



that the spiritual output is greater, but that is not measurable in an economic balance.¹

(2) The commercial farming class in Saskatchewan consists of Scotch and Scotch-Ontario farmers, of returned Canadians from the United States, and of some portion of the foreign groups. The latter, although predisposed to diversified farming and a self-contained polity, quickly imitate the farmers around them. The whole of the groups practising commercial farming may be said to be devoting themselves to the production of wheat for sale. They are thus under the necessity of purchasing what they consume and of buying all the implements and materials they use. For the service of this class the towns have grown up. Through the towns there pass on the one hand the products of the commercial farmer, and on the other nearly all the commodities he consumes. For the commercial farmer, also, all of the branch and two of the main lines of railway have been constructed. He forms the bulk of the community, and his influence upon the course of provincial legislation is paramount. The legislature of Saskatchewan is completely dominated by him, and he exercises no inconsiderable influence at Ottawa. As a rule, the farmer holds much more land than he can possibly cultivate, and generally more than he has paid for. A large proportion of the farm lands of Saskatchewan is mortgaged.

Commercial farming class.

In the nature of the case, the farmer everywhere must possess or obtain capital sufficient to provide the necessary stock and implements for the conduct of his business, together with the means of paying for the labour of cultivation and for the seed as well as for the subsistence of his household until a crop is obtained. In a country where the farm lands are customarily the subject of free grants, there is no interest charge on account of the capital which would be invested in the land if it were

Indebtedness of the farming community in Saskatchewan.

¹ Some of the economic aspects of the compact colony are discussed in *Report*, above cited, and in the evidence given by the writer in 1905 before the Departmental Committee on Agricultural Settlement. See *Report* C. 2978-9, London, 1906.

purchased; but the homestead farmer is not as a rule satisfied with his 160 acres of free grant; he usually purchases 160 acres or more in addition. The payment for this additional land is customarily made in instalments, interest being charged upon unpaid amounts. If 160 acres is the area which it is reasonable to expect one family to be able to cultivate, it is clear that on the average a farmer purchases another similar area, whether he can cultivate it or not, because the mean area per farm in Saskatchewan is almost 300 acres. The habit of land hunger has undoubtedly contributed to the indebtedness of the Saskatchewan farmer, and his speculations in land have involved him in heavy interest payments. His optimistic attempts to cultivate a large area have led him to purchase agricultural machinery on credit to an extent greater than his prospective income justified, and the fluctuations of the wheat market upon which he entirely depended have on occasion embarrassed him more or less seriously.

The *Report of the Agricultural Credit Commission of the Province of Saskatchewan, 1913*,¹ discloses a very large amount of indebtedness on the part of the farmers of the province. According to this Report, four-fifths of the farms in the province are mortgaged.² The total amount of the mortgages is stated by the Report as not less than \$65,000,000. In addition to this amount the Report estimates the amount due for agricultural machinery between \$35,000,000 and \$40,000,000; and the amount due on miscellaneous account, unpaid instalments on land, debts to shopkeepers and the like at \$50,000,000. The total of these amounts is at least \$150,000,000, or more than £30,000,000. For the 96,000 farms of Saskatchewan this represents a debt of about \$1,500 per farm, or \$12.70 (£2 12s. 3d.) per acre of improved land.³ This is a startling total when it is realized that the mort-

¹ Regina, 1913.

² *Rep. Ag. Com. Sask.*, 1913, p. 47.

³ Area of improved land (1911), 11,871,907 acres. *Bulletin IX*, Fifth Census of Canada, September 3, 1913, p. 6.



gages, which amount to rather less than one-half of the total, are preceded under the Saskatchewan statutes by no fewer than fourteen prior liens, among which are seed loans made by the government, wages to labourers, &c. That under these conditions the rate of interest is high need not cause surprise. Moreover, since a large number of the loans for all purposes are made in small sums, the disadvantage which always attaches to retail purchasing causes the rate for small loans to appear unduly high. The commission reported that no loan to a farmer was met with at a higher rate than 12 per cent., when the sum was in excess of \$100; but for small sums the minimum rate of \$1 made the rate of interest appear to be $18\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.¹ The normal rate of interest in the north-west is 7 per cent. or 8 per cent.

It should be made plain, however, that this enormous borrowing has been due to the rapidity with which the country has been settled, and that it is reflected in the increase of cultivated land and of production. Between the census years 1901 and 1911 the population increased by $5\frac{1}{2}$ times, the number of farms by $7\frac{1}{2}$ times, the occupied land area by nearly 8 times, the improved land by 10 times, and the production of wheat by about 15 times.² This extraordinary growth could not have taken place without a stream of capital, and the stream of capital would have had no existence unless there had been the attraction of high rates of interest to direct it towards this particular region.

Relation between indebtedness and rapid development of the land.

In order to assist the farmer to bear and to discharge his heavy financial burden, the provincial government proposes to guarantee the bonds of a Society for Co-operative Credit. If such a society, the administration of which must be local and partly voluntary, succeeds in borrowing abroad, it may be able to contribute to the reduction of the rate of interest now paid by the farmer, and thus to the amortization of his loans without increasing his burden. If, however, the funds raised by means of this

¹ *Rep. Ag. Com. Sask.*, 1913, p. 55.

² Calculated from data in Census Bulletin cited above.



society are employed for further speculation in land or for further purchases of machinery, the farmers' position must deteriorate rather than improve. The experience of co-operative loan societies in Europe has shown that the extent of borrowing increases with the diminution of the rate of interest.

The
urban
areas of
Saskatch-
ewan.

(3) The towns of Saskatchewan have grown out of proportion to the growth of the population around them. The chief reason for this urban growth has been the specialist production of wheat, which has caused the farmer to be a wheat-producer and a consumer of other things which he does not produce. He is thus, as regards consumption, almost in the position of a town artisan, whose wants must be supplied by others because he is engaged in producing, in order to supply the wants of distant persons. The production of a single crop, and that mainly for export, involves the importation of the commodities which enter into the consumption of the farmer. Since every farmer in the wheat districts is pursuing the same agricultural policy, most of the wheat must be exchanged for other commodities, and the towns live upon this practice. Increase in specialized production must benefit the merchant, the railway, and the capitalist who furnishes commercial credit; diminution of specialized production and an increase in mixed or miscellaneous farming would render the farmer's life eventually more secure, but would change in a large measure the mode of his life and the character of his wants, and would therefore react upon the towns and, at least temporarily, upon the traffic of the railways.

While Manitoban society has the advantage of relative antiquity and therefore of greater stability and immunity from the consequences of minor economic fluctuations than the society of Saskatchewan, the latter has the advantage of more recent experience of European traditions and of certain elements of European culture. Although traditions and culture are alike those of the eastern European peasant, the shock of removal to wholly new surroundings has not entirely obliterated them. Yet



the temporary absence of a common language has prevented these elements from influencing in any appreciable degree the elements surrounding them. The numerousness of the races and the freshness of a new life with enlarged material possibilities have given a certain open-mindedness, an anxiety to learn and a desire to become acquainted with the experience of other countries, all of which are quite foreign to the self-sufficient farmer of Ontario or of Manitoba. The legislature, guided by the small group of party politicians who have assumed the leadership, is exposed because of this trait to rash experiments in legislation. It is not always obvious that to tax an immovable commodity heavily is to diminish its price and to tax a movable thing heavily is to increase its price. Hence while the legislator is reluctant to tax land, excepting urban land, he is not always equally reluctant to tax capital. The taxation of urban land, if pushed far, must diminish its net price, and the taxation of capital, if also pushed far, may arrest the stream of it into the country.

