the leadership. With Pitt, military genius, not social station, carried weight. Loudon was at once recalled, and although Abercrombie was allowed to succeed him, it was only because his staff included Brigadier Lord Howe. It was hoped that the latter would make up for any weakness on the part of the commander-in-chief. To conduct the Louisburg expedition Pitt chose Colonel Jeffrey Amherst, and to support him a staff of three brigadiers, one of them Colonel James Wolfe. A strong fleet, under the command of Admiral Boscawen, was to assist in the attack. Brigadier John Forbes was placed in command of the undertaking against the French stronghold on the Ohio. Two regiments of Scottish Highlanders were sent out to America.



GENERAL AMHERST

108. **Amherst takes Louisburg.**—Louisburg, which had been greatly strengthened since its restoration to the French in 1748, was now garrisoned by three thousand regular troops, while in the harbour rode a fleet of twelve ships, manned by nearly three thousand men. The rocky shore afforded only three possible landing-places in the neighbourhood of the town, and these were strongly fortified. Amherst threatened all three places at once, the real attack being made at Freshwater Cove, which was farthest from the town. Here the defenders had stationed their strongest guard, which offered such a determined resistance that Wolfe, who was in command of the attacking party, at first despaired of success. Later, seeing a possible opening, the gallant young leader threw his entire force into it, and, carrying only his cane, was himself the first into the surf and up the steep face of the rocky shore. The landing was

while in the harbour rode a fleet of twelve ships, manned by nearly three thousand men. The rocky shore afforded only three possible landing-places in the neighbourhood of the town, and these were strongly fortified. Amherst threatened all three places at once, the real attack being made at Freshwater Cove, which was farthest from the town. Here the defenders had stationed their strongest guard, which offered such a determined resistance that Wolfe, who was in command of the attacking party, at first despaired of success. Later, seeing a possible opening, the gallant young leader threw his entire force into it, and, carrying only his cane, was himself the first into the surf and up the steep face of the rocky shore. The landing was

quickly won, and all the shore guards, now fearing an attack in the rear, abandoned their positions and withdrew into the town.

The siege was mainly a repetition of that conducted by Pepperell thirteen years earlier. Cannon were dragged overland and batteries set up in the rear of the town, while a detachment, circling the harbour, took possession of the battery on Lighthouse Point. From this vantage-ground the island battery was dismantled, and the harbour thus opened to the British fleet. To make matters worse for the



besieged, a chance bomb set fire to their ships. The garrison, now in a hopeless position, surrendered, and Louisbourg passed for the last time into the hands of the British. Amherst hastened at once to the support of Abercrombie at Lake George.

109. **Abercrombie's advance upon Ticonderoga.**—Meanwhile, all was in readiness for the enterprise on Lake George. Abercrombie was stationed at Fort William Henry, with a force of fifteen thousand regulars and provincials, while Montcalm lay entrenched at Ticonderoga with about half that number. On the march against the French fort, the

British army, in a skirmish with a scouting party of the enemy, sustained a great loss in the death of Lord Howe, who, in Wolfe's words, was "the noblest Englishman of his time, and the best soldier in the British army." The advance, however, was continued. Montcalm, instead of waiting an attack upon Ticonderoga, prepared to receive the invaders at a ridge half a mile from the fort, where a strong barricade had been constructed by felling trees. Abercrombie, without waiting for his cannon, flung his men against the face of the barricade. Then followed a frightful slaughter in which the British soldiers, tripped by briars and entangled by fallen trees, were shot down by the hidden enemy. Nineteen hundred killed and wounded was the price paid for Abercrombie's folly.

110. Capture of Fort Frontenac.—The gloom overhanging Abercrombie's camp was partly dispelled by the news of a British victory on Lake Ontario. A force of three thousand men had swooped down unexpectedly upon Fort Frontenac, captured the garrison, and seized the entire French fleet of nine vessels carrying a supply of provisions for the western posts. The loss of Fort Frontenac was a heavy blow to the French, for with it was lost control of Lake Ontario. The western posts were now cut off from their base of supplies.

111. Forbes takes Fort Duquesne.—When Brigadier Forbes reached Fort Duquesne he found that the garrison had destroyed the fort and had retreated to Lake Erie, as the failure of supplies resulting from the capture of Fort Frontenac had made it impossible to offer resistance. The possession of Fort Pitt, as the newly acquired post was renamed, opened the West to the British and robbed the French of many of their Indian allies.

SUMMARY

The control of the war had passed into the hands of William Pitt. Many changes were made in the leadership of the British forces. Younger and abler men were placed in command. The plans for the campaign of 1758 aimed at the capture of Lnuishurg, Ticonderoga, and Duquesne. The close of the campaign left France greatly weakened. In the East, Lnuishurg had fallen, and in the West Fort Duquesne, while the loss of Fort Frontenac threatened the safety of the western posts. Only at Ticonderoga had the British been repulsed.

THE CAMPAIGN OF 1759

112. **Wolfe.**—The British plan of campaign for 1759 included three movements. Wolfe, with a fleet in command of Admiral Saunders, was to storm Quebec, while Amherst attacked Ticonderoga, and Brigadier Prideaux, Niagara. The best hope of the nation lay in the youthful commander whom Pitt had picked out for promotion. Wolfe was thirty-two when he assumed command against Quebec, but he had already served in the army for seventeen years. Upon the fields of Dettingen and Culloden he had fought for his king, and at twenty-three he held the rank of lieutenant-colonel. "My utmost desire and ambition," he once said to his mother, "is to look stendily upon danger." And surely his ambition was attained, for never was he cooler than in the thick of battle.



GENERAL WOLFE

113. **Wolfe begins the siege of Quebec.**—What the French most feared was an invasion by way of Lake Champlain. They therefore stationed a strong force at Ticonderoga, with instructions to hold out as long as possible, and then to fall back upon Crown Point, and, if necessary, as far as Ile aux Noix. Another detachment was stationed at the head of the St. Lawrence to bar any advance from Lake Ontario. While the attention of all was fixed upon the Richelieu and the upper St. Lawrence, there came the startling news that a British fleet was about to attack Quebec. Immediately all available men were hurried to the capital, and the defences made ready for the threatened blow. When Wolfe sailed up the river past the Island of Orleans, there met his view a sight which might well have discouraged even a braver man than he. From

the Montmorency to the St. Charles, a distance of eight miles, the shore was lined with entrenchments, behind which lay fourteen thousand Frenchmen, together with their Indian allies. Within the city there was a garrison of two thousand men, and upon its walls were mounted a hundred cannon. Beyond the city the steepness of the river's banks made the heights above inaccessible, save in a few places, and these were carefully guarded.

The force entrusted to Wolfe for the capture of Quebec consisted of nine thousand men of all ranks. In command of the fleet was Admiral Saunders, who was instructed to co-operate with Wolfe in the attack on the city. The fleet included thirty-nine ships-of-war, ten auxiliaries, seventy-six transports, and one hundred and fifty-two small craft for service during the siege, and was manned by about eighteen thousand men. The total British force before Quebec numbered twenty-seven thousand.

Landing most of his troops upon the Island of Orleans, Wolfe began operations by setting up on Point Lévis a battery whose fire swept the Lower Town, soon making it uninhabitable. His next move was to land a force of three thousand men below the Montmorency, with the object of attacking the enemy upon the flank, and, if possible, in the rear. The French, however, were not to be surprised in this quarter, and the besiegers, although they had caused the besieged great annoyance, were no nearer capturing the city than when they arrived. "You will demolish the town, no doubt," read a message from within, "but you shall never get inside of it." To this Wolfe replied, "I will have Quebec if I stay here till the end of November."

News that Niagara had been attacked and that Amherst was advancing against Ticonderoga had the effect of causing many of the Canadians to desert. The French on two occasions made a determined effort to destroy the British fleet by sending against it fire-ships and burning rafts. Only the daring of the British seamen, who rowed out and towed the burning monsters ashore, saved the fleet from destruction. On the last day of July, Wolfe lost four hun-

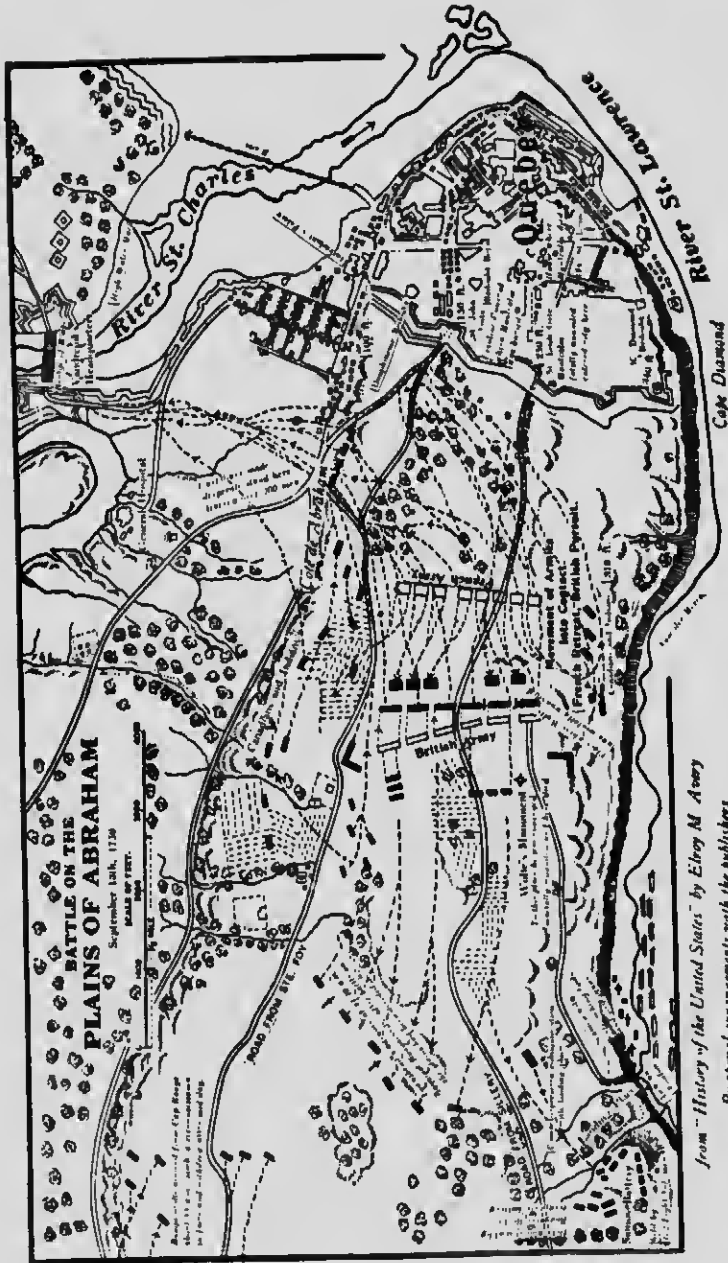
dred and fifty men in an unsuccessful attack above the falls of Montmorency.

114. The failure of Amherst to join Wolfe.—While Wolfe was vainly striving to enter Quebec, the two western movements under Amherst and Prideaux were in progress. By the end of June, Amherst reached the head of Lake George with eleven thousand men. As he advanced from this point the enemy gave way before him, abandoning Ticonderoga, and then Crown Point. Instead of hastening to the aid of Wolfe, Amherst lost much valuable time in building forts.

115. Prideaux and Johnson take Niagara.—Meanwhile, Prideaux was approaching the end of his journey. Garrisoned by a force of six hundred, and well provided with supplies, Niagara offered a determined resistance. Early in the siege Prideaux was killed, and his place was taken by Sir William Johnson. Under the latter's energetic leadership, a strong relief force advancing from the west defeated the garrison, and forced it to surrender. The fall of Niagara completed the isolation of Detroit, Michilimackinac, and the other western posts.

116. The fall of Quebec.—The siege of Quebec had, meanwhile, entered upon a new phase. Part of the British fleet had escaped the fire of the French batteries and gathered above Quebec, and the French had stationed a force of fifteen hundred men on the heights beyond the city. Great was the discouragement of the besieged when news arrived of the fall of Ticonderoga, Crown Point, and Niagara, but equally great their joy when it became known that Amherst was not, as they expected, advancing upon Montreal. The report of Amherst's failure cast a gloom over the British camp, which was deepened by the sudden illness of their leader. For five days Wolfe was dangerously ill, but at the end of that time he began to rally, "to the inconceivable joy of the whole army."

As the season was drawing to a close, Wolfe now resolved, as a last resource, to attempt a landing by scaling the heights above Quebec. If successful at this point, he might cut off Montreal from the base of his supplies. A new purpose in



mind seemed to give him fresh strength of body. Drawing off the detachment from the Montmorency, he gathered a force of thirty-six hundred men on the fleet above the city. At the same time he ordered twelve hundred at Point Lévis to be in readiness to join him. He felt certain that, once he had his troops landed above the city, he could win a decisive victory. The general orders issued to the army the night before the battle, close with the sentence, "The officers and men will remember what their country expects of them."

The place chosen for the intended landing was the *Anse du Foulon*, afterwards called Wolfe's Cove, about a mile and a half from the city. Under cover of a dark night, the 12th of September, 1759, a fleet of small boats drifted silently down the river, one of the foremost bearing the commander-in-chief, who amid the stillness of the night is said to have repeated softly Gray's "Elegy." Under the shadow of his approaching death no more fitting words could have fallen from the hero's lips than

"The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

Landing upon the strand at the base of the heights, twenty-four volunteers led the way up the narrow path. The sound of musket-shots and loud huzzas told Wolfe that the heights had been scaled and the guards overcome. Then the whole force went scrambling up the embankment, grasping trees and bushes. The morning light fell upon the British army drawn up in line of battle about a mile from the city, upon the Plains of Abraham. What seemed impossible had been accomplished.

Montealm, upon learning what had happened, hurried out to attack the enemy. In irregular order the French advanced, shouting and firing as soon as they came within range. The British stood still until the French were within forty paces, when, at the word of command, they fired a deadly volley into the advancing line. Then followed a general charge with bayonets and broadswords. Wolfe led until he fell, shot through the breast. As he was being carried to the rear, he overheard one of his men cry, "They run; see

how they run!" "Who run?" Wolfe demanded. "The enemy, sir. They give way everywhere!" Turning on his side, the dying man murmured, "Now, God be praised, I will die in peace!" The French, too, lost their leader. That night, within the walls of Quebec, Montcalm lay



MONTCALM ENTERING QUEBEC AFTER
THE BATTLE

mortally wounded. When told by the physician that he had only twelve hours to live, he remarked, "So much the better. I am happy that I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec." The British loss in the engagement was fifty-eight killed and five hundred and ninety-seven wounded, while the French had one thousand two hundred men killed, wounded, or taken prisoners. The three French brigadiers fell on the battlefield.

The defeat of the French on the Plains threw Vaudreuil into a panic.

He hurriedly left the city taking most of the troops with him, and began a most disgraceful retreat. Ramesay was left in command with a few hundred soldiers, but these were without provisions. Just as a combined attack by the British army and fleet was about to be made, Ramesay surrendered, and the capital of New France had, for the second, and as it

proved the last time, passed into British possession. The news of the victory filled Britain with joy, tinged, however, with sadness at the memory of the hero who had fallen in the hour of his triumph.

SUMMARY

Once more, in the campaign of 1759, the British planned a threefold attack upon the enemy. Wolfe was to storm Quebec, Amherst was to attack Ticonderoga, and Pideaux Niagara. All three undertakings were successfully carried out, Wolfe's capture of Quebec being the crowning triumph of the war.

THE CAMPAIGN OF 1760

117. **Attempt of the French to retake Quebec.**—During the winter the French concentrated at Montreal and Ile aux Noix. Early in the spring they set out to attack Quebec, which had been left in charge of General Murray. The British general ordered his men under arms and marched out to meet the enemy. In the battle of Sainte Foye which followed, Murray lost about one-third of his army and was forced to retreat within the city. The French,



VIEW OF MONTREAL, 1760

however, whose loss had been much greater, were too exhausted to follow up their advantage at once. They now

began a regular siege, which Murray sustained with great difficulty. As the river cleared of ice, both armies looked eagerly for help from beyond the sea. When at last a ship was sighted, every eye was strained to see the flag floating from her masthead. When the red cross of St. George was slowly unfurled to the breeze, the French force fell back upon Montreal.

118. **The fall of Montreal.**—The course of French rule in Canada was all but run. The outcome of the campaign of 1760 was at no time in doubt. The British plans left the enemy no loophole of escape. One force ascended the St. Lawrence from Quebec, a second entered by Lake Champlain, while the main army, under Amherst, descended the St. Lawrence from Lake Ontario, all converging upon Montreal. Finally, the three armies, numbering seventeen thousand men, encamped about the doomed city. To resist was madness. On September 8th Vaudreuil signed the terms of capitulation. "Half the continent," it has been said, "changed hands at the scratch of a pen."

119. **The peace of Paris.**—It was not until February, 1763, that the terms of peace were finally agreed upon at Paris, and the Seven Years' War was brought to a close. The gains of Great Britain were enormous. France ceded to the British, Canada and all her possessions on the North American continent east of the Mississippi River, except the city of New Orleans and a small adjacent district. She renounced her claims to Acadia, and gave up to the conqueror the Island of Cape Breton, and all other islands in the Gulf and River of St. Lawrence. Spain, in return for Havana, surrendered Florida and all her other possessions east of the Mississippi. France, subject to certain restrictions, was left free to fish in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and off a part of the coast of Newfoundland, and the two little islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon were given her as fishing-stations, on condition that she should not fortify or garrison them.

120. **The French in Canada.**—The peace of Paris marked the close of French rule in Canada. From the history of New France, throughout its two centuries, stand forth

conspicuously the deeds of great men in peace and war: of Cartier, the pioneer navigator of the St. Lawrence; of Champlain and Maisonneuve, those pious colonizers whose faithful labours have found most honourable monuments in the historic cities of Quebec and Montreal; of La



WOLFE'S MONUMENT IN
WESTMINSTER ABBEY

Salle, that dauntless explorer, whose perseverance in the face of disaster is the marvel of all who read; of Frontenac, that proud, martial spirit, but for whose military genius New France had fallen a half-century earlier; of Talon and Laval, faithful ministers, the one of his king, the other of his church; and lastly, of Montcalm, courtly gentleman, whose gallantry in the hour of defeat did honour to himself and to his country. Truly no country ever had more devoted servants than had New France. Their service would have built up a lasting empire in America but

for ever-present evils, which were still evils in spite of apparent advantages in each: in colonization, the restrictions placed upon immigration; in government, the suppression of the people's voice; in society, the crushing by feudalism of the *habitant's* independence.

SUMMARY

During the winter of 1670 the French concentrated at Montreal. In the spring they laid siege to Quebec, but were forced to withdraw again to Montreal. Later in the season three British forces converged upon the last standing ground of the French, and Montreal surrendered. By the peace of Paris, 1763, Canada was formally ceded to Great Britain.

CHAPTER XII

EARLY BRITISH RULE

1760-1774

121. **The French-Canadians reconciled.**—The passing of Canada from French to British hands caused but slight change in the population. The higher officials, a few seigniors, and many merchants—in all about four hundred—returned to France. The *habitants*, however, chose to remain and to share in the new order of things. War, by interrupting agriculture, had brought them severe privations; and now that peace was restored, they gladly returned to their neglected farms. Doubtless some of the seigniors and clergy hoped soon to see Canada restored to France; but even these, won by the fairness and leniency of British rule, gradually became reconciled to the change which had taken place.

During the first three years after the conquest, the government was military in character. Three districts, Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal, were formed, and over each a military officer presided. It was the aim of General Murray, who held supreme command, to gain the confidence of the French-Canadians by just government. As far as possible they were left to manage their affairs according to their own laws and usages.

122. **The western Indians oppose British rule.**—The occupation of Canada, however, was not completed without a further struggle. Immediately after the surrender of Montreal, General Amherst had sent a small force of British soldiers to garrison the western forts. The neighbouring Indian tribes regarded with disfavour this change of allies, or masters, as the case might be. French traders and agents assured them that their only hope lay in aiding to restore Canada to the French. They were told that the king of

France was preparing a large army to recover Canada, and that the British would soon be driven out of the country. The Indians were the more readily influenced because of their liking for the French and their hatred of the less tactful British. The former had always treated them as friends and allies, while the latter had shown a disposition to regard them as a subject race.

The discontent of the Indians found its storm centre in a chief of the Ottawas named Pontiac. Combining the good and the bad of the Indian character, Pontiac marred courage and generosity with exhibitions of vanity and treachery. His plans for driving out the unwelcome newcomers included a general rising of the western tribes from Michilimackinac to the valley of the Ohio. Everywhere strategy took the place of force. At Detroit, a band of chiefs, headed by Pontiac himself, entered the council-chamber of the commandant, with short muskets concealed under their long cloaks. The plot was foiled, so the story goes, by an Indian maiden who had given warning to the commandant, with whom she had fallen in love. At Michilimackinac, the wily enemy invited the commandant and his men to witness a game of lacrosse outside the fort. While the play was in progress, the ball was purposely thrown close to the gate, whereupon the players, rushing after it, suddenly dashed within the palisades, and, seizing the arms which their squaws had meanwhile smuggled in, quickly mastered the garrison. So successful was the rising as a whole that within six weeks nine forts had fallen, and their garrisons had been either massacred or reserved to be the victims of inhuman torture. News of the peace of Paris proved to the Indians that France had really given up Canada to Great Britain. Two military expeditions restored peace to the troubled frontier. A few years later, Pontiac, last champion of the cause of France in Canada, was murdered by a drunken Illinois warrior.

123. **Proclamation of George III.**—In 1763 the proclamation of George III brought about a change from military to civil government. Labrador, Anticosti, and the Magdalen Islands were joined to Newfoundland, while St. John (Prince Edward Island) and Ile Royale (Cape Breton) became

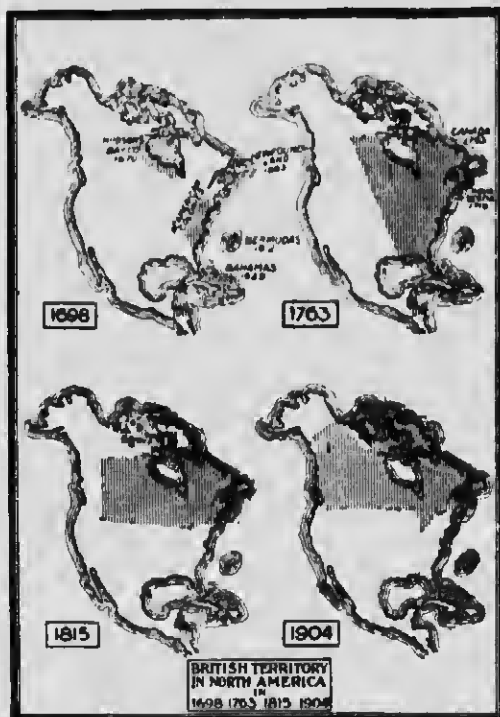
part of Nova Scotia. Canada was made a British province and renamed Quebec. The government was to consist of a governor, an advisory Council, and an Assembly. The members of the latter body were to be required to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, thereby denying certain doctrines of the Catholic faith. General Murray, who was appointed governor, chose a Council of twelve members, including only one French-Canadian; but no

Assembly met, as the French-Canadians were unwilling to take the required oaths. A wise provision was made for fair dealings with the Indians. No private person could buy land directly from them, and purchase could be made only through the governor and from the Indians gathered in council.

During the next ten years the country was in a troubled state, owing to a general uncertainty in regard to the laws.

The "new subjects,"

as the French-Canadians were called, held that in the administration of justice their "ancient customs and usages" should prevail. The "old subjects," on the other hand, were of the opinion that the king's proclamation had done away with these, and had introduced British laws. The French-Canadians did not like trial by jury, preferring the decisions of a judge, a form of trial to which they had long been accustomed. The English-speaking citizens,



in turn, objected to the feudal system, being used to holding property in their own name. Fortunately for the peace of the colony, Governor Murray ruled in such a way as to satisfy the majority, composed of over sixty thousand French-Canadians, refusing to be guided by the mere handful of English-speaking citizens, numbering in all about five hundred. That the governor did not admire the character of the "old subjects" may be judged from one of his letters, in which he speaks of them as "men of mean education, traders, mechanics, publicans, followers of the army."

121. **The Quebec Act, 1774.**—The discontent of both "old" and "new subjects" made a change in government absolutely necessary. Sir Guy Carleton, who succeeded Governor Murray, made a careful study of the condition of the province, and then went to England to take part in the discussion of a new constitution. When he returned, it was to put into force the terms of the Act passed by the Imperial Parliament in 1774, known as the Quebec Act. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were extended, on the one side, to the New England States and the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, on the other, to the Hudson Bay Territory. Labrador, Anticosti, and the Magdalen Islands, which had been joined to Newfoundland in 1763, were added to Quebec. The new constitution provided for a governor and an appointed Legislative Council. It was thought "inexpedient to call an Assembly." The Council was to have the power to make ordinances for the "peace, welfare, and good government" of the province. The right of taxation, however, was withheld, except in the case of money raised for local improvements. All disputes relating to property and civil



SIR GUY CARLETON, LORD
DORCHESTER

rights were to be settled by French civil law, but in all criminal cases British law was to prevail. The Roman Catholics were allowed to retain their religion in all freedom, and their clergy to enjoy their "accustomed dues and rights." Further, they were freed from the necessity of taking any oath whereby they would renounce their faith. In the first Legislative Council, of twenty-three members, nominated by Governor Carleton, there were eight Roman Catholics.

It is not surprising that a measure which made so great concessions to the French met with strong opposition. The English-speaking subjects within the province opposed it on the ground that it substituted French for British law. The Earl of Chatham in debate termed it "a most cruel, oppressive, and odious measure." The British Parliament, however, was influenced by a desire to conciliate the majority of the Canadian people. How wise their decision was, events quickly proved. Within a year the French-Canadians were face to face with the temptation to be disloyal to Great Britain, and the fact that they did not yield is a lasting tribute to the wisdom of the statesmen who framed the Quebec Act.

SUMMARY

When Canada was transferred to Great Britain the majority of the French colonists remained in the country. The government for the first three years was military in character. The only serious protest against British occupation was a rising of the western tribes under Pontiac. The proclamation of George III, in 1763, provided a new form of government consisting of a governor, a Council, and an Assembly. No Assembly met. For ten years great discontent prevailed, the French and the English-speaking citizens being accustomed to different laws. In 1774 the Quebec Act brought about a better state of affairs. French civil law was employed in disputes relating to property, British law in all criminal cases. The French-Canadians were allowed freedom of religion.

CHAPTER XIII
REBELLION AND LOYALTY

1774-1784

125. **The American Revolutionary War.**—The close of the Seven Years' War found Great Britain in possession of seventeen colonies extending along the Atlantic coast from Newfoundland to Georgia, each with a separate government. In view of the natural movement of settlers westwards, the possession of these colonies meant the virtual control of the North American continent. When, upon the Plains of Abraham, Wolfe, with his dying breath, thanked God for his victory, he little thought that, of the continent which he had helped to win for Great Britain, one-half was soon to be torn away amid scenes of rebellion. Yet, even while the peace of Paris was under discussion, some keen-sighted statesmen expressed the fear that the removal of a hostile power from their frontier would render the American colonies too independent of British protection. The justification of this fear is to be found in the events of the American Revolutionary War, which broke out twelve years later.

The cause of the war must be sought alike in the folly of the British government and in the impatience of the American colonists. George III, although honest and eager to do what was best for the empire, was yet short-sighted and obstinate. To make matters worse, he was surrounded by ministers who were too weak to oppose him when he was wrong. The colonists were first irritated by restrictions placed upon their trade with foreign countries. These restrictions led to wholesale smuggling, and this evil, in turn, to the seizure of ships and to frequent rioting. It was at this point that Great Britain decided to tax the colonies in order to help defray the expenses of the late war. The colonists protested that, as they had no representatives in

the British Parliament, they could not fairly be taxed by that body. So strong was the protest that the Stamp Act, the measure which had given offence, was repealed. Unfortunately, light duties were placed upon tea and a few other articles. Then followed the riot, in which a number of colonists, disguised as Indians, threw overboard a cargo of tea; and, in punishment of this lawless act, came the closing of Boston harbour. The outbreak of war was not long delayed. In a skirmish at Lexington began the struggle which ended in the loss to Great Britain of thirteen of her American colonies.

Lying side by side with the rebellious colonies, Quebec could not but play an important part in the war. Strong appeals were made to the French-Canadians to join in the rebellion. Delegates from the colonies criticized the Quebec Act, saying that it represented Roman Catholic tyranny. Later, seeing their mistake in attacking a measure so popular among the French-Canadians, they called upon the latter to rise in the name of freedom. The majority of French-Canadians were, however, indifferent to the cause of the rebellion, being well satisfied with the just rule of Great Britain. The influence, moreover, of the clergy and seigniors was steadily on the side of loyalty. In Montreal and the city of Quebec were to be found the few who sympathized with the rebels, mainly "old subjects" who were discontented at having little share in the government.

Quebec, having resisted the temptation to be disloyal, was made the object of attack at the very outset of the war. By the old Lake Champlain route the invaders entered. Already Crown Point and Ticonderoga had fallen. The province was but ill prepared for war, as there were no more than eight hundred regulars in the colony. To make matters worse, many of the English-speaking citizens of the larger towns were anything but loyal, while the indifference of the French-Canadians, although it kept them aloof from rebellion, made the majority of them useless for active service. Fortunately there stood at the head of the government, in the person of Sir Guy Carleton, one who was both a statesman

and a general. He had been a close friend of Wolfe, and had taken part in the siege of Quebec in 1759.

In the autumn of 1775 the threatened blow fell. General Montgomery, with a force of colonials, captured the forts on the Richelieu and advanced upon Montreal. This place Carleton had wisely abandoned, and had succeeded in reaching Quebec after a perilous journey. A second force of invaders, under General Benedict Arnold, entered the province by way of the Kennebec and Chaudière rivers. Montgomery and Arnold joined forces before the city of Quebec. In view of the strength of the attacking forces and the weakness of the garrison, it speaks well for the generalship of Carleton that the invaders were foiled. In a night attack, Montgomery was killed, Arnold wounded, and the latter's followers, over four hundred in number, were forced to surrender. All winter the Americans hung about the city, but in the spring the arrival of a British fleet forced them to retire to Montreal and later to withdraw from the country. British garrisons again occupied the forts on the Richelieu, and in a naval contest on Lake Champlain, Carleton succeeded in destroying the enemy's fleet.

At this juncture the king, acting upon the advice of an unwise minister, removed Carleton from command, and appointed in his place General Burgoyne, a greatly inferior officer. At the head of a strong force, the new commander set forth upon an expedition against New York. At Saratoga, a short distance down the Hudson River, he allowed himself to be hemmed in by the enemy, and was forced to surrender his entire army. Hampered by the orders of an incompetent war minister, Carleton resigned in 1778, and was succeeded by Sir Frederick Haldimand. In the face of constant danger of invasion and despite the presence of disloyalty within the provinces, the new governor succeeded in holding the outlying forts and even found time to build three canals on the St. Lawrence. For four years more the war dragged on, ending in final disaster to the British forces at Yorktown. By the second treaty of Paris, more commonly called the treaty of Versailles, 1783, Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the thirteen colonies.

The treaty of Versailles made important changes in the southern boundary of Quebec, as fixed by the Quebec Act. Henceforth the line was to follow the St. Croix River to its source, thence to run due north to the "highlands" which separated the rivers feeding the St. Lawrence from those flowing down to the Atlantic. Beyond this point the old boundary line of the province as far as Lake Erie was to remain. Continuing, the line passed through the middle of the Great Lakes as far as the north-west angle of the Lake of the Woods. From the north-west angle of the Lake of the Woods the boundary was to run "on a due west course to the river Mississippi." The discovery at a later date of the fact that the Mississippi took its rise about a hundred miles farther south, gave rise to trouble. In the east also the uncertainty of the Maine boundary led to bitter discussion and almost to war.

126. The United Empire Loyalists.—The American Revolutionary War resulted in a very decided gain to the colony. Many thousands of British colonists, refusing to take up arms against their king, were forced by persecution to seek a new home under British rule. These outcasts became known in history by the honourable name of "United Empire Loyalists." During the war the feeling against the Loyalists was bitter in the extreme. Old neighbours and even relatives regarded them as traitors. After the war was over their property in many states was confiscated.



VIEW OF CATARAQUI (KINGSTON)
Showing the remains of old Fort Frontenac in 1783

The newcomers were warmly welcomed by Governor Haldimand, who, at the close of the war, devoted himself to the task of providing for their settlement. It is estimated that between forty and fifty thousand Loyalists came to Quebec, the greatest movement taking place in the years 1783 and

1784. By sea to the shores of Nova Scotia, or up the Hudson to the western part of Quebec they came, swelling the population of almost every part of the country. Many settled in Nova Scotia; a smaller number in Cape Breton. In the valley of the St. John River several thousands found a home, and created the province of New Brunswick. A few found their way into the eastern townships of Quebec. The present province of Ontario can trace its beginning to the coming of about ten thousand of these welcome settlers. Upon and about the site of Kingston, in the Niagara peninsula, and even as far west as I troit, they planted their settlements.

It was no slight sacrifice the Loyalists had made. Many had left valuable estates, built up by years of strenuous toil on the part of their ancestors. Many had given up influential positions, as ministers, judges, officials, or landed proprietors. From homes of comfort, in not a few cases, of luxury, they had stepped forth to face a difficult and often dangerous journey, and the hardships and privations of pioneer life in a new country. In the new home there was but one occupation open to them, namely, farming; and for this the majority were quite unfitted. In striking contrast to the unjust treatment which the Loyalists received at the hands of their late fellow-countrymen, was the kindness of the British government in relieving their distress. The sum of sixteen million dollars was voted for their relief. Free grants of land were made, two hundred acres to each Loyalist. Farming implements, food, clothing, and like necessaries were supplied.

The importance to the country of the arrival of the United Empire Loyalists can hardly be overestimated. At their coming, two provinces, afterwards known as New Brunswick and Upper Canada, sprang into being. Influenced by a feeling of hostility towards the people who had driven them from their old homes, the newcomers proved a constant barrier to the designs of the United States upon their northern neighbours; and later, during the War of 1812, many of them laid down their lives in defence of their new homes. In the development of the

country, socially, intellectually, and politically, they largely shared. Men and women who had sacrificed



MONUMENT TO JOSEPH BRANT
OF BRANTFORD

ease and comfort to preserve their loyalty, were the best material out of which to build a nation. Looking back from to-day we find that of the men who have taken part in the great movements of Canadian history many were of Loyalist stock. The people of the Maritime Provinces are justly proud of the names of Wilmot, Howe, and many others, while in Ontario those of Ryerson, Robinson, and Cartwright are equally a source of pride. To this honour roll belongs the name of the Mohawk chief, Joseph Brant, the brother-in-law of Sir William Johnson, whose fidelity to the cause of Britain won for his

tribe a reserve in Western Ontario, where to-day the name of Brantford recalls the memory of an Indian Loyalist.

SUMMARY

Within twelve years of the peace of Paris, the New England colonies were in revolt against Great Britain. Naturally Canada was urged to join in the rebellion. Resisting the temptation, she was made the object of an unsuccessful attack. In 1783, by the second treaty of Paris, Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the thirteen colonies. Many thousands of British colonists refused to take part in the rebellion, and these, after the war, found a home in Canada. These "United Empire Loyalists," settling in different parts of the country, proved very valuable citizens.

CHAPTER XIV

REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT

CHANGES IN GOVERNMENT, 1774-1791

127. **General demand for representative government.**—As the number of English-speaking subjects in Quebec increased, the demand for self-government grew. The Loyalists, wherever they settled, added their voice to the cry for an Assembly in which the people would be represented. The Maritime Provinces were the first to enjoy representative government. From 1713 to 1758 Nova Scotia was ruled by a governor and a Council. In 1758 the first representative body met at Halifax. In 1784, as a result of the influx of Loyalists, New Brunswick became a separate province, and only two years later gained an Assembly. Prince Edward Island, which until 1770 formed a part of Nova Scotia, elected its first Assembly in 1773. But while the Maritime Provinces had entered upon the period of representative government, Quebec still continued under the sway of a governor and a Council.

The system of government established by the Quebec Act in 1774 came to an end in 1791. The favourable terms which this Act granted to the French-Canadians had done good service in keeping them loyal during the revolt of the American colonies. The Act had, however, always been distasteful to the English-speaking section, and between the "old" and "new subjects" a feeling of jealousy had arisen. Great confusion prevailed in the administration of the laws. Judges, ignorant of French law, sometimes followed it, oftener ignored it. There was a general desire for a change. The advocates of reform found a strong supporter in Sir Guy Carleton, now Lord Dorchester, who in 1786 again assumed the duties of governor-general. Lord Dorchester's report to the British government

upon the unsettled condition of the colony went far towards bringing about a more satisfactory state of affairs. The report recommended that the colony be divided into two provinces, and that to each be given a constitution suited to the character of its people. This plan was opposed by many who wished to see British laws, language, and institutions forced upon the French-Canadians. Fortunately, wiser counsel prevailed, and the French subjects were generously treated. The author of the Constitutional Act, which brought about the changes proposed by Lord Dorchester, was William Pitt, whose father served Britain so wisely during the Seven Years' War.