The economical conditions of Saskatchewan which have resulted in enormous agricultural indebtedness are attributed by the Report of the Commission above mentioned to a number of causes, among which is placed 'too exclusive devotion to grain-growing'.¹ In order to counteract this tendency, a propaganda for the adoption of mixed farming has been conducted for some years. It must be observed on the one hand that complete alteration of the economic structure of a whole community presents a very hard task, and on the other that it was upon Saskatchewan that the optimistic anticipations of those who predicted the exportation of wheat to the extent of a thousand million of bushels leaned for the verification of their prophecies. If the Saskatchewan farmers listen to the advice of their own Commission, they may contract the growth of wheat and increase the growth of other crops and of cattle. If they do so, the expansion of the Canadian wheat crop to the dimensions predicted by enthusiastic

Wheat-growing
in Saskat-
chewan.

¹ *Report*, cited, p. 203.



advocates of wheat-growing may not be realized. It is nevertheless probable that wheat will continue to be the principal crop in Saskatchewan, for the reason that it is on the whole probably the most economically advantageous for that region, and that wheat-growing may considerably increase in that province, while it remains at comparatively small dimensions in the two other prairie provinces.

Western Portion of the Central Agricultural Region

The semi-arid region.

The western portion of Saskatchewan and the whole of Southern Alberta lie within the so-called semi-arid region. This region forms the northern portion of the great triangular desiccated area which has its base in Mexico, and encloses a large part of the United States between the Rocky Mountains and the Mississippi Valley. The Canadian portion of the area is less arid than the more southerly portion. The available knowledge on the subject is derived from observations extending over too short a period of years for a decisive answer to the question whether the area is becoming, however slowly, more dry or more moist. Analogous regions in Asia, of the history of which more is known, appear to exhibit a double periodicity of oscillations between drought and moisture, involving a long period of not less than three centuries and a short period of some thirty years.

It would be important to know at what point even in these long periods a particular moment might happen to be. It might be possible to prepare years beforehand for excessive drought, or to enjoy the satisfaction that each year would normally bring a little more moisture. From 1892 till 1895 the rainfall was deficient; but from 1896 onwards the rainfall has been adequate for the growth of crops, although not uniformly ample.

Mr. J. S. Dennis, who was for many years in charge of the Irrigation Branch in the Department of the Interior, regards the periodicity of wet and dry years as fairly well established, although it has not been precisely determined. He regards the dry years as numbering from



PLATE XV. INDIAN HEAD, SASKATCHEWAN; GRAIN-ELEVATORS AND PRAIRIE
(Office of the High Commissioner for Canada)



PLATE XVI. CYPRESS HILLS, SASKATCHEWAN
(Office of the High Commissioner for Canada)



three to six in succession, followed by three to six relatively wet years.¹ A large part of the dry region has been brought under irrigation by various systems, the chief being that of the Canadian Pacific Railway, by means of which eventually some 3,000,000 acres will be irrigated. Meanwhile, in the non-irrigated and in some of the non-irrigable parts of the region, dry-farming has been practised with advantage. Grasses like alfalfa, whose roots penetrate the soil to a great depth, thrive well on the dry bench lands. Brome and timothy yield immense crops under irrigation, and great quantities of vegetables are grown for the market offered by the mining towns of British Columbia.

Formerly cattle and horse ranching was the principal occupation in Southern Alberta; but the division of the country into homestead lots and the progressive settlement of it have rendered ranching impossible, excepting in the foothills and lower valleys of the Rocky Mountains. The beef grown on these smaller ranges is for the most part sent over to the mining towns in the mountains and to the coast towns beyond.

The northern portion of the province of Alberta and the north-western portion of Saskatchewan extend beyond the dry region. These areas are not so suitable for the cultivation of wheat as Southern Manitoba and the eastern half of Saskatchewan, but they are very suitable for the cultivation of oats and on the whole for mixed farming.

The north
land of
Alberta
and
Saskat-
chewan.

A tendency has been exhibited in this region to extend settlement into remote and isolated regions. This tendency has been encouraged by land speculators who have secured railway lands, and even by the government, which has not always been judicious in the opening to homestead settlement of regions which lie too remotely from markets for economical exploitation even when they

¹ Cf. J. S. Dennis, *Irrigation in the North-West Territories of Canada*, 1902, Department of the Interior, Ottawa, 1903. Upon the relation of precipitation and evaporation, see also Mavor, *Report to the Board of Trade*, 1904, &c., pp. 8 seq.



are penetrated by railways. Such outlying regions are in general very variable, some of them, the Peace River Valley for example, containing stretches of useful land interspersed with large useless patches.

The composition of society in Alberta is somewhat different from that in Manitoba and Saskatchewan, yet there are certain common features.

Socio-economic characteristics of the western portion of the central region.

(1) *Compact settlements.* There are no communities precisely resembling the stagnant communities of Manitoba and Saskatchewan. The Mormon settlements in Southern Alberta may more appropriately be called compact settlements than stagnant communities, although they cannot be regarded as so progressive in a commercial sense as the commercial farming community which is settled to the north. The Mormons have constructed a system of irrigation, and have engaged in the cultivation of sugar-beet and in the manufacture of sugar, the capital for these enterprises having been provided by themselves. They have also large herds of cattle. Sugar cultivation has not been entirely successful, owing largely to the difficulty of procuring suitable labour for the intensive cultivation which alone can be employed in growing beet. There is a relatively compact settlement of Galicians east of Edmonton, near the North Saskatchewan River, although the Galician population is also very widely distributed; and there was a compact British settlement at Lloydminster on the boundary between Saskatchewan and Alberta. This settlement is interesting because in the course of its development there emerged many of the difficulties which compact settlement appears almost invariably to encounter. A very large number of the original settlers were wholly unsuitable for pioneer agricultural life. The members of the settlement were not bound together by any specific bond, and thus the character of the settlement changed through defections and accretions until its originally compact character disappeared. Although this was not the original intention of the promoters, it was an inevitable and desirable consequence of a fortuitous



emigration,¹ chiefly from the provincial towns in the north of England.

(2) *Commercial farming groups in Alberta.* Although the seasons varied, and although on that account, and for the reason that the demand for cattle and horses was not invariable, ranching in Alberta was, on the whole, a profitable enterprise. A large capital was required to purchase the initial herd, and then it was necessary to wait for two or three years until the herd was sufficiently numerous to justify depletion for sale. The larger ranches were in general owned by joint-stock companies, the ranches being conducted by managers who usually had veterinary experience. The smaller ranches were owned by individual ranchmen who lived upon them. The successful ranchmen were either men of means or technical managers for joint-stock companies. During the ranching period the character of Albertan society was determined by the nature of the ranching system. Although the culture level tended to deteriorate on account of the isolation of individual members of the group, the aggregate number of well-bred Englishmen in southern Alberta was sufficient to give a certain character to the community. North of Calgary this character disappeared, and its place was taken by the sordid aggressiveness and acuteness in making small bargains which are characteristic of the American and eastern Canadian settler.

An economic position, intermediate in respect to the compact and semi-stagnant communities on the one hand and the commercial farming community on the other, is occupied by the large groups of immigrants from Austria, chiefly from the provinces of Galicia, Bukovina, and Ruthenia. These peasants are extremely frugal and industrious. Although they cannot be regarded as skilful or progressive farmers, they have succeeded in

¹ On the Barr Colony see Mavor, *Report to the Board of Trade, 1904*, and *ibid.*, *Report Com. on Agricultural Settlements*, C. 2978-9, London, 1906. The latter contains a memorandum on the colony for the Departmental Committee.

establishing themselves, and they enjoy a comfortable self-contained life. The rigidity of their self-contained polity, however, is gradually relaxing.

(3) *The urban groups.* Since the ranching system and the system of commercial farming required and produced two distinct social types, the society of Alberta was thus from the beginning sharply divided into two fractions or classes—the ranchmen and the farmers. In general the first named lived in and about Calgary, while the second dominated the northern portion of Alberta and had as their social centre Edmonton, where for many years the Hudson's Bay Company had had a post. Their influence, increased as it was by the decay of ranching and by the increase in the farming population, sufficed to place the provincial capital at Edmonton rather than at Calgary, as well as to plant there the provincial university. As in Saskatchewan, the urban areas of Alberta have undertaken extensive municipal improvements. Both Calgary and Edmonton have tramways and other civic conveniences; and in both cities there have been periods of excessive speculation in urban land. Among the urban groups there are the workers of the coal-mines at Lethbridge and at various points on the Alberta side of the Rocky Mountain range. The coal-miners are of diverse racial origin; there are among them a large number of Italian immigrants. In Canada the Italian rarely intends to become a permanent settler. He usually works for a few years until he accumulates some means, and then sails for Italy, where his small capital is used advantageously in the revived agriculture of Calabria.



CHAPTER VII

ECONOMIC SURVEY (*continued*)WESTERN AND NORTHERN REGIONS—GENERAL
CONSIDERATIONS

BY PROFESSOR JAMES MAVOR

THE WESTERN MINING, FISHING, AND LUMBERING REGION

THIS region may be held to comprise both slopes of the Rocky Mountains and the valleys of the numerous subsidiary ranges which lie parallel to the main range between it and the Pacific Coast. The region extends from the boundary between the United States and Canada on the south to the boundary between Canada and the Territory of Alaska on the north.

Extent
and
settle-
ment.

The economic exploitation of this immense region (about 400,000 square miles¹) has been impeded by the meagreness of the population in relation to the area and by consequent difficulty in procuring the necessary supplies of capital. These conditions have resulted from numerous causes, of which the following are the most conspicuous. The ease with which the prairie soils might be exploited and the relatively slender amount of agricultural capital required for their exploitation offered greater attractions for settlement upon them than did the valleys of British Columbia, where the magnitude of the forests and the character of the minerals rendered the exploitation of these difficult and slow and required a relatively large amount of labour and of industrial capital. The distance of the region from Eastern Canada, and therefore from the Atlantic ports, made the journey longer and more expensive than the journey to the central plains. Thus the prairies captured the mass of

¹ The area of British Columbia alone is 355,855 square miles (by map measurement); see *Fifth Census of Canada, 1911*, vol. i, Ottawa, 1912, p. 38. The population was 392,480 or 1.09 per square mile (*ibid.*).



immigration, while British Columbia had to rely upon migration from the plains and upon the immigration of relatively well-to-do people, who found the climate and the life agreeable but were not fitted to grapple with the industrial problems presented by forests, minerals, and estuarine fisheries.

Divisions
of the
popula-
tion of
British
Columbia:
capitalist
group.

The population of British Columbia may be divided into the following strata:

(1) The settlers, chiefly from Great Britain direct, and to some extent also from Ontario and Manitoba, who have gone to the country with some means and have established themselves chiefly in fruit-farming in the wide valleys between the mountain ranges, have, as a rule, taken comparatively small lots of land, and have devoted themselves to fruit culture mainly by means of their personal labour. They have brought with them certain traditions of European culture, which many of them do their best to maintain. To this group may be added another group of persons who have settled in the country either directly from Great Britain or from Eastern Canada and Manitoba, who have brought with them important amounts of capital and in addition have had the advantage of credit. They have embarked in lumbering, canning, and mining enterprises, and have especially in past times promoted railway schemes which have either been absorbed in larger enterprises or have been abandoned.

Labourers.

(2) Miners, lumber workers, and other artisans, general labourers, and domestic servants, of greatly diversified racial origins. Among these are to be found some Indians belonging to aboriginal tribes of the region, migrants from eastern Canada of British, French, and other origins, immigrants from the United States of various origins, immigrants from Great Britain, or descendants of these, immigrants from continental Europe—Scandinavians, Italians, Austrians and Hungarians, Germans, Belgians, Bulgarians, and Russians—Asiatic immigrants—Chinese, Japanese, and Hindu (of Asiatics altogether 30,000 by the census of 1911).

The region thus affords an example of a highly hetero-



geneous society, in which the social contours are sharply defined, a usual condition where numerous races are represented in a numerically small community. Labour disputes in British Columbia have, therefore, a character somewhat different from that of labour disputes in the east. There is no solidarity of the interests of labour, and yet the capitalist groups are so small that in the mass the influence of labour upon all legislation is great, although its direction is not determined by consideration of interests of the labouring population as a whole.

Nevertheless, in spite of the heterogeneous character of the population of British Columbia, and the consequent difficulty of organizing labour, the trade unions have exercised a considerable amount of power, especially since the gold fever of 1896. The trade unions of British Columbia practically owe their organization to the unions in the neighbouring American States on the Pacific slope. The conditions in these states and the industries are very similar to those of British Columbia. There has always been much coming and going, especially of American miners, and it was necessary for the American trade societies to assist in the organization of similar bodies across the line as a measure of self-protection. Since the organization in the United States in 1905 of the Industrial Workers of the World, it has secured its chief support from the Pacific states and from British Columbia. This body has been organized in opposition to the American Federation of Labour, as a protest against the alleged subserviency of that body to the mechanism of party politics. The Industrial Workers of the World profess the doctrine of syndicalism and advocate sabotage, although they repudiate violence against the person. According to the newspapers which are devoted to the propaganda of the 'I. W. W.', the conditions of labour in the lumber camps in the States of California, Oregon, Washington, and Montana are very bad. It does not appear that the same conditions prevail in British Columbia, but the organization of the lumber jacks there prevents strikes in the coast

The
labour
situation
in British
Columbia.



states from being compromised by the influx of workers from the north.¹

Asiatic
labour.