128. The Constitutional Act, 1791.—The Constitutional Act divided the province of Quebec into Upper and Lower Canada, the old name of Canada being revived. The population of the former was twenty thousand, that of the latter one hundred and twenty-five thousand. According to the instructions received by Lord Dorchester, the Act aimed at making the constitution of the Canadas as like that of Great Britain "as the difference arising from the manners of the people and from the present situation of the province will admit." In each of the new provinces there was to be a governor, an Executive Council and two legislative bodies, corresponding to the king, the Cabinet, and the Houses of Lords and Commons.

The legislature in each province consisted of the Legislative Council and the Assembly. The legislative councillors were usually judges, bishops, or other prominent men. Being appointed by the king for life, they were quite independent of the Assembly. The members of the Assembly were elected by the people. The governor was advised by the Executive Council, and, being usually a stranger in the colony, he was strongly influenced in his actions by the advice of his councillors. The Executive Council, like the Legislative Council, was independent of the Assembly. Often the members of one Council were members also of the other. It is little wonder that trouble soon arose between the two Councils and the Assembly.

While granting such a degree of self-government, Great Britain still retained a strong control over her colonies. The British government continued to levy and collect all duties regulating colonial navigation and commerce. Moreover, all public officials, including the governor-general, were appointed or dismissed at the will of the home government.

The Roman Catholics continued in the free enjoyment of their religion. At the same time one-seventh of all the uncleared crown lands was set apart for the use of the Protestant clergy of the colony, a grant which afterwards gave rise to bitter strife in the Canadian legislatures. The criminal law of Great Britain remained in force in both provinces. The people of Upper Canada now enjoyed the privilege of holding land in their own name. In Lower Canada feudal tenure was retained, although even here those who wished might avail themselves of the freehold system.

SUMMARY

As the number of English-speaking subjects increased, there grew stronger the demand for self-government. There existed, too, great discontent over the administration of law. To meet this state of affairs the Constitutional Act was passed in 1791. The provinces of Upper and Lower Canada were created. In each province there was now a governor, an Executive Council to advise the governor, and two legislative bodies, one elected by the people. English-speaking subjects now enjoyed British civil as well as criminal law.

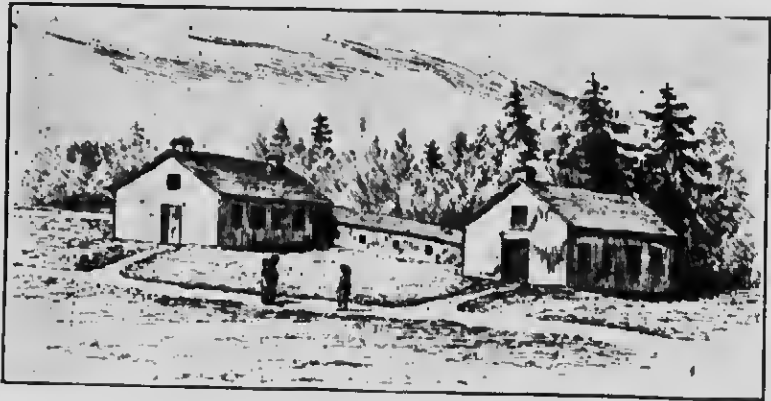
REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT ON TRIAL, 1792-1812

129. **First representative legislatures in the Canadas, 1792.**—Lord Dorchester was governor-general, not only of the Canadas, but also of the other provinces. Each province had a lieutenant-governor, who conducted the government except when the governor-general happened to visit the province. Generally, however, the government of Lower Canada was administered by the governor-general in person.

At Quebec, in the historic stone building commonly

known as the Bishop's Palace, the two Houses of Parliament of Lower Canada assembled in 1792. The French-Canadians were in a great majority, and a French-speaking member was elected speaker of the Assembly. The first business transacted was the passing of a resolution to the effect that the French as well as the English language should be used in debates and in the reports of the House.

Meanwhile, in the little village of Newark,—the old name for Niagara,—John Graves Simcoe, the lieutenant-governor, opened the first legislature of Upper Canada. Navy Hall, the residence of the lieutenant-governor, was but a humble meeting-place compared with the stately



THE FIRST PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS AT NEWARK

Bishop's Palace. Moreover, the many duties of pioneer life and the great hardships of travel in a new country limited the attendance to seven councillors and sixteen members of the Assembly. Men who had their harvesting as well as law-making to think of, knew the value of time. Within five weeks, therefore, this little Parliament transacted the same amount of business as occupied the attention of the Lower Canadian legislature for seven months.

130. **John Graves Simcoe.**—Colonel John Graves Simcoe, the first lieutenant-governor, may well be called the father of Upper Canada. Under his administration the population

increased from twenty-five thousand to thirty thousand within four years. He put forth every effort to attract to Upper Canada those Americans who, although loyal to Great Britain, had been unable to face the hardships of the earlier migration. Of these newcomers the following oath was required: "I, —, do promise and declare that I will maintain and defend to the utmost of my power the authority of the king in his Parliament as the supreme legislature of this province." The governor was all energy, travelling here and there by forest trail or river. The country was opened up by the building of roads where they were most needed. Yonge and Dundas Streets in and leading from Toronto remain as the moni-



JOHN GRAVES SIMCOE



TORONTO IN 1803

ments of the activity of the first governor of Upper Canada. Simcoe soon saw that Newark was too near to the American

frontier to serve as a permanent capital. His own choice was the site of the present city of London, while Lord Dorchester favoured the selection of Kingston, which had already grown into a prosperous town. A compromise was the outcome, and the seat of government was moved to Toronto, a trading-post across the lake from Newark. With characteristic promptness Simcoe was at once upon the spot, living under canvas until more suitable quarters were provided. The name of the newly chosen capital was changed to York, in honour of Frederick, Duke of York; but many years afterwards, when it had grown to be a city, it resumed its old Indian name, Toronto. In the year 1796 the Canadas suffered a twofold loss in the recall of Lord Dorchester and Lieutenant-Governor Simcoe.

131. **Strife between Councils and Assemblies.**—From the date of the Constitutional Act, 1791, all the provinces enjoyed the boon of representative government; yet everywhere there was discontent at the working of the new system. The Assembly, duly elected by the people, found that its power was limited. The governor and the two Councils, Legislative and Executive, stood together in opposition to the people's representatives. The Executive Council, advising the governor, was independent of the Assembly, and therefore little inclined to consult its wishes. The Assembly steadily claimed control of the revenue of the province. Other causes of discontent among the representatives of the people were the presence of judges in the legislatures, and the interference of the British government in affairs of a purely local nature.

In Lower Canada the members of the official class controlling the Executive and Legislative Councils were of British descent, and were disposed to ignore the French-Canadians. The latter had a majority in the Assembly, outnumbering the English-speaking members four to one. The strife which broke out between the Assembly and the Councils was therefore made much worse by race differences between the two sections of the population. These differences were accentuated by the *Quebec Mercury*, the organ of the English-speaking minority, and by *Le*

Canadien, published by the French-speaking majority. Roused by the bitter attacks of *Le Canadien*, the governor-general, Sir James Craig, ordered the arrest of several members of the Assembly who were contributors to the offending paper. Sir James, unfortunately, was so completely under the control of the Councils that he was too ready to suspect the French-Canadians of disloyalty.

In Upper Canada there were no racial jealousies to embitter the political strife. Strife there was, however, between the official class, mostly United Empire Loyalists, and the radical members of the Assembly. Too often the lieutenant-governor allowed himself to be swayed by the advice of his officials, and so was led to disregard even the reasonable demands of the Assembly. Sometimes, on the other hand, the Assembly fell under the control of some rash agitator, and was guilty of acts that antagonized the governor.

The governor of Nova Scotia, Sir John Wentworth, was a characteristic official of the age. A man of the old school of politics, he had more regard for the dignity of the crown than for the will of the people as represented in the voice of the Assembly. Endless trouble arose over the expenditure of money, the Assembly wishing to construct roads and bridges to open up the country, the Council preferring to erect public buildings at Halifax and to pay high salaries to the officials. In New Brunswick a like state of affairs prevailed, the Council rejecting bills passed by the Assembly, and refusing to surrender control of the revenue to the people's representatives.

SUMMARY

Representative government was established in all the provinces. The first step towards self-government was taken. An obstacle, however, stood in the way of further progress. The two Councils made common cause against the Assembly. Frequently the Assembly passed a bill which was for the good of the people, only to see it thrown out by the Legislative Council. The Executive Council, moreover, being independent of the people, often urged the governor to a course of action of which the Assembly disapproved. It was evident that before the people really ruled, the Executive Council must be made responsible to the Assembly.

CHAPTER XV

PROGRESS

1763-1812

132. The new province in 1763.—In 1763 the population of the new British province of Quebec was between sixty and seventy thousand. The people for the most part continued to cling to the shores of the St. Lawrence and Richelieu rivers. Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal were



OLD HOUSES NEAR MONTREAL

still the principal centres of settlement. Quebec, the capital of the old French colony, contained seven thousand inhabitants. Montreal, enriched by the profits of the fur trade, boasted a population of nine thousand. Three Rivers, although overshadow-

ed by its more populous neighbours, acquired some importance from its iron mines and from its convenience as a stopping-place for travellers. The Great West, save for a garrison here and there and the wandering traders and missionaries, was still a wilderness.

133. Description of the French-Canadians.—When the war was ended, the *habitant* again settled down contentedly upon his little farm. His cottage was small, seldom containing more than two rooms. The partition, in the absence of lath and plaster, was of wood. Strong boxes and benches served as chairs. The rough loom and the boxlike cradle

were familiar objects in the home. Over the fire stood the crane, the brick oven being found only in the houses of the wealthier class. The house of the seignior, although richly furnished, was rarely more than one story high. It often extended one hundred feet in length, and was surmounted by a high, steep roof from which the small dormer windows looked forth; the roofs were built thus steep, in order to shed the snow and to afford plenty of room for bed-chambers in the attic. Clustered about the main building were wash-house, coach-house, barns, and wood-sheds. The house was usually sheltered by groves of trees, and near by were the orchard and the kitchen garden. Not far away lay the village, with its spire-capped church and stone mill showing through the trees.



SOLDIER AND MERCHANT

In dress the upper class followed closely the latest fashions of France, although perhaps neither so rich nor as costly. With men it was the custom to wear the hair curled, powdered, and often tied in a *queue*. Upon state occasions their head-gear took the form of a three-cornered cocked hat. Their wide-frooked coats were made of costly material and gay colours; the waistcoat was frequently ornamented with gold or silver. They wore lace at the neck and wristbands. The knee-breeches were fastened with bright buckles, which served to hold the coloured silk stockings. Shoes adorned with broad buckles at the instep completed a

picturesque costume which would seem strangely out of place beside the modest dress of the gentleman of to-day. The limited resources of the *habitant* demanded a simpler garb. A black homespun coat, gray leggings, woollen cap, and moccasins of cowhide produced a sombre effect, relieved only by the dash of colour in his bright sash. The women, also clad in homespun, indulged their love of colours in their choice of bright kerchiefs for the neck and shoulders.

The French-Canadian was nothing if not sociable. Contented in spirit, he gave himself up whole-heartedly to his



A HABITANT DANCE

amusements. Winter was the season of gaiety. Even with the fate of Quebec in the balance, its defenders found time for dancing. Sleighing and dancing were the common pastimes. Even the older people joined in such youthful amusements as "Hide the Handkerchief" and "Fox and Geese." No pretext for a holiday was lost; a wedding, a baptism, or a birthday was welcomed as an occasion of festivity. May-day brought to the *habitants* special feasting and merry-making at the home of the seignior. Upon the whole, the lot of the *habitant* was not an unhappy one; a home, small but comfortable; a simple yet wholesome diet

of salt meat, milk, and bread, varied in season by an abundance of fresh meat; a summer of toil relieved by a winter of amusement. The hardships of his pioneer days were past, and lack of ambition made him contented with his present lot.

131. **The Loyalist settlements.**—I: pioneer days were past in the experience of the *habitant*, they were but beginning for the settlers who were flocking into the other provinces. The year 1783 was a memorable one in the history of the Maritime Provinces. In that year the United Empire Loyalists, sailing from New York, found a ready shelter in the river St. John. At the mouth of the river these loyal refugees built Parrtown, so named in honour of the governor of Nova Scotia. In one season there arrived five thousand settlers, mainly officers and privates who had fought their battles for the king. Others passed on to Prince Edward Island and the Nova Scotian peninsula, skirting the shores of the Bay of Fundy and the Atlantic seaboard. Many were attracted by a fine harbour near the south-west corner of the peninsula. Here, as it were in a night, there sprang up the city of Shelburne with twelve thousand inhabitants. The spot proved ill-chosen, being girt by barren land. The citizens of Shelburne quickly scattered, making for Halifax and other more favoured homes.

Shortly after the arrival of the Loyalists at the St. John River, the surrounding country was formed into the province of New Brunswick. Parrtown was incorporated as a city, and its name changed to St. John. Two years later the seat of government was moved to Fredericton, eighty-four miles up the river. Cape Breton, which had received about eight hundred Loyalists, also became a separate province, with its capital at Sydney. The island, however, did not long remain separate, for in 1820 it again became a part of Nova Scotia. In all twenty thousand Loyalists entered Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island. Far outnumbering the original settlers, they put the stamp of their character upon the making of these provinces.

Some of the Loyalists who entered Nova Scotia, passed on to the St. Lawrence, and settled below Montreal. The

greater number of those who removed, however, continued their journey to Lake Ontario. Hither came many more by way of Oswego. In 1784 the great immigration took place. Along the north shore of Lake Ontario, around its western end, and into the Niagara peninsula the newcomers spread. Gradually they extended their settlements over the tempting lands lying between Lake Erie and Lake Huron. Many of the inland Loyalists descended Lake Champlain and the Richelieu. Some of these



ONE OF THE EARLIEST LOYALIST SETTLEMENTS IN UPPER CANADA

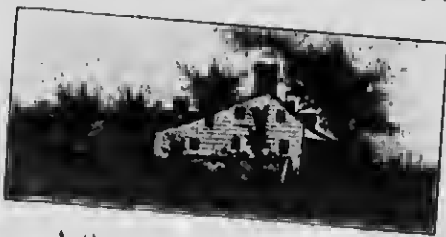
Notice on the left the man using the "hominy block." (See Page 130.) From "Upper Canada Sketches," by permission of the author, Thomas Conant, Esq.

passed on to the north and west, peopling the St. Lawrence shore between Fort Frontenac and Montreal. Others, stopping as soon as they had entered Canadian territory, settled between the frontier and the St. Lawrence colonies. This English-speaking section of Lower Canada came to be known as the "Eastern Townships."

135. **Other settlements.**—In addition to the Loyalists many more settlers came during the closing years of the old and the opening years of the new century. Simcoe's

liberal policy caused steady streams of immigration to pour into Upper Canada through Niagara and Oswego. Cape Breton and the neighbouring mainland received an ever-increasing number of Roman Catholic Highlanders, as many as twenty-five thousand in the space of fifty years. The Earl of Selkirk, a Scottish nobleman who was deeply interested in the evicted tenants of Scotland and Ireland, brought out three shiploads of these unfortunates to Prince Edward Island. Encouraged by the success of this venture, the philanthropic earl founded a second colony, called "Baldoon," in the distant west of Upper Canada. In this period Glengarry county also had its beginning, claiming as its founder the distinguished Roman Catholic bishop, Alexander Macdonell. The roll of early colonizers would be incomplete without the name of Colonel Talbot, an Irishman who came to Canada in company with Governor Simcoe. It is said that the colonel supervised the settlement of as many as twenty-eight townships north of Lake Erie.

136. **Pioneer life.**—The story of the pioneers is one of labour and privation. With a little flour and pork and a few hoes and axes, the gift of the government, they entered upon the task of home-making. Grudgingly the unbroken forests gave space for tiny "clearings," and for winding bridlepaths, where no friendly stream furnished a highway. Everywhere trees had to be felled and the ground cleared, first for a cabin, then more widely for seeding. While this work was being done the family slept under the stars upon the ground, deprived even of the shelter of blankets. All the buildings were of logs, for lumber could be made only with the "whip-saw" or the "cross-cut." The cabins were commonly one-roomed, with roofs of bark stuffed with moss and clay. Chimneys were at first made of sticks and clay,



A SETTLER'S HOME IN 1812

later of stone and brick. In strange contrast to the crude surroundings were the few pieces of old furniture, the tall clock, the chairs, and "secretaries," which some of the Loyalists had brought with them from their former homes. Too often the furniture of a home was limited to a bed made of four poles, with strips of basswood bark woven between. Even the making of chairs and tables was postponed until the "clearing" was completed.

Each Loyalist family was provided by the British government with a plough and a cow. One by one the difficulties



INTERIOR OF A SETTLER'S HOME IN 1812

were overcome; the trees were felled, the land was cleared and ploughed, the seed sown, and the grain, commonly Indian corn and wild rice, cut. There still remained the labour of making flour. In the absence of mills, the grain was crushed between stones. Stones later gave place to the "hominy-block," a hard-wood stump with a large hollow burned in the top. In this hollow the grain was pounded with a wooden hammer, or "plumper." Sometimes a stone on the end of a long pole, or "sweep," took the place of the "plumper." At last, in happier days, the grist-mill drove these primitive devices out of use.

In 1787 the failure of a harvest brought on the sufferings of the "Hungry Year." The settlers killed and ate their few cattle, their dogs, their horses. The story is told of how beef bones were passed from family to family to give flavour to the thin bran soup. Roots of all kinds, "ground-nuts," butternuts, and beechnuts, were eagerly sought. Buds of basswood, "lamb's-quarters," "pigweed," "Indian cabbage," and other weeds were common diet. Game of all kinds, deer, rabbits, and pigeons, was plentiful but powder and shot were very scarce.

To add to the discomforts of these early days, the supply of clothing was scanty. For a year or two after his arrival the Loyalist gentleman might be seen amid his primitive surroundings clad in the fine raiment of his more prosperous days, in wide-flapping frock-coat, lined with velvet, white satin waistcoat, black satin tight knee-breeches, white silk stockings, and silver-buckled shoes. Soon, however, these relics of better days gave place to humble, home-made garments. The women learned the Indian tanning, spun thread from the fibres of the basswood bark, and made clothing of deerskin. Stockings were unknown; and it was not uncommon for the children to spend the long months of the winter season indoors for lack of necessary foot-covering. When leather was at hand every man made shoes for his family, shapeless but comfortable. Later, as wool, flax, and hemp



COSTUMES IN CANADA IN 1812

From "Life in Canada," by permission of the author, Thomas Couant, Esq.

were raised, and crude hand-loom and spinning-wheels were made, buckskin gave place to linsey-woolsey.

Transportation and communication in these early days were very difficult. The avenues of travel were the lakes and rivers, and the narrow bush-trails leading from one farm to another. Naturally schools and churches were unknown. Fortunately a change soon took place. Clear settlement and better roads brought many advantages. Here and there appeared the little log school-house and the rude church. The grist-mill, too, saved the settlers untold labour. Improved roads and more leisure made mutual help possible. "Frolics" or "bees" for chopping and building, became common. Later, with larger crops and finer buildings, "husking" and "framing bees" came to be the occasions of great festivity. Venison, turkey, pies, "johnny-cake," and "pumpkin-cake" were everywhere in evidence. These delicacies were handled with dishes and spoons made of wood. At a later date wooden utensils gave place to pewter, first brought into the country by the enterprising "Yankee" pedlar.

137. **Progress.**—As in settlement, so also in church matters, in education, and in other spheres, the period between 1763 and 1812 was one of beginnings. For some years after the conquest, the Roman Catholic church continued to minister to the colonists almost without a rival. The Loyalists, however, and those settlers who came from Great Britain, were not the men to be deprived for any length of time of the means of worshipping according to their own beliefs. Thus we soon find ministers of other churches entering the provinces and beginning that humble work from which sprang several strong denominations. Within five years of the fall of Montreal we hear of a Presbyterian minister conducting services in the Jesuit College, Quebec. In 1782 the first sermon by a Methodist minister was preached in Halifax. Two years later the Rev. John Stuart, "the father of the Upper Canada church" (Anglican), began his work. The year 1786 saw the erection of the first Protestant church in Upper Canada, among the Mohawks of the Grand River district. By the

close of the century three churches, the Anglican, the Presbyterian, and the Methodist, had gained a foothold in all the provinces. Naturally the Anglican church claimed the allegiance of a large number of the Loyalists, and as a result became a very strong factor in the religious life of early Canada.

The educational system of Lower Canada was nearly two centuries old. Ever since Champlain's day priest and nun had laboured faithfully,—yet the French-Canadian continued, for the most part, to be uneducated. Young as were the British settlements, some progress had already been made in the founding of schools. In 1785 the Rev. Dr. Stuart opened a classical school at Kingston, the first in Upper Canada. Three years later an academy was founded at Windsor, Nova Scotia, the humble beginning of King's College. The close of the century witnessed the establishment of the College of New Brunswick, at Fredericton. The year after the formation of Upper Canada a school was opened at Newark, and early in the new century the "Home District School," the first public school of Toronto, was founded. In the same year Parliament provided for the establishment of eight grammar schools, and for the payment to each master of a salary of one hundred pounds.

The rise of the press was a sure sign of progress. In the year following the peace of Paris there appeared the *Quebec Gazette*, half in French, half in English, the first newspaper of provincial Canada. This paper, we are told, began with the modest support of one hundred and fifty subscribers. Not to be outdone by her old-time rival, Montreal soon issued her own *Gazette*. Niagara had the



THE FIRST NEWSPAPER IN UPPER CANADA

honour of producing the pioneer sheet of Upper Canada, "size fifteen by nine and a half inches, price three dollars a year." Next appeared the *Gazette and Oracle of York*, and the *Mercury of Quebec*. *Le Canadien*, the first paper printed wholly in French in Canada, was published in 1806. The *Upper Canada Guardian* of Toronto, edited by Joseph Willecocks, and the *News of Kingston*, complete the list of journals founded during this period.

The fur trade was the first, and for many years the only, source of wealth in Upper Canada. It was carried on both by companies and by individuals; and here as elsewhere the use of rum cursed the traffic and rendered it of little benefit to the country. The earliest export was potash, but even in Governor Simcoe's time the increased area of cleared land caused this industry to decline. The staple product of the country was wheat, and the governor did everything in his power to develop this source of revenue. So rapidly did farming expand that not only were the needs of the settlers met, but there was also a surplus sufficient to supply York and Niagara and to do away with the necessity of importing the staples—flour and pork. Progress in commerce was retarded by the great difficulties of transportation. The only means of transport were rude *bateaux*, built with a draught of two feet, with a width of six, and a length of twenty feet. These were towed and "tracked" up the rivers. In transportation, as in other spheres, change was rapid. As early as 1794 there were fifteen merchant vessels in the Upper Lakes, and six armed boats in the king's service. Soon the canals on the St. Lawrence were enlarged so as to accommodate lake vessels, and the greatest obstacle of transportation disappeared.

Everywhere there was evidence of present and promise of future progress. Here and there through the dense forests of Upper Canada ran well-built roads. A fortnightly mail had been established between the Canadas and the United States. The first raft of timber had been floated down the Ottawa. The first Canadian steamboat, the *Accommodation*, the property of John Molson of Montreal, had been launched upon the waters of the St. Lawrence.

SUMMARY

During the half-century after the conquest, the population of Canada clung, in the main, to the shores of the St. Lawrence and the Richelieu rivers. Simplicity marked the life of the *habitant*. Hard working, yet fond of amusements, he lived contentedly in his little two-roomed cottage, undisturbed by even the greatest events happening about him. In Upper Canada it was the day of beginnings. The story of the pioneers, of whom the United Empire Loyalists were a great part, is one of labour and privation. With scanty supplies and crude instruments, the gift of the British government, they set themselves to the task of hewing homes out of the unbroken forests. Scarcity of food and clothing, difficulties of transportation, absence of schools and churches—all these and other hardships were the common lot of these early settlers.

CHAPTER XVI

THE WEST

THE FUR TRADE, 1763-1812

138. **The Hudson's Bay Company.**—During the last century of the French *régime* the Hudson's Bay Company had held its own throughout the dangers of war and the compe-



tition of trade. Its forts had fallen into the hands of De Troyes or D'Iberville, but had been restored by the treaty of Utrecht. Though the dangers of war were past, the rivalry of the Canadian traders had still to be met. Despite

the long overland journey, the latter penetrated to the neighbourhood of Hudson Bay, attracting the Indians with showy trinkets, and too often with brandy. The majority of the natives, however, were not easily drawn away from their loyalty to the old company.

139. **Description of the fur trade.**—Winter was the hunting season. The Indians covered a wide extent of country in the chase. After hunting within a radius of four or five miles from their encampment, they moved on to fresh grounds. The marten, squirrel, and ermine were generally caught in traps or snares by the women and children. The men, meanwhile, followed the deer, buffalo, and fox. Having once brought down these victims of the chase, they cut off the choicest parts and left the remainder for the squaws to bring into camp on the following day. A good hunter killed five or six hundred beaver in a season. Usually not more than one-sixth of the beaver skins found their way to the trading-rooms of the fur companies, the greater number being used for tent and bed-coverings and similar purposes.

The trading took place, for the most part, in the summer, when the rivers and lakes were clear of ice. It is true that the Indians near the bay often brought in their furs during the winter, and were made welcome by the traders. In the summer season, however, the inland lakes and streams were dotted with fur-laden canoes making their way from the fur west and north. Lake Winnipeg was the meeting-place of the hundreds of natives who journeyed annually to Hudson Bay. The meeting was an occasion of feasting and dancing. As many as five hundred canoes in a year made the long and toilsome journey to York Factory. The strain of incessant paddling and frequent *portaging* bore heavily even upon the strongest. A canoe load, containing at the outset one hundred beaver skins, gradually dwindled as the travellers, weary of their burdens on the *portages*, cast away the heavier furs. So long and laborious was the journey that an Indian was seldom found to undertake it a second time. As the Indians drew near their destination, they gathered the canoes together and advanced in order. A salute from

their guns called forth a response from the small caanon of the fort. At the landing-place, the chief and his companions were met by the company's traders and formally conducted to the trading-room, the squaws and younger braves meanwhile unloading the canoes. Pipes were at once forthcoming, and for a time the guests smoked in silence. Finally, the chief broke the silence, and in an impressive speech informed the factor what tribes were represented in his company, and how many canoes had arrived. The factor's reply was one of welcome. The chief was next honoured with a gift of clothing. Deeked out in a coarse cloth coat, red or blue, lined with baize, waistcoat and breeches of baize, checked cotton shirt, and brightly coloured



stockings, he strutted proudly about the room. This preliminary visit over, the guests were conducted back to their camp in all state, a drummer beating a march. Here the whole company was entertained with brandy, pipes, and tobacco. This entertainment was brought to a close by the pipe of peace, which all the braves and the chief factor joined in smoking. They then fell to the business of trading.

CARRYING SUPPLIES OVER A PORTAGE In the early years of the Hudson's Bay Company there was no standard of trade. The Indians took what they could get for their furs; the traders gave no more than they were compelled to give. Competition with the French *courseurs de bois* forced the company's factors to pay more for their furs at the southern posts than they paid farther north. At first, too, the articles given in exchange for furs were beads,

toys, and other trinkets. It was not long, however, before the company changed its policy, and gave the Indians those things which were needed in hunting—guns, powder, powder-horns, shot, hatchets, and knives. Coats, blankets, kettles and tobacco were commonly used in trade. A scale of values was soon fixed to govern trade at all the posts. The value of articles of trade was commonly reckoned in beaver skins. Thus for one beaver skin an Indian might purchase two pounds of powder, four pounds of shot, or two hatchets. A gun could seldom be bought for less than ten beavers. The trading over, the Indians departed, gaily attired in new blankets or coats, carrying their coveted guns, knives, or hatchets—above all, consoled with their beloved tobacco. In the enjoyment of their newly acquired possessions, they forgot, for the time being, the long journey that lay between them and home.

110. **The rivalry of the fur companies.**—The conquest of Canada by Great Britain brought about an immediate and complete change in the fur trade. With the passing of the French *régime*, monopoly and licenses disappeared. The officers of the French company withdrew their posts into the interior of the country under the British flag. The *coureurs de bois* found themselves suddenly cast adrift, lacking the means to keep up the fur trade. Too much accustomed to the life of the woods to return to civilization, they threw in their lot with the Indians, took to themselves native wives, and soon became as wild as their associates.

It looked as if the Hudson's Bay Company was to be free from rivalry. Soon, however, the field vacated by the French traders was occupied by others more aggressive. Even before the conquest a few Scottish Highlanders had



YORK FACTORY

engaged privately in the fur trade. After the war these were joined by many discharged British soldiers. The first of the Scottish merchants to penetrate the West was Alexander Henry who appeared at Michilimackinac two years after the conquest; in 1765 Henry obtained from the commandant at Michilimackinac an exclusive license to trade, and three years later opened up the trade route between Michilimackinac and Kaministiquia. Henry was followed by Thomas Curry and James Finlay. These enterprising Scotsmen, careless of danger and hardship, followed in the track of the French explorer Vérendrye, even to the Saskatchewan. The natives, longing to see again their old friends, the French, did not at first welcome these strangers.

The prosperity of the Hudson's Bay Company was again seriously threatened. The factors soon found that the Indians were being intercepted on their way to Hudson Bay. Roused from their inactivity by the discovery of this fact,



FUR TRADERS ON THEIR WAY TO THE
NORTHERN POSTS

they sent out one of their number to establish an inland post. This movement resulted in the building of Cumberland House, on Sturgeon Lake. From the beginning this post was a great success, the Indians being delighted to escape the

longer journey to the bay. The Montreal traders were now the sufferers. Their men returned empty-handed to Grand Portage, their headquarters on Lake Superior. Not to be outdone, they pushed their traders farther into the Indian country, and nearer to their rival's

stations. They also began to store their goods at the out-posts over winter, thus saving the time hitherto lost in bringing them in every spring from Grand Portage.

Hitherto the opposition to the Hudson's Bay Company had been that of individual traders. During the winter of 1783-4, the North-West Company was formed. The Montreal partners were to supply the goods used in trade; the "wintering-partners" were to do the actual trading; all were to share in the profits. The business of the newly formed company centred in Montreal and Grand Portage. Goods imported from England were made into articles of trade at Montreal, and these were packed in canoes and forwarded to Grand Portage. The season's furs, brought down by the *voyageurs* on their return trip, were stored in the company's warehouses until shipped to the London market.

The Montreal merchants were greatly strengthened by their organization in their competition with the Hudson's Bay Company. To a great extent the two companies traded over the same territory, their trading-stations being planted in some cases not more than two or three miles apart. At first there was no violence. The rivals met in forest or on stream, shook hands, smoked, broke bread together, and then separated, the one party making for Grand Portage, the other for York Factory. Soon, however, competition grew keener, and greed overcame all feelings of friendliness. Acts of violence became common, resulting at times in murder. One young Nor'-Wester, who went over to the side of the English company, was followed by his former employer, and, on refusing to return, was stabbed to death. Thefts of furs, and brutal assaults upon defenders of outlying stations became frequent. As a rule, the men of the Canadian company were the offenders, being of a more lawless character and less under the control of their employers.

141. **The Selkirk settlement.**—Hitherto men's sole interest in the land west of Lake Superior had been the fur trade. Lord Selkirk, the founder of settlements in Prince Edward Island and in Upper Canada, was the first to realize the im-

portance of the West as a field of colonization. In 1811 he gave his idea practical form by purchasing from the Hudson's Bay Company one hundred and sixteen thousand square miles of land in the Red River district. During the same season a group of settlers, seventy in number, led by Captain Miles Macdonell, reached York Factory on Hudson Bay. The winter was spent in building river boats and making other preparations for the journey inland. The following autumn found the newcomers upon the site of the Red River settlement. Here, within the next three years, they were joined by two hundred more colonists. The Nor-



LORD SELKIRK

Westers, resenting the encroachment of settlement upon the fur trade, did not take kindly to the intruders. The very existence of the young colony was threatened.

SUMMARY

In the far West the keenest rivalry prevailed in the fur trade between the French traders and the Hudson's Bay Company. As the former penetrated farther west and north, the English company was forced to pay higher prices to attract the Indians to their forts. The conquest of Canada by Great Britain freed the Hudson's Bay Company of their French rivals, but the place of the latter was soon taken by much more aggressive rivals. These were Scottish traders from Montreal, who at first traded privately but afterwards formed a new organization, the North-West Company, which for many years divided the field of trade with the older company. In 1812 the first attempt at colonization was made, when a group of Selkirk colonists settled on the Red River.

EXPLORATION, 1763-1812

142. **The north-west passage by land.**—While the rivalry of the fur companies gave rise to many evils, it had at least one beneficial result. In their eagerness to outstrip one another, the traders were gradually exploring the country. The great explorers of the period were all connected with the fur trade. The first of these was Samuel Hearne, a servant of the Hudson's Bay Company. Some northern Indians trading at Prince of Wales Fort, a strong stone structure at the mouth of the Churchill, on one occasion displayed specimens of copper which they had found on the banks of a "great river" in the far north-west. The company decided to send a party in search of this river, hoping that its discovery would solve the mystery of the north-west passage by land. Hearne, who was chosen to lead the party, was instructed to observe any mines discovered, and to take account of the longitude and latitude of every point visited.

143. **Samuel Hearne.**—On November 6th, 1769, Prince of Wales Fort was all astir. Everything was ready for the journey, and as Hearne and his companions passed out through the gate, they were honoured with a salute of seven guns. Despite the most careful preparations, nothing came of the venture. A few days out from the bay, the guide deserted, and a little later more than half of the company followed his example. "They set out," says Hearne, "making the woods ring with their laughter, and left us to consider our unhappy situation, nearly two hundred miles from Prince of Wales Fort, all heavily laden, and in strength and spirits greatly reduced by hunger and fatigue." There was nothing to do but return to the fort.



SAMUEL HEARNE

Hearne lost no time in preparing for a second attempt, and in two months was again ready to depart. This time there was no salute to cheer him on his way. For three months he held a north-westerly course, following streams and lakes, and then struck inland through the barren grounds. The experiences of the travellers were becoming daily more trying. Frequently they fasted for two or three days at a time. For a whole week cranberries, scraps of leather, and burnt bones were their only food. As if such hardships were not enough, a greater misfortune befell them when they were now five hundred miles from Prince of Wales Fort. Their only quadrant, left in the sun one day, was blown over by the wind and broken. Unable any longer to take his bearings, Hearne was forced to turn back and wearily retrace his course to the bay.

Almost immediately after his return, the unfortunate explorer, undaunted by his failures and by the discouraging attitude of the chief factor, again turned his face towards the north-west. This time success awaited him. He was greatly aided by the Indians, whose friendship he was careful to seek. When he reached the Coppermine River, as the object of his search is now called, it was in company with a strong band of natives, who were waging war against the Eskimos. A few days down stream brought the explorers to the sea, the first white men to reach the Arctic Ocean from the interior. Considering the difficulties of the country through which he passed, Hearne's achievement was a notable one. It had the effect of arousing the Hudson's Bay Company to a more aggressive policy.

144. **Alexander Mackenzie.**—The ambition to find the north-west passage by land was still as powerful to lure on ardent explorers as in the days of Vérendrye. To Alexander Mackenzie, partner in the North-West Company, the quest was particularly attractive. His services to the company and his influence among the partners, placed him in a position to undertake a search for the "Western Sea." Fort Chipewyan, on Lake Athabaska, the starting-point of Mackenzie's journey, was one of the outmost trading-posts. About the beginning of June, 1789, the little company of

Canadians and Indians pushed out from the landing-place before the fort. The early stages of the journey, through Slave River and Slave Lake, were uneventful, and before the end of the month the four canoes of the party swept out upon the current of the Mackenzie.

A week later the explorers fell in with a band of wild Indians, who fled at the sight of white men, and were induced only by liberal gifts to approach the strangers. Stories of demon-haunted caves and impassable falls were told by these savages. Mackenzie was unmoved, and even persuaded one of the natives to join him as guide. Every day brought fresh difficulties, and more natives with their terrifying tales. At last, deserted by their guide, the Indians of the party lost heart, and refused to go any farther. Mackenzie begged them to continue for seven days longer, promising to turn back if they did not discover the sea within that time. Before the week was ended the mouth of the river was reached. Mackenzie had known for several days that it was the Arctic and not the Pacific Ocean he was approaching.



SIR ALEXANDER MACKENZIE

No time was lost in beginning the return journey. Just one hundred days from the date of their departure, the adventurers landed at Fort Chipewyan.

Three years later Mackenzie prepared to make another dash for the Pacific. In the fall of the year he ascended the Peace River as far as the forks, in order that, passing the winter there, he might be well on his way when the spring opened. As soon as the river was clear of ice, the party, consisting of eight whites and two Indians, embarked in one big canoe, twenty-five feet in length. From the outset the difficulties of the way were extreme. Swift rapids and leaping cascades made progress laborious and even danger-

ous. As the travellers drew near the mountains, the river, hemmed in by steep, rocky banks, presented a succession of roaring cataracts. Portages were frequent, and usually over ground almost impassable. In places the men drew the canoe upstream by grasping the branches of overhanging trees. The discouragement of the men was overcome only by the courage of their leader.