The complicated question of Asiatic immigration cannot be fully discussed here. It may, however, be provisionally put in the form of a dilemma. The immense resources of the country cannot be developed without a very much greater supply of labour than is now available. The economical inducements are great enough to attract Asiatic labour; but are not great enough to attract labourers of European origin in sufficient numbers. These circumstances throw a preponderance of power into the hands of the workmen of European origin. They are thus able to impede the immigration of Asiatics, and even that of Europeans. Wages are so high, and the risk of labour disputes so great, that capital is deterred from investment. But in the nature of the case large capital is required to conduct exploitation in the region, owing to the nature of its resources. The labour situation thus tends to produce an *impasse*. On social and political grounds the objections to Asiatic immigration are mainly these. If immigration were unrestricted, surplus population would pour out from China and from Japan, and British Columbia would become rapidly a colony of Asia. The result would be still more sharp social division. The Asiatic would be the only labourer, and the only other constituent of society would be a capitalist class. From the political point of view, under such circumstances, British Columbia would be at the mercy of any Asiatic power which might be able to secure the control of the Pacific. If the region were predominantly populated by Asiatics, the holding of it as an outpost of European civilization might be problematical. The Hindu immigration question is complicated by the circumstance that the Hindu is a British subject, and is not averse from insisting upon full recognition of what he considers his rights as a citizen of the Empire.

¹ On the Industrial Workers of the World, see, e.g. *Solidarity*, weekly, Cleveland, Ohio; and especially on the lumber industry, *The Lumber Jack*, weekly, New Orleans.



The trade unions of British Columbia are in general hostile to immigration of any kind, but they are especially hostile to the immigration of Asiatics. The ground of this hostility cannot be regarded as merely economical; there is at its foundation a deep racial prejudice which is shared by all classes. Notwithstanding this prejudice, and notwithstanding the poll-tax of \$500 which has been imposed upon Chinese on entering the country, Chinese continue to arrive in British Columbia in large numbers. The disturbed state of China in 1911 and afterwards, resulting as it did in the disorganization of industry and in chronic disorder, caused a great increase of emigration from China to the countries to which it was possible for the Chinese to emigrate. They went in immense numbers to the Straits Settlements; many went into Manchuria, and increasing numbers crossed the Pacific to British Columbia, the United States being closed to them. The Chinese do not underbid the European labourers, but they are much more frugal, and after they have succeeded in meeting their obligations to the companies which finance them for passage-money and their poll-tax, they accumulate means rapidly. They remit in the aggregate large sums to their relatives in China, and these sums are frequently employed in the education of younger members of their families in the schools at Hong Kong, from which place they go to make their fortunes in the Straits Settlements, or the money is lent in mortgage to other families whose members pursue the same course. The method of employing Chinese in British Columbia is precisely the same as the method adopted by Europeans in China. All labour contracts in China are concluded with a comprador, who pays the men and is responsible for them. So also in British Columbia a Chinese functionary performs the office of comprador, engages the labourers, and pays them, the Chinese labourers being undoubtedly sharp enough to notice if he takes for himself more than the customary 'squeeze' or commission.

Japanese are not subject to the poll-tax, but by arrangement with the Japanese Government labourers

cannot pass directly from Japan to British Columbia. They can do so, however, via the Hawaiian Islands. A considerable number of Sikhs have immigrated either from Hong Kong or from India, and some of them have acquired property in Vancouver; but their pugnacious disposition, together with the racial prejudice against them, have rendered them unpopular in the community.

The
Indians of
British
Columbia.

The aboriginal population of British Columbia consists of numerous tribes, some of which have affiliations on the Pacific Coast as far south as California. The Athapascans, or Déné, are the principal group. This large stock includes the Loucheux in the far north, the Tsé'kéhne in the Rocky Mountain valleys, the Beavers near the Peace River, the Nah'ane on the Stikeen River, the Ts'ets'ant on the Portland Canal, and others.¹ The next most important group are the Kootenays, whose habitat is south-eastern British Columbia and the adjacent portions of Idaho and Montana.² Then follow the Salish, a group which embraces a large number of tribes on the coast of British Columbia and the states of Oregon and Washington. The Bilqula, the coast Salish, the Shushwap, and the Okinākēn are the principal tribes of this group.³ The Nootkas, or Kwakintl-Nootkas, form a large group of over twenty tribes, chiefly on the west coast of Vancouver Island. This group is specially interesting because of the intricacy of its social organization.⁴ Other important groups are the Tsimshian on the Nass and Skeena Rivers in north-eastern British Columbia,⁵ and

¹ The literature concerning the Athapascans is extensive. For indications, see Pilling's *Bibliography* (1892) and the two bibliographical volumes of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington. See also A. F. Chamberlain, 'Ethnology of the Aborigènes,' in *Handbook of Canada*, British Association, Toronto, 1897, and the numerous reports of Dr. Boas and others to the Ethnographical Committee of the British Association in the annual *Reports* from 1889 onwards.

² See *Report* by A. F. Chamberlain, British Association, 1892.

³ See *Reports* by F. Boas, *ibid.*, 1889-96, and *Papers* by Dr. G. M. Dawson, in *Geological Survey Reports and Transactions of the Royal Society of Canada*.

⁴ Sproat (1868) and Boas (Brit. Assoc., 1889, 1890, and 1896) are the most important authorities upon the Nootkas.

⁵ See Boas (Brit. Assoc., 1889, 1895, and 1896).



the Haida of Queen Charlotte Islands and on the mainland.¹ Apart from the special languages and dialects of each linguistic stock, the coast Indians in general speak a *lingua franca* called Chinook. The basis of this jargon appears to have been the Chinook language which was formerly spoken in the region.²

(3) The fishing population consists largely of aboriginal Indians, Chinese, and Japanese, with an admixture of members of the various racial groups mentioned above. The Chinese are employed in the fish-canning establishments owing to the dexterity which they have developed in the technique of the business of canning. Fishing is necessarily a seasonal occupation. After the season is over the Indians customarily go to Vancouver in their own craft, receive payment for their catch, purchase supplies of clothing, &c. for the winter, and then retire to the seclusion of their villages on the coast to the north. Japanese and Chinese sometimes go to their respective countries for the winter, returning in the following season. With a view to the prevention of permanent Chinese settlement, the immigration of Chinese women is prohibited, with indubitably disastrous moral consequences.

(4) The first urban settlement in British Columbia sprang up round Fort Victoria, the Hudson's Bay Company's post on Vancouver Island. This settlement grew into the city of Victoria, which became the provincial capital. The earlier settlers were adventurous French-Canadians who made their way across the Continent, and Englishmen who sailed round Cape Horn. While the urban population has become highly heterogeneous, the English group remains an important social factor, although politically it has been submerged by migrants from the eastern provinces. The latter form the effective commercial element in the city of Vancouver, which owed its origin to the fact that the Canadian Pacific Railway chose the site as its terminus. The different racial

¹ See papers by Dr. G. M. Dawson and F. Boas, *loc. cit.*

² Chamberlain, *Handbook*, Brit. Assoc., Toronto, 1897, p. 124.



groups are usually segregated within the towns, as is customary in the towns of eastern Canada and in those of the United States.

Mining in
British
Columbia.

The difficulty of procuring labour and the refractory character of the ores have rendered the gold areas of southern British Columbia much less remunerative than the optimistic anticipations of 1896 suggested. The metals which are found in quantity in British Columbia are gold, silver, lead, copper, and antimony.¹ Smelting is carried on at Nelson, Trail, and Vancouver. The precious metals, however, are not refined in Canada. Pig lead is produced at Trail, and copper ingots at Nelson.

Fisheries
of British
Columbia.

The most economically important fish of the Pacific Coast is popularly known as the salmon. The fish, however, belongs not to the genus *salmo*, but to the genus *oncorhynchus*. Of this genus there are in the rivers and on the coast five species: *O. nerka*, or Sockeye, otherwise known as the Blueback; *O. tshawytscha*, or Spring Salmon, otherwise known as the Quinnet; *O. kisutch*, or Silver Salmon, otherwise known as the Cohoe; *O. keta*, or Dog Salmon, otherwise known as the Bécarr; and *O. gorbusca*, or Humpback. Of these the most important species is the first mentioned, the Sockeye. The fish usually weighs from 3 to 10 lb., although larger specimens are sometimes obtained. The adults found in sea-water are spotless, above the lateral line they are blue, and below it they are white. At spawning time in the upper waters of the rivers they become red on the back and sides, and the tails become green. The flesh of the fish is deep red. The Sockeye enters the Fraser River in April, but at that period it is too small for capture. The season—the opening of which is regulated by law—begins on July 1, and the 'run' is usually in full vigour between the end of that month and August 10. The numbers of Sockeye which enter the Fraser River appear to be subject to periodical

¹ The Annual Reports and the Special Reports issued by the provincial Department of Mines (British Columbia), Victoria B.C., contain much useful information on the gold-fields and other mineral areas.



variation. The 'run' seems to reach a maximum every fourth year, and a minimum in the year following.

The Spring Salmon, or Quinnat, is the next most important fish. It attains a much greater size than the Sockeye—18 to 30 lb., and even occasionally up to 100 lb. The back, the dorsal fin, and the tail are generally covered with round black spots, and the back is dark green, below the lateral line the colour is silvery white. At spawning time the fish becomes black. The colour of the flesh varies from red to pink, and even white. The fish enter the Fraser River in the spring, and the 'run' continues throughout July. Only those of the Spring Salmon which have red or rich pink flesh are customarily accepted from the fishermen by the canneries. The Cohoe is about the same size as the Sockeye, but unlike it, is spotted. It 'runs' in the Fraser in September and October, after the Sockeye 'run' is over. The Dog Salmon are caught almost exclusively by the Japanese, by whom they are shipped to the markets of Japan and China. The Humpback makes its appearance towards the close of the Sockeye 'run'. It is in less demand than the latter, but owing to its abundance it is in some years canned extensively.

The Sockeye appears to enter the Fraser River from the open sea to the north-west through the Strait of Juan de Fuca. The precise route of the 'schools' depends upon the wind and the tide. The size of the meshes of the nets, and the size of the nets by means of which the fish are caught, are prescribed by Dominion regulations. The canning season usually extends over six weeks, Chinese men and Indian women are employed extensively in the canning factories, the fishing being done by Chinese, Japanese, Indians, and white fishermen. The dimensions of the salmon export trade, now very large, may be ascertained from the annual Reports of the Dominion Department of Marine and Fisheries.¹

¹ Most of the details in the text are derived from a paper by J. P. Babcock, Commissioner of Fisheries, in *The Year Book of British Columbia*, by R. E. Gosnell, Victoria, B.C., 1903, pp. 213 *seq.* See also *ibid.*, 1911, pp. 203 *seq.*

The most important of the forest trees of British Columbia is the Douglas fir (*Pseudotsuga Douglasii*). This magnificent tree, which sometimes attains a height of three hundred feet, and a circumference of fifty, is distributed over the greater part of southern British Columbia. It disappears about 55° N. lat. The largest trees are found on Vancouver Island and near the coast on the mainland, where they flourish under the influence of the warm, moist winds from the Pacific Ocean. The average height of the trees which are cut for bridge timbers, wharves, and other structural purposes is 150 feet, and the circumference usually between seven and ten feet. The logging operations are similar to those which have been described as being carried on in eastern Canada, but as the trees are much larger than in the east, the operations have all along been conducted on a larger scale. In former days the huge logs were drawn to the rivers along prepared skid ways by teams of sixteen or more horses or oxen; now they are hauled by steam power. There are numerous saw-mills through all the lumbering regions; but the principal mills are at Vancouver. The red cedar (*Thuja gigantea*) or giant arbor vitae, the yellow cypress (*Thuja excelsa*), the western white pine (*Pinus monticola*), the lodge-pole pine (*Pinus Murrayana*), the Engelmann spruce (*Picea Engelmanni*), the Menzies spruce (*Picea Sitchensis*), the coast hemlock (*Tsuga Mertensiana*), the western white oak (*Quercus jacobi*), the aspen poplar (*Populus tremuloides*), the broad-leaved maple (*Acer macrophyllum*), the western white fir (*Abies grandis*), and the western yellow or bull pine (*Pinus ponderosa*) are among the other common trees which are cut and used for commercial purposes. Several of the trees mentioned are suitable for the manufacture of pulp. Leases of timber lands are granted by the provincial government on rental and royalty terms.¹

The forests of British Columbia are much denser than those of eastern Canada, and logging operations can

¹ Ibid., 1911, pp. 255 seq.



PLATE XVII. SAWBACK LAKE, ROCKY MOUNTAINS
(Office of the High Commissioner for Canada)