The climax of their difficulties came at the height of land, where a road had to be cut through dense woods. "It was with inexpressible satisfaction," Mackenzie writes, "that we found ourselves on the bank of a navigable river on the west side of the first great range of mountains." This, as we now know, was the Fraser. The descent of this mountain stream brought the travellers varied experiences,—meetings with strange Indians, breaking and rebuilding canoes, shooting dangerous rapids, and toiling over long portages. Discouraged by a report of the great length and dangerous nature of the river, Mackenzie turned back and struck off overland in search of the sea. This he did in spite of a warning that the coast Indians were "as numerous as mosquitoes and of a very malignant character."

At last the weary travellers were rewarded with a glimpse of the Pacific. Upon the face of a rock their leader recorded their visit in the following inscription: "Alexander Mackenzie, from Canada, by land, the twenty-second of July, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-three." The hardships of the return journey were lightened by the thought of success and by the certainty of their route. By the middle of August the familiar waters of the Peace were reached. "At length," Mackenzie's journal reads, "as we rounded a point and came in view of the Fort, we threw out a flag, and accompanied it with a general discharge of our firearms; while the men were in such spirits and made such an active use of their paddles that we arrived before the two men whom we left here in the spring could recover their senses to answer us. Thus we landed on the twenty-fourth of August at the place which we left on the ninth of May."

115. **Fraser and Thompson.**—From the ranks of the North-West Company there came two other noted explorers in this period. Simon Fraser gave his name to the river from whose dangers Mackenzie had turned back. He it was who first followed the entire course of that dangerous stream, reaching the sea in 1808. David Thompson spent the early years of his life in the New World as a clerk in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1811 Thompson crossed the Rocky Mountains and descended the Columbia River to the Pacific, only to find that two American explorers had preceded him by six years.

Thus, by the close of this period, two expeditions had reached the Arctic Ocean, and three the Pacific, all by different routes. Vérendrye's dream of a "Western Sea" had been realized.

SUMMARY

Exploration was a necessary condition of successful fur trading. Samuel Hearne, a representative of the Hudson's Bay Company, after two failures, succeeded in reaching the Coppermine River, and following its course to the Arctic Ocean. Alexander Mackenzie, a partner in the North-West Company, also made his way to the Arctic Ocean by following the great river which now bears his name. In a second journey, Mackenzie reached the Pacific Ocean. Two other Nor'-Westers, Fraser and Thompson, made contribution to the discoveries of this period.

CHAPTER XVII

THE WAR OF 1812-14

1812-14

116. **The causes of the war.**—What had happened so often during the French period happened again in 1812: a European war gave rise to hostilities in America. In the Canadas each province was intent upon its political strife, but at the rumour of war each was quick to take up arms in Britain's quarrel. It mattered not that Canadians had no part in bringing about the war.

Almost all Europe was at the feet of Napoleon, the emperor of France. Britain alone was a stumbling-block in his way. To the removal of this obstacle the emperor devoted all the resources of the French empire. In the hope of ruining British commerce, he issued, in 1806, the "Berlin Decrees," closing European ports to British ships and declaring the ports of the British Isles under blockade. In retaliation the British government issued certain Orders-in-Council which required the vessels of neutral powers to touch at British ports and to pay duty before trading with European countries. These restrictions bore heavily upon the United States, whose ships were engaged in an extensive carrying trade. In 1809 the American government passed the Non-Intercourse Act, stopping all trade with France or Great Britain and the nations they controlled, until the restrictions were removed. The bitter feeling of the United States towards Great Britain was increased by the action of the latter power in seizing and searching American ships for deserting seamen. Finally, Great Britain withdrew the Orders-in-Council, and made amends for any injustice done in enforcing the "right of search." It was not too late to avert war, and all differences between

the two nations would have been removed, had it not been that a strong war-party dominated the United States Congress. Although there was much opposition, especially from the New England States, war was declared by the United States government on June 18th, 1812.

147. **Danger to the Canadas.**—Whatever the spirit of her people, the position of the Canadas was seemingly desperate. A country of four hundred thousand inhabitants pitted in war against the armies and resources of a nation of eight millions! Upper Canada contained only eighty thousand people. In both Canadas there were only forty-five hundred regular troops, and of these, when war broke out, no more than one-third were stationed above Montreal. Arms and other articles of military equipment were scarce. An open frontier a thousand miles long was almost without defence. Nor could the entire Canadian population, small as it was, be counted upon to fight in Britain's cause. Here and there were to be found men who were in sympathy with the invaders. It is not surprising, therefore, that the enemy were confident of success. "On to Canada!" was their cry. "We can take Canada without soldiers," announced the secretary of war. "The expulsion of the English is a mere matter of marching," remarked another statesman.

One thing the enemy overlooked, and that was the character of the Canadians. Fighting in a just cause and in defence of their homes, the latter were animated by a spirit which in war usually offsets an enemy's advantage in numbers and wealth. The commander of the forces in Upper Canada, Major-General Isaac Brock, was a man in whom such a spirit breathed in this hour of danger. He had already served in the country for ten years, and he knew and



SIR ISAAC BROCK

valued the local militia as well as the regular troops. Brave, kind, and judicious, he won the confidence and love of his men. Under the inspiration of Brock's leadership the prospects grew brighter. Loyalist volunteers, remembering how they and their fathers had been treated after the Revolutionary War, pressed forward on all sides, more than could be supplied with arms. In Lower Canada the French-Canadians, having fresh in mind the memory of their generous treatment at the hands of the British government, were prompt to vote money and men to repel the invaders.

In Upper Canada, which was to bear the brunt of the war, there was an active force of nine hundred and fifty regulars and marines and five hundred and fifty militia. This mere handful of men had to defend seven forts,—from Kingston on the east to St. Joseph on the west,—no one of which could be called a strong post. When Brock called out more militia, he had not even tents to shelter the new recruits and many even lacked shoes on the march. Despite hardships a spirit of loyalty was manifest on every hand. Every man became a volunteer; the rattle of the matchlock became a familiar sound. Even in the field, the musket, if not strapped to the tail of the plough, rested against the snake fence, loaded. Every clearance became a drill-hall, every cabin an armory. Play was forgotten in the desperate work of war; the dance gave place to the drill. The volunteers of Upper Canada proved worthy to march and fight shoulder to shoulder with the regulars. In their hearts Brock found ready response when, in addressing them on the eve of battle, he said, "Let them [the enemy] be taught that Canadians will never bow their necks to a foreign yoke."

148. **The campaign of 1812.**—The plan of campaign adopted by the Americans was threefold. General Dearborn, commanding the "Army of the North," was stationed at Albany, ready to move against Montreal. The "Army of the Centre," under the command of General Van Rensselaer, threatened the Niagara frontier. At Detroit lay the "Army of the West," under General Hull, whose appointed task was the conquest of Western Canada. That the Maritime

Provinces remained unmolested, except for the attacks of privateers, was due to the opposition of the New England States to the war, on account of the effect on their commerce.

The campaign opened with a victory for the British arms. Michilimaekinae fell into the hands of a small force of regulars and Canadian *voyageurs*. This slight success had an important effect, as it caused the western Indians to rally to the side of the British. Tecumseh, the powerful chief of the Shawnee, had already lent his aid with about one hundred and fifty of his followers; he was now joined by six hundred Indians from the West. Meanwhile, General Hull was advancing into Upper Canada from Detroit, and proudly proclaiming "peace, liberty and security" to all who would

accept American rule, but destruction to all who should oppose his march to victory. Brock, in turn, as acting lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada, issued a proclamation calling on the people to remain loyal, and assuring them of the determination of Great Britain to protect her subjects. Hull, after the issue of his proclamation, had been content to remain at Sandwich, but hearing that the British were advancing, he retreated to Detroit. Brock, with a mixed force of seven hundred regulars and volunteers, hurried up from York, and, assisted by Tecumseh and his Indians, laid siege to the fort. Just as he was about to storm the place, the enemy surrendered. Twenty-five hundred prisoners, thirty-seven cannon, one hundred thousand cartridges, two thousand five hundred stands of arms, and the control of the state of Michigan, were the fruits of this victory. For this exploit the honour of knighthood was bestowed upon the victorious general.



No sooner had Detroit fallen than Brock hastened back to defend the Niagara frontier. On the way he was met with the news that an armistice had been concluded between the commander-in-chief, Sir George Prevost, and General Dearborn on behalf of the Americans. This was a bitter disappointment to Brock as it prevented an attack which he had already planned upon American territory. The armistice lasted only one month, as the president of the United States refused to ratify it; but this month was well employed by the Americans in hurrying troops and supplies to the front.

To defend the Niagara frontier, Brock had at his disposal



HAULING CANNON DURING THE WAR OF 1812

From "Upper Canada Sketches," by permission of the author, Thomas Conant, Esq.

a force of fifteen hundred men scattered along its whole length of thirty-six miles. On the opposite side of the river were eight thousand six hundred Americans and four hundred Seneca Indians, under the command of Generals Van Rensselaer and Smyth. Brock knew that an attack might be expected at any minute,

but just at what point it would be delivered he did not know. In the early morning of October 13th, in the midst of a violent storm of wind and rain, the Americans began the crossing of the river at a point immediately opposite Queenston Heights. They were discovered just as they set out, and a vigorous fire, which did much damage, was opened upon them. Brock was at Fort George, seven miles away, when he heard the firing, and immediately he galloped to the scene of action. On the way, he passed the York company, who were also hurrying to the front, and encouraged them by the shout,

"Push on, brave York Volunteers." Soon after he reached Queenston, he found that about four hundred of the Americans had succeeded in landing and had occupied the heights. Determining to dislodge them at once, he put himself at the head of the small force of two hundred men who were already on the ground, and dashed up the hill. A galling fire met the little band, of whom almost the first to fall was their gallant leader. It was impossible to advance; they were forced to retreat, carrying with them the body of their dead general. About two hours later, Colonel Macdonell, Brock's aide-de-camp, who had come up with two companies of the York Volunteers, made another unsuccessful attack on the hill, and was mortally wounded. The Americans retained possession of the heights, and in the meantime had been strongly reinforced. The morning ended in disaster for the British.

In the afternoon the real battle began. General Sheaffe, on whom the command had fallen, arrived with reinforcements. His whole force consisted of about one thousand men, of whom one-half were regulars, and one-half volunteers, including one hundred and fifty Indians. Recognizing that it would be useless to make an attack in front, Sheaffe determined to surround the enemy. The movement was completely successful. So surprised were the Americans at the attack from the rear, that they broke and fled. But there was no escape. On three sides were the British, burning to avenge their fallen leader, and on the other the roaring waters of the Niagara at the base of a cliff two hundred feet in height. In an hour the battle was over; those of the Americans who had not fallen in the struggle or had not been huried over the cliff, surrendered, to the



BROCK'S MONUMENT ON
QUEENSTON HEIGHTS

number of over nine hundred. The victory was a glorious one, but dimmed by a national disaster. But the spirit that lived in Brock still continued to animate the defenders of the Canadas during the dark days to come, and stimulated them to continue the struggle "to keep the land inviolate."

With the battle of Queenston Heights the campaign of 1812 practically closed, although a futile attempt to invade Upper Canada was made by General Smyth. Everywhere the invaders had been thrust back over the border. Success had put new heart into the militia, and prepared them for the sterner struggle in the following year.

149. **The campaign of 1813.**—By the opening of spring the American forces were greatly increased, and at almost every point outnumbered those of the defenders. At Plattsburg lay an army of thirteen thousand men under General Dearborn, while Sir George Prevost had only three thousand for the defence of Montreal. To oppose twenty-two hundred Americans at Sackett's Harbour, backed by five thousand on Lake Champlain, only fifteen hundred men could be mustered. On the Niagara frontier five thousand Americans faced a force of twenty-three hundred British. Only at Detroit did the British outnumber the enemy.



A BRITISH SERGEANT

In danger and hardship the coming campaign was to try to the utmost the courage and endurance of the Canadian people. Great Britain was fully occupied in Europe and could send little aid to her struggling colonies. The situation was made all the more trying by the scarcity of supplies and suitable means of transportation. Salt pork and biscuits were imported from England, while some beef and cattle were brought in from Vermont. These supplies, however, had to be hauled up the St. Lawrence—in winter on sleds, during

the summer in flat-boats. These crude methods of transportation were very slow, and entailed great labour. The urgent call to arms had drawn many of the settlers from their homes, with the result that the farms were in danger of being neglected. In this crisis the Canadian women came forward nobly, and took up the work of brothers and husbands, while the latter fought and bled at the front.

The early engagements of 1813 were widely scattered. In the west Colonel Procter, making a sudden movement from Detroit, fell upon Brigadier Winchester at Frenchtown, and won a stubbornly fought battle, capturing the

American general and five hundred of his men, with stores and ammunition. Upon the St. Lawrence, before the break of spring, Colonel Macdonell with a small force of regulars and volunteers made a clever raid upon the enemy. It was the custom



of the British troops to drill upon the ice opposite Ogdensburg. One morning, while going through their usual movements, they gradually shifted their position nearer and nearer to the American side, and, finally, making a dash for the town, they drove out the garrison at the point of the bayonet before it could rally to the defence. Eleven cannon and a large amount of stores and ammunition were captured, and four armed ships which lay in the harbour were burned.

From Sackett's Harbour the American fleet, under Commodore Chauncey, controlled Lake Ontario. Embarking twenty-five hundred men, Chauncey made a sudden descent

upon the little town of York. Important only as the seat of government, York was almost defenceless. General Sheaffe, who happened to be passing through at the time, offered some resistance, but, in the end, thinking the place not worth saving, withdrew to Kingston. The enemy, after the surrender, wantonly hurned the public buildings, pillaged the church and a number of private houses, and ransacked the library. Meanwhile, taking advantage of Chauncey's absence, Sir George Prevost made an attack upon Sackett's Harbour, but, for some unexplained reason, withdrew just as he was on the point of capturing the place.



THE LAURA SECORD MONUMENT

of the pursuers was suddenly checked. An unexpected attack by night, led by Colonel Harvey, threw the camp of the invaders into confusion and forced them to beat a hasty retreat. The two American generals and one

The war now centred for a time in the Niagara peninsula. From York the American fleet sailed for the mouth of the Niagara River, to co-operate with the land force in an attack upon Fort George. The British forces, withdrawing from Fort George, Chippawa and Fort Erie, concentrated at Beaver Dam, sixteen hundred strong. Before the advance of three thousand Americans, they fell back to Burlington Heights. At Stony Creek the advance

hundred men were captured, together with four cannon. Beaver Dam was now re-occupied and left in charge of Lieutenant James FitzGibbon, commanding thirty regulars and a small band of Mohawk Indians.

The enemy next planned to surprise FitzGibbon at Beaver Dam. The news of their intention reached the ears of James Secord, a militia officer who had been wounded, and was then living at Queenston. As he was himself unable to warn FitzGibbon, his wife, Laura Secord, undertook the dangerous mission. Driving a cow before her, until she reached the woods, that the enemy might not suspect her real aim, this brave woman set out upon her lonely journey of twenty miles through the dense forest. Added to the difficulty of making a way where there were few paths, was the constant danger of meeting lurking Indians or Americans. At the close of a long day's tramp she delivered her message to the defenders of Beaver Dam. When the American force of nearly six hundred men approached, all was in readiness. With the unexpected aid of eleven neighbouring farmers who had been alarmed by the firing, the whole force of the enemy was cleverly ambushed and compelled to surrender.

Both Lake Ontario and Lake Erie witnessed naval encounters during the campaign of 1813. Off Fort Niagara the first engagement took place, between the British fleet of six ships commanded by Sir James Yeo and an American fleet of fourteen sail under Commodore Chauncey. After sustaining a loss of four ships, two captured and two disabled, Chauncey withdrew under shelter of the Fort Niagara battery. A month later a more stubborn fight took place on Lake Erie, which resulted in a decided victory for the enemy. Commodore Perry, with a fleet built under his own

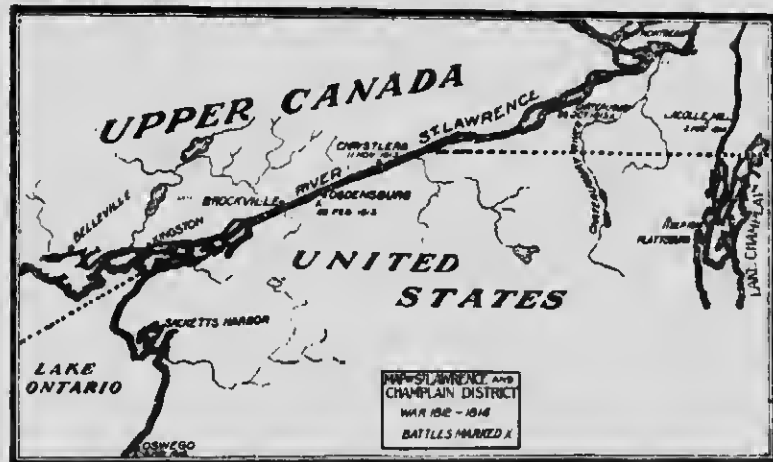


TECUMSEH

direction and superior in ships, men and guns, defeated Captain Barclay at Put-in Bay and destroyed or captured all his vessels.

Barclay's defeat made it impossible to hold Detroit. Procter, therefore, with his thirteen hundred men, including five hundred Indians under Tecumseh, began a retreat up the Thames, closely followed by General Harrison at the head of three thousand Americans. At Moraviantown, the British and their Indian allies turned to await the enemy. Neglecting all precautions to strengthen his position, Procter fled before the first attack of the enemy. The gallant Tecumseh refused to retire, and fell fighting upon the field which his commander had disgraced by his flight. The next day Harrison burned Moraviantown, and then marched back to Detroit. Procter was afterwards tried by court-martial, and was sentenced to a public reprimand and suspension from rank and pay for six months.

It was late in the season when the Americans began to carry out a plan of attack upon Montreal. The movement was to be twofold, one army descending the St. Law-



rence, the other the Châteauguay, the two to unite at the mouth of the latter river. General Hampton crossed over from Lake Champlain to the Châteauguay River, having at his command a force of about three thousand five

hundred men. At a favourable point upon the river his advance was checked by Colonel de Salaberry with between three and four hundred French-Canadian riflemen and a band of Indians, supported by Colonel Maedonell in command of a regiment of French-Canadian militia. The first attack of the enemy was sustained by De Salaberry, who, when his line was driven in, ordered his bugler to sound the call for the reserves. Colonel Maedonell, reinforced by one hundred Indians, hastened to the aid of his commander. On his way, he instructed his buglers to scatter through the woods and to make as much noise as possible. The sound of many bugles, together with the shouting of the soldiers and the whoops of the Indians, gave the impression that a large army was pressing forward. Fearing that his force would be annihilated, Hampton withdrew in confusion, followed by a withering fire from the victorious French-Canadians. This victory was one of the most brilliant of the whole war.

Equally ill-starred was the fortune of the second army of invasion, which set out from Sackett's Harbour. As the main body, under General Wilkinson, descended the St. Lawrence, a force of twenty-five hundred men protected the rear. Following closely upon his rear-guard and continually annoying it, came a band of eight hundred regulars and militia from Kingston, under the command of Colonel Morrison. At Chryster's Farm the enemy turned about "to brush away the annoyance," but were themselves utterly routed by a force which they outnumbered three to one. Wilkinson, learning of Hampton's defeat on the Châteauguay, gave up the idea of taking Montreal and withdrew across the border.



COLONEL DE SALABERRY

Save for the burning of Newark by the enemy, and of the

American towns from Fort Niagara to Buffalo by the Canadians, the land campaign of 1813 was at an end. The only Canadian territory held by the enemy was Amherstburg, while "the British flag floated over Fort Niagara, and the whole American side of the river was a ruined country."

150. The campaign of 1814.—The campaign of 1814 opened with General Wilkinson's advance into Lower Canada with an army four thousand strong. The progress of this force was effectually checked at La Colle mill, a large, two-



THE MONUMENT AT LUNDY'S LANE

storied stone structure about two miles up the La Colle River, a tributary of the Richelieu. Such was the mettle of the defenders, five hundred in number, that they even dared to make a sortie against an enemy eight times as numerous. The Americans, daunted by the successful defence of the mill, and galled by the effective fire of some British gun-boats that now came up the Richelieu, withdrew across the border. Further good fortune rested with the British cause in the capture of Oswego by Sir

Gordon Drummond, assisted by the fleet under Sir James Yeo; but this success was followed by a reverse at Sandy Creek, where two hundred marines and seamen were ambushed and captured by the Americans.

In the Niagara peninsula, however, took place the most decisive struggle of the campaign. Forced back from Chippawa, where they lost five hundred men in a rash attack on a strongly defended position, the British forces, raised by reinforcements under General Drummond to a strength

of twenty-eight hundred, faced an army of four thousand Americans. A road lying within hearing distance of Niagara Falls, now famous as Lundy's Lane, became the scene of the last great battle of the war. From five o'clock until midnight the fight continued. Amid the darkness the combatants fought for the most part hand to hand, so that the loss on both sides was heavy. The fortune of battle swayed from side to side, but victory at last rested with the British. The enemy, leaving their dead and wounded on the field, fled through the darkness to Chippawa. On the following day, throwing their heavy baggage into the river, and destroying the Chippawa bridge, they continued their flight to Fort Erie. The American loss was about nine hundred; that of the British eighty-four killed and five hundred and fifty-nine wounded. In this hard-fought battle the Canadian militia well upheld their high reputation. General Drummond, himself, wrote warmly of their zeal and loyalty, and of their conspicuous gallantry under fire.

The closing event of the war in the Canadas brought humiliation to the British arms. With Napoleon banished to Elba, Great Britain was free to send strong reinforcements to America. Thus it was that Sir George Prevost was enabled to advance against Plattsburg with an army of eleven thousand men, many of them veterans of the Peninsular War. Discouraged by the destruction of the fleet which accompanied him, Sir George turned back from a task which he might easily have accomplished without the aid of ships. He was summoned to England to answer for his conduct, but died before the trial took place.

In the meantime, the Maritime Provinces were not idle. Under the active leadership of Sir John Sherbrooke, the lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia, Maine was invaded, and that portion of the state lying between the Penobscot River and New Brunswick was brought under British rule. Until the close of the war, Sherbrooke administered this territory, the inhabitants of which cheerfully submitted.

The Atlantic seaboard was now blockaded by the British fleets. Backed by one of these, a land force took Washington, and burned its public buildings. Both sides were now

ready for peace. On the day before Christmas the treaty of Ghent was signed. Both sides were to give up all territory acquired during the war. This meant the restoration of Michilimackinac and the seaboard of Maine by Great Britain, and of Amherstburg by the United States. American fishermen lost certain fishing privileges on the shores of British North America which they had hitherto enjoyed.

151. Effects of the war.—The Americans had little reason to feel proud of their part in the struggle just ended. They had forced on a war which might have been averted, and had attacked an unoffending people. They had gained absolutely nothing in wealth, in territory, least of all in national honour. Their export trade had dwindled in one year from over one hundred million dollars to less than seven millions, their imports from one hundred and forty millions to fifteen millions. No fewer than three thousand of their merchant vessels had fallen into the hands of British seamen.

The Canadas, too, had suffered greatly. Although enriched by the special expenditure of British wealth during the war, the people had yet to bear the burden of suffering caused by the interruption to industries and by the destruction of valuable property. Canadians, however, unlike their late enemy, had the satisfaction of feeling that they had come out of the war with no little honour. They had entered into the struggle with slight hope of victory; they came out of it conscious of their ability to defend themselves and their country in times of danger.

SUMMARY

In 1812 war was declared between Great Britain and the United States, and against the Canadas the enemy's attack was directed. The hopes of the defenders of Upper Canada centred in their leader, Major-General Isaac Brock. In the campaign of 1812, the British captured Michilimackinac and Detroit, and won a decisive victory at Queenston Heights. The campaign of 1813 brought victory and defeat alike to the cause of Great Britain—victory at Frenchtown, Ogdensburg, Stoney Creek, Beaver Dam, Chrystler's Farm, on Lake Ontario; defeat at York, on Lake Erie, and at Moraviantown. In 1814, the British checked the advance of the enemy at La Colle mill, captured Oswego, and won the last great battle of the war at Lundy's Lane, but were driven back from Plattsburg. The treaty of Ghent closed the war.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE STRUGGLE FOR RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

DEMAND FOR RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT, 1815-1837

152. **The common problem of the provinces.**—The call to arms in 1812 had hushed political turmoil in all the provinces, but the war which followed had in no way affected the questions at issue between the parties. No sooner had peace been restored than the old differences again claimed public attention. The Constitutional Act had given to the people the privilege of electing an Assembly to represent them in the government. A quarter of a century had passed, and the members of the Assembly found that they had very little power. Many bills passed by them were rejected by the Legislative Council. The latter body was everywhere in league with the Executive Council and the governor. Both Councils were appointed by the governor, and so were independent of the Assembly. In the Maritime Provinces the two Councils sat as one body. Even where the two were separate, many were members of both. The bonds binding these councillors together were often very strong. Many were bound by family ties; most were residents of the same city and members of the same church, the Episcopal. It was this close union of the ruling class that gave rise to the term "Family Compact."

During this period of strife were formed the two great political parties. The members of the Family Compact and their followers were called Conservatives, or Tories; their opponents, Liberals or Reformers. Many serious questions arose between these parties. The Executive Council had control of the crown lands and also of part of the public funds. The Reformers, who gradually gained a majority in the Assembly, protested against the Executive Council having so much power. The public lands and the en-

ture revenue of the country belonged, they said, to the people, and should, therefore, be entirely under the control of the Assembly. They claimed, moreover, that the Executive Council should be made responsible to the Assembly, and that judges and church officials should be excluded, on the ground that there should be no connection between government and either the church or the courts. Many years were to pass before the cause of reform triumphed, and in two provinces political strife was to break into open rebellion.

153. **Lower Canada.**—In Lower Canada the Assembly was at variance with the Legislative and Executive Councils. In this province there was another element of discord; namely, racial jealousy. While both Councils were chosen mainly from the English-speaking population, the Assembly was almost entirely French-speaking. The Assembly demanded a Legislative Council elected by the people. Such an arrangement would have placed the Council as completely under the control of the French-speaking people as was the Assembly.

The standing dispute between the Executive Council and the Assembly was over the control of public funds. The revenue of the province came from three sources. First, there was the revenue arising from duties levied by the crown "towards defraying the expenses of the administration of justice and the support of the civil government of the province." In the second place, there was the "casual and territorial" revenue, derived from the lease of mines and the sale of crown lands. Finally, there were the returns from the duties levied by the provincial Parliament. The first two sources of revenue were controlled by the governor and his Council, only the third being in the hands of the Assembly. The Assembly never ceased to claim the right to control all the revenues of the province. The Executive, however, was quite independent as long as the funds under its control were sufficient to pay the salaries of the officials.

The contest began early in the century. It was the custom of the governor and his Council to pay the salaries of public officials, the "civil list" as it was called, and the running expenses of the government, out of the revenue

under their control. During the administration of the Earl of Dalhousie, who became governor-general in 1820, the funds at the disposal of the Executive failed to cover the "civil list." The Assembly, called upon to vote more money, agreed to do so provided all public accounts were submitted for its approval. Dalhousie refused to comply with this condition, and drew money from the public treasury without the consent of the Assembly.

The Reform party in the Assembly found an able, though rash, leader in Louis Joseph Papineau. At the close of the War of 1812, in which he served as an officer of militia, Papineau entered Parliament, being then twenty-six years of age. Natural ability brought him quickly to the front. The spirit of loyalty which drew him into the war characterized his opening speech of welcome to Dalhousie. "On the day on which Canada came under the dominion of Great Britain," he said, "the reign of law succeeded that of violence." Papineau, however, soon drifted into bitter opposition to the governor. For ten years he was Speaker of the Assembly, and it was in connection with his re-election to the chair that he came into conflict with Dalhousie. The latter refused to accept him for the office. The Assembly protested, and all business was at a standstill, the governor finally proroguing the House. Public meetings were held all over the province, and a statement of grievances, bearing eighty-seven thousand signatures, was drawn up and forwarded to London. The British government, after a careful consideration of these grievances, made some important changes. The crown duties were placed under the control of the Assembly, on condition that a permanent "civil list" was voted. All judges were to give up their seats in the



LOUIS JOSEPH PAPINEAU

Legislative Council, and bishops were to cease to take part in the government. The two Councils were to be enlarged and made to represent all classes and interests, the members not to be holders of government offices. Lord Dalhousie in 1828 was recalled. His successor accepted Papineau as Speaker and the trouble was, for the time being, ended.

These concessions brought about only a temporary settlement. The British government was willing to have the Assembly control all revenue save the "casual and territorial," provided it voted a permanent "civil list." But the Assembly insisted upon controlling the whole revenue. It was about this time, also, that it began to demand an elective Legislative Council. For a time the "civil list" was voted year by year, but finally the vote of money for the salaries of officials ceased entirely. As the "casual and territorial" revenue was insufficient to meet the demand, the salaries were left unpaid. In 1834 the Assembly embodied its grievances in "Ninety-two Resolutions," which were sent to the British government. It is noteworthy that these resolutions contained nothing to show that the Assembly desired a responsible Executive. The key-note of the document was the demand for an elective Legislative Council. The resolutions contained extravagant praise of the institutions of the United States, which "commanded the affection of the people in a larger measure than those of any other country," and "should be taken as models of government for Canada." A commission was sent by the British government in 1835 to investigate the affairs of the province, one of the commissioners, Lord Gosford, being appointed governor-general. In reporting, the commissioners recommended that the entire revenue be handed over to the Assembly in return for a permanent "civil list," but they advised against an elective Legislative Council. The French-speaking majority in the Assembly, however, was not to be conciliated, and, under the rash leading of Papineau, was drifting swiftly into armed rebellion.

154. **Upper Canada.**—In Upper Canada the Family Compact was strongly entrenched. It dominated the two

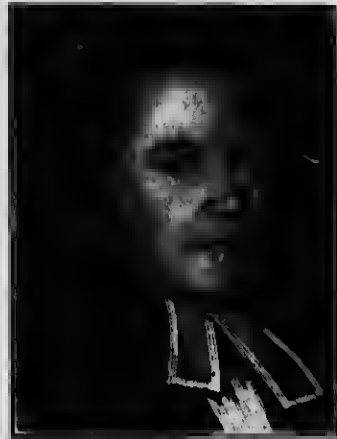
Councils; it controlled land grants and appointments to public offices. The ruling faction had so great an influence and so many members of the Assembly. Against this combination the reform party at first made little headway. The actions of the Family Compact in dealing with the Reformers were often unjust. In the ranks of the Reformers were many men and some men who, having recently come over from the United States, openly advocated republican principles of government. Little wonder, then, that sons of Loyalists, as many members of the Family Compact were, should be severe in their attitude toward those whom they regarded as disloyal to Great Britain. On the other hand, it must be remembered that among the Reformers were many men of Loyalist blood, who, while strongly advocating responsible government, never wavered in their allegiance to Great Britain.

Two of the most influential members of the governing party were John Beverley Robinson, lawyer, and John Strachan, clergyman. The former, of Loyalist stock, became acting attorney-general of the province at the age of twenty-one. Later he was made chief-justice, and finally, in recognition of his services to the crown, was made a baronet. His ability and fearless honesty won the respect even of his opponents. It was his very loyalty that drew him into actions which, viewed from our day, seem tyrannical. John Strachan, afterwards first Anglican bishop of Toronto, became a member of the Executive Council in 1815. The most prominent figure in the church, he was at the same time a skilled statesman. More than any other man of the time he directed the policy of the ruling class.



SIR JOHN BEVERLEY ROBINSON

The lieutenant-governors, seeing that they occupied a non-partisan office, might have been expected to limit the undue power of the Family Compact. Unfortunately, the men who held office during this period, Sir Peregrine Maitland, Sir John Colborne, and Sir Francis Bond Head, all made common cause with the ruling faction. They had



BISHOP STRACHAN

served their country on the field of battle, and held high ideals of loyalty. Whenever they saw the Reformers attacking the government, they were too ready to attribute these attacks to disloyalty to the crown.

In Upper Canada a church question made the situation even more difficult. By the Constitutional Act one-seventh of the ungranted lands of the province, two and one-half million acres in all, was set apart for the support of the "Protestant clergy." This term of the Act was severely criticized. In the first place the grant was too large. Secondly, the fact that the land granted was not all in one block, but made up of lots numbered "seven" in each township, resulted in the evil of uncleared blocks where the surrounding land was under cultivation. Difficulty arose, also, over the definition of the term "Protestant clergy." At first it was interpreted by the government to mean only the clergy of the church of England. Later it came to include the established church of Scotland. The exclusion of the Methodists and Baptists led to more trouble. Some of these held that the revenue from the Clergy Reserves should be divided among all the Protestant churches. Others, mainly the Baptists, holding that no church should be supported from the public funds, urged that the entire revenue be devoted to secular purposes. The question was discussed everywhere, in pulpit, Parliament, and press, and became an important factor in the trouble

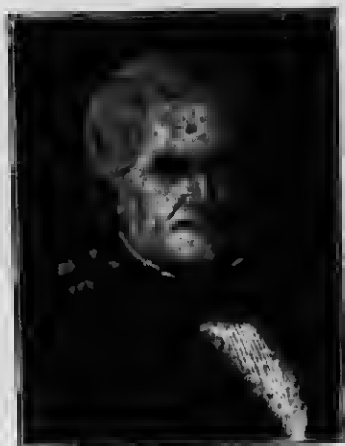
leading to the rebellion. The champion of the Anglican church in this controversy was Dr. Strachan, who severely attacked the other denominations. His attacks called forth a spirited reply from a young Methodist minister named Egerton Ryerson, who became the leader of the "dissenting" churches in their struggle for the secularization of the Clergy Reserves. These two men were afterwards to play important parts in the history of their province, not only in church matters, but also in politics and in education.

One of the first to incur the displeasure of the government in Upper Canada was an eccentric Scotsman, Robert Gourlay, a land agent by occupation. Roused by what he considered the unjust administration of provincial affairs, Gourlay sent to every township a list of questions, the last of which read, "What, in your opinion, retards the improvement of your township in particular, or of the province in general, and what would most contribute to the same?" Public meetings were held everywhere, much to the alarm of the government. Gourlay was twice arrested on the charge of libel, and twice acquitted. Arrested a third time, charged with sedition, he was cast into prison, where he remained for seven months. Finally, in 1819, he was tried at Niagara, convicted, and expelled from the country.

Francis Collins, editor of the *Canadian Freeman*, a paper published in the interests of the Reformers, was the next victim of official displeasure. So bitter were his criticisms of the government and its officials, that he was prosecuted for libel by the attorney-general, John Beverley Robinson, and was convicted, fined, and imprisoned. The people, in full sympathy with the prisoner, paid his fine, and petitioned the governor to set him free. The petition was refused. In the following year, however, Collins was pardoned by the king in response to an appeal from the Assembly.

By far the most notable champion of the popular cause was a hot-tempered Scotsman named William Lyon Mackenzie, the editor of the *Colonial Advocate*, published first at Queenston, later at York. The *Advocate*, whose columns were mainly devoted to attacks upon the government, did

not prove a paying concern, so that Mackenzie's resources were soon at a low ebb. An ill-advised act, however, on the



WILLIAM LYON MACKENZIE

part of some Tory youths, unexpectedly brought him better fortune. The printing press of the *Advocate* was seized and destroyed, and the type thrown into the lake. In the courts Mackenzie recovered damages, but greater than his gain in money was his gain in popularity. He was shortly afterwards elected to the Assembly as member for York. In the Legislature he denounced the government as vigorously as he had through the press. Expelled from the Assembly for the use of immoderate language, he was straightway re-elected. Again and again he was expelled, and as often re-elected. As a final proof of his popularity, when York was incorporated in 1834 under the name of Toronto, Mackenzie was chosen its first mayor.

In 1830 a split took place in the ranks of the Reform party, caused by the extravagance of Mackenzie's views and speech. The more moderate Reformers, such as Robert Baldwin and Egerton Ryerson, stood aloof from the Radical wing of the party. Mackenzie had already gone the length of advocating republican principles, even to the point of breaking with Great Britain. He was in correspondence with Papineau, who had invited concerted action. He had also received and published in his paper a letter from an English Radical named Hume, who prophesied that the course of events in the Canadas must terminate in "independence and freedom from the baneful domination of the Mother Country."

In the elections of 1835 the Reformers won the day. Under the leadership of Mackenzie a "Report on Grievances" was passed by the Assembly and submitted to the British government. This report opened the eyes of British

statesmen to the condition of affairs in Canada. The lieutenant-governor, Sir John Colborne, was recalled, and Sir Francis Bond Head appointed in his place. Yet the British government was not prepared to go so far as to grant responsible government. It is true that the Executive Council in the home government was responsible to Parliament, but in the Canadas the case was, in their opinion, different. Imperial statesmen thought that to grant responsible government to a colony would be to make it practically independent.