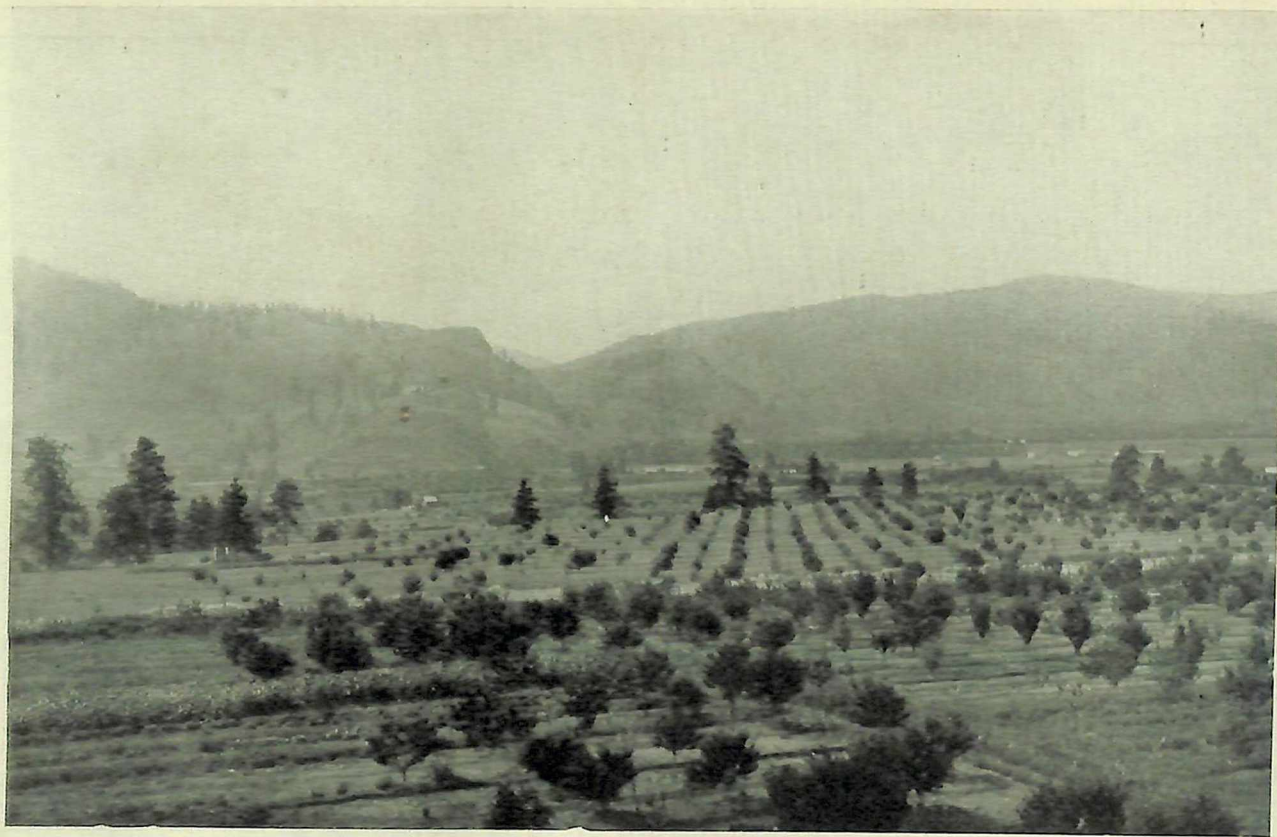


PLATE XVIII. PARKDALE, SUMMERLAND, BRITISH COLUMBIA
(Office of the High Commissioner for Canada)



therefore be carried on with greater economy. The average cut per acre in British Columbia is about ten times the amount of the cut in Ontario. The development of the Prairie Provinces has afforded an increasing market for British Columbian timber. There have been long periods when the supply scarcely met the demand. In addition to the domestic market, the existing, and still more the potential market is widely extended—the United States, the west coast of South America, Australia, and Japan offer the largest markets.

Immense quantities of timber are destroyed annually by forest fires. When the occurrence of a fire and of a cyclone are coincident, as sometimes happens, great areas are altogether denuded, and the fire-weed (*Epilobium*) marks the places where the forest had formerly been.

A large part of the area of British Columbia is well suited as regards soil and climate for the growth of fruits. The range of tree-fruits includes apples, pears, peaches, plums, and cherries, and that of small fruits, strawberries, raspberries, and red and black currants. The regions in which fruit-growing has become a large industry are in the neighbourhood of Vancouver, in portions of the Arrow Lakes on the Columbia River, and in the Okanagan Valley. The possibilities of fruit-growing, however, are by no means confined to these regions. The British Columbia government has been directing inquiries into the portion of the province lying to the north of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and some parts of that region are reported upon favourably. In the neighbourhood of Vancouver the valuable orchards are few in number, but important: apples, pears, and plums are grown successfully. Much remains to be done in the selection of varieties especially susceptible of adaptation to the conditions of the country. The local market absorbs practically all the production of the region.

In the Okanagan Valley irrigation has been applied to the fruit farms, and the yield has been rendered larger and more certain. The growing of fruit practically began in this region in 1892, with a small irrigation

scheme which was subsequently widely extended. The irrigated lands are under the control of joint-stock companies who charge a rental for the use of water, which is in one case brought from a distance of thirty miles. The organization of the market for fruit is in the hands of one private firm, one joint-stock company, and one co-operative enterprise—the Farmer's Exchange. Apples are sent from the Okanagan Valley to the London market, but in general the domestic demand is fully equal to the supply, and in some years prices of fruit have been very high. The climate of southern British Columbia is moister and more genial than that of eastern Canada, even in an inferior latitude; and the seasons are less liable to violent fluctuations. The real difficulties in fruit-culture arise from the scarcity of labour during the picking and packing period, and from defective management. The scarcity of labour appears to be due partly to the slender numbers of the population as a whole, partly to the concentration of these in the towns, partly to the difficulty of determining beforehand how many pickers may be required, and partly to failure to organize the migration of labourers at the fruit-picking time. The fruit-growing business is indeed largely in the hands of amateurs, who have not yet succeeded in organizing the industry in such a way as to produce fruit sufficiently uniform in quality and sufficiently well packed to compete in Vancouver, for example, with the products of the fruit gardens of California. Yet owing to the demand local prices have been high, the industry has been profitable, and the prices of developed fruit lands have risen from £100 to £200 per acre.¹

THE NORTHERN REGIONS

Mining in
Yukon
territory.

The occupations of the people of the northern regions are mining, fishing, and hunting. The only mining region of importance is the Yukon Territory, in which

¹ W. H. Bunting, *Report of a Special Inquiry into Fruit Growing Conditions in Canada, 1911*, Ottawa, 1912, pp. 45 seq.



gold is mined from the gravels either of existing or of earlier river beds. The discovery of gold on the Stewart River in 1895 and 1896 led to the rush to the Klondike in immediately succeeding years. The readily accessible gold having been recovered by the thousands of prospectors who precipitated themselves upon the country, the exploitation of less easily obtainable gold has come to be carried on by means of scientific methods and by the employment of hydraulic and other machinery. The population, which was considerable in 1898, has diminished, and the conditions of life in the mining camps have greatly altered.

The mineral wealth of other regions is undoubted, but only as the regions are approached by settlement or by sustained advance over the intervening valueless spaces can the necessary means of transport be provided, and even then the remoteness of the regions from the centres of consumption must remain a permanent disadvantage so far as exports from the regions are concerned.

The aboriginal tribes of the north are too numerous for any catalogue to be attempted. They may, however, be broadly regarded as consisting of two great groups, the Eskimo, or Inuits, and the Indians. The former fish during the summer, and hunt during the spring and autumn; they occupy the northern coast region, migrating from summer to winter camps. The latter hunt during the year, migrating with the seasons and with the herds upon which they depend for subsistence, occupying in a measure the region south of that occupied by the Eskimo. The Hudson's Bay Company has many posts throughout the region, although they do not enjoy a monopoly of the fur trade.

Aboriginal inhabitants.