Never was a political situation in such need of a tactful ruler. A wise governor might have conciliated even the extreme wing of the Reform party. Unfortunately, Sir Francis Bond Head was too self-confident, and in addition was ignorant of Upper Canadian affairs. He summoned three Reformers to his Council, at the same time telling them that they were not responsible to the Assembly and that he would not necessarily act upon their advice. The three ministers promptly resigned, and Sir Francis, washing his hands of the entire Reform party, cast his influence upon the side of the Conservatives. The Assembly passed an address censuring Bond Head, and refused to vote supplies. The lieutenant-governor dissolved the House. In the elections which followed, Sir Francis, forgetting the non-partisan character of his office, threw himself heart and soul into the cause of the Conservatives. With him reform meant disloyalty. The Reformers were defeated, even Mackenzie failing to win a seat. Bitterly disappointed in his hope of securing reform through political agitation, the impulsive Scotsman resolved to risk all upon the hazardous chance of rebellion.

155. **Nova Scotia.**—In Nova Scotia the struggle between the two political factions was postponed for some years by the depression in trade which followed the war, and the removal of the British fleet from Halifax to Bermuda. Moreover, the government was strong enough to overawe all opposition. The Executive and Legislative Councils constituted one body, and sat behind closed doors, in spite of the protest of the Assembly. In this province, also,

the lieutenant-governor sided with the governing class, looking upon the Reformers as enemies of the crown. One of the most stubborn opponents of all change was Sir Colin Campbell, who became lieutenant-governor in 1834. On the other hand, the ablest advocate of reform was Joseph Howe, a young man of Loyalist blood. Educated under the greatest disadvantages, Howe more than made up for any defects in scholarship by his natural genius and untiring energy.

Halifax, not yet incorporated, was ruled by magistrates appointed by the lieutenant-governor. These officials were independent of the people, and were guilty of the most glaring neglect and dishonesty. The charge of corruption was made publicly in 1835, through the columns of the *Nova Scotian*, of which Howe was editor. Prosecuted for criminal libel, Howe was advised to settle out of court. Conscious that he was in the right, the youthful editor refused to withdraw the charge, and, ignorant though he was of legal procedure, undertook his own defence. In spite of the fact that the chief-justice of the province, who was a member of the Council, presided at the trial and charged directly against Howe, the jury, after an absence from the court room of ten minutes, brought in a verdict of "not guilty." In the following year Howe was elected to the Assembly, where he at once stepped to the front rank of the Reformers. What Papi an and Mackenzie were in the Canadas, Howe was in Nova Scotia, the chosen leader of the people. Like them, he threw in his weight with the cause of reform, and against the tyranny of the government. But in one respect Howe was a greater leader than either of his contemporaries; namely, in his loyalty to the crown. By every constitutional means he strove to attain the ends of reform, but his loyalty to Great Britain kept him clear of even the thought of rebellion.

Under Howe's leadership the Assembly succeeded in bringing about some important reforms. The Council was forced to discontinue its secret sessions. In 1837, "Twelve Resolutions" were drawn up by the Assembly, and submitted to the British government. The result was several

decided changes. Sir Colin Campbell was instructed to form two separate Councils, a Legislative and an Executive, and to choose the members of the latter partly from the Assembly. The chief-justice and the bishop were to be excluded from both Councils. The Assembly was given control of all public funds except the "casual and territorial" revenue. In carrying out his instructions the lieutenant-governor appointed to the Executive Council only such members of the Assembly as were friendly to the ruling faction. The Assembly was by no means satisfied, complaining that the Council was still irresponsible, and refused to vote the "civil list" for more than a year at a time. A second delegation was sent to England to ask for further reform. The Council sent a counter-delegation. The outcome was by no means favourable to the Reformers, as the British government refused to grant an Executive Council entirely responsible to the Assembly. Although the cause of reform was at a standstill, the Reformers never wavered in their loyalty to the crown.

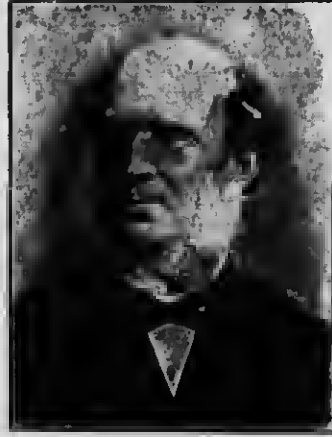


JOSEPH HOWE

156. **New Brunswick.**—In New Brunswick the first success of the Assembly was won in 1832, when the Executive and Legislative Councils were separated. This decision made it possible to appoint members of the Assembly to the Executive Council. The lieutenant-governor, however, refused to do so. Here, as in the other provinces, trouble arose over the revenue. The crown lands were under the management of a commissioner appointed by the lieutenant-governor, and so were beyond the reach of the Assembly. The proceeds from these lands were directed to the payment of the "civil list." In New Brunswick, as in no other province, a large surplus remained. Of this the Assembly claimed control,

but the lieutenant-governor, Sir Archibald Campbell, maintained that the lands belonged to the king, and should not, therefore, be in the hands of the people's representatives.

The cause of reform in New Brunswick found its greatest champion in Lemuel Allan Wilmot, a young lawyer, who entered the Assembly in 1836. Ability and eloquence soon



LEMUEL ALLAN WILMOT

put him at the head of his party, and later won him a place on a delegation sent to England to petition the British government for much-needed reforms. Many of these reforms were granted. The lieutenant-governor was recommended to choose some members of the Executive Council from the Assembly. The Assembly was given control of the "casual and territorial" revenue on condition that it voted a permanent "civil list" of sixty thousand pounds. Sir Archibald Campbell was forced

to resign. Under his successor, Sir John Harvey, the hero of Stony Creek, the Assembly enjoyed its new privilege. Although there was still much to be gained in the way of reform, the province was kept in a state of comparative peace by the popular rule of the new lieutenant-governor.

157. **Prince Edward Island.**—Prince Edward Island was unfortunate in one at least of its early lieutenant-governors. Arbitrary in the extreme, he insulted the Assembly by frequently dissolving and proroguing it, and for four years neglected even to summon its members. His successors were fortunately less despotic. The great problem in Prince Edward Island was the land question. Large tracts of land were held by landlords living in England. The government tax, called "quit-rent," became very burdensome, and many owners fell in arrears. Later, all arrears were cancelled, and the tax was reduced. For some years the tax **was not collected at all, and the owners began to think that**

it would be removed. Then, without any warning, the lieutenant-governor sent out agents to collect the rents from the tenants occupying the land. The occupants had no money to pay the tax, and there was general indignation at the lieutenant-governor's action. Public meetings were held, and a petition was drawn up asking for his recall. The petition was granted, and under a wiser ruler the island became more peaceful. Prince Edward Island had to face the problems common to all the provinces. Its Assembly had to pass through a period of agitation to secure a responsible Executive Council, and control of the public funds.

SUMMARY

The opening of this period, 1815-37, saw in each province two opposing factions: on the one hand, the Family Compact entrenched in the Legislative and Executive Councils and supported by the governor; on the other hand, the party of reform, represented in the Assembly. Save for side issues, such as the Clergy Reserves in Upper Canada, race jealousy in Lower Canada, and the land question in Prince Edward Island, the two problems common to all the provinces were revenue control and the responsibility of the Executive Council to the Assembly. The close of the period found the Assembly everywhere in control of the revenue. The responsibility of the Executive, however, the British government was not yet prepared to admit.

REBELLION AND UNION, 1837-1841

158. **Popular leaders.**—The cause of reform was at a standstill. In the quarter of a century following the War of 1812 much had been gained, but responsible government, for which the Assemblies were petitioning, was yet withheld. Two courses were open to the Reformers, either to await the outcome of steady constitutional pressure, or to take up arms in rebellion. The choice rested mainly with the leader of the people in each province. Fortunately for the Maritime Provinces, the Reformers were guided by such moderate statesmen as Howe and Wilmot, who were not to be outdone in loyalty by their most conservative opponents. The reform cause in the Canadas was less happily championed. Papineau and Mackenzie,

disappointed in their efforts to gain their ends by political agitation cast judgment to the winds, and dragged the more excitable members of their party into rebellion.

159. **The rebellion in Lower Canada.**—Acting upon the report of the commission appointed to look into the affairs of Lower Canada, the British government had declined to grant an elective Council or a responsible Executive. Moreover, seeing that the Assembly had refused to vote supplies, the governor-general was instructed to take money from the provincial treasury to pay all arrears in connection with the "civil list." Nothing more was needed to bring the rebellion to a head. Public meetings were held, the people organizing themselves into societies called "Sons of Liberty." Their leader was greeted with cries of "Long live Papineau, our Deliverer!" Associated with Papineau was Dr. Wolfred Nelson, a man of great eloquence and commanding influence. At St. Charles on the Richelieu was erected a "Liberty Column," about which the rebels mustered. St. Denis was another rallying point, and here Nelson was in command. Meanwhile, the loyal subjects of the province were gathering at Montreal. From Upper Canada came all the regular troops, in spite of the fact that that province also was exposed to a rebellion. The lieutenant-governor, not unwisely, trusted to the militia of the younger province to maintain order within its borders.

Sir John Colborne, commander-in-chief of the loyal forces,



QUEEN VICTORIA IN 1837

brought a firm hand to bear upon the uprising. Expeditions were sent against the two centres of rebellion. Colonel Gore, after a sixteen-mile march on a stormy night, attacked Nelson's position at St. Denis; hut, having only one gun to train upon the stone walls of the distillery in which the rebels were lodged, he was forced to withdraw. Colonel Wetherall, in command of the movement against St. Charles, was more fortunate. The leader of the *habitants* at this point, an American who styled himself "General" Brown, fled at the first shot, and his ill-advised followers were quickly routed. At the news of Wetherall's victory, Nelson's force at St. Denis scattered. The rebellion, save for a hopeless stand in the villages of St. Eustache and St. Benoit, north of Montreal was now at an end. Very early in the outbreak, Papineau, acting upon the advice of his friends, had sought safety in the United States.

160. **The rebellion in Upper Canada.**—Meanwhile, in Upper Canada, Mackenzie was following the example of Papineau. Breaking completely with the more moderate Reformers, such as Baldwin and Ryerson, he issued a declaration setting forth the grievances against the government and renouncing allegiance to Great Britain. A proclamation, issued by Mackenzie as "Chairman *pro tem* of the Provisional Government of the State of Upper Canada," called upon the people to rise. The mustering place was Montgomery's Tavern on Yonge Street, a few miles north of Toronto. The object of the insurgents was to seize the military stores in the City Hall, but the prompt arming of the loyal inhabitants frustrated the plan. Five hundred militiamen advanced against the four hundred half-armed rebels, and after a slight skirmish put them to flight. Mackenzie fled to the United States, and at once established his headquarters at Navy Island in the Niagara River, where he and his followers, calling themselves "Patriots," established a "Provisional Government." The steamer *Caroline* was made use of to carry supplies to his camp. One night a band of volunteers, acting under instructions from Colonel MacNah, put out from the Canadian shore in rowboats to capture the

enemy's vessel. Though lying under the guns of the American fort, the *Caroline* was cut loose, set on fire, and sent over the Falls. Mackenzie soon abandoned Navy Island, and withdrew to the United States.

Sir Francis Bond Head, who had resigned the governorship rather than carry out the instructions of the Colonial Office to appoint Reformers to his Council, was succeeded by Sir George Arthur. The new governor was inflexible in his determination to punish severely those who had taken part in the rebellion. Matthews and Lount, two of the leaders, were tried, convicted, and hanged. The jails were filled with prisoners. It was only the interference of the home government that prevented further executions.

In the following year, several attempts were made from the United States to invade Canada. At Prescott, a Polish exile named Van Schultz, at the head of two hundred men, was defeated by a party of volunteers from Kingston and captured. Van Schultz and eleven of his men were executed. At Sandwich a party of four hundred and fifty invaders engaged in a fierce struggle with about two hundred of the Canadian militia. There was some bloodshed on both sides, but the invaders were driven back. Three of the prisoners were executed and a number transported, but the majority were pardoned.

161. Reason for the failure of the rebellions.—The rebellions of Upper and Lower Canada had ended in miserable failure. Nor could it have been otherwise. Both Papineau and Mackenzie misjudged the feeling of the majority of the people. In Lower Canada the full influence of the church and of the seigniors was upon the side of the government. Only the more thoughtless *habitants* allowed themselves to be carried away by the eloquence of Papineau. To say that the rebellion was of the French-Canadian nation is to malign the majority of a people who had stood loyal to Great Britain in two crises. It would be equally unjust to hold the reform party as a whole responsible for the rashness of its extreme members.

162. Lord Durham.—Naturally rebellion gave a setback to reform. It threw discredit upon the Reformers, while it

everywhere strengthened the position of the governing classes. Yet the risings were not without good effect. They impressed upon the British government how great was the need of a change in the administration of the colonies. An increased interest in colonial affairs found expression in the appointment, in 1838, of Lord Durham to be governor-general, and to act as high commissioner to investigate the abuses which had provoked rebellion. Unfortunately Durham's stay in the Canadas was short. Called upon to deal with the instigators of the late rising, he pursued a policy which met with the disapproval of the home government. Most of the ring-leaders had fled to the United States. The majority of the prisoners he pardoned, but eight, including Nelson, he banished to Bermuda. The home government disallowed this decree, and so severely was the governor criticized that he resigned and sailed for England. Short as was his administration, it was long enough to admit of his obtaining a grasp of the political situation in all the provinces.



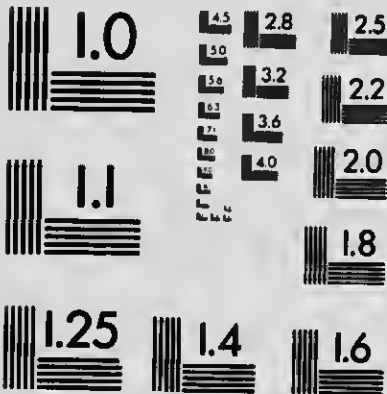
LORD DURHAM

The now famous "Durham's Report," issued in January, 1839, is one of the most remarkable documents relating to the history of Canada. Durham sent agents to each province to inquire into the state of the government and the grievances of the people. He also invited the lieutenant-governors of the Maritime Provinces and members of their Legislatures to meet him in conference at Quebec. The report, based upon facts thus carefully gathered, criticized fearlessly the existing provincial governments, asserting that "while the present state of things is allowed to last, the actual inhabitants of these provinces have no security for person or property, no enjoyment of



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what they possess, no stimulus to industry." The report contained, among others, the following recommendations: that Upper and Lower Canada be united, in order to remove race jealousies; that the Executive Council be made responsible to the Legislature; that an intercolonial railway be built, with a view to uniting all the provinces; and, finally, that municipal institutions be established.

163. **The Union Act, 1840-41.**—The imperial government lost no time in acting upon the suggestions made in Lord Durham's report. In 1839 Mr. Poulett Thomson was appointed governor-general, and entrusted with the task of bringing about the proposed change. The question of union was laid before the Legislature of Upper Canada and the special Council of Lower Canada, which had conducted the affairs of that province during the rebellion. As both bodies favoured the proposal, the imperial government in 1840 passed a measure entitled, "An act to reunite the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada and for the government of Canada." The Act came into force in the following year, 1841. It provided for a Legislative Council of not less than twenty members, appointed by the crown, and for a Legislative Assembly in which each of the united provinces would be equally represented, in all by eighty-four members. The English language only was to be used in the legislative records. Each Legislative Assembly was to have a duration of four years, unless dissolved by the governor within that time. A session of the Legislature was to be held at least once a year. All revenue over and above the expenses of the government, including the "civil list" of £75,000 fixed by the Act itself, was to be under the control of the Assembly.

SUMMARY

Two courses were open to the advocates of responsible government, either to allow steady constitutional pressure to bring about a change, or to take up arms in rebellion. In the Maritime Provinces the Liberals, restrained by the moderation of Howe and Wilmot, never wavered in their loyalty. In Upper and Lower Canada, however, rebellions broke out under the rash leadership of Mackenzie and Papineau. Few were found to follow the standard of revolt, and the outbreak was quickly suppressed. The British government now took a greater interest in

colonial affairs, and sent out Lord Durham to inquire into the cause of the rebellions. Durham's Report led to the passing of the Union Act. Upper and Lower Canada were united and given equal representation in a common Legislative Assembly.

TRIUMPH OF RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT, 1841-1848

164. **The first union Parliament.**—After the union the instructions of the British government to the governor-general were to administer the affairs of the province "in accordance with the well-understood wishes and interests of the people." He was to call to his Council and employ on public service those who had obtained "the general confidence and esteem of the province." The governor must oppose the wishes of the Assembly only when "the honour of the crown or the interests of the empire were deeply concerned." In addressing the members of the first union Parliament, the governor expressed himself as bound by the principles of responsible government. Several years, however, were to elapse before the responsibility of the Executive was fully adopted as a working principle in government.



LORD SYDENHAM AND TORONTO

Lord Sydenham—Mr. Poulett Thomson had been so honoured for his services in bringing about the union—summoned the first union Parliament to meet at Kingston in 1841. An Executive Council was appointed from both parties, including Mr. W. H. Draper, a pronounced supporter of the Family Compact, and Mr. Robert Baldwin, the recognized leader of the Upper Canadian Reformers. There were at least four parties in the Assembly: the Family Compact Tories, the moderate Tories, the moderate Reformers, and the radical Reformers. The coalition

plan did not prove a success, and in the following year Draper and the other members of his party were forced to resign. A new administration was formed, which represented the Reformers of both sections of the country. This was the La Fontaine-Baldwin ministry, so named from the two leaders, Mr. Louis H. La Fontaine of Lower Canada, and Mr. Robert Baldwin of Upper Canada. This plan of adopting a double name was continued, with one exception, down to the time of confederation.

165. The triumph of responsible government in Canada.—The members of the Family Compact, while submitting gracefully to the change brought about by the Union Act, were watching for an opportunity to regain their old influence. The opportunity came, after the death of Lord Sydenham, with the appointment of Sir Charles Metcalfe as governor. Sir Charles, being a ruler of the old school, was not disposed to recognize the principle of responsible government. Holding such views, he was not long in breaking with the La Fontaine-Baldwin ministry. His first unconstitutional act was the appointment of officials without consulting his ministers. The latter at once resigned office. A general election followed, the outcome of which was eagerly watched in all the provinces.

The contest was bitter, both the governor and his late ministers having many strong supporters. Sir Charles claimed that, as he represented the crown, he had the right to make appointments upon his own authority. The ministers, on the other hand, contended that they, as the representatives of the people, should be consulted in the choice of all officials. The governor found a staunch supporter in Dr. Egerton Ryerson, who wrote several pamphlets in defence of the former's action. The case of the ministers was ably upheld by a young Scotsman, George Brown, the founder of the *Globe*, the leading organ of the Reform party. When the election returns were in, it was found that the Conservatives had a majority, and that the governor had been sustained. Mr. Draper formed a new ministry. The successful candidate for Kingston in this election, it is interesting to note, was Mr. John Alexander Macdonald. The entry into public

life of George Brown and John A. Macdonald was an important event in the history of Canada.

In 1844 the seat of government was moved from Kingston to Montreal. In the following year Sir Allan MacNab introduced the Rebellion Losses Bill, which aimed at compensating those persons who had suffered loss of property during the recent rebellion in Upper Canada. The sum of £40,000 was voted for this purpose. Immediately a similar demand was made on behalf of the loyal citizens of Lower Canada. A proposal to make a further grant of £10,000 for this purpose roused a storm of indignation. The French-Canadian loyalists protested that the amount was too small, while the Upper Canadians were bitterly opposed to granting anything to those whom they regarded as rebels. Upon this scene of tumult came Lord Elgin, the son-in-law of Lord Durham. It was clear from the outset that the newly appointed governor, being a man of great political wisdom, would consult the wishes of the Assembly. A year later an election took place, in which the Reformers won by a large majority. The Conservative ministry, from which Mr. Draper had retired two years earlier, was forced to resign. Lord Elgin at once called upon the leaders of the Reform party, La Fontaine and Baldwin, to form a new government, by this act fully recognizing the principle of responsible government. Since that date, 1848, no Canadian governor has violated this principle.

166. Triumph of responsible government in the Maritime Provinces.—Meanwhile, in the Maritime Provinces the course of events in the Canadas had been closely watched. Conservative and Reformers alike had looked with hatred upon the rebellions, forgetting their political differences in their sympathy with the cause of loyalty. When, in connection with the union of the Canadas, the governor-general was given instructions regarding responsible government, the question arose whether these applied to all the provinces. The Reformers claimed that they did. Sir John Harvey, who was then lieutenant-governor of New Brunswick, submitted the question of responsible government to a vote of the Assembly. Owing to the governor's popularity, the

Assembly rejected the proposal by a majority of one. Sir John Howard's successor, Sir William Colebrooke, was inclined to favour the ruling classes; yet, in order to gain the confidence of the Assembly, he invited Lemuel A. Wilmot and other Reformers to join his ministry. This coalition did not last long. When the governor, assuming the right to make appointments, made his son-in-law provincial treasurer, the reform members of the ministry resigned. Three years later, in 1848, the question of responsible government again came to a vote, and was carried by an overwhelming majority, Conservatives and Reformers alike voting in its favour. In the first responsible ministry sat the reform leader, Lemuel A. Wilmot.

In Nova Scotia a different situation existed. The lieutenant-governor, Sir Colin Campbell, utterly ignored the wishes of the Assembly. The latter voted want of confidence in the Executive, yet Sir Colin refused to dismiss his unpopular ministers. Indignation was general throughout the province. Howe was still the champion of reform, but he now had a worthy foeman in the person of James W. Johnston, a man respected by the members of both parties. Sir Colin was at length recalled. His successor, Lord Falkland, adopted the plan of a coalition, and invited three Reformers, including



JAMES W. JOHNSTON

Howe, to join his Council. There was no reconciling such men as Howe and Johnston. They differed on every question, most of all upon matters of education, Howe advocating free common schools and one provincial university, Johnston favouring denominational schools and colleges state-aided. Finally, Falkland, giving up his plan of compromise, ranged himself upon the side of the Conservatives. A vacancy occurring in the Council, he

appointed a new member upon his own responsibility. Howe and his fellow-Reformers at once resigned. Lord Falkland was recalled, and his place taken by Sir John Harvey. In 1847 an election took place in which the Reformers were returned by a large majority. Johnston, the Conservative leader, resigned, and James Boyle Uniacke, a prominent Reformer, was asked to form a ministry. Howe, though deprived of this honour on account of his bitter opposition to the late governor, was given an important place in the new administration.

167. **Leaders of the period.**—Thus, by the year 1848, Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia enjoyed the advantage of responsible government. Three years later Prince Edward Island also secured a responsible Executive under the leadership of Mr. George Coles. The Constitutional Act had granted the boon of representative institutions, and now the second great principle of popular government had been adopted. The provinces were at last fully self-governing. When this change was complete, the people of the Maritime Provinces could proudly say with Howe, that "not a blow had been struck, nor a pane of glass broken" in the struggle. This contest brought into the field some notable men, whose names should be familiar to all Canadians.

There are few more striking figures in Canadian history than that of Louis Joseph Papineau. A strong personality and great eloquence enabled him to wield powerful influence over his fellow-countrymen. He was a born leader of men. Unfortunately, vanity and rashness made his leading unsafe. Papineau came back to Canada after responsible government had been won, and again took his seat in Parliament. But the day of rash statesmanship had passed, and the



SIR LOUIS H. LA FONTAINE

returned exile found that the people were being guided by men of calm judgment and moderate views, men of whom La Fontaine was a fair type. Retiring at length to his picturesque home, hidden by the overhanging groves of the Ottawa, he passed in peace the closing years of a life which had long been tossed by the storm of politics and rebellion.

With the name of Papineau there comes to the mind that of William Lyon Mackenzie, the leader of the Upper Canada rebellion. The keynote of Mackenzie's career was intense hatred of all forms of injustice and oppression. He loved political freedom above all things. It was this love of freedom, coupled with a great rashness in speech and action, which hurried him into rebellion against what he considered to be tyranny. Like Papineau, he found, upon his return from exile, that political power had passed into the hands of men who were satisfied with gradual progress in reform. He again entered Parliament, and again published a newspaper, but in both these spheres his influence was gone.

When Mackenzie was swept off his feet by the tide of rebellion, the fortunes of the more moderate Reformers were safely guided by Mr. Robert Baldwin, one of the sanest of Canadian statesmen. After the cause of reform had freed itself from the discredit which the rebellion had brought upon it, he was its recognized champion. His public career, however, was not long. Refusing to abandon his moderate political views, he was soon set aside by his party in favour of a more radical candidate for office. His name will not be forgotten by those who read aright the history of responsible government. Robert



ROBERT BALDWIN

Baldwin's most helpful associate in more than one ministry was Louis H. La Fontaine. This able French-Canadian, like most of his fellow-countrymen, had been

strongly opposed to the union, on the ground that it did injustice to Lower Canada. When once the union was concluded, however, he wisely threw himself in with the movement and did his best to guard the interest of his province.

The triumph of responsible government in the Maritime Provinces will always be associated with the names of Joseph Howe and Lemuel A. Wilmot. An eloquent orator and a masterly writer, Howe was the life-long champion of the Nova Scotian people, whose cause was ever dear to him. His fidelity, moreover, to the Mother Country, was worthy of one descended from Loyalist ancestors. Wilmot, also, was the descendant of Loyalists. Eloquence, scarcely inferior to Howe's, and wide knowledge, made him a powerful speaker and a successful leader. His valuable services to New Brunswick raised him to the bench, and, finally, to the office of lieutenant-governor of his province.

SUMMARY

The instructions of the British government to the governor were to rule "in accordance with the well-understood wishes of the people," and summon to his Council those who enjoyed "the general confidence and esteem of the province." Several years passed, however, before these instructions were fully observed in all the provinces. The struggle to enforce the principles of responsible government brought several able men into leadership: in Canada, Baldwin and La Fontaine, in the Maritime Provinces, Howe and Wilmot. Municipal government was widely spread in this period.

CHAPTER XIX

PROGRESS

1812-1841

168. **Settlement.**—Between the War of 1812 and the union, the population of the British provinces had increased rapidly. A leap from half a million to a million and a half gave evidence of progress. Of the million and a half, Lower Canada claimed 630,000, Upper Canada 470,000, and the Maritime Provinces the remainder. The first great addition to the population was the coming of the United Empire Loyalists in the closing years of the eighteenth century. The next great addition was that of "the great immigration" which followed Britain's wars with France and the United States. Heavy taxes, scarcity of work, low wages, and high prices rendered the position of the working-men of the British Isles very serious. Many sought to improve their fortunes in the colonies. In this move they were helped by the British government with a free passage, farming tools and a year's supplies. Between the years 1826 and 1832 as many as thirty thousand a year settled in the colonies.

The most remarkable increase had been in Upper Canada, whose population was almost five times as great as at the close of the War of 1812-14. Several important cities and towns had their beginning in this period, among others Ottawa (then Bytown), London, Perth, Galt, and Peterborough. An important factor in settlement was the Canada Company, formed through the efforts of John Galt. The company controlled two and a half million acres, one million of which, lying between Lake Huron and Lake Ontario, was known as the "Huron Tract." The company did good work in exploring the land under its control, in opening up roads, and also in ad-

vertising the province throughout Great Britain. Unfortunately some lands, held for purposes of speculation, stood in the way of settlement. The growth of population in the Maritime Provinces was not so marked, probably because there was no company to advertise the country by the sea, no colonizer like Galt, that worthy successor of Talbot and Selkirk.

169. **Transportation.**—Improvement in methods of transportation kept pace with the growth of settlement. The bridle-paths, along which the pioneers rode on horseback to church or to visit their neighbours, and over which pack-horses carried grain and flour, were forgotten. In their place came log roads, the familiar "corduroy," wide enough for wagons and sleighs. Soon the older settlements enjoyed graded roads, with drains and bridges, improved finally by the use



A STAGE-COACH, SEVENTY YEARS AGO, BEFORE
THE RAILWAYS WERE BUILT

of gravel. Fine roads invited stage-coaches, which were soon running between the larger towns. Upon the waterways, too, change was the order of the day. The canoe was, save for the fur trade, all but a memory. Early in the century the French-Canadian *bateaux*, capable of carrying heavy loads of merchandise, came into use. These were towed up rapids or dragged over portages by men or oxen. After the war the Durham beats, flat-bottomed barges, heavier than the *bateaux*, propelled by oars or sails, were commonly used on the lakes. Next appeared the steamboat. The great inland waterway presented by the St.

Lawrence and the Great Lakes was rendered all but useless for heavy traffic by frequent rapids. These obstacles to trade were conquered by the building of canals. The first of Canada's great canals was constructed at Lachine above Montreal, in the years 1821-24. Between 1824 and 1829 the famous Welland Canal, affording a passage between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, was built. This canal is a monument to the foresight and enterprise of William Hamilton Merritt. The construction, at a later date, of other canals on the St. Lawrence gave a waterway from Montreal to the head of Lake Huron to a vessel drawing nine feet of water. The Rideau Canal, opened in 1832, connected Bytown (Ottawa) and Kingston, and furnished a waterway free from the dangers of war in the event of trouble with other countries.

Good roads and open waterways produced immediate results of great importance. Passengers and mail were carried regularly between the larger settlements. Even to places off the main routes, mail found its way through the services of Indian runners or mounted postmen. Trade, too, began to increase, at least between neighbouring communities. As yet there was practically no commercial intercourse of province with province; none between New

Brunswick and the Canadas; and only a little between Nova Scotia and the Canadas, by way of the St. Lawrence. The external trade of the provinces was mainly with Great Britain.



THE STEAMER "BEAVER"

170. **Industries.**—Agriculture continued to be the occupation of the majority of the people. To the settlers upon the shores of the Maritime Provinces fishing brought rich returns. The increase of trade with Great Britain gave an impulse to ship-building, and under these conditions the lumbering

industry grew rapidly. During the early part of the century Quebec was the great ship-building centre. Soon, however, the Maritime Provinces, especially Nova Scotia, under the stimulus of an ever increasing trade with the West Indies, took the lead in this industry. Quebec builders had the honour of turning out the *Royal William*, launched in 1831. The *Royal William* was the first Canadian steamer to cross the Atlantic, making the voyage from Pictou to London in twenty-five days. In 1840 the famous Cunard Steamship Company was organized, and a regular service was established from Liverpool to Halifax and Boston. About the same time the *Beaver* was launched upon the Thames, and sent out to British Columbia in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company, the pioneer steamer of the northern Pacific.

171. **Education.**—Though considerable progress had been made in education, the schools at the time of the union were very primitive, especially those of the rural districts. The teacher was, as a rule, ill-qualified, both in scholarship and in character. Nor was his salary a princely one. One writer describes him as "ill-fed, ill-clothed, ill-paid, or not paid at all." He seldom received more than one hundred dollars a term, together with his board. It was the custom to have the teacher "board around," favouring each home of the community in turn. The lot of the pupils was by no means a pleasant one—a log schoolhouse with one wretched room, hot in summer and cold in winter, poor light, and backless seats. Added to these discomforts was the terror of frequent floggings, for the teacher was very often an old army man, who believed in strict discipline.

Interest in higher education was on the increase. Mention has already been made of the founding of King's College in 1788 at Windsor in Nova Scotia. Pictou Academy was founded in 1816. Four years later Dalhousie College was opened as a provincial institution at Halifax. In 1829 McGill University was founded at Montreal for English-speaking students. In Upper Canada two colleges were established in this period; namely, Upper Canada and Victoria.

172. **The churches.**—The Roman Catholic church con-

tinued to be all powerful in Lower Canada. The priests ministered faithfully to the people. Every village had its church; every settler, however remote, was regularly visited by the travelling *curé*. Though four-fifths of her subjects were within the one province, the Roman Catholic church did not neglect the other provinces. The story of Bishop Maedonell, of the Glengarry Highlanders' settlement, is one of devoted service amid the hardships of pioneer life. Outside of Lower Canada the church of England was still the strongest religious body. The great missionary societies were liberal in supporting the colonial clergy, and in building churches where the colonists lacked the means to do so. The church buildings were commonly log huts, in which the congregation gathered from great distances. So wide was the territory to be covered and so few were the men, that the preacher became a travelling missionary. But there were many settlers who refused to ally themselves with the church of England. These were mainly of the Presbyterian and Methodist churches, two denominations which, in spite of divisions, made great progress before the union. Upon the political struggle for responsible government the churches exerted a strong influence. A large section of the church of England, the more conservative Presbyterians, and a small number of the Methodists, were found upon the side of the Family Compact, while behind the cause of reform stood a small but influential body of Anglicans, the strength of Presbyterianism and Methodism, and the smaller body of Baptists.

SUMMARY

In the period between the War of 1812 and the union, the British provinces made marked progress. The population increased from half a million to a million and a half. Great changes in transportation were made by the building of wagon roads and the construction of canals. To agriculture was added another great industry; namely, lumbering. A change for the better was taking place in the schools, and higher education received more attention. All of the churches shared in the progress of the age.

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CHAPTER XX

THE WEST

1812-1841

173. The Nor'-Westers hostile to the Selkirk settlement.—

And now to return to the struggling colony upon the banks of the Red River. The Nor'-Westers looked upon the newcomers as intruders and suspected that Lord Selkirk, being a shareholder in the Hudson's Bay Company, had planted this colony to interfere with the success of the Canadian traders. They were further annoyed by the aggressive policy of Selkirk, who had taken advantage of the discontent among the Nor'-Westers to induce some of them to enter the service of his own company. In this way the older company acquired the services of some of the most daring and progressive traders in the West.



FORT DOUGLAS ON THE RED RIVER

The early years brought trying experiences to the Selkirk settlers. They spent the winters at Pembina hunting the buffalo, returning each spring to the junction of the Red and Assiniboine rivers to sow their patches of grain. So great was the scarcity of food that in the second year the governor, Miles Macdonell, issued a proclamation to the effect that "no provisions, flesh, fish, grain, or vegetables, were to be taken out of the lands of the settlement for a year." Nothing more was needed

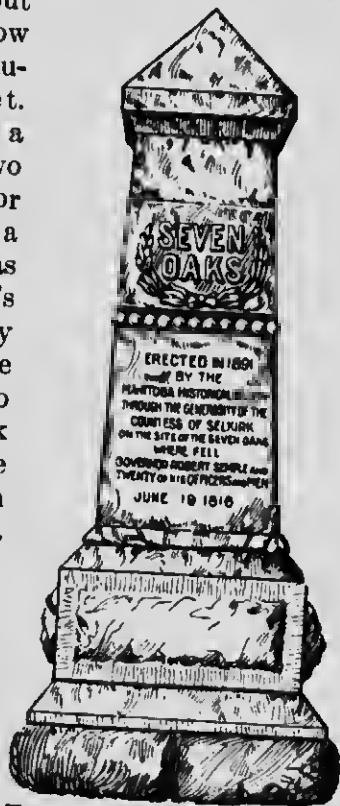
to bring the hostility of the Nor'-Westers to the point of violence. Grand Portage, found to be within United States territory, had been abandoned by the North-West Company. The new headquarters were located at the mouth of the Kaministiquia, where Fort William was built and named after a leading partner, William McGillivray. Here the partners gathered in great indignation at the news of Macdonell's proclamation. Plans were quickly laid for breaking up the Selkirk colony. To accomplish this object two of the partners were sent to Fort Gibraltar, a North-West Company's post situated half a mile from the settlement. By threats or bribes several of the settlers were induced to leave the colony. At this juncture a band of *Métis* gathered by one of the Nor'-Westers, made an attack upon the settlement. Four of the defenders were wounded, one of them fatally; and Miles Macdonell was seized and sent down to Montreal. The unfortunate settlers were continually fired upon, their houses broken open and plundered, and their cattle driven off. Finally, they were forced to withdraw for safety to the north end of Lake Winnipeg.

Great was the joy of the Nor'-Westers at Fort William. Yet almost immediately came the news that the colonists had returned, reinforced by another band of immigrants. With the new arrivals came Robert Semple, appointed to control all the factories of Rupert's Land. Meanwhile, Lord Selkirk had arrived in Canada. Hearing at Montreal of the misfortunes of his colonists, he was all eagerness to bear them aid. Undaunted by the refusal of the governor-general to grant him military support, he engaged the services of a hundred discharged soldiers and set out for the West.

While Lord Selkirk was still upon the way, stirring events were happening in the Red River valley. In the absence of Semple on a tour of inspection, Colin Robertson, commanding Fort Douglas, a post of the Hudson's Bay Company, seized and tore down Fort Gibraltar. The Nor'-Westers thereupon bestirred themselves to destroy the settlement. Half-breeds were summoned from west and north, and by

the middle of June, 1816, were gathered in a strong band at Portage la Prairie, under their popular leader, Cuthbert Grant. Upon the nineteenth, Governor Semple who had returned to the Red River country, was informed that a body of horsemen was approaching over the prairie. Taking a small force, the governor marched out to inquire the purpose of the intruders. At a spot about two miles from Winnipeg, now marked by the Seven Oaks monument, the two parties met. Semple was disputing with a Nor'-Wester when suddenly two shots rang out, and the governor and his lieutenant fell. In a few minutes the skirmish was over, and twenty of Semple's followers lay dead or mortally wounded. By this disaster the settlers were again forced to leave their homes, and to seek refuge at the head of Lake Winnipeg. On their way north they were intercepted by a party of Nor'-Westers, and five of their number were arrested and carried off to Fort William.