GENERAL ECONOMIC CONSIDERATIONS

The commercial law of Canada is based upon English Common Law, excepting in the province of Quebec, where law in general is founded upon the Code Napoléon. There is no bankruptcy law in Canada. In case of

Commercial and banking law.

insolvency a creditor may apply to the courts for the appointment of an official assignee, and the estate may then be liquidated under the authority of the court. The debtor may be released from further obligation on the surrender of his estate to his creditors, but this does not necessarily follow. In any case he is not declared a bankrupt.

Under the British North America Act,¹ the Dominion Parliament has the exclusive power of legislating in respect to banks. The custom is to pass a general Bank Act which applies to all banks. This Act is usually passed decennially, although the Act which should have been passed in 1911 was not introduced until 1913.² Any person may carry on the business of a banker; but the power to issue notes is reserved for banks chartered under the Act. The capital of a banking company is issued in shares of one hundred dollars each, and shareholders are liable in case of failure of the bank to meet its engagements to the extent of another hundred dollars. That is to say, the shareholder is liable to an amount equal to the amount of his original subscription.³ The capital of all chartered banks must be at least \$500,000. A bank may issue notes to an amount equivalent to its unimpaired capital, plus the amount of current gold coin and of Dominion notes deposited by the bank in the 'central gold reserves', which are in the custody of the Dominion Treasury. The notes are secured by means of a mutual system under the control of the government. Each bank maintains in the hands of the government a fund consisting of an amount equal to five per cent. of its note issue, and in case of any bank failing to redeem its notes the aggregate funds so deposited by the banks is called upon to meet the

¹ 30 Vict. c. 3 (1867).

² The Bank Act of 1913 is 3 & 4 Geo. V. c. 9 (Dom. of Can.). Twenty-four banks are mentioned in Schedule A; thirteen banks were, on the date of the Act, in process of absorption by the banks in Schedule A or were in course of liquidation.

³ The Bank of British North America, which was established under an Imperial Act, is not under the clause of the Canadian Act imposing double liability.



notes of the defaulting bank, the funds being then replenished by means of a call upon the banks which remain solvent. The amount due upon notes issued by a bank forms a first charge upon the assets of a bank, and no claim upon the special reserve for the security of notes has arisen.

The foregoing survey has shown that although the industries of the Dominion are considerable, the people are predominantly engaged in extractive industries. It has also shown that the population has increased rapidly rather by immigration than by natural increase. Even if the immigrants bring with them into the country a certain amount of liquid capital, the actual expenses of their settlement in a new country must in general exceed that capital. They must build houses for themselves; they must cultivate at least a portion of their land; they must sow for their first crop, and they must also possess or secure subsistence practically for the first year of their settlement, until the returns from their labours begin to appear as income. From the beginning, therefore, unless they have adequate agricultural capital in their own possession, the farmers must borrow. So also the manufacturers who embark upon new enterprises must, unless they possess adequate means, obtain credit or must borrow the necessary industrial capital. The governments—Dominion, provincial, and municipal—must also borrow, so must the railway companies and other companies which render public services. In a country which has rapidly increased in population from comparatively small to relatively large numbers, there cannot in the nature of things be any considerable domestic accumulation of capital. Thus the borrowing must to a large extent be effected abroad, either directly by those who desire the funds for their own use, or indirectly by financial institutions which embark in the business of the interposition of credit. The extent to which such borrowing is possible is determined partly by the external conditions of the money-market in general, and partly by the extent to which the borrowers in

Mer-
cantile
finance.



question are worthy of credit. Personal reliability being assumed, they will be worthy of credit in respect to the extent, not of their resources at any given time, but in respect to their resources in the future and the likelihood of their being able to offer sufficient security that these resources will be available, and that the stipulated interest will be duly paid. In the case of a government or a municipality entering the market for loanable capital, it is necessary that the taxable capacity of the people be declared or understood; in the event of a company or an individual entering the same market it is necessary that the earnings of the immediate future be declared. The rate at which the loan is obtained must consist of three elements—the net rate of interest, the cost of managing the transaction, and the premium of insurance against the loss of the principal. Owing to the highly competitive character of the money-market, the first element will necessarily be practically universally the same at any given moment, the other elements will vary with the conditions of the transaction, the locality of the borrower, the likelihood of his being able to meet his engagements, and other circumstances of a like character.

Financial
relations
of Canada
with
Britain
and other
countries.

Application of these general considerations to a country in the position of Canada will show that the gross rate of interest for a loan effected in Great Britain must be sufficient to overcome the reluctance of lenders of money to allow their funds to be sent to a great distance, qualified by the consideration that the commercial law of Canada in general terms resembles that of Great Britain, and that in the last resort an appeal may be made to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. The resulting rate will therefore, other things being equal, be less than would be exacted for funds which might be sent to Turkey or to China, where the political conditions are disturbed, or even to the Argentine, where certainty regarding the course of law cannot be felt. For some of these reasons and to the extent suggested, Canada may be said to have a preference in the British money-market which



she would not have in any continental money-market, or even in that of the United States, although her proximity to the latter might give her a preference under certain conditions.

In order that she may be able to exploit her natural resources, and, indeed, in order that she may be able to provide for the needs of her growing population, Canada has been obliged to borrow, and circumstances have impelled her to borrow in Britain, not merely because that country possesses the largest money-market but because her connexion with Britain enables her to borrow on better terms there than anywhere else. At the same time there has been a considerable amount of voluntary investment in Canada of funds from other countries, induced by the attractiveness of Canadian securities—notably from Holland, Germany, France, and the United States.

The aggregate of the borrowings of Canada during past years has been very great; and it is an important question whether or not there is reasonable likelihood of the interest upon the loans and investments being punctually and continuously paid in general, individual cases of mistaken judgement in lending or in investing being left out of account. It would be inappropriate to attempt a decisive answer to such a question in this place; but the constituents of a possible answer may be suggested. The principal related questions are, how has the money been expended, and if it be shown that the money has been expended in forms that are likely to be productive, how soon will this productiveness begin to yield interest, and in certain cases amortization of the invested funds? The answer to the first question may be gathered from an examination of the character of the imports into Canada during recent years, since it is obvious that the funds which have been lent have been introduced into the country in the form of imported goods. Such an examination would reveal that by far the larger proportion of the total imports has consisted of structural material for railways, and for buildings connected with them or with industrial enterprises. In so far as the

The future
of Canadian
mercantile
finance.



imports consist of food stuffs in general consumption, these also may be regarded as having been productively consumed. When due deduction has been made for articles of luxury, it is very evident that the bulk of the imports could not be consumed otherwise than in the main productively.

Applica-
tion of
borrowed
moneys to
railways ;

The answer to the second question is more difficult. In so far as the loans and investments have been applied to railway construction, it may be taken for granted that a few years must elapse before the railways in question begin to yield a return to capital newly invested in them. This is the case with all railways ; but it is peculiarly the case with Canadian railways because of the great distances which they must traverse, and because they are necessarily frequently constructed in scantily occupied regions into which they carry a population, which eventually may be expected to produce a paying amount of traffic. This process takes time, and during the period which must elapse the credit of the railway company may be strained in managing the financial arrangements necessary in order to enable it to tide over the period of non-production. While the experience of other countries shows that over-production of railways may take place, there cannot be said to be any positive evidence that this has occurred in Canada.

and to
immigra-
tion and
industries.