The news of Seven Oaks was the signal for fresh rejoicing at Fort William. This post, the centre of the company's trade, was the meeting-place of the Montreal merchants and the "wintering partners." To the weary *voyageurs* and traders it was a very paradise. Here, when the season's labours and dangers were past, they gathered for rest and entertainment. Within the main building the central dining-hall, capable of accommodating two hundred guests, was the scene of frequent banquets. Here men of every nationality, of every creed, met. Traders and soldiers,



THE SEVEN OAKS MONUMENT

mingling with half-breeds and Indians, were encamped in the open. Dancing, drinking, and singing, they made day and night hideous with their revelry. The news of the second expulsion of the Red River colonists set festivities at Fort William in full swing.

Upon such a scene Lord Selkirk and his force suddenly burst. The indignant nobleman demanded the immediate restoration of the settlers who had been seized upon the Red River. Next, acting in the capacity of a magistrate, he ordered the arrest of William McGillivray and several of his fellow-partners. These were sent back to York, Upper Canada, and thence to Montreal. Selkirk, deeming it too late in the season to complete his journey, spent the winter comfortably in the Nor'-Westers' quarters. In the spring he pushed on to the Red River, where he did all in his power to improve the condition of his colony. He restored the ejected colonists to their farms, settled his soldiers about Fort Douglas, and made a treaty with the Indians.

When the news of the tragic death of Semple and his men reached England, the imperial government at once ordered the governor-general of Canada to restore order in the West. Both parties to the quarrel were ordered to give up all posts and property seized. Later several Nor'-Westers were brought to trial in connection with the murder of Semple and his followers. The verdict of "not guilty," which caused a great surprise in Britain, was due to the strong influence of the North-West Company in Canada. Lord Selkirk, on the other hand, tried on several charges of violence, was convicted and heavily fined. Shattered in health and disappointed in spirit, the unfortunate colonizer withdrew to the south of France, where he died in 1820. Though its cause was to be regretted, Selkirk's withdrawal was beneficial to the West, for it removed the last obstacle in the way of a union of the fur companies. In the following year the Hudson's Bay Company and the North-West Company became one, under the name of the former. The long-standing rivalry of the fur traders, fatal to order and injurious to the morals of the Indians, was at an end.

174. **Sir George Simpson's administration.**—After the union the management of the company's affairs rested with an official known as the governor of Rupert's Land, assisted by a council of chief factors and traders. A strong man was needed for the governorship, and such an one was found in the person of a young Scotsman named George Simpson, a clerk in a London counting-house. For forty years Simpson guided the fortunes of the company. Small of stature, he yet had "the self-possession of an emperor." His energy was unflinching. Every year he made the journey from Montreal to the distant West by the fur traders' route, inspecting the most remote posts, and on several occasions crossing the Rocky Mountains. To the enterprise of the Hudson's Bay Company, in no small measure, Great Britain owes her control of the Pacific coast. From the north Russia, from the south the United States, were pressing rival claims which threatened to shut out Great Britain altogether from the sea. Under Simpson's aggressive administration the country between the Rockies and the Pacific was occupied. Upon the coast there were six permanent trading-posts, and in the interior sixteen. These trading interests were protected on the side of the ocean by a fleet of six armed vessels. Fort Vancouver on the Columbia River became the centre of the company's coast trade.



SIR GEORGE SIMPSON

175. **Progress of the Selkirk settlement.**—Meanwhile, the Selkirk settlement was winning its way to prosperity. The population, composed at the outset of two hundred Scottish and Irish settlers, one hundred German soldiers, and a number of French traders and half-breeds, was steadily increasing. The hardships of pioneer life in eastern Canada were here repeated. Spade and hoe, sickle and cradle, flail

and quern—made of two flat stones between which the grain was crushed—all told of the day of small things. The land was just beginning to yield a scanty living to the persevering farmers, when a series of disasters swept away the fruits of patient labour. For three years in succession clouds of grasshoppers descended upon the land, making of the fields a "desolate wilderness." A few years later the river overflowed its banks and swept over the fields, driving back the settlers of the neighbouring heights, and carrying off houses and barns. The courage of the settlers, however, was equal to all these misfortunes, and brought them through to better days.

For many years the government of the colony was in the hands of the local governor of the Hudson's Bay Company. Growth made a change necessary. The Council of Assiniboia, composed of fourteen members and having Sir George Simpson for president, was appointed by the company. This arrangement was not altogether satisfactory. The people complained that the councillors were paid servants of the company, and did not, therefore, represent the popular will. Discontent was a sign of progress, a sign that the settlement was growing beyond the control of a fur company. The historic centre of the colony was Fort Garry. A weather-beaten gateway still stands to mark the scene of the pioneer settlement of the West.

176. The mystery of the north-west passage solved.— The north-west passage by water was still a mystery; yet repeated failures to solve it had in no way dampened the ardour of Arctic explorers. While voyages were made by sea, expeditions continued to be sent through northern Canada to explore the Arctic coast-line. The names of Franklin, Back, Simpson, Dease, and Rae form the honour roll of these northern explorers. When, finally, Sir John Franklin sailed with the *Erebus* and *Terror* into the frozen north, his friends little thought that he was never to return. No less than fifteen search parties were sent out within six years to seek the lost seaman. At last, twelve years after Franklin's departure from England, searchers came upon the skeletons and relics which told of the fate of the ill-starred

crews. As a result of all these expeditions by sea and land, it was known there was a passage by water from the Atlantic to the Pacific, but that it was blocked with ice. The gain to Great Britain from the search for the north-west passage was a definite knowledge of the northern coast of the American continent.

SUMMARY

The Selkirk settlers were looked upon as intruders by the Nor'-Westers, who suspected that Lord Selkirk had founded the settlement to interfere with the Canadian fur traders. By bribes and threats the latter tried to break up the colony. The quarrel between the companies reached a climax in the tragedy of Seven Oaks. After the death of Lord Selkirk in 1820, the ill-will between the rival companies grew less, and in 1821 a union took place under the title of the Hudson's Bay Company. Under the administration of Sir George Simpson, the company's trade was extended to and along the Pacific coast. In the Selkirk settlement the pioneer experiences of Upper Canada were repeated.

CHAPTER XXI
BETWEEN UNION AND CONFEDERATION

1841-64

177. **The fruits of responsible government.**—The provinces were now enjoying the fruits of responsible government, —control through the Executive of all appointments, of crown lands, and the expenditure of money. Having once recognized the right of the provinces to self-government, Great Britain made even further concessions. The most important of these was the surrender of tariff control. Hitherto Great Britain had held a monopoly of colonial trade. According to the Navigation Laws, none but British-built ships could carry goods to and from the colonies. Colonial tariffs were fixed by the home government, although the proceeds were spent upon the colonies. For some years a movement had been on foot in Great Britain to establish free trade, and in 1846 the British markets were thrown open to the world. At the same time the provinces were given the power to repeal any tariff Acts which had been passed by the imperial government. Three years later the Navigation Laws were repealed, and the provinces left free to control their own trade. In the same year Great Britain turned over to the provinces the entire control of the postal service. It was this liberal treatment which made it possible for George Brown, speaking a year later, to say of Great Britain, "Frankly and generously she has, one by one, surrendered all the rights which were once held necessary to the condition of a colony —the patronage of the crown, the right over the public domain, the civil list, the customs, the post-office, have all been relinquished."

178. **The Rebellion Losses Bill, 1849.**—No sooner was the principle of responsible government adopted than it was seriously threatened in the Canadian Legislature. The

Baldwin-La Fontaine government introduced a measure which proposed to vote a sum of money to compensate the loyal subjects of Lower Canada for their losses during the rebellion. This proposal, when formerly made, had raised a storm of opposition. "No pay to rebels," was the cry of the opposition. Yet the measure was passed by the Legislature and submitted to Lord Elgin for his signature. Every effort was made to induce the governor to exercise his power of veto. It was a critical moment for responsible government. To veto a bill which had met with the approval of a majority of the Legislature would be to ignore responsibility in government. Fortunately Lord Elgin was firm, and assented to the bill. When the news spread that the Re-



LORD ELGIN

billion Losses Bill had been signed by the governor, Montreal became the scene of a disgraceful riot. As Lord Elgin drove away from the Parliament Buildings, a mob followed his carriage, pelting it with stones and rotten eggs. The rioters next turned their attention to the buildings, which they quickly cleared and set on fire. In a few hours the House, its library, and the state records were in ashes.

Disgraced by the destructive act of her disorderly citizens, Montreal forfeited the right to be the seat of government. For several years Parliament was a homeless wanderer, meeting alternately in Toronto and Quebec, for a term of four years in each place. Finally, the queen was asked to choose a permanent place of meeting, and in 1858 her choice was made public. Bytown, a village on the Ottawa River, became the capital. The name of Bytown gave place to that of Ottawa, by which the present capital of Canada is so well known to the world. The queen's choice was a wise one. The selection of any one of the older cities would have aroused

the jealousy of the others. Moreover, standing back from the frontier, Ottawa was removed from the dangers to which the horder towns were exposed in times of war.

179. **The Municipal Corporation Act.**—Up to the year 1849 very little progress had been made in local self-government in Canada. The agitation for self-government in local affairs had been carried on by the Reformers side by side with the struggle for responsible government, but little had been accomplished, owing to the determined opposition of the governing classes. Some few districts, villages, towns and cities had been granted limited powers, but these were of little importance. Lord Durham had recommended in his report, the establishment of a good system of municipal institutions, and the Draper government of 1841 had endeavoured to secure popular support by passing a Local Government Act. But this Act did little more than give a partially elective government to the districts of Upper Canada. "It remained for Robert Baldwin in one comprehensive statute to establish the entire system of local government in Upper Canada upon the democratic basis of popular election." The Municipal Corporation Act of 1849



SIR FRANCIS HINCKS

established municipal institutions in Canada on the basis that they exist to-day. This control over local affairs has proved of great benefit in training the people in the art of government.

180. **Important legislation.**—

Both Baldwin and La Fontaine retired from the government in 1851, and were succeeded by Francis Hincks and Auguste Morin. Under the administration of these two energetic leaders, many important measures were introduced, particularly in regard to the construction of railways. Reforms were also made in the currency, although the

decimal system was not introduced into Canada until 1858. About the same time also the representation of each of the provinces in the Legislature was increased from forty-two to sixty-five. Dissatisfaction, however, among the extreme members of the Reform party, owing to the slowness of the government in dealing with a number of controversial questions, caused the fall of the administration. On the resignation of Hincks, Lord Elgin called upon Sir Allan McNab, the leader of the Conservative party, to form a ministry. With the assistance of Morin, who had a strong following among the French-speaking members, Sir Allan succeeded in forming a government which had the confidence of the Assembly. The more moderate Reformers, alarmed at the advanced views of a section among the Upper Canadian members, also strongly supported the new ministry. The government, one of the leading members of which was John A. Macdonald, as Attorney-General for Upper Canada, at once proceeded to deal with many questions which had remained unsettled and which were causing trouble in the country.

The first year of the new administration, 1854, was marked by events of great importance. Standing in the way of progress were two obstacles: the Clergy Reserves and the Seigniorial Tenure. The discontent arising from these two questions had been growing so steadily that action could be no longer delayed. Upon the same day bills were passed dealing with both matters. The Clergy Reserves were secularized, and all connection between church and state was thereby brought to an end. The change was made with great fairness, and in a way that seemed to satisfy all parties concerned. The rectories which had been built and endowed were left untouched, and the remainder of the funds arising from the Reserves was divided among the municipalities, to be used in the interests of education, or for purposes of local improvements. In Lower Canada, the Seigniorial Tenure, which had always been an obstacle to the development of an independent farming class, was abolished. The seigniors were, of course, recompensed for the surrender of t. in

rights, the burden of expense falling almost entirely upon the government.

In the same year in which the Clergy Reserves were secularized and the Seigniorial Tenure was abolished, free trade was established between the British provinces and the United States. The Reciprocity Treaty, arranged chiefly through the efforts of Lord Elgin, provided for an exchange between the two countries of the products of the sea, the field, the forest, and the mine. The Americans were admitted to Canadian fisheries, and also to the navigation of Canadian rivers and canals, while the Canadians were permitted to fish in American waters, and Lake Michigan was opened to their vessels. The new arrangement was beneficial to both countries, the Canadian farmers, miners, and lumbermen finding it especially profitable. The treaty was to remain in force for ten years, at the end of which time either country could bring it to a close by giving a year's notice.

In 1854, also, an Act was passed by the Imperial Parliament making the Legislative Council of Canada elective, instead of appointed, as provided by the Act of Union. It was not until 1856, however, that the Act was accepted by the Canadian Parliament. As fast as vacancies occurred by death or retirement, they were filled by elected representatives, who held office for eight years.

181. The province of British Columbia formed.—During this period the foundations of another colony were laid in the far West. For a time the outlook in the western land was darkened by the danger of war over a boundary dispute. For years the forty-ninth parallel had been regarded as the boundary line across the western half of the continent. The question, however, was still an open one. Gradually the people of the United States began to claim all the Pacific coast-line up to the southern boundary of Alaska, which then belonged to Russia. "Fifty-four Forty or Fight," was the cry of the claimants. Fortunately it proved to be neither "fifty-four forty" nor "fight." By the Oregon Treaty, 1846, the forty-ninth parallel became the permanent boundary line.

In the trading-posts founded by the Hudson's Bay Company west of the Rockies, the foundations of the Pacific province were laid. As immigration was setting in to the western United States, the population north of the boundary line naturally began to increase. The Hudson's Bay Company, upon the strength of what it had done on the mainland, asked the British government for a grant of Vancouver Island. Lord Elgin, having heard that the company's rule in the West had tended to the maintenance of order, reported in favour of the grant. In 1849 the island was handed over to the company for ten years, on the condition that colonization would be encouraged. It was soon found, however, that the company had no intention of promoting settlement, which interfered with the fur trade. Only the poorest land was offered for sale, and that at a very high price. The company's monopoly of the mines kept out miners who would otherwise have entered the country. Even the necessaries of life could be bought only at the company's stores, where high prices were charged. This state of affairs was not satisfactory, and, accordingly, in 1859 Vancouver became a crown colony, with Victoria as its capital. Mr. James Douglas, later Sir James, who had been chief factor of the Hudson's Bay Company and governor of the island, continued in office under the crown. The years 1856 and 1857 witnessed a great change upon the mainland. The discovery of gold in the sands of the Fraser and Thompson rivers was the signal for an inrush of fortune hunters. To maintain order in a district made lawless by the presence of so many miners, a separate government was formed, with headquarters at the busy mining town of New Westminster. Thus was the province of British Columbia formed. It was soon found,



SIR JAMES DOUGLAS

however, that it was both inconvenient and expensive to maintain the two colonies as separate governments. The total population was only about fifteen thousand. It was determined, therefore, in 1866, to unite the two colonies under the name of British Columbia. Victoria, where handsome public buildings had already been erected, was chosen as the capital.

SUMMARY

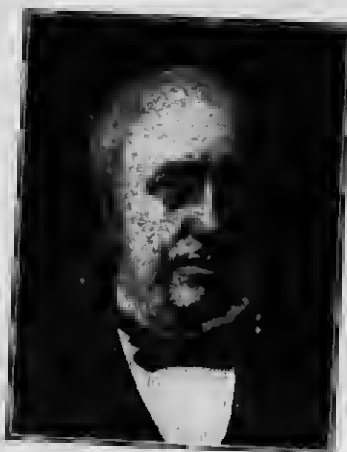
Responsible government once established, other concessions from the British government soon followed—control of the tariff and the postal service. The signing of the Rebellion Losses Bill marked the final triumph of responsible government. Two progressive steps were taken in this period, in the secularization of the Clergy Reserves and in the abolition of the Seigniorial Tenure. In the trading-posts of the Pacific coast the foundation of a new province had been laid. The Hudson's Bay Company was placed in control of Vancouver Island. The failure of the company to encourage colonization and the influx of miners on the mainland led to the organization of the colony of British Columbia.

CHAPTER XXII

CONFEDERATION

THE CONFEDERATION MOVEMENT, 1864-67

182. **Union sentiment in Canada.**—The idea of a federal union—one in which there would be a central government, while each province retained a local Parliament—was by no means a new one. As far back as the opening of the century it had been suggested by more than one far-seeing Loyalist. Lord Durham recommended union, and from his day on, the word was continually upon the lips of statesmen both in the Maritime Provinces and in Canada. Friction between the upper and lower sections of Canada was yearly increasing. Their representation in the union Parliament was, as we have seen, equal. The population of Upper Canada had increased very rapidly, so that within fifteen years after the union it exceeded that of Lower Canada by two hundred and fifty thousand. Upper Canada began to clamour for a change. Representation by population, familiarly called "Rep. by Pop.," became the battle-cry of the Reformers. George Brown steadily advocated this claim, both from his seat in Parliament and through the columns of the *Globe*. The people of Lower Canada, however, pointed out that at the time of the union, and for some years afterwards, their population had been much greater than that of Upper Canada, and the representation had been the same. They held that they were



GEORGE BROWN

not responsible for the change of conditions, and steadily opposed any attempt to change the representation. Thus the friction between the two sections of the country was becoming stronger year by year.

In Parliament the parties were so evenly balanced that deadlock became a common experience. Between 1861 and 1864 four or five ministries held office. John A. Macdonald in describing the situation said, "We had election after election, we had ministry after ministry, with the same result. Parties were so equally balanced that the vote of one member might decide the fate of the administration." Under these circumstances the idea of a federal union of



SIR CHARLES TUPPER

the Canadas naturally suggested itself to the minds of statesmen. Out of the idea of a federal union of two provinces gradually grew the greater one, of a union of all the provinces. But the Maritime Provinces, prosperous and contented with their newly acquired privilege of responsible government, were not yet ready to consider such a gigantic scheme. Not for several years was confederation to be realized; yet in the interval the idea of union was never lost sight of by clear-sighted statesmen. In

every province there were men who fostered the cause of union—men of all parties and creeds. In Canada Brown and Macdonald, in the Maritime Provinces Tilley and Tupper, were to join hands from opposite parties to realize their common aim of uniting the provinces.

183. Union sentiment in the Maritime Provinces.—Events soon forced the question of union upon the attention of the Maritime Provinces. In 1861 war broke out between the Northern and Southern States over the question of slavery. Great Britain and her colonies remained neutral. One incident, however, threatened to drag Great Britain into the

war. A British mail steamship, the *Trent*, conveying two Southern commissioners to England, was boarded by the captain of a United States ship-of-war, and the Southerners were arrested. Great Britain demanded the surrender of the captives, threatening war in case her demand was not granted. Fortunately, the United States government gave up the commissioners, and more serious trouble was averted. The mere possibility of war with the United States, however, impressed upon the Maritime Provinces the advantage of union. Yet the impulse to unite fell short of the larger scheme of a federation of all the provinces, and tended towards the union of the Maritime Provinces only. The idea of a maritime union took practical form in 1864, when delegates from New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island met at Charlottetown. The fact that the delegations included both Reformers and Conservatives, proved that the movement was not one of party.

Meanwhile, the cause of union was gaining ground in Canada. It was becoming impossible for any government to maintain a majority. At last, in 1864, when the Conservative ministry was defeated, Mr. George Brown, setting aside party feeling, proposed that a joint ministry be formed with a view to pressing the plan of union. The proposal was acted upon, and the coalition ministry pledged itself to bring before Parliament a measure to secure the federal union of Upper and Lower Canada, and to provide for the admission of the other provinces. When the Canadian statesmen heard of the meeting which was being held at Charlottetown, they asked permission to take part in it. The request was granted, and eight representatives, including John A. Macdonald, George Brown, and Georges É.



SIR LEONARD TILLEY

Cartier, were sent to Charlottetown. The grander scheme of confederation overshadowed that of local union, and it was decided to hold a second conference at Quebec later in the season.

184. The Fathers of Confederation.—In the following month the Quebec conference was held. Thirty-three delegates, representing Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, gathered in the Parliament Buildings of the historic capital of New France. Of French, English, Scotch, and Irish descent were these "Fathers of Confederation," a fitting body to deal with the question of a union of all the British North American provinces.



SIR GEORGES É. CARTIER

Nor could a more suitable chairman have been chosen than Étienne Paschal Taché, a veteran of the War of 1812, who expressed the loyalty of his fellow-countrymen when he said that "the last gun that would be fired for British supremacy in America would be fired by a French-Canadian." The most prominent member of the gathering was undoubtedly John A. Macdonald, who had already played an important part in Canadian affairs and was to share in still greater events. His keen insight into character and his wide knowledge of the working of British institutions fitted him for leadership. From the moment the confederation movement began, he never ceased to be its central figure. Georges Étienne Cartier had long been associated in public life with Macdonald. He had, it is true, taken some part in the Lower Canadian rebellion of 1837, but later, repenting of his youthful folly, he had rendered faithful service to his province under the union. It was mainly Cartier's wise and tactful leading that brought Lower Canada into confederation, and his watchful care that protected the interests of

that province. Upper Canada had no more faithful representative than George Brown. Mr. Brown was a Liberal of a pronounced type, but it will always be remembered to his honour that he forgot party in his desire to bring about union. The delegation from Canada included several other well known men—Alexander T. Galt, a master of finance, Thomas D'Arcy McGee, poet, historian, and orator, William McDougall, a distinguished son of a Loyalist, and Oliver Mowat, later lieutenant-governor of Ontario.

Among the Nova Scotian representatives were Charles Tupper and Adams G. Archibald. Dr. Tupper's force and readiness in debate had early brought him into prominence as leader of the Conservative party, in which position he frequently pitted his strength against Howe, whose lifelong opponent he was. New Brunswick's delegation was headed by Samuel Leonard Tilley, a man who stood high in the public life of his province, and whose ability later won him the position of finance minister of the Dominion. Prince Edward Island was represented by Colonel Gray and George Coles, the latter the father of responsible government in his province. Newfoundland sent Frederick Carter as delegate. No greater achievement has marked the progress of our country than the uniting of the British North American provinces; there are no names more worthy of a high place in the memory of Canadians than those of the "Fathers of Confederation."

The conference unanimously resolved, "That the best interests and present and future prosperity of British North America will be promoted by a federal union under the crown of Great Britain, provided such union can be effected on principles just to the several provinces." The debate lasted eighteen days, and its results were summed up in



SIR JOHN A. MACDONALD

seventy-two resolutions. The conference had declared in favour of confederation; it remained to be seen how the plan would be regarded by the British government and by each of the provinces. Its reception was varied. By the British government it was gladly welcomed, as also by Upper and Lower Canada. Newfoundland rejected the proposal entirely, and, adhering to this decision, still stands alone. New Brunswick at an early election declared against confederation, but a year later reconsidered the matter, and gave a decided majority in its favour. Nova Scotia, influenced by the action of New Brunswick, wavered at first, but finally the Legislature passed a resolution in favour of union. The fact that the question was not put to the vote of the people led to trouble later. Prince Edward Island decided to remain independent. Delegates from the four provinces favourable to confederation were sent to London to secure an Act of union from the imperial government. From the opposition faction in Nova Scotia went Joseph Howe to oppose the movement. The efforts of Howe were unavailing; the Act was framed in spite of his protest.

185. **The cause of union strengthened.**—Meanwhile, events were happening which had an important bearing upon the cause of confederation. What argument failed to do in overcoming opposition to the movement, the action of a foreign power did most effectually. The United States government suddenly, in 1865, gave notice that the Reciprocity Treaty would terminate in a year, thinking thereby to force the British provinces into annexation in order to save their trade. Congress even offered favourable terms of annexation, proposing to receive the provinces as so many states of the union. This action had the sole effect of binding the provinces more closely together, and of making them depend more upon one another and upon Great Britain for their trade.

The confederation movement was still further strengthened by the illegal action of the Fenian Brotherhood, an organization of discontented Irishmen which undertook to conquer Canada as a step towards the freeing of Ireland. It was little to the credit of the American government that these

men were allowed to arm and drill their forces within the borders of the United States. The most determined of the Fenian raids was that made in 1866 under one Colonel O'Neil upon the Niagara peninsula. Crossing from Buffalo, the invaders advanced to destroy the Welland Canal. At Ridgeway they met and drove back a detachment of Canadian militia which had hurriedly been despatched to meet them. Nine of the Canadians were killed in the conflict and thirty-five wounded. Hearing of the approach of a large force of militia and regulars, with cavalry and artillery, the Fenians quickly retreated across the river. In 1870 a raid was made into Quebec, but this was repulsed with ease; in the next year a similar raid into Manitoba ended in the arrest of O'Neil by the United States government.

SUMMARY

The population of Upper Canada had grown to be much larger than that of Lower Canada, yet the representation of the two provinces remained equal. As a remedy for this condition statesmen began to discuss a federal union of the two provinces. In the Maritime Provinces the possibility of war with the United States suggested the idea of union. In 1864 a meeting of delegates from New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, was held at Charlottetown. Representatives from Canada joined the conference. At a later conference held at Quebec it was unanimously resolved that the best interests of British North America would be promoted by a federal union of the provinces.

THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICA ACT, 1867

186. **The Act passed, 1867.**—Meanwhile, the labours of the provincial delegates, who were meeting in the Westminster Hotel at London, were drawing to a close. The Quebec resolutions, modified so as to grant the Maritime Provinces more favourable terms, were submitted to the Imperial Parliament; and in March, 1867, the British North America Act, familiarly called the "B. N. A. Act," was passed. "The provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick," the Act reads, "shall form and be one Dominion under the name of Canada. . . . The parts of the pro-



THE FATHERS OF CONFEDERATION

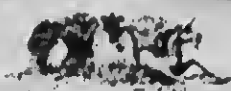
vince of Canada, which formerly constituted respectively the provinces of Upper Canada and Lower Canada, shall form two separate provinces." The names of Upper Canada and Lower Canada gave place to those of Ontario and Quebec.

187. **The terms of the Act.**—Under the constitution established by the British North America Act, the sovereign was to be represented in the new Dominion by a governor-general. The appointment of this official rested with the sovereign. To advise the governor-general there was a Cabinet or Executive Council of thirteen members, responsible to the people's representatives in Parliament.

The Dominion Legislature included two bodies,—the Senate and the House of Commons. The senators were not elected, but appointed for life by the governor-general. There was an equal representation of the three great divisions of the Dominion,—Ontario, Quebec, and the Maritime Provinces.

The House of Commons was to be elected by the people for a term of five years. The provinces were represented according to population. The representation of Quebec was to remain fixed at sixty-five members. The representation of each other province was to bear the same relation to sixty-five as its population bore to that of Quebec.

188. **A federal union defined.**—The union brought about by the British North America Act was *federal*, as distinct from *legislative*. Under the Union Act each province had given up its local Parliament, and elected representatives to a joint Legislature. Under confederation, on the other hand, each province retained its local government, while sending representatives to the Dominion Legislature. The provincial Legislatures controlled all matters of purely local interest; the central government attended to questions which affected the Dominion as a whole. The British North America Act came into force on the first day of July, 1867. This birthday of the Dominion was duly celebrated throughout the four provinces, and the first of July has, since that time, been observed as the national birthday of Canada.



BY THE QUEEN!

A PROCLAMATION

For uniting the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, into one Dominion, under the name of CANADA.

VICTORIA R.

WHEREAS by an Act of Parliament, passed on the Twenty-ninth day of March, One Thousand Eight Hundred and Sixty-seven, in the Thirtieth year of Our reign, intituled, "An Act for the Union of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and the Government thereof, and for purposes connected therewith," after divers recitals it is enacted that "It shall be lawful for the Queen, by and with the advice of Her Majesty's Most Honorable Privy Council, to declare, by Proclamation, that on and after a day therein appointed, not being more than six months after the passing of this Act, the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, shall form and be One Dominion under the name of Canada, and on and after that day those Three Provinces shall form and be One Dominion under that Name accordingly;" and, it is thereby further enacted, that "Such Persons shall be first summoned to the Senate as the Queen by Warrant, under Her Majesty's Royal Sign Manual, thinks fit to approve, and their Names shall be inserted in the Queen's Proclamation of Union:"

We, therefore, by and with the advice of Our Privy Council, have thought fit to hone this Our Royal Proclamation, and We do ordain, declare, and command that on and after the First day of July, One Thousand Eight Hundred and Sixty-seven, the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, shall form and be One Dominion, under the name of CANADA.
 And we do further ordain and declare that the persons whose names are herein inserted and set forth are the persons of whom we have by Warrant under Our Royal Sign Manual thought fit to approve as the persons who shall be first summoned to the Senate of Canada.

<i>For the Province of Canada</i>	<i>For the Province of Nova Scotia</i>	<i>For the Province of New Brunswick</i>
John A. Macdonald	John P. Roach	John P. Roach
John A. Macdonald	John P. Roach	John P. Roach
John A. Macdonald	John P. Roach	John P. Roach
John A. Macdonald	John P. Roach	John P. Roach
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John A. Macdonald	John P. Roach	John P. Roach
John A. Macdonald	John P. Roach	John P. Roach
John A. Macdonald	John P. Roach	John P. Roach

Given at our Court of Windsor Castle, this Twenty-second day of May, in the year of our Lord One Thousand Eight Hundred and Sixty-seven, and in the Thirtieth year of our reign.

GOD SAVE THE QUEEN.

SUMMARY

The British North America Act united Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick in one Dominion under the name of Canada. The old province of Canada was again divided, being called Ontario and Quebec. Provision was made for a federal government, composed of governor-general, Cabinet and Legislature, to manage the affairs of the Dominion as a whole. Each province of the Dominion was to retain its own government to deal with matters of local interest.

THE EXPANSION OF CONFEDERATION, 1867-1873

189. Rupert's Land and the North-West transferred to Canada. —Only four provinces—Ontario, Quebec, Nova



WINNIPEG IN 1869

Scotia, and New Brunswick—took part in the celebration of the first of July, 1867. There was every prospect, however, that the bounds of the Dominion would soon be extended both in the east and in the west. The British North America Act, in fact, made provision for the admission at any time of Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, British Columbia, Rupert's Land, and the North-West Territories.

During the first session of the Dominion Parliament, upon the motion of the Hon. William McDougall, the British government was asked to hand over to Canada Rupert's

Land and the North-West. It was asserted that the rule of the Hudson's Bay Company, an organization interested in trade alone, did not tend to the general development of the country. A strong argument in support of Canada's request was the fact that the extension of the Dominion westwards would be a safeguard against any aggression of the United States in that direction. Under wise pressure from the British government, the Hudson's Bay Company finally surrendered to Canada its control of Rupert's Land and its monopoly of trade. The company, in return, received the sum of £300,000, one-twentieth of all land lying south of the north branch of the Saskatchewan River and west of Lake Winnipeg, thereafter surveyed for settlement, and also retained its posts and trading privileges. Thus did this great company, after two centuries of uninterrupted authority, become a private commercial concern, although still the greatest in the West. Whatever may be said in criticism of the Hudson's Bay Company, and of the lesser organizations which it had absorbed, one fact should be remembered; namely, that it was by the energy and daring of their chief factors and explorers that the West was held for Great Britain.

190. **The Red River rebellion, 1870.**—To-day about one and a half millions of people dwell between Lake Superior and the Rocky Mountains, a scanty population for a land so vast. Yet what a change since confederation! Then the only occupants of the broad prairies were roving bands of Indians, a few scattered traders, and twelve thousand settlers in the valley of the Red River. Ten thousand of these were half-breeds, some of Scottish descent, speaking English, others French both in origin and speech. Into this community, without warning, flocked Canadian surveyors to lay out roads and townships. The country had been handed over to Canada, and the interests of the natives were to be sacrificed. Such was the thought of the half-breed element. The presence in the colony of several Fenians and annexationists added to the general discontent. The storm centre was the French half-breed party, the *Métis*, led by Louis Riel. Riel was the son of a white father and a

half-breed mother, and had been educated in Montreal. Fluency of speech and magnetism of manner gave him ready control over his compatriots; unchecked ambition and extraordinary vanity blinded him to the folly of resisting the authority of the Dominion. There was no one in the colony to restrain his madness. But for the courage and tact of Donald A. Smith, acting as the agent of the Dominion government, affairs might have taken a worse turn than they did. Archbishop Taché, than whom none exerted greater influence over the *Métis*, was absent in Rome, and although he hastened home as quickly as possible, he did not reach Fort Garry until the frenzy of rebellion had spent itself in murder.

The news that the Hon. William McDougall was on his way to the Red River to assume the governorship was the signal for the rising. Riel and his followers seized Fort Garry, and set up the so-called "Provisional Government." McDougall was stopped at the boundary line and forbidden to enter the country. Fortunately the would-be governor obeyed, and there was every prospect of a bloodless settlement of the difficulty when a sudden fit of madness on Riel's part precipitated a tragedy. Among some prisoners whom the latter had thrust into Fort Garry, as enemies of the "Provisional Government," was a young Ontario immigrant named Thomas Scott. This unfortunate youth, Riel picked out to be his instrument in terrorizing his opponents. Court-martialed and condemned upon the charge of treason, Scott was led out before the walls of Fort Garry and shot. The news of this tragedy raised a storm of indignation in Eastern Canada. A force of seven hundred regulars and volunteers was chosen to proceed at once to the scene of the



WILLIAM McDOUGALL

rebellion. A toilsome and dangerous journey by way of Lake Superior and the fur traders' route was skilfully conducted by Colonel Garnet Wolseley. At the approach of the troops, all military ardour and pride of office died down within Riel's breast. He promptly fled from the scene of his transient glory to find a refuge in the United States.



SIR ADAMS ARCHIBALD

share in its making. The little settlement about Fort Garry was soon transformed into the populous city of Winnipeg, a monument to the foresight of that patriotic colonizer, Lord Selkirk. Manitoba drew her first governor from the far east, in the person of a distinguished Nova Scotian, Adams Archibald.

192. British Columbia enters confederation, 1871.—A year later the westward expansion of confederation was continued. With the admission of British Columbia the Dominion had run its course from ocean to ocean. The Pacific province, larger than the four original members of confederation, has been described as a "sea of mountains," but this description conveys no idea of the wealth of the country. Forests of the grandest timber, untold mineral wealth, rich though scanty farm land, all these resources have already attracted many immigrants, and will attract more in the

191. The province of Manitoba formed, 1870.—Out of the strife of rebellion arose a new province. Even while Wolseley's force was on its way to Fort Garry, the Manitoba Act was passed by the Canadian Parliament. By this Act Manitoba was admitted into confederation as a full-fledged province. The claims of the half-breeds were fully met, one million four hundred thousand acres of land being set apart for that purpose. Many of Wolseley's men remained in the new province to

future. The entry of British Columbia into confederation was made subject to a very important condition; namely, that a transcontinental railroad should be begun within two years and completed within ten years from the date of union. As it turned out, fifteen years were to elapse before this gigantic undertaking was carried through, but with the driving of the last spike British Columbia was bound by the strongest bond to the Dominion.

1873. Prince Edward Island enters confederation, 1873.—

In 1873 Prince Edward Island, repenting of its rejection of the scheme of confederation, entered the Dominion. Throughout the whole course of the island's history the ownership of land had never ceased to be a vexed question. To settle the matter, the Dominion government voted eight hundred thousand dollars to buy out the rights of the absentee proprietors. The tenants were now in a position to purchase on reasonable terms the lands which they occupied.

The cause of union had triumphed. In all the provinces the obstacles had been great, but in all the faith of patriotic statesmen had been greater. The young Dominion stretched across a continent looking out to east and west upon an ocean. Newfoundland alone stood aloof.

SUMMARY

Provision was made in the British North America Act for the admission of other provinces to the Dominion. The first step towards expansion was the purchase of Rupert's Land and the North-West from the Hudson's Bay Company. A rising of the half-breeds under Louis Riel proved but a momentary check. In 1870 the province of Manitoba was formed and admitted to confederation. A year later, British Columbia became part of the Dominion, and two years later still Prince Edward Island joined. The Dominion now stretched from ocean to ocean. Newfoundland alone held aloof.

CHAPTER XXIII

PROGRESS

1841-1867

194. **Increase of population.**—Of the increasing prosperity of the British provinces between the union and confederation there is no more striking evidence than the growth of the population. The population had more than doubled; roughly speaking, it had increased from one and a half to nearly three and a half millions. Villages had grown into towns, and towns into cities. Hamilton, Ottawa, London and Kingston had taken their place among the cities, while Halifax, St. John, Montreal, Toronto, and Quebec had, as early as the year 1861, attained populations ranging from twenty-five to fifty thousand. Not the old settlements alone benefited by the immigration of this period; in the "back country" north and west, behind Ottawa, Kingston, Peterborough, and the Huron tract, new counties were being opened up.

195. **Industrial progress.**—Of the adult male population of the provinces six years before confederation, over three hundred thousand were farmers and two hundred thousand labourers, including lumbermen. There were about one hundred thousand mechanics, while the fisheries and commerce occupied the attention of fifty thousand. Agriculture, as these figures show, continued to be the leading industry of the country. More modern implements and a more intelligent knowledge of the soil and climate were beginning to produce better results. A change was coming over the face of the land. The forests, which had in the pioneer days grudgingly given way to the little "clearings," were rapidly receding before the axe of the farmer eager to widen his fields, and of the lumberman seeking timber to satisfy the growing demands of the ship-builders.

Trade flourished in all the provinces. The exports were still mainly farm products, lumber, and, from Nova Scotia, fish. A few mines had been opened, and the mineral output, though small, gave promise of rich returns in the near future. Under the Reciprocity Treaty, from 1854 to 1866, the trade of British North America developed very rapidly. There was, however, one serious disadvantage connected with reciprocity. The provinces were brought to trade separately with the United States, while interprovincial trade quickly declined. It was clear that only an inter-colonial railway could remedy this defect.

196. Transportation and communication.—From 1840 to 1867 was, above all, the era of railway building. In 1850 there were about fifty miles of railroads in British North America; in 1867 there were no less than three thousand. The passing of an Act guaranteeing the payment of the interest on all loans to roads over seventy miles in length, had furnished the necessary incentive. Even before the union, the question of an intercolonial railway to connect the Maritime Provinces with Canada had been discussed. Lord Durham, as we have seen, recommended a railway as a practical means of binding the provinces together. Shortly after the union the matter was taken up in earnest by the provinces, and the British government was asked to give aid. Difficulty arose over the choice of a route for the proposed road. There were two possible, one by the valley of the river St. John, passing through St. John and Fredericton, the other following the north-west shore. Great Britain was interested in securing a line removed from the American boundary, suited to the transportation of military supplies in the event of war. New Brunswick naturally favoured the St. John route. Nothing came of these early efforts to build an intercolonial railway, but the provinces, having failed in the greater undertaking, set about constructing such local roads as were needed.

In 1836 the first railway in Canada was opened between Laprairie, near Montreal, and St. John. Ten years later another short line connected Montreal and Lachine. The railway system of Canada had its real beginning in 1851,

when Parliament passed a bill providing for the building of the Grand Trunk road from the western limit of Upper Canada to the city of Quebec and a branch line to Portland, Maine. The branch from Montreal to Portland was completed in 1853, and three years later the main line from Sarnia to Quebec. In the Maritime Provinces one line was soon opened, between St. John and Shediac; another connected Windsor and Truro with Halifax. The advent of the railway worked a marvellous change. Here and there along the newly laid roads little villages sprang into existence. The farmers, hitherto exiled more by imperfect means of transportation than by distance, were brought into convenient connection with the markets of the towns and cities. Associated with the development of the railway system was the building of two great bridges, one over the Niagara gorge, the other spanning the St. Lawrence at Montreal.

The canal system, upon which so much money had been spent in the previous period, was greatly improved before confederation. The opening of several smaller canals along the St. Lawrence, and the improvement of the Welland, furnished a waterway from Lake Huron to the sea for all vessels of moderate draught. The advantage arising from this improved water route was all the greater by reason of the increase in the number of steamboats plying back and forth upon the Great Lakes. Following quickly and naturally upon the opening of the Grand Trunk system, the Allan Steamship Line was founded by Hugh Allan. Six small vessels formed the nucleus of the now famous fleet. Weekly communication with Great Britain was afforded, from Portland in winter, from Quebec in summer.

Shortly after responsible government was established, the control of the post-office was handed over by the British government to the provincial governments. Before this change took place the postage rate was very high. The rate on a letter from Toronto to Montreal was twenty-five cents; on a letter from the provinces to Great Britain, one dollar. Under provincial control, a uniform postal rate of six cents was established for British North America. In 1847 the telegraph was first used in Canada; by 1867 there

were telegraph lines in every province. In 1858 the first Atlantic cable was laid between Ireland and Newfoundland. Although this soon ceased to be used, a new cable re-opened telegraphic communications with the Old Country in 1866.

197. Education.—In the field of education there was a general awakening after the union. In Upper Canada, the Rev. Dr. Egerton Ryerson, who had been appointed superintendent of education, laid the foundations of a public school system. Arrangements were made for one school at least in each district, to be managed by trustees elected by the people. The schools were maintained partly by a tax on the property of the district and partly by government grants. Provision was made for public school inspectors. The greatest obstacle in education had been the lack of qualified teachers. A Normal School for the training of teachers was now established at Toronto and another, later, at Ottawa.



EGERTON RYERSON

The facilities for higher education were also increasing. The gap between the public schools and the colleges was bridged by the founding of grammar or high schools. Another man who took a special interest in education was Bishop Strachan. His ambition, to establish a church of England university, was attained in 1843, when King's College was founded. However, the opposition to a church of England college was so strong that the new institution was, in 1849, made undenominational, and renamed the University of Toronto. Refusing to abandon his ideal, Bishop Strachan hastened to England to collect funds for a new denominational institution, and two years later he saw the reward of his labours in the establishment of Trinity University. Queen's and Ottawa Universities were also founded during this period.

To speak of the educational progress of the other provinces

would be to repeat what has been said of Upper Canada. Everywhere the foundations of a public school system were laid; the people were trained to assume the financial responsibility connected with education, normal schools were opened, and high schools and universities founded. In Lower Canada Dr. Meilleur was the first superintendent of education; in Nova Scotia Dr. Tupper was the author of educational reform. During this period McGill assumed a leading position among the universities of the continent under the principalship of Sir William Dawson, a scientist of world-wide reputation.

198. **The churches.**—The pioneer work of the churches was beginning to bear fruit. In many towns the old frame buildings had disappeared, and in their place stood handsome brick structures, while some of the larger cities were adorned with imposing stone edifices. More and more, congregations were becoming self-supporting, and engaging the services of settled ministers. It was a period of universal growth. The Roman Catholic church added to its membership five hundred thousand, the Methodist church three hundred and twenty thousand, the Presbyterian church two hundred thousand, and the church of England one hundred and sixty thousand. One favourable sign of the religious activity of the period was the general interest taken in the missions of the West. All denominations, but especially the Roman Catholic, Anglican and Presbyterian, gave liberally to the West both money and men, in a common effort to christianize the Indians and to guard the morals of the traders and settlers who were there seeking wealth or homes.

SUMMARY

Between the union and confederation the population of the British provinces more than doubled. Agriculture and lumbering, still the main industries, were rapidly invading the forests. Transportation and communication were marvellously improved by the building of railroads, by the construction of new canals and the deepening of old, and by the introduction of the telegraph. Everywhere were laid the foundations of a public school system. Grammar schools filled the gaps between the public schools and the colleges. The churches not only grew stronger in the older provinces, but also found an outlet for their missionary zeal in the West.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE DOMINION

THE FIRST TRANSCONTINENTAL RAILWAY, 1867-1885

199. **The first Dominion government.**—Dominion Day, 1867, ushers in a new era of Canadian history. The War of 1812 revealed the unity in feeling of the British North American provinces, but distance, lack of ready means of communication, and local interests stood in the way of actual union. The British North America Act, followed by the building of the intercolonial railway opened in 1876, brought about the union which already existed, at least, in sentiment. Only a century separated the fall of Quebec and the founding of the Dominion, yet that century witnessed great strides of progress. Isolated settlements had grown into provinces; provinces had become self-governing, winning first a representative Assembly, and later a responsible Executive; and finally, the provinces had sought the strength of union. Confederation gave a united people to the British Empire. The course of events since confederation has tended to strengthen the bonds of union. Without interfering with the local rule of the provinces, a strong central government has been established, which guides the affairs of the Canadian people as a whole.

Lord Monck, the first governor-general of the Dominion, called upon Sir John A. Macdonald, who had been knighted for his valuable services in connection with the confederation movement, to form a new government. In doing so Sir John employed great tact. The union had been the work not of one party, but of both; the new government should, therefore, include both Conservatives and Reformers. "I desire," said the new premier, "to bring to my aid, with respect to parties, gentlemen who were active in bringing

about a new form of government . . . and who wish to see it satisfactorily carried out." Six Reformers and six Conservatives were summoned to act



LORD MONCK

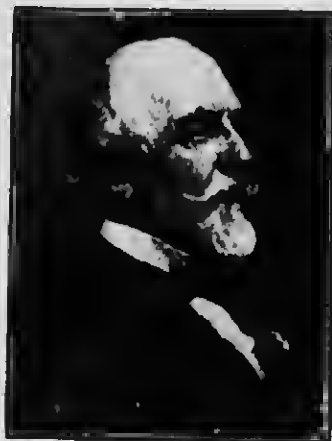
with the premier in the first Cabinet. Similarly the parties were equally represented in the Senate, there being thirty-six Conservatives and thirty-six Reformers. In the first session the Dominion Parliament took up matters of great moment. The question of a railway, so vital to the permanence of confederation, came up for discussion. The outcome was the construction of the Intercolonial Railway between the Maritime and the Upper Provinces. Another

question considered was the addition to Canada of the western territory controlled by the Hudson's Bay Company. The success which attended this movement of expansion in the West has already been noted.

The harmony of the union was marred by one jarring note, the cry of Nova Scotia for the repeal of the British North America Act. The people of that province were opposed to confederation. They had not been consulted in the matter, and in addition, they felt that they had not been fairly treated in the arrangement of the terms upon which the province had entered the Dominion. Joseph Howe was at once placed at the head of the movement for repeal. His personal magnetism was so great and the popular indignation so pronounced, that the Conservatives were overwhelmed. At the first election for the House of Commons, Dr. Tupper alone, of all the candidates who favoured confederation, was elected, while at the local elections, which took place on the same day, only two Conservatives succeeded in securing seats. The new Legislature immediately sent a delegation, headed by Howe, to ask the home government for permission to withdraw from the Dominion.

On behalf of the Dominion, Dr. Tupper was sent to London to oppose the wishes of the Legislature. It was a battle royal between these two able and patriotic Nova Scotians, but fortunately for the Dominion and for Nova Scotia, Howe was defeated. The home government refused its consent to the withdrawal of the disaffected province. Howe soon saw that further protest was useless, and now bent all his energies to the securing of better terms for his province. The Dominion government was willing, new arrangements satisfactory to Nova Scotia were made, and Howe accepted a seat in the Dominion Cabinet. Four years later he was appointed lieutenant-governor of his native province, but died only a few weeks after taking office.

200. **The Canadian Pacific Railway.**—No greater task had confronted any Parliament of the Dominion than the building of a transcontinental railway. That this task should be undertaken within two years was the condition of British Columbia's entrance into the confederation. In 1872, therefore, the year in which Lord Dufferin became governor-general, Sir John A. Macdonald introduced the question in Parliament. Two companies straightway sought the charter, one the Inter-Oceanic, the other the Canada Pacific. Unable to choose between the two companies, the government chartered a third, known as the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. The great enterprise was well under way, when suddenly a member of the House arose and accused the government of having sold the charter to the Canadian Pacific Railway Company for a sum of money to be used for election purposes. A committee was appointed to inquire into the charge, but the evidence was so conflicting that nothing came of the investigation. The matter hung fire for some



LORD DUFFERIN

time, every delay throwing suspicion upon the government and strengthening the opposition. A second committee of inquiry, appointed by the governor-general, refused to pass judgment, and simply laid before Parliament the evidence that it had gathered. A heated debate followed. Finally, the premier resigned, for he saw that when the question came to a vote the government would be defeated.

Alexander Mackenzie, the leader of the opposition, was called upon to form a new government. Meanwhile, the Canadian Pacific Railway Company had thrown up its charter, much to the dissatisfaction of British Columbia. The new premier at once announced that the plans of the



ALEXANDER MACKENZIE

recent government could not be fully carried out, and proposed to build the railway gradually, as the finances of the country permitted. The Pacific province insisted upon the fulfilment of the conditions under which it had entered the confederation, and even sent delegates to England to protest against further delay. Lord Carnarvon, the colonial secretary, offered to act as arbitrator between the Dominion and British Columbia, and the offer was accepted. According to the "Carnarvon

Terms," as they are called, the government agreed to construct immediately a wagon road and telegraph line along the route of the proposed railway, and by the year 1890 to complete the railway itself from the Pacific to Lake Superior, where it would connect with the American roads and with the Canadian steamship lines. The delay caused by the Mackenzie government put a severe strain upon British Columbia's loyalty to the Dominion.

During the five years that the Mackenzie government remained in power, they proposed and carried many important measures. Among these were the establishment

of a Supreme Court for Canada, and the introduction of the ballot in connection with elections for the House of Commons. But they were hampered in their efforts by the hostility of the Senate and by a strong and vigorous opposition in the Commons itself. Two years before the next election Sir John Macdonald began to advocate what was called the "National Policy." There had been such a falling off in trade that the revenue returns were greatly reduced. The government had to face an ever increasing deficit. The "National Policy" proposed to raise the tariff so as not only to produce a revenue, but also to protect the young industries of the country. "Canada for the Canadians" was the watchword of the Conservative party. The tariff became the main question upon which the two political parties differed. In the elections of 1878 the cry of "Canada for the Canadians," following as it did a period of commercial depression, proved very attractive, and carried the Conservatives back to power. Mr. Mackenzie resigned, and Sir John A. Macdonald again assumed the reins of government. The same year closed the administration of Lord Dufferin, one of Canada's ablest governors. During his term of office he visited every part of the Dominion, and did much to strengthen the feeling of unity and to bind Canada more closely to Great Britain. His successor was the Marquis of Lorne, whose wife was the Princess Louise, a daughter of Queen Victoria.

Sir John A. Macdonald immediately took up again the question of a transeontinental road. Mr. Mackenzie's proposal to have the government build the railway was discarded. Reverting to his former policy, the premier entrusted the work to a syndicate of capitalists bearing the name of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. Two promi-



LORD STRATHCONA

ment members of the company were Mr. George Stephen, a Montreal merchant, and Mr. Donald A. Smith, an official of the Hudson's Bay Company, both now favourably known under the titles of Lord Mount Stephen and Lord Strathcona. The road was to be finished by the year 1890, but with such vigour was the work pressed forward that it was completed five years earlier. Construction was begun from both ends, the two sections meeting in the Rockies, where the last spike was driven by Lord Strathcona in November, 1885. The importance to the Dominion of the enterprise thus successfully carried out was very great. Without a transcontinental railway the union of the East and West could never have been permanent.

SUMMARY

Sir John A. Macdonald was the first premier of the Dominion. As confederation was the achievement of both parties, Sir John wisely called to his first Cabinet an equal number of Reformers and Conservatives. The building of railways was vital to the permanence of the Dominion. To this task, therefore, the government first directed its attention. The Intercolonial Railway was built to connect the Maritime and Upper Provinces. That the construction of a transcontinental railway should be undertaken within two years was the condition of British Columbia's entrance into confederation. In 1872 the question was first discussed in Parliament. A scandal arose over the contract, and the government was forced to resign. It was not until the return of the Conservatives to power six years later that the building of the road was begun. With such vigour was the work pressed that the last spike was driven in 1885.

THE NORTH-WEST, 1870-19—

201. **The North-West Territories organized.**—Out of the Riel rebellion, as we have seen, emerged the province of Manitoba. No sooner was order restored than settlers began to flock into the country. Immigration was encouraged by free grants of land. Many farmers from Eastern Canada moved west, while from Europe came an ever increasing number of colonists, of British, Scandinavian, and German stock. The newcomers spread beyond the

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limits of Manitoba, many finding their way into the valley of the Saskatchewan, a few even to the foothills of the Rockies. This North-Western Territory was governed by the lieutenant-governor of Manitoba and a Council of eleven members. In 1876 a change took place. The eastern section of the country, called Keewatin, was placed under the personal control of the lieutenant-governor of Manitoba, while the western was given a resident governor and a Council of five members. A few years later four provisional districts were organized—Alberta, Assiniboia, Atha-

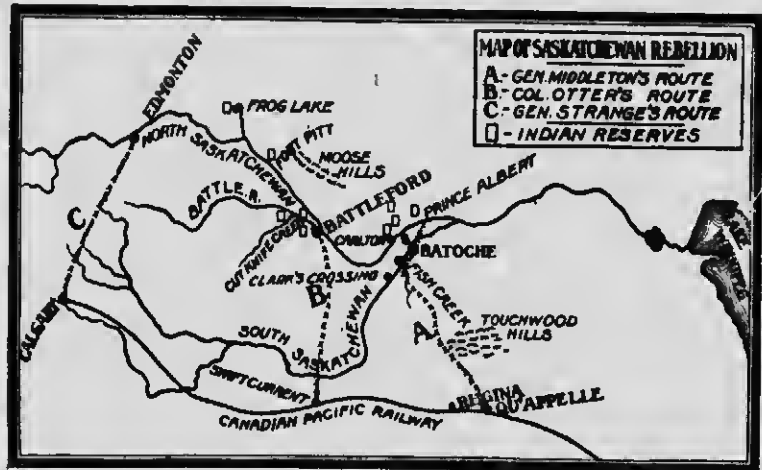


THE INTERIOR OF A HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY TRADING-POST
SHOWING MOUNTED POLICEMAN, INDIANS, AND MÉTIS

baska, and Saskatchewan. Regina, situated upon the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, then under construction, was chosen as the seat of government.

202. **The Saskatchewan rebellion, 1885.**—The advent of the railway gave promise of peaceful and rapid progress, when suddenly a second rebellion broke out. After the Red River rebellion, two hundred and forty acres of land were granted to each half-breed. As the province began to fill with settlers, many, in spite of this liberal grant, withdrew westwards, and settled on the banks of the Saskatchewan.

With the formation of the North-West Territories the hated civilization began to creep in upon them once more. The rapid disappearance of the buffalo, upon which Indians and half-breeds alike depended for a living, threatened a general famine. The natural unrest of the *Métis* was increased by a fear that their lands, of which they had received no patents or title-deeds, would be snatched away by speculators. Great dissatisfaction was felt, too, with the government's method of surveying the land, which interfered with the old French plan of having all the farms fronting on the river. If anything further were needed to provoke rebellion, it was the presence of Louis Riel, who,



returning from exile, suddenly appeared upon the scene to champion once more the cause of his restless compatriots. At first Riel was moderate, and there was every reason to expect that the government, though slow to act, would eventually remove all causes of discontent, when an unfortunate encounter of armed men precipitated rebellion. Near Duck Lake, within the angle formed by the North and South Saskatchewan, a force of Mounted Police and Prince Albert volunteers, while attempting to bring in an outlying store of supplies, was met by a band of rebels and driven back with a loss of twelve men killed.

The position of the white settlers of the Saskatchewan

valley was serious. To maintain order over the wide prairies stretching from Manitoba to the Rocky Mountains there were at hand only five hundred Mounted Police. The real danger lay, not in a revolt of the *Métis*, but in the possibility of a general rising of the Indians, of whom there were over thirty thousand in the North-West. Prince Albert, Battleford, and Fort Pitt were exposed to the attack of either the *Métis* or the Indians. Fortunately only the Crees joined the rebels. The most serious risings of the Indians took place near Battleford and Fort Pitt, among the followers of Poundmaker and Big Bear. The heart of the rebellion was the village of Batoche, the centre of the *Métis* settlements. Here Riel, forgetful of his overthrow at Fort Garry fifteen years before, again raised the standard of revolt.

The news of the fight at Duck Lake was the signal for a rising among the disaffected Indians. Big Bear's warriors, descending upon the little settlement of Frog Lake, near Fort Pitt, disarmed and shot nine men, and carried off a number of women and children. They then moved upon Fort Pitt, a group of log houses in the form of a square but practically defenceless. The commander, Francis Dickens, a son of the famous novelist, seeing that the place could not long hold out against the enemy, withdrew his men and escaped down the river to Battleford.

When the report of the rebellion reached Ottawa, the Dominion government took prompt action. As in the case of the Red River rising, the call for volunteers met with an eager response on all sides. Distance made the transportation of troops very difficult. From Ottawa to Qu'Appelle was over sixteen hundred miles, from Qu'Appelle to Batoche, two hundred and forty. To add to the difficulty of the undertaking there were several gaps in the Canadian Pacific Railway along the north shore of Lake Superior, which necessitated the use of sleighs in transporting guns and military stores. In spite of all obstacles, within less than two months forty-four hundred men were placed in the field, all save the Winnipeg contingent being from Eastern Canada.

General Middleton, commander-in-chief of the Canadian militia, making the Canadian Pacific Railway the base line

of his operations, prepared to crush the rebellion in all its centres at once. Three places were in immediate danger, Prince Albert, Battleford, and Fort Pitt; three relief expeditions were provided for in the plan of campaign. General Middleton was to advance from Qu'Appelle to Batoche, Riel's headquarters, Colonel Otter from Swift Current to Battleford, and General Strange from Calgary to Edmonton.

A march of twelve days brought the main force to Clark's Crossing, on the Saskatchewan, where it had been arranged to meet the steamer *Northcote* coming down the river with reinforcements and supplies. Although the steamer had not yet arrived, General Middleton divided his force, one-half on either bank, and advanced in the direction of Batoche. A few days later, as the division on the east bank was entering the ravine of Fish Creek, it came suddenly upon a strong force of the rebels under the command of Gabriel Dumont, a buffalo hunter whom Riel had chosen to be his lieutenant. In the skirmish which followed, Middleton lost ten men, the enemy eleven. Although Dumont fell back in the night, Middleton decided to await the arrival of the *Northcote*. On May 5th the delayed steamer arrived, and the advance was continued, two days' march bringing the force within striking distance of the rebels' headquarters. The ground before the village was found to be honeycombed with rifle-pits. Three days of skirmishing before these entrenchments wore out the patience of the volunteers, so that on the fourth day General Middleton had great difficulty in holding them. In the afternoon all restraint was thrown off, and the line, led by Colonel Williams of the Midland Battalion, swept forwards at a run, drove the enemy's riflemen from their trenches, and pursued them through the village beyond. The back of the rebellion was broken, and three days later Riel gave himself up. Without loss of time General Middleton pressed on to Prince Albert, and thence to Battleford.

Ten days after leaving Swift Current, Colonel Otter halted within three miles of Battleford. In order to prevent Poundmaker from joining Big Bear, he decided to move in the direction of the former's reserve. This move led to an

engagement with the Indians at Cut Knife Creek. The superiority of the Indians in number and the break down of his two guns forced Colonel Otter to fall back in the direction of Battleford. The loss sustained in this fight was eight killed and fourteen wounded.

Meanwhile, General Strange had relieved Edmonton from the danger of an Indian attack, and was descending the North Saskatchewan in order to hem in Big Bear between his force and that of Colonel Otter, stationed at Battleford. Alarmed at the strength of the forces closing in upon him, Big Bear began to retreat. Major Steele was sent in pursuit. Hundreds of miles were covered before the fleeing band was broken up and its chief captured. Meanwhile, at Battleford, Poundmaker and his followers had come in and laid down their arms. With Riel, Poundmaker, and Big Bear in custody, the rebellion was at an end; and it only remained to punish the rebel leaders who had defied the authority of the Canadian government. Riel was tried at Regina, and, though ably defended, was found guilty of treason and sentenced to be hanged. Eight Indians also paid the death penalty for murder, while others were imprisoned, among the latter Poundmaker, who died in prison.

203. Growth of the North-West.—Although a trying experience while it lasted, the Saskatchewan rebellion was not without its good results. The Dominion government was brought to recognize the claims of the *Métis*, and did so by promptly issuing title-deeds of their lands. In recognition of their growing importance, the North-West Territories were granted representation in the Senate and the House of Commons. To preserve order and to protect the lives of the settlers scattered throughout the country, the Mounted Police force was considerably increased.

The greatest influence of the rebellion was not upon the North-West alone, but upon the whole Dominion. All the provinces were interested in the suppression of the revolt; their sons either shared in the fighting or were pressing to the front when stopped by the news of Riel's surrender. Common hardships upon the march, common dangers on the field of battle, and the common anxiety of

friends at home made real in the hearts of Canadians the union which confederation had brought about.

Rebellion and the rapid growth of population which followed, showed the Dominion authorities the wisdom of giving to the North-West Territories a stronger government. The Council was abolished and its place taken by an elective Assembly. For a time the lieutenant-governor did not recognize the independence of the Assembly, but in the end that body came to enjoy powers practically equal to those of the provincial Assemblies of the Dominion.

204. Alberta and Saskatchewan.—In 1905 still further progress was made in the way of organization. By an Act of Parliament introduced by the government of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, two new provinces, Alberta and Saskatchewan, were formed from a portion of the North-West Territories. The new provinces formally came into being on September 1st, 1905. At present Saskatchewan is represented in the Dominion Parliament by four senators and ten members of the House of Commons, and Alberta by four senators and seven members of the Commons. The remaining part of the North-West Territories, including Keewatin, is still under the control of the Dominion government.

205. The Yukon.—The gold seekers of the far West were moving gradually northwards. From river to river they advanced, until, in 1896, gold was found in large quantities upon the Klondike, a branch of the Yukon River. The news spread quickly, and, although the newly discovered treasureland lay close to the Arctic Circle, thousands of fortune hunters were soon pouring in along the northern trails. Upon the Klondike, near its junction with the Yukon, a cluster of tents and log cabins gave promise of a permanent settlement, a promise which has been fulfilled in the now famous Dawson City. At first the Yukon Territory was controlled by the North-West government. Later it was organized as a separate district, under an official called the commissioner of the Yukon, appointed by the governor-general-in-Council. The commissioner is advised by a Council, in part appointed by the governor-general-in-Council and in part elected by the people of the district.

More recently the Yukon has been granted representation in the House of Commons.

SUMMARY

So rapidly did the country west of Manitoba fill up that it was soon found necessary to organize the North-West Territory into four districts: Alberta, Assiniboia, Athabaska and Saskatchewan. A resident governor and Council were appointed. After the Red River Rebellion many of the discontented half-breeds withdrew westwards to the banks of the Saskatchewan. As the hated civilization once more crept up upon them, they again arose in rebellion under Riel. The call for volunteers to suppress the revolt met with a ready response from all parts of the Dominion. With the restoration of order the Territories entered upon an era of progress. They were given an Assembly and representation in the Dominion Parliament. In 1905 the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan were organized and became part of the Dominion. The Yukon Territory also was organized.

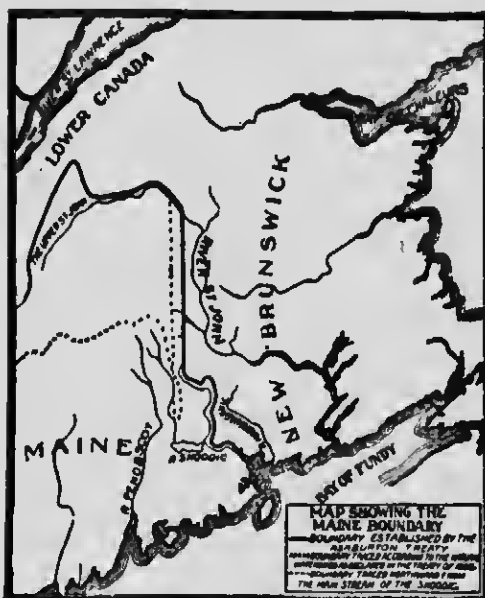
INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS, 1783-19—

206. **Treaties.**—Striking evidence of Canada's growth as a nation within the empire is found in the increase of her influence in dealings with foreign powers. On a recent boundary tribunal two of the three British members were Canadians. To understand this change it is necessary to review the various treaties which have marked the course of Canadian history.

207. **The Maine boundary.**—The treaty of Paris, in 1783, by which Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the United States, was the first of a series of international dealings affecting Canada. This first treaty fixed the southern boundary line of Canada. In the east the boundary between Maine and Nova Scotia was to be the St. Croix River, and a "line drawn from its source to the highlands dividing the waters falling into the Atlantic from those emptying themselves into the St. Lawrence." The boundary was further defined as running through the middle of Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, Superior, and the Lake of the Woods. From the "north-west angle of the Lake of the Woods" the

boundary was to run due west to the Mississippi. The indefinite terms of the treaty gave rise to dispute at a later date.

When the treaty of Paris was concluded, there was no river bearing the name of St. Croix. To what river, then, did the treaty refer? The United States said the Magaguadavic, Great Britain the Schoodic or Shoodie. Increasing friction led to the appointment of a commission to settle the



matter, and in 1798 a decision was given in favour of Great Britain. But for some reason the eastern branch of the Schoodic was chosen instead of the western, although the latter is the main stream. The line above the Schoodic remained unsettled. For many years the question stood open, and on more than one occasion nearly caused war. At one time the question was

referred to the king of the Netherlands. His award was a mere compromise, simply fixing the boundary line in the course of the river St. John, without attempting to define the "highlands." The United States refused to accept the award, and once more Maine and New Brunswick were exposed to the danger of an outbreak between the rival lumbermen who occupied the disputed territory.

Finally, in 1842, a settlement was brought about. Lord Ashburton representing Great Britain, and Mr. Daniel Webster on behalf of the United States, drew up the terms of what is known as the Ashburton Treaty. Lord Ashburton, ignoring the "highlands" referred to in the treaty of

Paris, consented to a boundary line running north from the east branch of the Schoodic to the St. John, and thence along the bed of the latter stream. Several small matters connected with the boundary were not, however, definitely settled until a much later date.

208. The Rush-Bagot Treaty.—In 1817, an agreement signed by Mr. Rush on behalf of the United States, and by Mr. Bagot on behalf of Great Britain, known as the Rush-Bagot Treaty, was made by which the armaments of each nation on the Great Lakes were limited. It was agreed that each nation should maintain "on Lake Ontario one vessel not exceeding one hundred tons burden and armed with an eighteen pound cannon; on the Upper Lakes two vessels not exceeding the like burden each, and armed with like force, and on the waters of Lake Champlain, one vessel not exceeding like burden and armed with like force." This treaty is still in force, although with the consent of Canada, several war-vessels, much heavier armed, are maintained by the United States as training ships on the Great Lakes.

209. The Fisheries question.—The number and variety of fish with which the coast waters of Canada teem have made the fisheries question a vital one. When the United States became independent of Great Britain, American fishermen lost the privilege of fishing in the territorial waters—that is, within three miles of the coast—of the British provinces. In 1818 an arrangement known as the "London Convention" was made whereby Americans were allowed to fish around the Magdalen Islands and along certain parts of the coasts of Newfoundland and Labrador, and also to land on these coasts to dry or cure fish. They could enter bays or harbours only "for the purpose of shelter and of repairing damages therein, or of purchasing wood or of obtaining water." The strictness with which Great Britain enforced these limitations caused much ill-feeling. The Reciprocity Treaty of 1854 put an end to all unpleasantness by giving to American fishermen the right to fish upon the coasts of the British provinces without any restriction as to the three-mile limit. Twelve years later the United

States refused to renew the Reciprocity Treaty, and the fisheries question fell back to its former standing.

210. **The Oregon Treaty, 1846.**—The boundary line between American and British territory in the West was fixed by the London Convention of 1818 at the forty-ninth parallel. At the Lake of the Woods a wedge of American territory was thrust into Canada's side. The forty-ninth parallel was the accepted line as far as the Rockies. It was agreed that for the time being the country beyond the mountains should be "free and open" to both nations. In 1846 the Oregon Treaty continued the boundary line



along the forty-ninth parallel to the channel separating Vancouver Island from the mainland. The line was to follow this channel south-westerly to the Pacific Ocean. It remained to be seen what channel was meant.

211. **The Washington Treaty.**—In 1871 an attempt was made to settle all outstanding disputes between Great Britain and the United States. For the first time a Canadian was chosen to act as one of the British commissioners. When the commission met at Washington, Sir John A. Macdonald, premier of the newly formed Dominion, was present on Canada's behalf as one of the Commissioners. The United States claimed compensation for damage done to her trade by a Southern cruiser, the *Alabama*, which had been fitted out in a British harbour. This claim was referred to arbitration, and Great Britain promptly paid the amount fixed by the arbitrators. Canada's counter-claim on account of the Fenian raids was withdrawn at the request of the British government. To overcome the dissatisfaction of Canadians at this surrender of their claims, Great Britain guaranteed a large loan to be spent on railways and canals. The navigation of the river

St. Lawrence, the canals, and Lake Michigan was thrown open to both nations. The commissioners also dealt with the question of the disputed channel between Vancouver Island and the mainland. The ownership of San Juan was involved, the subjects of both nations having for several years occupied the island jointly. The question was referred for settlement to the German emperor, who a year later gave his award in favour of the United States. With a view to removing another difficulty, Canadian fisheries were thrown open to Americans for ten years, the United States, in return, agreeing to pay the sum of five and a half million dollars. This amount was determined upon by three arbitrators who met at Halifax six years later, Mr. A. T. Galt being the Canadian representative. At the



SIR ALEXANDER GALT

end of the ten years the American government refused to renew this arrangement, so that the whole question of the fisheries was again opened. At the present time American fishermen are allowed to take out licenses to fish in Canadian waters. It is important to note that the Washington Treaty did not come into force until ratified by the Canadian Parliament.

212. **The Alaskan disputes.**—When British and Russian fur traders met upon the Pacific coast, it became necessary to fix definitely the line dividing the territories of the two powers interested. This was done by treaty in 1825. In 1867, the year of Confederation, the United States purchased Alaska from Russia. Out of this purchase have arisen two disputes between Great Britain and the United States, the one connected with Behring Sea sealing rights, the other with the Alaskan boundary. The United States claimed that the Behring Sea was a "closed sea," and therefore American territory, and also that the seals therein were an

American herd, the property of the "Alaska Company." The trouble was brought to a head by the seizure of several British schooners by American revenue-cutters. The ques-

tion was wisely submitted to a tribunal, which met in Paris in 1893. Again Canada was represented by her premier, then Sir John Thompson. The decision of the tribunal was against the claims of the United States. Certain regulations were laid down to prevent a wholesale destruction of the seals.

In taking over Alaska from Russia, the United States secured all the rights of that nation as laid down in the treaty of 1825. According to this treaty the boundary was to run as follows: "Commencing from the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island, the line shall ascend to the north along Portland Channel as far as the point of the continent where it strikes the fifty-sixth degree of north latitude; from this point the line shall



THE ALASKAN BOUNDARY

follow the summit of the mountains situated parallel to the coast." From Mt. St. Elias to the Arctic Ocean the hundred and forty-first meridian of west longitude was to be the boundary. Where the mountains parallel with the

coast were more than ten marine leagues distant from the ocean, Russian territory was not to exceed that distance in width. The meaning of the treaty was not altogether clear. There are several mountain ranges parallel with the coast. The coast, too, is broken by deep bays, and the question arose whether the boundary line was to be ten leagues from the head of these bays or from their mouths. There was some doubt, also, as to the course of the Portland Channel, and the settlement of this point involved the possession of several islands.

The discovery of gold in and beyond the disputed territory made the Alaskan boundary an all-important question which both nations were anxious to have settled. Finally the interpretation of the British-Russian treaty was left to a commission, composed of three representatives from the United States, and three from Great Britain, two of the latter being Canadians. The commission met in London in September, 1903. The decision was, upon the whole, favourable to the American claims. In connection with the boundary line on the mainland, it was decided that this should be measured from the heads of the larger bays.

213. Recent arrangements with the United States.—As many questions relating to the use of the international waterways had arisen between Canada and the United States, it was agreed in 1903 to refer all matters in dispute to a Commission consisting of four representatives from each country. This Commission was given power to form a policy for the regulation of the international waterways so as best to preserve these waters for the benefit of each country. Much useful work has already been done by the Commission which had not in 1910 completed its labours.

In 1908 an agreement was reached between Great Britain and the United States which provided for the more accurate marking out of the boundary line between the United States and Canada. A joint boundary Commission was appointed under this agreement, and this Commission is still in 1910 engaged in the work of delimiting accurately the international boundaries. At the same time an arrangement was made for the better regulation of the inland

fisheries. For this purpose a Commission was appointed consisting of one representative from Canada and one from the United States. It is expected that the report of this Commission will remove all cause of friction between the two countries in connection with inland fisheries. In 1909 a special arrangement was reached between Great Britain and the United States relating to the Atlantic fisheries, in which both Canada and Newfoundland are concerned. The whole case was by this arrangement referred to a Court of Arbitration sitting at the Hague. The decision of this Court, of which the chief-justice of Canada was a member, upheld the claims of Canada and Newfoundland on all the important points raised.

214. **The French Convention, 1907.**—The growing influence of Canada, and the recognition of her right to play an important part in connection with treaties affecting her own interests was strikingly shown by the French Convention of 1907. In this year it was proposed to enter into a commercial arrangement with the French Republic, and for this purpose two of the Canadian ministers were formally appointed by the British government to conduct the entire negotiations in conjunction with the British Ambassador to France. This treaty which affected the commercial relations between the two countries was concluded during the year and was subsequently ratified by the Canadian Parliament.

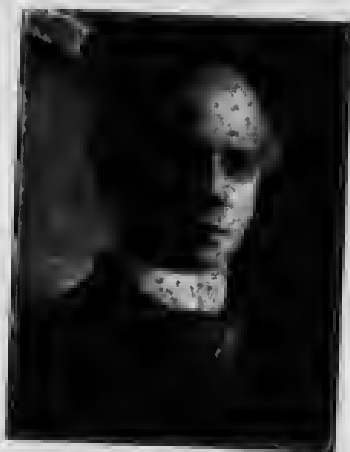
SUMMARY

Evidence of Canada's growth as a nation is found in the increase of her influence in dealings with foreign powers. This growing influence is seen in a review of the various questions of international interest which have marked the course of Canadian history—the Maine boundary, the Rush-Bagot Treaty, the Fisheries, the Oregon Treaty, the Washington Treaty, and the Alaskan Dispute.

CANADA AND THE EMPIRE, 1885-19—

216. **Dominion leaders.**—The Confederation period of Canadian history has produced not a few statesmen, who have dealt ably with questions of Dominion, even of im-

perial, interest. The most illustrious of them all was Sir John Alexander Macdonald, whose name is so closely associated with two great events—the formation of the Dominion and the building of a trans-continental railway. He died in 1891, having been for nineteen years premier of the Dominion. His death was followed a year later by that of his political opponent, Alexander Mackenzie, a man whose honesty has become proverbial in Canadian history. Sir John's long tenure of office was followed by four short administrations, those of Sir John Abbott, Sir John Thompson, Sir Mackenzie Bowell, and Sir Charles Tupper. In 1896 the long rule of the Conservatives, which began in 1878, was brought to a close when the Liberals were returned to power under the leadership of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who is still in 1910 premier of the Dominion.



SIR WILFRID LAURIER

215. **The unity of the British Empire.**—Next to the expansion and consolidation of the Dominion, the most important fact of recent Canadian history has been the strengthening of the ties binding Canada to the British Empire. An event occurred in 1894 which had an important bearing upon this movement; namely, the gathering of the Colonial Conference at Ottawa. Delegates were present from Canada, New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, and South Africa; the Earl of Jersey, representing Great Britain, presided. The object of the conference was to promote trade and good feeling among the colonies, thereby fostering the unity of the British Empire. One result of this gathering has been the laying of a cable between Canada and Australia, completing an all-British system. The burden of this enterprise was shared by Great Britain, Australia, and Canada. In the

year 1902 Sir Sandford Fleming of Ottawa, who is commonly called the father of the Pacific cable, was able to send around the world on British lines a message of congratulation to the governor-general of Canada. The imperial bonds were drawn still closer by the Diamond Jubilee, the celebration in 1897 of the sixtieth year of Queen Victoria's reign. Upon this occasion the greatest enthusiasm prevailed throughout the Empire, troops from the various colonies taking part in the military parade. The colonial premiers took advantage of the opportunity to hold another meeting to discuss matters of intercolonial trade.

The building of the Canadian Pacific Railway, which had such an important bearing upon the expansion of the Dominion, was an event of great moment to the British Empire. The construction of the transcontinental road was followed by the establishment of a Pacific steamship line connecting Canada's western coast with the Asiatic East. The Atlantic and Pacific steamship lines and the Canadian Pacific Railway furnished Great Britain with an alternative route to Australia and India. In the event of a war with an Eastern power this route would be invaluable to the British Empire. Another act which tended to consolidate the empire was the granting by the Canadian government of a preference on all goods imported into Canada from Great Britain. In 1898, also, through the efforts of Sir William Mulock, the postmaster-general of Canada, a letter rate of two cents an ounce was adopted for the United Kingdom, Canada, Newfoundland, Cape Colony, and Natal. This rate was afterwards extended to other parts of the British dominions. Further, under Sir Wilfrid Laurier, another great transcontinental railway, the Grand Trunk Pacific, has been chartered, which will provide yet another route across Canada of national and imperial importance.

Late in 1899 after protracted negotiations the Transvaal Republic in South Africa served notice of war on Great Britain. Public feeling was aroused. It was felt that the destiny of all parts of the empire lay in their permanent alliance, and an enthusiastic desire to aid the motherland displayed itself. Canada at once sent to South Africa a con-

tingent of over a thousand men. In two weeks' time the contingent, including representatives from every province, was enlisted, equipped, and transported to Quebec, ready to embark for South Africa. Later, when it was seen that the war was likely to be prolonged, several more contingents were hurried to the distant battle ground. Eighty-three hundred and seventy-two men, including five hundred and ninety-seven Strathcona Horse, was Canada's contribution to the forces of the Empire. Of these, two hundred and fifty-two were wounded, while two hundred and twenty-four lie buried beneath the veldts of South Africa. In marching, scouting, and fighting, the Canadian troops proved themselves worthy sons of the Empire, and in several hard-fought engagements bore themselves with credit beside Britain's most honoured regiments. The eagerness with which the colonies came to the aid of the motherland in the Boer War proved the unity of the British Empire.

While the war was still in progress, Queen Victoria died. As the cables flashed the news around the Empire, Britons everywhere mourned the loss of the sovereign who had "wrought her people lasting good." In the autumn of the year which saw the late queen laid to rest, the Duke and Duchess of Cornwall and York, (now King George V and Queen Mary) made a tour of the Empire and were everywhere enthusiastically welcomed. In the following year King Edward VII and Queen Alexandra were crowned. All the colonies were represented in the coronation ceremonies, and no representatives from the Dominions over the Seas were more graciously received than those of Canada.

In 1908 the Tercentenary of the founding of Quebec by Champlain was celebrated with great magnificence on the



KING EDWARD VII

site of the historic city. Representatives were present from France and from the United States, and to add imperial significance to the celebration the king was represented by the heir to the throne, the Prince of Wales. The enthusiasm with which the Prince was received showed to the world the loyalty of Canadians to the Empire, and their determination to do their share in maintaining its dignity and power. Early in the next year, however, the startling news was sent over the world that Edward VII was dead. Nowhere was the news received with more sincere regret than in Canada, which King Edward had visited in person nearly fifty years before. The whole country joined in mourning for the king who had proved himself such a wise sovereign and able statesman.

SUMMARY

An important factor in recent Canadian history has been the strengthening of the ties binding Canada to the British Empire. The Colonial Conference at Ottawa in 1894 had for its aim the promotion of trade and good feeling among the colonies. The Diamond Jubilee of 1897 drew the imperial bonds still closer. The building of the Canadian Pacific Railway, furnishing Great Britain with an alternative route to the far East, was an undertaking of imperial interest. Nothing has done more to draw Canada to the Empire than the sacrifice of her sons on the veldts of South Africa.

CHAPTER XXIV

CANADA AT THE OPENING OF THE NEW CENTURY

1867-19—

217. **Transportation.**—The population of the Dominion at the close of the nineteenth century was nearly five and a half millions, and is now about seven millions. While all the provinces have grown, the growth of the West has been most marked. At the opening of the century, the population of the three prairie provinces was about four hundred thousand; now it has reached more than the million mark. The development of Western Canada has been the result of the building of railways. At the time of Confederation there were twenty-two hundred miles of railway; at the close of the century, there were no less than seventeen thousand, controlled mainly by the Canadian Pacific, the Grand Trunk, the Canadian Northern, and the Interoceanic. The total mileage of the Dominion now exceeds twenty-three thousand. With the completion of the two new transcontinental lines, the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern, this mileage will be greatly increased. In addition there were in operation in 1910 over one thousand miles of electric railways.

The advent of the Canadian Pacific Railway has worked a marvellous change in the West. At the terminus of the road there sprang up, as by magic, the bustling city of Vancouver, while the line throughout was soon dotted with villages. Many of these have now risen to the dignity of towns, a few even aspire to take rank with the cities. To north and south the road has thrown out branch lines, everywhere developing new districts. This experience is being repeated in the case of the Grand Trunk Pacific, which has opened up a new North-West. There is no reason to doubt that in the near future the site of

Prince Rupert, the western terminus of the new road, will be covered by a city that will prove a worthy rival of Vancouver.

By an Act passed in 1904, the railways of Canada were placed under the control of a Commission of three members, afterwards increased to six. The Railway Commission has power over the regulation of rates, transportation facilities, and generally over all matters in which there may be a conflict between the interests of the Railway Companies and the interests of the people. The powers of the Commission were subsequently extended to include control over telegraphs, telephones and express companies. The Commission has proved of great benefit to Canada and has fully justified its creation.

The development of canals has kept pace with that of railways. The Welland Canal and those of the St. Lawrence system have been deepened, while Lake Superior and Lake Huron have been connected by the Sault Ste. Marie Canal, running through Canadian territory. Canada has spent over ninety million dollars on the construction and enlargement of her canals—seventy-two miles in all. It is now possible for a vessel drawing fourteen feet of water to load at Fort William and pass through to Montreal, a distance of fourteen hundred miles. The improvement of these waterways has resulted in a great increase in Canadian shipping. Countless steamers and vessels of all kinds ply back and forth over the Great Lakes. The steamer is no longer a novelty. Its shrill whistle has broken the silence of the rivers and lakes of both East and West, and even of the distant North. Upon the Atlantic and upon the Pacific, Canadian steamship lines connect the commerce of Canada with that of the outside world.

218. Industrial growth.—Agriculture continues to be the leading industry of Canada. About one-half the people are dependent upon farming operations for a living. In 1908 the total field crops from twenty-seven million acres, yielded four hundred and thirty-two million dollars. In the older provinces farming has reached a scientific stage, and the most is made of every acre of land. The pioneer days have long since passed, and on every hand are to be seen signs of

prosperity. Fine roads run for miles and miles past well-fenced farms, with comfortable houses and large barns. Artistic furniture, fine clothing, and modern buggies tell of prosperous days. The West wears a newer look. To this wheat land—the greatest in the world—all eyes are turned. Settlers are flocking in from Eastern Canada, from the United States, and from many countries of Europe.

Where wheat fields cease, mineral veins begin. Coal, iron, copper, nickel, gold, silver, corundum, and asbestos are found in inexhaustible supply. The value of Canada's output of minerals in 1907 was \$86,183,477, including coal, \$24,560,238; iron, \$9,125,226; copper, \$11,478,644; gold, \$8,264,756; silver, \$8,329,221. Moreover, the future will reveal the wealth which the North holds beneath its rock-bound surface.

The manufactures of Canada have taken great strides since Confederation. One fourth of the people are dependent upon manufactures for a livelihood. The manufactures of 1900 were valued at four hundred and eighty-one million dollars, those of 1906 at seven hundred and eighteen million, an increase of fifty per cent. Canada's fisheries are the most extensive in the world, including nearly thirteen thousand miles of sea coast and innumerable lakes and rivers. The returns from this industry in 1907-8 were valued at twenty-five million dollars. On all sides are evidences of growth,—thirty chartered banks, eleven thousand eight hundred and twenty-three post-offices, thirty-two thousand miles of telegraph lines, and one hundred and thirty-six thousand miles of telephone wires.

The industrial progress of Canada has been materially advanced by an Act introduced into the House of Commons by Mr. Rodolphe Lemieux and known as the Lemieux Act. This Act provides a means of settling of disputes between employers and employees on the basis of an investigation before a board of arbitrators. The result of the passage of the Act has been the prevention of many strikes, and a better understanding between the employers and their workmen.

In order to retain as far as possible the enormous natural resources of the country for the benefit of the people as a

whole. the Dominion government in 1909 appointed a Commission containing representatives from all the provinces, to make recommendations in regard to the best means of preserving this great national heritage. The Commission has only begun its work, and at present nothing can be said as to the results that will follow its appointment.

219. **The Canadian militia.**—Conscious of a new strength growing out of union, Canada after Confederation undertook the burden of her own defence. All British troops, except those at Halifax, were withdrawn. The Canadian military system is under the control of a militia council, the chairman of which is the minister of militia. The other members are the chief of the general staff, the adjutant-general, the quartermaster-general, the master-general of ordnance, the deputy-minister of militia, and the accountant of the militia department. Of course the minister is the official who is responsible to Parliament for the conduct of military affairs. The Canadian militia consists, with certain exceptions, of all the male inhabitants of the country between the ages of eighteen and sixty. These may be called out for service in the following order: (1) Unmarried men or childless widowers between eighteen and thirty; (2) Unmarried men or childless widowers between thirty and forty-five; (3) Men between eighteen and forty-five, who are married, or widowers with children; (4) Men between forty-five and sixty. These different classes are called the reserve militia. There is also a permanent militia of a thousand men, in addition to the Royal North-West Mounted Police, and an active militia of forty-seven thousand men serving for three years and drilling from eight to sixteen days each year.

220. **The Canadian navy.**—The experience of the South African war proved the willingness of Canada to furnish land forces to fight the battles of the empire. Canadians are now planning to strengthen the empire on the seas. So rapidly are some foreign powers increasing the strength of their navies that British statesmen are growing anxious about the supremacy of our fleet. All the "British Dominions beyond the Seas" are considering how they can best add to the naval strength of the empire. In 1910 the

Canadian Parliament resolved to make a beginning in the establishment of a Canadian navy. Several cruisers are to be built and equipped, and a training school for officers and sailors is to be established. The details of the plan are not yet fully worked out, but it is expected that within a short time Canada will have a well-equipped navy, small but effective, and fully able to play its part in the defence of the empire.

Halifax on the Atlantic, and Esquimault on the Pacific, strongly fortified harbours, were formerly maintained by the British government as naval stations. Their defences are now in the hands of the Canadian government.

221. Schools and churches.—Fortunately for Canada the progress of education and Christianity has been no less decided than the material growth. Although no striking change has taken place in the public school system since its establishment, yet its influence has been greatly widened. As early as 1901 there were in Canada forty-one collegiate institutes, ninety-eight high schools, sixteen thousand one hundred and twenty-two public schools, and twenty-one private schools. Larger buildings, better equipment, and more capable teachers have greatly improved the public schools of Canada. The scope of higher education has been extended to include agriculture, medicine, science, music, dentistry, and other subjects. In 1910 there were sixteen universities, and hundreds of preparatory schools.

The four older churches, the Roman Catholic, Anglican, Presbyterian, and Methodist, have shared in the general progress of the country, and beside them have sprung up two younger denominations, the Baptist and Congregational. The churches have played an important part in the building up of the newer parts of Canada. That there was little trouble in preserving order during the early life of the Canadian West was due in large part to the active missionary work of the various churches.

222. Canadian literature.—A record of Canada's progress would be incomplete without a reference to our literature. Although not far past the pioneer stage of her history, Canada possesses at least the beginnings of a literature, or

rather of two literatures, one French, the other English. Fortunately some of our ancestors, of both races, found time, even amid the anxieties of pioneer life, to write of their experiences, and though much that they wrote cannot be called literature, it has proved valuable material in the hands of modern writers.

Marc L'Escarbot, historian and poet of Port Royal, has given us in "L'Histoire de la Nouvelle France" and "Les Muses de la Nouvelle France," a delightful glimpse of the life of Canada's first colony. Champlain, even in the busy years of exploration, Indian fighting, and colonizing, found time to write of his experiences under the title of "Des Sauvages." The most extensive writings of this early period are the Jesuit "Relations," a treasure-house of historical material gathered by zealous priests of the Jesuit order. The most familiar of these early historians is Pierre François Xavier de Charlevoix.



MRS. MOODIE

A long interval followed during which the voice of literature was silent. The fur trade, Indian wars, and the struggle between France and Britain, left little time for writing. Not until after the union of 1841 did French-Canadians again turn their attention to literature. To this period belong several historians, including François Xavier Garneau, Benjamin Sulte, and Abbé Casgrain. An historical romance by M. Philippe de Gaspé, entitled "Les Anciens Canadiens," presents an interesting sketch of early Quebec life. In the front rank of our poets stand Louis Fréchette, whose work has been crowned by the French Academy.

The stirring events of the early British period, while they interrupted literary effort, furnished rich material for later works of history, fiction, and verse. Among the more formal histories of the period are: "The Conquest of Canada," by

Major G. G. Warburton; "Lower Canada," 1791-1811, by Robert Christie; "The Loyalists," by Dr. Egerton Ryerson and Dr. William Canniff. Events of this period have also provided the plots of several interesting historical novels: "Les Bastonnais," by John Lesperance; "Le Chien d'Or," by William Kirby; "The Canadian Brothers," and "Wacousta," by Major John Richardson; "For King and Country," by Agnes Machar. The memory of Tecumseh is preserved in Charles Mair's well known drama of that name. Vivid pictures of pioneer life in Upper Canada have come down to us in Mrs. Moodie's "Roughing it in the Bush," and Mrs. Traill's "Baekwoods of Canada."

In the more modern period, history has bulked largely. To Dr. Kingsford we owe a ten volume history of our country; while Professor Goldwin Smith, who died in 1910, has been spoken of as "the most conspicuous figure in Canadian literature." In local history the Maritime Provinces claim several writers of distinction: Haliburton, Murdoek, Campbell, and Hannay. Able as is his contribution to history, Judge Haliburton's reputation throughout the English-speaking world rests upon his book entitled "The Clockmaker; or The Sayings and Doings of Sam Slick of Slickville." This remarkable work of humour, equally popular in Canada, Great Britain and the United States, won for its distinguished author a degree from Oxford University and a seat in the British House of Commons.

In the recent progress of literature and science an important part has been played by the Royal Society of Canada. Founded by the Marquis of Lorne, it held its first meeting at Ottawa, in 1882. Its president, Sir William Dawson, at that time the distinguished head of McGill University, was the author of several works on science



LOUIS FRÉCHETTE

which have become popular throughout the English-speaking world.

Canadian history furnishes a wealth of material for fiction. Out of the romantic incidents of the war between France and Britain, Charles G. D. Roberts has woven many attractive stories, such as "The Forge in the Forest," and "A Sister to Evangeline." In "The Seats of the Mighty," Sir Gilbert Parker has made real to us the life of Quebec during the era of the conquest. The hardships and dangers of the fur-trade of the North-West have become better known through Miss Agnes Laut's "Lords of the North," and "Heralds of Empire." Rocky Mountain miners and lumbermen are the heroes whom the pen of "Ralph Connor" (Charles W. Gordon) has made so fascinating to the reading public in his many novels of western life.

There are no books in modern Canadian literature more attractive than those which deal with our wild animals and their haunts. Such are Ernest Thompson Seton's "Wild Animals I have Known," and "Lives of the Hunted;" Charles G. D. Roberts' "Heart of the Ancient Wood," and "Kindred of the Wild;" and W. A. Fraser's "Mooswa."



THOMAS CHANDLER
HALIBURTON

The first Canadian poem of importance written in English was "Saul," a drama from the pen of Charles Heavyside, a Montreal journalist. To Charles Sangster, sometimes called the "Canadian Wordsworth," we owe several volumes of verse, inspired mainly by Canadian scenery and history. Between these older writers and the modern Canadian poets stand John Reade, Hunter Duvar, and Charles Mair. The best known of our modern poets are Archibald Lampman, William Wilfred Campbell, Charles G. D. Roberts, Bliss Carman, Duncan Campbell Scott, Frederiek George Scott, Dr. W. H. Drummond, Theodore Rand, Isabella Valaney

Crawford, Agnes Maule Machar, Jean Blewett, Ethelwyn Wetherald, and Pauline Johnson. Several of these have won an honourable place in the field of poetry, but their work has been done too recently to be judged as to its permanent value. Through much of the more recent verse there runs a marked patriotic strain. Loyalty to Canada and to the British Empire has inspired many of our shorter poems.

"Saxon and Gaul, Canadians, claim
A part in the glory and pride, and aim
Of the Empire that girdles the world."

SUMMARY

The population of the Dominion at the close of the nineteenth century was about five and a half millions. The most marked increase was manifest in Western Canada, the result of the building of a transcontinental railway. The development of the canal system kept pace with that of railways. The industrial growth after Confederation was rapid and general, as seen by the development of agriculture, lumbering, mining, the fisheries, and manufactures of various kinds. As in previous periods, the progress of education and Christianity kept pace with material advancement. Young as the Canadian nation is, it possesses at least the beginnings of a literature. A review of the literature of the four periods, the early French and later French, the early British and later British, reveals the names of many well known writers.

CHAPTER XXV

ONTARIO SINCE CONFEDERATION

1867-19—

223. The Makers of the province of Ontario.—The British North America Act changed the name of Upper Canada to Ontario, and gave to Ontario, as to each of the other provinces, a local legislature and also representation in the House of Commons and in the Senate. Henceforth the history of Canada is not provincial, but national. It remains, therefore, to tell of the making of the province of Ontario, of its growth and prosperity and of the leaders in its political life. The story of Confederation has already made us familiar with the careers of Sir John A. Macdonald, George Brown, and Alexander Mackenzie. Three others from Ontario who shared in promoting a larger national life were Sir Alexander Campbell, Sir Francis Hincks, and Sir Alexander T. Galt.



JOHN SANDFIELD MACDONALD

An opponent of what he deemed a revolutionary scheme, John Sandfield Macdonald figured largely in the Confederation period. He was a member of the Union Parliament for many years. He entered the La Fontaine-Baldwin Cabinet in 1849, and for two years (1862-1864) was premier of the United Canadas. At Confederation he became the first prime minister of Ontario and held office for a parliamentary term. His ministry founded many of the public institutions of the province, such as the

al College, the Central Prison, and the institutions for the blind, and the deaf and dumb. Mr. Mowat was a Liberal in politics, but allied himself with Sir John A. Macdonald after Confederation.

Sir Oliver Mowat entered Parliament in 1857, and was soon one of the leading Liberal statesmen. He was one of the strongest supporters of Confederation. Till 1870 he was conspicuous in the Dominion Parliament. Then for nearly twenty-four years he was the distinguished Liberal premier of Ontario. He won many constitutional victories in his battles for provincial rights. The Rivers and Streams Bill of 1881, a measure passed by the Ontario legislature, was disallowed by the federal government. The case was taken to the Privy Council, where it was decided that the province controlled her own waterways. In 1884 arose the Western Boundary Dispute between the Dominion and Ontario; the decision of the Privy Council established the present western line of the province. In 1888 it was decided by the Privy Council that the province owned all lands bought from Indians, and also that it had jurisdiction in the matter of liquor licenses. A further decision on the Provincial Assemblies question conceded to the provinces the power "to regulate their own procedure, and to enlarge or limit the privileges of members." By an imperial statute of 1889 the boundaries of Ontario were confirmed, and extended to James Bay. It was mainly through the energy and ability of Mr. Mowat that the interests of Ontario were thus promoted. He also greatly simplified and cheapened the course of the law, and improved the machinery of the courts. For his great services to his country Mr. Mowat was knighted. In 1896 he was ap-



SIR OLIVER MOWAT

pointed minister of justice in Sir Wilfrid Laurier's government, and retired with a splendid record in 1897 to become lieutenant-governor of Ontario, a position he held at the time of his death.

William McDougall was an energetic lawyer and journalist. From 1862, the time of his entry into John Sandfield Macdonald's administration, he strenuously urged such great measures as representation by population, confederation of all the provinces, and the acquirement of the North-West Territories by the Dominion. While in public life he saw all these passed, and when in 1870 the Hudson Bay Territory was purchased by the Dominion government, Mr. McDougall became the first governor of the newly acquired region.

As a lawyer, Edward Blake early won a name for eloquence and ability. His political career began when, at



EDWARD BLAKE

Confederation, he entered the Ontario legislature. Shortly afterwards, he rose to be leader of the Liberal party, and then, in 1871, premier of Ontario. A year later, he was called to the federal administration of Mr. Mackenzie, and after the latter's withdrawal, Mr. Blake became the opposition leader of the Commons. He retired from Dominion politics in 1892 to become an Irish Home Rule member in the British House of Commons. Mr. Blake long held the honoured position of chan-

cellor of the University of Toronto.

Having distinguished himself as a successful pleader in many important cases, William Ralph Meredith was persuaded to enter the Ontario legislature in 1872. Six years later he was chosen leader of the Conservative opposition, succeeding the late Sir M. C. Cameron. In 1894 he was appointed chief-justice of the Common Pleas division of

the High Court of Justice for Ontario, and was soon after knighted. Sir William succeeded Mr. Blake as chancellor of the University of Toronto, a position which he still holds.

Arthur S. Hardy entered the provincial Parliament in 1873, and after four years of service entered the Mowat administration. On the retirement of Mr. Mowat in 1896, Mr. Hardy succeeded him as premier. Many public and private bills of wide scope and of a practical business character marked his administration.

For eleven years, from 1872 to 1883, George W. Ross was a leading member of the House of Commons. Chosen minister of education in the Mowat cabinet, he held the same position under Mr. Hardy. Mr. Ross did much to improve the public school system, and was also one of the factors in bringing about the federation of the University of Toronto and the affiliation of denominational colleges with that institution. In 1899 Mr. Ross became premier of Ontario, and held that office until 1905, when his government was defeated at the polls. Later Mr. Ross was appointed to the Senate of Canada and was honoured with knighthood. Sir James Whitney, who



SIR JAMES WHITNEY

had been leader of the Conservative opposition since 1896, became premier on the defeat of the Ross government. Sir James, whose party still continues in power, has already to his credit many laws promoting the industrial, social and educational advancement of the province.

224. Material progress of Ontario.—Under wise and efficient leadership, the story of Ontario since Confederation is one of peace and prosperity. In that time its population has nearly doubled and is now more than two millions. The area of the province through the extension of her boundaries is now 222,000 square miles, of which New

Ontario contributes about 100,000 square miles. Yet this province, larger than either France or Germany, is cobwebbed with the steel of railway and trolley, with the wire of telegraph and telephone. The two railways, the Grand Trunk and the Canadian Pacific, have absorbed most of the minor lines. The main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, opened in 1885, has proved of great value to the settlers of New Ontario. Another great transcontinental highway, the Grand Trunk Pacific, is now under construction to proceed through the province's timbered northlands. From Port Arthur to Winnipeg runs the Canadian Northern. The Temiskaming and Northern is a government line under construction to impart new life to northern Ontario. The other principal railroads under construction are the Algoma Central and the James Bay line. A canal of immense proportions has been opened at Sault Ste. Marie; the other canals have been deepened, so that ocean vessels may now traverse the Great Lakes to the heart of the continent.

Ontario's chief industry is agriculture; but, her forest resources, and her mineral wealth are almost inexhaustible. Most of her seventeen cities and one hundred and twenty towns are great manufacturing centres, and the products of her factories, farms, forests, and mines are justly prized by the sister provinces, the motherland and the United States. At the various great expositions held recently, educational exhibits from Ontario, her fruit and dairy products, her grain, live stock, minerals, and manufactures, have won many of the highest awards. And yet this banner province of the Dominion is in its infancy. There are still vast undeveloped resources which will furnish homes to millions who with brain, brawn, and heart seek to be worthy of their glorious heritage!

SUMMARY

The administration of provincial affairs in Ontario has brought into prominence many able men, among them the following: John Sandfield Macdonald, Sir Oliver Mowat, William MacDougall, Sir William Meredith, Edward Blake, Arthur S. Hardy, Sir George Ross, and Sir James Whitney. The population of Ontario has nearly doubled since Confederation; her boundaries have been widely extended. The material and intellectual progress of the province has been in keeping with that of the Dominion as a whole.

CHAPTER XXVI

GOVERNMENT

225. Imperial Government.—The government of Canada is modelled, as far as possible, after that of Great Britain. To understand the Canadian system it is necessary to know something of the Imperial. The constitution of Great Britain has been many centuries in the making. In early times the rule of the sovereign was absolute, the people having no voice in the government. Rulers like the early Stuarts strove to uphold the absolute power of the crown.



THE IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS AT WESTMINSTER

but in vain. The Magna Carta, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights tell of the growing power of the Parliament and of the increasing freedom of the people. It is

to long centuries of struggle and sacrifice on the part of the people that Great Britain owes its present constitution. The country is governed by a sovereign, but by one who rules according to the will of the people.

Great Britain is a limited monarchy. The crown is hereditary in the House of Hanover, subject always to the will of Parliament. All acts of government are performed in the name of the sovereign, whether they be legislative, executive, or judicial. In legislation—law making—the sovereign is at the head of a Parliament composed of two Houses, the Lords and the Commons. In the House of Lords sit archbishops, bishops, dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons. A seat in the Upper House is hereditary, except in the case of the elected Scottish and Irish peers and a few life peers. The House of Lords represents mainly the wealth and landed interests of the country. The House of Commons, a larger body representing the people of England, Wales, Scotland., and Ireland, is the most important part of the Parliament. Nearly all business originates in this House. When a bill passes the Commons it must be brought before the Lords, but the latter never refuse their assent if they feel that the Lower House represents the real wishes of the nation. After passing through both Houses of Parliament, every bill must be signed by the sovereign before it can become law.

In his executive acts the sovereign is advised by an Executive Council, commonly called the Cabinet. The members of the Cabinet are chosen from the House of Lords and the House of Commons, mainly from the latter. As the king follows the advice of the Cabinet, which must possess the confidence of the House of Commons, elected by the nation at large, it may be truly said that the people of Great Britain rule themselves. There is one member of the British Cabinet in whom the colonial governments are specially interested, namely, the colonial secretary. Through his hands pass all communications between the British and Canadian governments.

In various ways Great Britain retains her jurisdiction over Canada. The governor-general is appointed by the

home government; he is the representative of the Crown in Canada and the medium of communication between the two countries. The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council of Great Britain is the highest court of appeal to Canadians. This committee does not hear criminal cases, but on all others submitted, reports its finding, which is decisive, to the king in Council. Provision is made for colonial representation on this Committee, Canada being at present represented by one member. To the home government belongs exclusively the right to make treaties, although of late years Canadians have been selected as commissioners to prepare such treaties when the interests of Canada are specially concerned. The home government also retains the power to veto any Canadian measure which, on investigation, proves to be injurious to the interests of the Empire as a whole.

226. Federal Government.—The present government of Canada is the outcome of a century's growth. When the country was taken over by Great Britain in 1763, the people did not know how to govern themselves. A governor and a Council ruled until 1791, when the British authorities thought it safe to allow the people to elect an Assembly. For another half century the governor and his Council felt themselves to be independent of the people's representatives. After 1841, however, at the close of a long struggle between the Council and the people, the principle of responsibility to the Assembly was finally conceded. The provinces were then self-governing. The last step in the development of Canada's constitution was taken in 1867, when the provinces were united and a federal government formed.

The British North America Act gave form to the government of Canada. Those who drew up the Act saw that there were some matters of government which concerned the provinces separately, others that were of interest to all. They aimed, therefore, at leaving each province free to manage its local affairs, and providing a central government to deal with all matters affecting Canada as a whole. As far as the conditions of a new country allowed, the Canadian constitution was modelled after the British. The governor-



DOMINION PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA

general, an official appointed by the British government, represents the king in Canada. Like the king, he is advised by a Cabinet. The Canadian Parliament is made up of two Houses, a Senate and a House of Commons.

The governor-general has a double responsibility, to the British government, which he represents, and to the Canadian Cabinet, upon whose advice he is required to act. He guards Imperial interests, and sees that nothing done by the Canadian Parliament threatens the welfare of any other part of the empire. When a measure has passed through the two Houses of Parliament, it is submitted to the governor-general for his signature. If he considers that it interferes with Imperial interests, he may reserve it for the consideration of the home government. Any such measure may be disallowed by the Imperial government within two years. The governor-general, as the representative of the king, assembles, prorogues, and dissolves Parliament, but all these and many other executive acts he performs on the advice of his Cabinet.

The Cabinet or Executive Council, also known as the government, ministry or administration, is chosen from the party having the majority in the Commons. The leader of the Cabinet is called the premier, prime minister or first minister. The premier who is chosen by the governor-general from the party which has the confidence of the majority in the House of Commons, or which in all probability will have control after the next general election, is entrusted with the duty of forming the Cabinet. As soon as the premier accepts this responsibility, he proceeds to choose, either from the House of Commons or from the Senate or from both, the men whom he wishes to associate with himself in the government of the country. The names, when decided upon, are then submitted to the governor-general, and if approved, by him, the men take the oath of office, and assume charge of their various departments. Members of the Cabinet who are members of the House of Commons, on taking office, must at once go back to their constituencies for re-election. If their course in accepting an office to which a special salary is attached is approved by the elec-

tors, they will be returned; if not, they will be defeated and thus compelled to resign from the Cabinet.

The Prime minister and his Cabinet really rule the country. They decide upon what policy shall be adopted; they advise and are responsible for every official act of the governor-general; they decide upon and arrange for all important legislation; they prepare and submit the supply bills; they administer every department of the government and spend the money voted by Parliament; they make all appointments to the public service.

The present Cabinet of the Dominion consists of fifteen members, although the number may be either more or less if Parliament so decides. Each member of the Cabinet has certain administrative duties to perform and presides over a department as follows: *President of the Council*, who has no departmental duties, but who presides over the meetings of the Cabinet; *Minister of Justice and Attorney-General of Canada*, who has charge of the administration of justice, and has the superintendence of the penitentiaries of the Dominion; *Minister of Finance and Receiver-General*, who has charge of all matters relating to finances and the expenditure of money; *Minister of Trade and Commerce*, who has charge of all matters affecting the trade and commerce of the Dominion; *Minister of Agriculture*, who has charge of agriculture, public health, the quarantining of ships, the registration of copyrights and trade-marks and the taking of the census; *Minister of Marine and Fisheries*, who deals with matters connected with navigation and fishing, including harbours, lighthouses, the examination of masters and mates, and who also has charge of the naval affairs of the Dominion; *Minister of Militia and Defence*, who had charge of military affairs, including armouries, fortifications, schools of military instruction and the Military College at Kingston; *Minister of the Interior*, who has charge of the Dominion lands, the government of the North-West Territories, the Indians and all matters affecting immigration; *Minister of Public Works*, who has charge of all public works carried on by the Dominion with the exception of railways and canals; *Minister of Railways and Canals*, who has charge of all

Dominion railways and canals, including the management of the Intercolonial Railway; *Minister of Customs*, who has charge of the collection of customs duties; *Minister of Inland Revenue*, who has charge of the collection of excise duties and the inspection of weights and measures; *Minister of Labour*, who looks after all matters affecting the interests of labour in the Dominion; *Postmaster-General*, who has the management of the post office and the postal service; *Secretary of State*, who conducts all the official correspondence of the Dominion with the provinces, the home government, and with foreign nations generally, affixes the great seal of the Dominion to documents, and looks after the government printing and the purchase of stationery. In addition to the fifteen ministers mentioned, there is also the *Solicitor-General*, whose duty it is to give legal advice to the government. The Solicitor-General is not a member of the Cabinet.

Although the Senate corresponds to the House of Lords in the British Parliament, it does not, like the latter, represent any special class. It was thought wise, however, to have a second House to revise the legislation of the Commons. If the Senate was to act as a check upon the Commons, it was felt that its members should not be chosen in the same way as the Commons. The Senators—eighty-seven in number—are, therefore, appointed for life by the governor-general, who always in such appointments acts upon the advice of his Cabinet. Senators must be British subjects of at least thirty years of age, must have property worth at least four thousand dollars, and must reside in the province for which they are appointed, or district, if in Quebec. They hold their positions for life, unless their seats are forfeited by absence from Parliament for two successive sessions, by change of residence to another province (or district), by loss of property or bankruptcy, by crime, or treason, or by resignation. The Speaker of the Senate is appointed by the governor-general in Council for the parliamentary term. He may vote on any question, but in case of a tie he must decide in the affirmative. The Senate has the same power as the House of Commons, except where

bills relating to money are concerned. These cannot originate or be altered in the Upper House, but they may be rejected as a whole.

The most important part of the Dominion government is the House of Commons, a body at present consisting of two hundred and twenty-one members, elected by the people. Each province is represented according to its population. The representation of Quebec is fixed at sixty-five members. The representation of each of the other provinces bears the same relation to sixty-five as its population bears to that of Quebec. Every tenth year a census of the Dominion is taken, after which the representation of the provinces in the House of Commons is readjusted to suit the changes in population. At present the representation is as follows: eighty-six for Ontario, sixty-five for Quebec, thirteen for New Brunswick, eighteen for Nova Scotia, four for Prince Edward Island, ten for Manitoba, ten for Saskatchewan, seven for Alberta, seven for British Columbia, and one for the Yukon Territory. Members of the House of Commons are elected for five years. They require no property qualifications, but they must be British subjects of at least twenty-one years of age. A member's seat is forfeited by bankruptcy, insanity or felony. Every precaution is taken to keep the House of Commons free from corruption. If a member accepts any office of profit under the government, and so comes under its influence, his seat at once becomes vacant. All disputes arising over elections are settled in the courts by judges, who are free from political influence.

On the advice of his ministers the governor-general dissolves the House and issues a proclamation ordering the writs for a general election, including the dates of nomination and polling. These nominations are publicly made one week previous to the day of election. Any twenty-five electors may nominate a candidate by signing a legal form of nomination and by depositing \$200 with the returning officer,—such deposit to be forfeited to the Crown should the candidate fail to receive half as many votes as the successful candidate. If only one candidate is nominated, the returning officer declares him duly elected by acclama-

tion. The votes are polled by ballot on one day throughout the Dominion, except in a few larger, sparsely settled districts such as Gaspe, Saguenay and Chicoutimi in Quebec; Algoma in Ontario; Yale, Burrard and Cariboo in British Columbia. In these remote sections of the country the date of election is fixed by the returning officer. Should a seat become vacant, owing to the death or disqualification of a member, the governor-general in Council authorizes the holding of a bye-election for that constituency. The franchise in Dominion elections is the same as in provincial, viz., manhood suffrage, except in Quebec, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, where the franchise is based on a small property qualification.

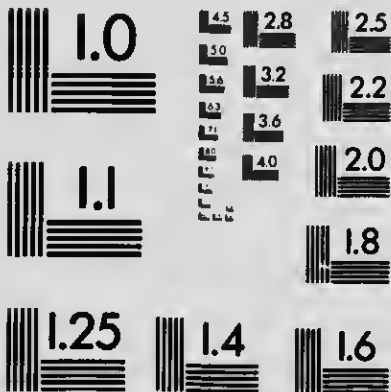
The House of Commons must assemble once a year for the conduct of public business. On the first day of a new Parliament a Speaker is elected, usually from the party in power, to preside over all the sessions of that Parliament. The Speaker can vote only on a tie. When the House goes into Committee of the Whole, the Speaker's chair is occupied by the Deputy-Speaker, who is elected at the same time and in the same manner as the Speaker. The clerk and his assistants, appointed by the governor-general in Council, record the proceedings of the House and translate all public documents. The sergeant-at-arms has general oversight of messengers and pages, of the mace and furniture, and is the constable of the House. All bills must have three readings before being forwarded to the Senate. In the Commons must originate all money bills. Here, too, must be ratified all Orders in Council issued between sessions. In order to transact public business there must be a quorum of nineteen members and the Speaker. Both languages, French and English, must be used in all laws and in the journals of the Houses; either language may be used in debate.

Certain usages are always followed in the opening of a session of Parliament. The Commons are summoned by the Usher of the Black Rod to the bar of the Upper Chamber, in which the senators and supreme court judges are already assembled. The governor-general, or his deputy, then reads, in both languages, the Speech from the Throne.



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This is usually an outline of the government's programme of measures to be considered during the session. Besides government bills which are introduced by some Cabinet minister, there are public bills of general import to the state, also private bills dealing with the more local concerns of individuals, companies, or corporations. Most bills have four parts: the title, the preamble, the clauses or sections of the act, and the legal forms referred to in the third part. Public bills require only ordinary mention in the notice paper of proceedings. Private bills, however, must follow a petition and a notice in the official *Gazette* as well as in the local papers. Both public and private bills must be investigated in Committee of the Whole and given three readings in each House. After the requisite notice a bill is given its first reading, which implies the mere reading of the title. Private bills go to the committee stage immediately after the first reading. Usage sanctions a day's interval between the stages of a bill. At its second reading the general principles of a bill are discussed, but no amendments are permitted. Besides the Committee of the Whole, there are Standing Committees, such as the Legal Committee, the Railway Committee; special committees, as the Committee of Ways and Means, the Committee of Supply. After the second reading of public bills, they are considered by the Standing or Special Committee, as the purport of the bill demands. In this committee stage amendments are always in order. All government bills are sent to the Committee of the Whole after the second reading. On motion the mace is removed from the table and the Deputy-Speaker takes the Speaker's chair. Then, after consideration of the bill, the Speaker resumes his seat, the committee reports progress, and, if necessary, asks leave to sit again. All public bills introduced by private members are considered by this Committee of the Whole, as well as by a Standing or Special Committee. After the committee stage, the bill is ordered to be given a third reading on a certain day. The bill, having passed all these stages in the Commons, goes through a like course of readings and consideration by committees in the Senate. The Upper Chamber's amend-

ments must be concurred in by the Commons, or the bill is thrown out for the session. Should the bill be passed by the Senate, the measure is then signed by the clerks of both Houses and submitted to the governor-general. The "Royal Assent" at the close of the session gives formal sanction to bills which are henceforward known as "Acts of Parliament." The "six months' hoist" defeats a bill by postponing consideration till after prorogation. An amendment may utterly destroy the purport of a bill and thereby defeat it. The Speaker decides minor votes by the volume of "Yeas" or "Nays" (Contents" or "Non-contents" in the Senate); but in great public questions a record of the vote is kept in the journals of the House, if a certain number of members call for such a vote. Prorogation puts an end to all bills or other parliamentary proceedings.

The Dominion government has control of matters of a general or national character, such as the public debt and property, trade and commerce, taxation, currency and banking, the postal service, census, militia and naval service, navigation, lighthouses, sea-coast, and inland fisheries, quarantine, insolvency, patents and copyrights, weights and measures, Indians and reservations, naturalization and aliens, criminal law, penitentiaries, and lines of ships, railways, canals, telegraph, etc., "for the general advantage of Canada." To the Federal government also belong all powers not set forth as provincial. Certain subjects, as agriculture, immigration, railways, are dealt with by both the Federal and the local governments.

227. Provincial Government.—As the system of local government is essentially the same in all the provinces, the government of Ontario may be taken as typical. At the head of the government of the province stands the lieutenant-governor, who is appointed for five years by the governor-general in Council. His duties are to summon, open, prorogue, and dissolve the Assembly. He selects his Cabinet from the party having the majority in the Legislative Assembly. Acting on the advice of his Cabinet or Executive Council, he appoints officials and gives assent to legislative measures.



PROVINCIAL PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, TORONTO

The Ontario Cabinet at present includes the Premier, who is President of the Council, the Attorney-General, the Minister of Education, the Minister of Lands, Forests and Mines, the Minister of Public Works, the Minister of Agriculture, the Provincial Treasurer, the Provincial Secretary, and two Ministers without portfolio, that is, without the responsibility of administering a department of the public service. The duties of the *Attorney-General* are to give legal advice to the government, and to see that the laws are properly enforced. The *Minister of Education* has charge of the educational institutions of the province, including the public libraries, and schools for the blind, and the deaf and dumb. The *Minister of Lands, Forests and Mines* has control over the public lands, the forests, and the mines of the province. Under the control of the *Minister of Public Works* are the erection of all buildings required for public purposes, and the improvements on the public roads. He also has charge of the fisheries and game within the province. The *Minister of Agriculture* looks after the farming interests of the province, including the Agricultural and Veterinary Colleges. The *Provincial Treasurer* manages the finances of the province, while the *Provincial Secretary*, in addition to being the official correspondent of the government, administers the laws relating to liquor licences and the public health. The Secretary is also *Registrar-General*, and as such, has charge of the registration of births, marriages and deaths that take place in the province.

The Ontario legislature has one hundred and six members. A member of the Provincial Parliament (M.P.P.) or Legislative Assembly (M.L.A.) must be a British subject of at least twenty-one years of age. Members are elected for four years by a manhood suffrage ballot. The Speaker, one of the members of the Legislature, is chosen by vote on the first day of the new Parliament, and usually from the party in the majority in the House. His duties are to preside over the sessions, to give decisions, and to vote when a tie is recorded. The procedure in the Legislative Assembly, is like that in the House of Commons. All measures must have three readings and pass through committee details

before receiving the signature of the lieutenant-governor. Orders in Council are measures of the Cabinet between sessions, and must be ratified at the next session of the Assembly.

In Nova Scotia and in Quebec, there is, in addition to the Legislative Assembly, a Legislative Council, the members of which are appointed for life by the lieutenant-governor in Council. They must be British subjects and have a property qualification. In Prince Edward Island the Legislative Council is united with the Assembly, each of the fifteen constituencies electing a Councillor and a member of the Assembly.

In Ontario the legislature has exclusive powers in such matters as: Crown lands, forests, and mines; the establishment, maintenance, and management of hospitals, asylums, charities, prisons, reformatories; municipal institutions; shop, saloon, tavern, auctioneer licences; local public works and undertakings such as ships, railways, canals, telegraphs, etc., within the limits of the province; the incorporation of companies with provincial objects; marriage licenses; the administration of justice in the province; punishment by fine, penalty, or imprisonment; public health; education. While educational matters belong exclusively to provincial jurisdiction, no change can be made in the educational privileges of denominational schools in existence before Confederation. Hence the Protestant minority in Quebec, and the Roman Catholic minority in Ontario, have their separate schools in accordance with the British North America Act. By this Act, too, the Federal government has control over provincial legislation. The governor-general in Council may within a year disallow and annul any enactment of the provincial Assembly.

The province controls the constitution, maintenance, and organization of the provincial courts, although the judges are appointed by the Dominion government. Justices of the peace and other magistrates are appointed by the provincial government. The courts of law in Ontario include *Division Courts* for the collection of small debts; *County and District Courts* for more important cases before

county judges; the *High Court of Justice* for the trial of cases of all kinds whether civil or criminal, and the *Court of Appeals* for the consideration of appeals against the decision of the High Court of Justice. There are also *Surrogate Courts* to decide in cases of wills and inheritances; *Courts of Revision* for voters' lists and assessment rolls; and courts for the trial of minor criminal cases before justices of the peace or magistrates. The chief executive of the law is the *sheriff*. One is appointed for each county or district by the lieutenant-governor in Council. His duties include the execution of court decrees, the summoning of juries and the supervision of jails and jailers.

The highest court in Canada, and one to which appeals may be taken from the decisions of the Ontario courts, is the *Supreme Court*, the members of which, six in number, are appointed for life by the governor-general in Council. Beyond this tribunal is the



OSGOODE HALL, TORONTO

Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, which sits in London and is the highest court of appeal to Canadians. There is also in Canada the *Exchequer Court*, which consists of one judge who decides cases in which crown revenues or property are concerned, or in which injury is received by any one while engaged on Dominion public works.

228. Municipal Government.—For the purpose of local, or municipal government, Ontario is divided into municipalities, formed in accordance with laws passed by the provincial legislature. Municipalities are known as cities, towns, villages, townships and counties. When fifteen thousand or more people are living closely together in one district, the municipality is known as a *city*. Smaller divisions containing more than two thousand people are known as *towns*.

Still smaller divisions containing at least seven hundred and fifty people are known as *villages*. *Townships* are rural divisions including more or less territory, while *counties* are a number of townships grouped together for purposes of government.

The governing body in cities, known as the *council*, consists of a *mayor* and of three *aldermen* for each ward into which the city is divided, but the number may by by-law



CITY HALL, TORONTO

be reduced to two. In towns the council is composed of a *mayor* and of three *councillors* for each ward where there are less than five wards and two *councillors* for each ward where the number is more than five, but the number may be reduced to two in all cases if the people so desire. In villages and townships the council is made up of a *reeve* and four *councillors*. The county council is made up of representatives of

the towns, villages and townships included in the county. Every town, not separated from the county for municipal purposes, and every village and township is represented by the presiding officer of its own council, and in addition, by other representatives in accordance with the number of voters. The county council is presided over by the *warden*, who is elected by the council from among its own members. The municipal councils deal with matters that particularly concern the local interests within their own districts. The county council is concerned with those matters that affect more than one municipality, or the county as a whole.

If a city has a population of more than one hundred thousand, it must have a *Board of Control*, which consists of a mayor, and of four *controllers* chosen from among the aldermen by a vote of the whole council. This Board has special duties to perform and is really the executive committee of the council. Cities of more than forty-five thousand may also, by vote of the people, have a Board of Control. By special Act of the provincial Legislature the city of Toronto has a Board of Control, consisting of the mayor, and of four controllers elected by the whole body of the voters.

Members of any council, whether city, town, village, township or county, must be British subjects of at least twenty-one years of age and of the male sex. They must also possess certain property qualifications, which vary according as they are members of a city, town, village, or township council. Voters within the municipality must also be British subjects of at least twenty-one years of age, and must have certain qualifications either as owners or tenants of property or by income. Provision is made in rural municipalities for farmers' sons who reside with their parents, but who do not possess property of their own.

229. **Taxation.**—A study of British history teaches us that in the long struggle of the people for freedom from the absolute rule of kings the most important question at issue was the control of public money. It was not until Parliament made good its claim to the sole right to raise and spend the nation's money that it became all powerful in the state. So, too, throughout the course of Canadian history, it was the question of revenue control which gave rise to the bitterest political strife. Now that the power of taxation rests



UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, TORONTO

entirely with the imperial, federal and provincial Parliaments and the municipal councils, it is interesting to learn how the money necessary for purposes of government is raised. There is, first of all, the revenue arising from the public lands, mines, and other natural resources. The remainder of the revenue is secured by taxation. Taxation is of two kinds, direct and indirect. The federal and provincial governments rely mainly for their revenue upon indirect taxation, only the municipalities for the most part taxing directly. In the municipality, the council determines the amount of money needed for the year, estimates the value of each citizen's property, and collects from each his fair share of the amount required. Postage stamps and tolls on bridges and canals form a small part of the indirect taxation. The greater part of indirect taxation is levied in customs and excises. Customs are duties on imported goods, the necessities of life being lightly taxed, luxuries, such as wines and cigars, bearing the heavier burden. Excises are taxes paid by manufacturers upon goods made in the country, mainly on tobacco, beer, and distilled liquors.



NORMAL SCHOOL, LONDON

230. Education.

—The educational affairs of the province are controlled by the Department of Education, at the head of which is the Minister of Education, who is a member of the provincial Cabinet. The minister is assisted by the deputy-minister and by the Superintendent of Education, who is appointed by the lieutenant-governor in Council. Under the direction of the responsible minister, the Superintendent of Education has general supervision over the educational institutions of the province.

There is also an Advisory Council of Education, a representative body, who advise the minister on such subjects as he may submit to them for their consideration. The Council is made up as follows: the President of the University of Toronto, the Superintendent of Education, three representatives from the University of Toronto, one from each of the other Universities of the province, two elected from and by the high school teachers, four elected from and by the public school teachers, one elected from and by the separate school teachers, two elected from and by the public school inspectors, two elected from and by the public school trustees.

The public schools of the province are controlled by Boards of Trustees, consisting in the rural sections of three members, and in cities or towns of two members for each ward into which the city or town is divided. In an incorporated village, not divided



COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE, HAMILTON

into wards, the number of trustees is six. School trustees must be British subjects of at least twenty-one years of age and must be resident ratepayers of the district. Under the British North America Act provision is made for separate schools for Roman Catholics. Separate schools are controlled in the same way and are under the same regulations as the public schools, except that trustees need not be assessed either as owners or tenants of property within the district. The Department of Education exercises supervision over the public and separate schools through inspectors, who are appointed by the County Councils, or by the Board of Trustees in a city or town if the latter is separated from the county for municipal purposes.

Secondary education in the province is provided by the continuation schools, high schools, collegiate institutes and technical schools. The management of the continuation schools is in the hands of the public or separate School Board, but the high schools, collegiate institutes and technical schools are managed by a Board of Trustees distinct from the body that has charge of the public or separate schools. In certain cases, however, all the schools in a city, town or incorporated village may be placed under the management of a single body known as the Board of Education. The continuation schools, high schools, collegiate institutes and technical schools are supervised by inspectors who are officials of the Department of Education.

Higher education in Ontario is provided under provincial control by the University of Toronto. The university is supported by the province, and is under the management of a Board of Governors appointed by the lieutenant-governor in Council. In addition to the provincial university, there are other chartered universities: Queen's University at Kingston, Ottawa University at Ottawa, McMaster University at Toronto, and the Western University at London.

The Ontario educational system provides for the training of teachers. For this purpose Normal Schools are in operation at Toronto, Ottawa, London, Hamilton, Peterborough, Stratford and North Bay. Further provision is made for more advanced work for teachers in connection with the faculties of education in the University of Toronto and Queen's University. For the training of teachers of a lower grade, Model Schools are established in certain districts of the province.

231. Conclusion.—We have reviewed four systems of government. In each of these the most powerful factor is the body representing the people. Whether a government is good or bad depends upon the character of the men whom the citizens choose to represent them in Parliament or Council. How important, then, that the people choose wisely! Seeing that our government has been built up through great sacrifice, it is our duty as loyal citizens to preserve it unharmed for those who come after.

APPENDIX

LIST OF IMPORTANT DATES

- 986 Greenland colonized by Eric the Red.
1000 Lief Erickson discovers Vinland.
1492 Christopher Columbus discovers America.
1497 John Cabot reaches mainland of America.
1498 Sebastian Cabot explores the coast from Nova Scotia to Cape Hatteras.
1500 Cortereal visits Labrador and Newfoundland.
1524 Verrazano explores the coast from Carolina to the Gulf of St. Lawrence.
1534 Cartier enters Chaleur Bay.
1535 Cartier discovers the St. Lawrence River.
1542 Roberval winters in Canada.
1549 Roberval again leaves an expedition to Canada.
1576 Martin Frobisher lands on the coast of Labrador.
1599 Pontgravé attempts to establish a settlement at Tadoussac.
1603 De Monts, Pontgravé and Champlain sail up the St. Lawrence.
1604 De Monts, Champlain and Poutrincourt land in Acadia.
1605 De Monts founds Port Royal.
1608 Champlain founds Quebec.
1609 Champlain takes part in the Indian wars.
1610 Henry Hudson discovers Hudson Bay.
1611 The Jesuits come to Acadia.
1612 Champlain appointed lieutenant-governor of Canada.
1613 Champlain ascends the Ottawa River.
1615 The Récollets come to Canada.
Le Caron visits the Huron country.
1621 The king of England grants Nova Scotia to Sir William Alexander.
1625 LaLemaul and Brébeuf land at Quebec.
1627 The Company of One Hundred Associates is formed.
1629 Kirke captures Quebec.
1632 The treaty of St. Germain restores Canada to France.
Le Jeune begins "The Relations of the Jesuits."
1635 Champlain dies at Quebec.
1642 Maisonneuve, with Jeanne Mance and Madame de la Peltrie, founds Montreal.
1644 Maisonneuve defeats the Iroquois at Montreal.
1645 Charnisay captures Fort La Tour.
1646 Father Jogues is killed by the Indians.

- 1647 A local council is formed to manage the affairs of Canada.
- 1648 Father Daniel is killed by the Iroquois.
- 1649 Fathers Lalemant and Brébeuf are killed by the Iroquois.
- 1653 The Iroquois conclude a peace with the French
- 1659 Bishop Laval arrives at Quebec.
- 1660 Dollard defends the Long Sault against the Iroquois.
- 1663 The "Conseil Souverain" is created.
- 1665 Talon arrives in Canada.
- 1666 De Tracy attempts to subdue the Iroquois.
- 1667 The treaty of Brebia is signed.
- 1670 Radisson first visits Hudson Bay
The Hudson's Bay Company is formed.
- 1672 Father Albanel reaches Hudson Bay.
Frontenac is appointed governor of Canada.
- 1673 Marquette and Joliet discover the Mississippi.
- 1675 Duchesneau arrives in Canada as Intendant.
- 1679 La Salle sets out on his expedition.
- 1681 The Northern Company is chartered.
- 1682 La Salle reaches the mouth of the Mississippi.
- 1684 La Barre makes an unsuccessful attack on the Iroquois.
- 1686 De Troyes captures the English forts on Hudson Bay.
La Salle is murdered.
Denonville subdues the Iroquois.
- 1688 The "Rat" kills the proposed peace with the Iroquois.
- 1689 The Iroquois massacre the inhabitants of Lachine.
Frontenac returns to Canada.
- 1690 The French and Indians massacre the inhabitants of Schenectady.
Sir William Phips captures Port Royal.
Frontenac repulses Sir William Phips at Quebec.
- 1691 Kellsey explores the interior west of Hudson Bay.
- 1692 Madelaine de Verchères defends her home against the Iroquois.
- 1696 Frontenac attacks the Onondagas.
D'Iberville subdues Newfoundland.
- 1697 D'Iberville is victorious on Hudson Bay.
The treaty of Ryswick is signed.
- 1698 Frontenac dies at Quebec.
- 1702 War breaks out again between the French and the English.
- 1708 Laval dies at Quebec.
- 1713 The treaty of Utrecht is signed. Acadia is handed over to the British.
- 1726 Louisburg and Niagara are built.
- 1731 La Veréndrye and his sons begin their explorations.
- 1744 War again breaks out between France and Great Britain.
- 1745 Pepperell and Warren capture Louisburg.
- 1748 The treaty of Aix-la Chapelle is signed.
Bigot arrives in Canada as Intendant.

- 1749 Halifax is founded by Cornwallis.
Bienville makes an expedition into the Ohio valley.
- 1752 The first newspaper in Nova Scotia, the *Halifax Gazette* is published.
- 1754 Fort Duquesne is built.
Henry visits the Blackfeet.
- 1755 Braddock is defeated at Fort Duquesne.
Fort Beauséjour is captured.
The Acadians are deported from Nova Scotia.
Johnson defeats Dieskau at Lake George.
- 1756 Montcalm arrives at Quebec.
Montcalm captures Oswego.
- 1757 Loudon fails in an attack on Louisburg.
Montcalm captures Fort William Henry.
- 1758 Montcalm defeats Ahererombie at Ticonderoga.
Amherst, with Wolfe and Boscawen, captures Louisburg.
Forbes captures Fort Duquesne.
The first Legislature of Nova Scotia meets.
- 1759 Ticonderoga, Crown Point and Niagara surrender to the British.
Wolfe and Saunders arrive before Quebec.
Wolfe defeats Montcalm at the battle of the Plains of Abraham.
Wolfe and Montcalm are killed.
Quebec surrenders to the British.
- 1760 Lévis defeats Murray at the battle of Ste. Foye.
Vandreuil surrenders Canada to Amherst.
- 1763 The treaty of Paris hands over Canada to Great Britain.
Pontiac conspires against British rule.
The Province of Quebec is created.
Murray becomes governor-general of Quebec.
The boundaries of Nova Scotia are extended.
- 1764 The first newspaper in Quebec, the *Quebec Gazette*, is published.
- 1768 Sir Guy Carleton arrives at Quebec as governor-general.
- 1770 The Island of St. John (Prince Edward Island) becomes a separate province.
- 1771 Hearne discovers the Coppermine River
- 1774 The Quebec Act comes into force.
Cumberland House is built
- 1775 The American Revolution breaks out.
Henry begins his explorations in the West.
Montgomery and Arnold invade Quebec.
- 1776 Carleton defeats Montgomery and Arnold before the city of Quebec.
- 1777 Carleton is superseded in the military command by Burgoyne.
- 1778 Haldimand arrives at Quebec as governor-general
The *Montreal Gazette* is published.
Cook explores the Pacific coast.
Peter Pond explores the Athabaska.

- 1783 The second treaty of Paris is signed. Quebec loses part of its territory.
The United Empire Loyalists begin to arrive in the British provinces.
Parrytown (St. John) is founded by the Loyalists.
The North-West Company is formed.
- 1784 New Brunswick becomes a separate province.
- 1786 Carleton (Lord Dorchester) again becomes governor-general.
The Mohawks, on the Grand River, build the first church in Upper Canada.
- 1788 The "Hungry Year" causes great suffering.
King's College, Nova Scotia, is founded.
Fort Chipewyan is built.
- 1789 Mackenzie reaches the Arctic Ocean.
- 1791 The Constitutional Act divides Quebec into Upper and Lower Canada.
- 1792 Simcoe becomes lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada.
The first Legislature of Upper Canada meets at Newark.
The first Legislature of Lower Canada meets at Quebec.
Vancouver explores the coast of British Columbia.
- 1793 York (Toronto) is founded.
The "Baldoon" settlement is begun.
The first newspaper in Upper Canada, the *Upper Canada Gazette*, is founded.
Slavery is abolished in Upper Canada.
Mackenzie reaches the Pacific overland from Canada.
- 1795 The "Nootka Affair" between Great Britain and Russia is settled.
The XY Company is formed.
- 1796 The Upper Canada Parliament is removed to York.
- 1798 Thompson explores the interior west of Hudson Bay.
- 1803 Talbot begins his settlement at Port Talbot.
Selkirk founds a colony in Prince Edward Island.
- 1805 The North-West and XY Companies unite
Harmon begins his explorations.
- 1806 Brock takes command of the forces in the Canadas.
- 1807 Fraser explores the Fraser River to the Pacific Ocean.
Thompson begins his explorations in British Columbia.
- 1809 Molson builds the first steamer in Canada.
- 1810 The Pacific Fur Company is formed.
- 1811 Brock becomes president and administrator of Upper Canada.
Fort Astoria is built.
- 1812 The United States declares war against Great Britain.
- 1812 Brock captures Detroit.
Brock is killed at Queenston Heights.
Selkirk forms the Red River Settlement.
- 1813 The Americans are defeated by Procter at Frenchtown.
The British are unsuccessful at Sackett's Harbour.

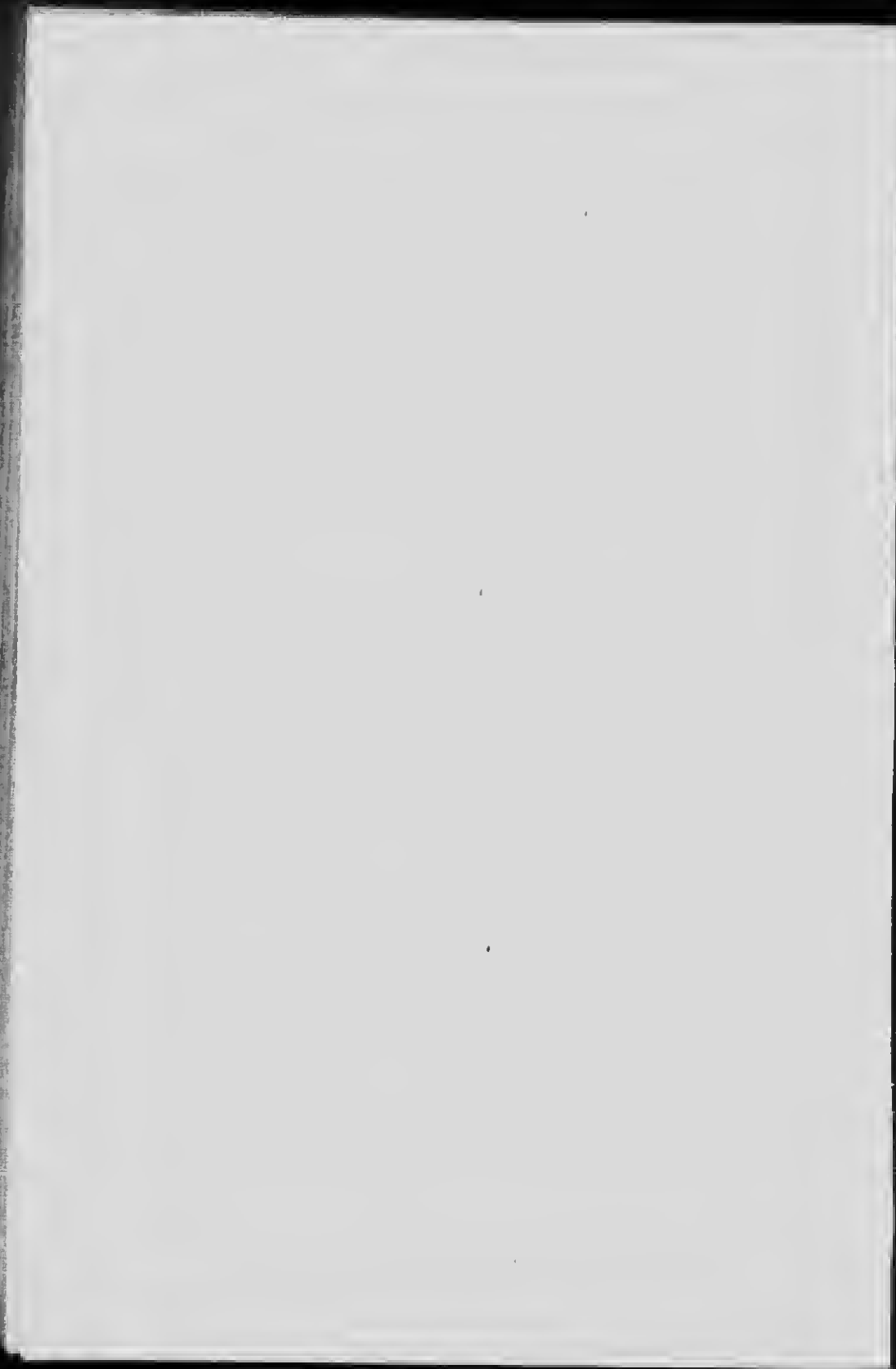
- 1813 The Americans are defeated at Stoney Creek and Beaver Dam.
 York is burned by the Americans.
 The British fleet is victorious on Lake Ontario.
 The Americans destroy the British fleet on Lake Erie.
 The British are defeated at Moravian Town and Tecumseh is killed.
 The Americans are defeated at Chateauguay and at Chrystlers Farm.
 The Americans burn Niagara.
- 1814 The Americans are driven back at La Colle Mill.
 The British are repulsed at Chippewa.
 The Americans are defeated at Lundy's Lane.
 The British are defeated at Plattsburg.
 The treaty of Ghent is signed.
- 1816 The fur companies clash at Seven Oaks.
 Fort Douglas is captured by the Nor' Westers.
 The first Canadian steamer on Lake Ontario, the "Frontenac," is launched.
- 1817 Selkirk recovers Fort Douglas.
 The Bank of Montreal is established.
 The Rush-Bagot Treaty limits armaments on the Great Lakes.
 Robert Gourlay comes to Canada.
- 1818 The London Convention is signed.
 Fathers Provencher and Dumoulin arrive at Red River.
- 1819 Robert Gourlay is imprisoned for libel.
- 1820 Lord Dalhousie becomes governor-general.
- 1821 McGill University is chartered.
 The Hudson's Bay and North-West Companies unite.
 Simpson becomes governor of the Hudson's Bay Company.
- 1822 The Canada Trade Act is passed.
- 1824 MacKenzie issues the first number of the *Colonial Advocate*.
 Fort Vancouver is built.
- 1825 The Lachine Canal is completed.
- 1826 The Canada Company is chartered.
- 1827 The University of King's College, at York, obtains a royal charter.
 Strachan becomes Archdeacon of York.
- 1829 Ryerson edits the first number of the *Christian Guardian*.
 The Welland Canal is formally opened.
- 1830 Upper Canada College is founded at York.
- 1831 Mackenzie is expelled from the Upper Canada Assembly.
- 1833 The "Royal William" crosses the Atlantic.
 Back explores the northern regions.
- 1834 The "Ninety-two Resolutions" are passed by the Lower Canada Assembly.
 Mackenzie is elected the first mayor of the city of Toronto.
- 1835 Howe is acquitted on a charge of criminal libel.
 Fort Garry is built.
 The Council of Assiniboia is organized.

- 1836 The first passenger railway in Canada is opened (The Champlain and St. Lawrence).
The "Report on Grievances" is passed by the Upper Canada Assembly.
The Assembly of Lower Canada refuses to vote supplies.
- 1837 The "Twelve Resolutions" are passed by the Nova Scotia Assembly.
The rebellions in Upper and Lower Canada are suppressed.
The steamer "Caroline" is sent over Niagara Falls.
- 1838 The constitution of Lower Canada is suspended.
Lord Durham is appointed governor-general of British North America.
Rebellion again breaks out in Lower Canada.
- 1839 Lord Durham issues his report.
The "Aroostook War" threatens trouble with the United States.
Thom becomes recorder of the Red River Settlement.
Sydenham becomes governor-general of the Canadas.
- 1840 Campbell explores the Yukon.
- 1841 The Union Act unites the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada.
The first Parliament of the new province of Canada meets at Kingston.
Victoria University obtains a royal charter.
- 1842 Queen's University, Kingston, obtains a royal charter.
The Ashburton Treaty is signed.
The first La Fontaine-Baldwin government takes office.
- 1843 Douglas founds the city of Victoria.
The first County Model Schools are established in Upper Canada.
- 1844 George Brown founds *The Globe*.
Ryerson becomes superintendent of education for Upper Canada.
- 1846 The Oregon Treaty is signed.
- 1847 Lord Elgin is appointed governor-general of Canada.
French becomes an official language of Canada.
The Toronto Normal School is opened.
Fort Yukon is built.
The first telegraph wire is strung in Canada.
- 1848 The second La Fontaine-Baldwin ministry is formed
Triumph of Responsible Government.
- 1849 The Rebellion Losses Bill is passed.
The Parliament Buildings at Montreal are burned by a mob.
The Amnesty Bill is passed.
The Navigation Laws are repealed.
The "Baldwin Act" establishes local self-government.
Ottawa University is chartered.
King's College becomes the University of Toronto.
Vancouver Island is granted to the Hudson's Bay Company.

- 1851 Canada assumes charge of the Post Office.
 The Hincks-Morin ministry is formed.
 The first postage stamp in Canada is used.
- 1852 Laval University and Trinity University are chartered.
- 1854 The Reciprocity Treaty between Canada and the United States is signed.
 The MacNab-Morin ministry is formed.
 Seigniorial Tenure is abolished.
 The Clergy Reserves are secularized.
 Sir Edmund Head becomes governor-general.
- 1855 The Reciprocity Treaty with the United States goes into effect.
- 1856 The Taché-Macdonald ministry is formed.
 The Legislative Council of Canada becomes elective.
- 1857 The "Representation by Population" movement is begun.
 The Macdonald-Cartier government is formed.
 Report on the Hudson's Bay Company is issued.
- 1858 The Brown-Dorion ministry holds office for a short time.
 The Cartier-Macdonald ministry is formed.
 British Columbia becomes a Crown Colony.
 Begbie is appointed judge of British Columbia.
 Ottawa is chosen by the queen as the capital of Canada.
 Decimal currency is adopted in Canada.
- 1859 Vancouver Island becomes a Crown Colony.
- 1860 The Victoria bridge at Montreal is opened.
 The Prince Edward Island Land Purchase Act is passed.
- 1861 Lord Monck is appointed governor-general.
 The "Trent" affair causes trouble with the United States.
- 1862 The Macdonald-Sicotte ministry is formed.
- 1864 The Taché-Macdonald ministry is formed.
 George Brown enters the ministry.
 The Charlottetown Conference is held.
 The Quebec Conference is held.
- 1866 The Reciprocity Treaty with the United States is abrogated.
 The Fenians invade Canada.
 The Westminster Conference agrees on terms of confederation.
 Vancouver Island is united to British Columbia.
- 1867 The British North America Act is passed.
 Lord Monck becomes governor-general of Canada.
 Sir John A. Macdonald becomes the first premier of Canada.
 John Sandfield Macdonald becomes the first premier of Ontario.
 Bishop Strachan dies at Toronto.
 The first Legislature of British Columbia meets at Victoria.
- 1868 The Militia Act is passed.
- 1869 Better terms are granted to Nova Scotia.
 Joseph Howe enters the Dominion government.
- 1870 The Hudson Bay Territory is purchased by Canada.
Manitoba becomes a province of Canada.

- 1870 The Red River Rebellion is suppressed.
- 1871 The Washington Treaty is signed.
A uniform currency is provided for Canada.
British Columbia becomes a province of Canada.
The first census of the Dominion is taken.
- 1872 Lord Dufferin becomes governor-general.
Oliver Mowat becomes premier of Ontario.
The ownership of San Juan Island is decided.
- 1873 The city of Winnipeg is incorporated.
Alexander Mackenzie becomes premier.
Prince Edward Island becomes a province of Canada.
Sir Georges Cartier dies.
The Royal North-West Mounted Police force is organized.
- 1874 The "Carnarvon Terms" are accepted.
Vote by ballot is introduced.
- 1875 The Supreme Court of Canada is organized.
The North-West Territories are organized.
- 1876 The Intercolonial Railway is opened.
The Royal Military College at Kingston is established.
The Legislative Council of Manitoba is abolished.
- 1877 The Halifax Fishery Commission makes its award.
- 1878 Sir John A. Macdonald again becomes premier.
- 1879 The "National Policy" is adopted.
- 1880 The first Canadian High Commissioner in England is appointed.
The Arctic islands are added to Canada.
George Brown is assassinated.
- 1881 The Canadian Pacific Railway Company is chartered.
- 1882 The North-West Territories are divided into provisional districts.
Regina becomes the capital of the North-West Territories.
The Royal Society of Canada is founded.
- 1884 The Privy Council sustains the Ontario Legislature in connection with the "Streams Bill."
- 1885 The Saskatchewan Rebellion is suppressed.
The Canadian Pacific Railway is completed.
- 1887 An Imperial Conference is held at London.
The first Interprovincial Conference is held.
McMaster University is chartered.
- 1888 The North-West Territories are granted an Assembly.
The Jesuits' Estates Act is passed by the Quebec Legislature.
The Privy Council decides in favour of Ontario in connection with the Indian lands and liquor licenses.
- 1889 An Imperial statute confirms and extends the boundaries of Ontario.
- 1890 Separate schools are abolished in Manitoba.
- 1891 Sir John A. Macdonald dies.
- 1892 Alexander Mackenzie dies.
The Legislative Council of New Brunswick is abolished.

- 1893 The Behring Sea Arbitration Tribunal makes its award.
- 1894 A Colonial Trade Conference is held at Ottawa.
- 1896 The "Remedial Bill" is withdrawn.
 Wilfrid Laurier becomes premier of Canada.
 Lord Strathcona becomes Canadian High Commissioner in England.
- 1897 The Yukon Territory is organized.
 The preferential tariff on imports from Great Britain goes into effect.
 The North-West Territories obtain complete responsible government.
- 1898 The Canadian Northern Railway Company is formed.
 The Anglo-American Commission meets.
- 1899 The two-cent postal rate goes into force in Canada.
 George W. Ross becomes premier of Ontario.
 Canada sends troops to South Africa during the Boer War.
- 1902 A Conference of colonial premiers is held at London.
 The All-British cable is completed.
- 1903 The Grand Trunk Pacific Railway Company is chartered.
 The Alaska Boundary Arbitrators make their award.
- 1904 The Dominion Railway Commission is organized.
- 1905 James Pliny Whitney becomes premier of Ontario.
 The provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan are formed.
- 1907 A trade agreement is entered into with France.
- 1908 The tercentenary of the founding of Quebec is celebrated.
 A joint Boundary Commission is agreed on between Canada and the United States.
- 1909 The Commission for the Conservation of Natural Resources is appointed.
- 1910 Arrangements are made for the establishment of a Canadian navy.
 The Hague Arbitration Court makes its award in regard to the fisheries dispute.



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