In so far as the funds realized from external loans have been devoted to the settlement and maintenance of immigrants and to the establishing of new industries, the return to these under normal climatic conditions may be held to be almost certain. Experience shows in general that three or four years at most suffice for an immigrant to establish himself in such a way that he can look forward with equanimity to the discharge of his obligations. But if a succession of inferior harvests supervene this relative certainty would be diminished.

Transportation

The
Canadian
canoe.

The serration of the country by rivers and glacial lakes offered to the aboriginal inhabitants means of movement



by light craft, which could be carried across the land separating two water systems. The craft which they adopted was the canoe made of birch bark, bent to the required form, the sections being laced together and the seams covered with pitch. The birch-bark canoe might be made for accommodating from one to twenty persons or more. The desiderata for a canoe for a long journey are that it should be seaworthy, light for the portage, and that it should be easily repaired. When skilfully made and skilfully guided, the birch-bark canoe offers these advantages. The basswood canoe has now almost replaced the birch-bark vessel, because of its greater strength, elegance, and, when properly made and managed, safety. Throughout a large part of the hunting regions of eastern Canada the canoe is not merely the best, but the only means of locomotion. While travelling in the summer is amphibious, it is not so in the winter. When the lake region is covered with ice it is possible to drive in a straight line, regardless of the interruption of water areas. The winter is thus the period for rapid movement. For example, when the channel of the St. Lawrence north of the Island of Orleans is frozen, and the ice is thick, about Christmas time the *habitant* of the region brings out his *voiture*, which has probably been little used in the summer, and drives with as many of his family as the vehicle can hold to Quebec.

Winter roads.

In the spring the streams from melting snow scour or flood the roads, and in the autumn heavy rains sometimes make them almost impassable. The earliest roads in the eastern region were tracks in the forest, rendered passable in soft places by branches being laid on the track, or by logs sawn to the width of the track being laid side by side across it. The latter are known as corduroy roads. The plank road made of sawn lumber laid crosswise was a comparatively late development in eastern Canada. It has been superseded by macadamized roads, although the high price of skilled labour and the scarcity of good road-making material have retarded the development of communications.

Highways.



The question of highways is always a difficult one in a scantily populated country, and is still more difficult where abrupt changes in temperature and in conditions of moisture deteriorate the roads irrespective of traffic. Propagandas and highway commissions have done something to improve the roads in eastern Canada, but on the prairies the roads are much worse than their predecessors the prairie trails were. The latter could be readily extended laterally by encroachment upon the unbroken surface of the prairie, and their direction could easily be turned in such a manner as to avoid depressions, whether these were swamps or not. When the prairie lands came to be divided into square sections, the road allowances were set out along the section lines, irrespective of the formation of the land, and thus the roads run straight, up and down hill, through swamps and *coulées*. They are thus seldom constructed in any sense, and they cannot therefore be said to be kept in repair.

The construction of railways has bridged the long distances; but roads are necessary as feeders for railways, and must be provided if the railway is to maintain itself, and if the produce of the country is to find a market.

Ocean and
coastwise
traffic.

The most important ocean ports on the Canadian coast are Halifax and St. John; the important ports of Quebec and Montreal are on the St. Lawrence River far inland. The coastwise trade between Nova Scotia and New Brunswick on the one side, and the coasts of Maine and Massachusetts on the other, is considerable, as is also the coastwise trade between the British Columbian coast and the ports of the States of Washington and Oregon, as well as between the Canadian harbours—Vancouver, Victoria, Nanaimo, Prince Rupert, &c.—and Skagway in Alaska, which is on the most convenient route to the Yukon Territory.

The ocean traffic on the Atlantic is conducted mainly in the summer from the river ports of Quebec and Montreal, and from Halifax (Nova Scotia), and St. John, New Brunswick. A very large portion of the Canadian ocean trade, however, is conducted through Portland, Maine,



Boston, and New York. The ocean traffic on the Pacific is conducted from Vancouver and Victoria, both of which possess fine harbours. A ship-repairing yard has been established at Esquimault, Vancouver Island, by Messrs. Yarrow & Co. of the Clyde.

The amount of steamship subventions and mail subsidies authorized by statute is about £70,000, and the amount annually voted for the same purposes is about £350,000, or a total of about £420,000. These subsidies include river, lake, and canal, as well as coastwise and ocean services.

Inland navigation plays a very important rôle in Canada. The great interior lakes and their connexions constitute a water chain, by means of which grain and other produce are transported from the interior to the ports for ocean shipment. There appears to be no doubt that under existing conditions of land and water transportation, the wheels cannot meet the competition of water. The bulk of the wheat for export, for example, is conveyed as soon as possible after harvesting to the lake ports of Fort William and Port Arthur, and is there shipped on grain vessels to be carried via Buffalo for shipment from New York; to Depot Harbour, Georgian Bay, Lake Huron, for conveyance by rail to Portland, Maine; or to Montreal for transhipment to ocean-going vessels.

Since the most economical vessel for ocean traffic is a large, deep vessel, and that for lake, river, and canal navigation is relatively small and of comparatively light draft, it is clear that there is not necessarily any net advantage in loading at Port Arthur for Liverpool without transhipment. The traffic in such a case would be largely a one-way traffic, and therefore would not be economical. The Canadian canals are, therefore, constructed for vessels of comparatively light draft, the necessity for transhipment being assumed.

The conditions which cause the chief problems in the railway situation in Canada are the long distances which separate the important centres, and the absence of mutually

compensatory exchange between the centres. These long distances, moreover, are not occupied to an extent sufficient to afford local traffic of moment. The results of these conditions are that the traffic is seasonal, and that it is predominantly one-way. The most important of the long distances are those which separate the St. Lawrence Valley and Montreal from Nova Scotia, the region which separates the industrial portions of Ontario and Quebec from the Red River Valley, and the parallel mountain chains which separate the plains from the Pacific Coast. All the three transcontinental lines have thus to encounter many hundreds of miles of unremunerative haulage.

Trans-
continental
lines.

The first transcontinental line, the Canadian Pacific Railway, which was constructed in the beginning entirely on political grounds, has become, chiefly through the energy and skill of its officials, a great commercial success. It has played a large part in building up the country. The route of the main line was so designed as to be the most direct between the Pacific Coast and the Red River Valley.¹ The consequence of this has been the necessity of constructing numerous branches and radial lines both north and south of the main line. The Canadian Pacific Railway has been able, out of earnings, not only to pay a relatively high rate of dividend, but to rebuild practically the whole line, to replace the temporary wooden bridges with permanent steel structures, and to shorten the route through the mountains by means of tunnels.

The Grand Trunk Pacific Railway,² which constitutes the transcontinental extension of the Grand Trunk Railway, has constructed a portion of its transcontinental system by means of capital raised upon the guarantee of the Canadian government, and has leased from the

¹ See *Survey and Preliminary Operations on the Canadian Pacific Railway*, by Sandford Fleming, Engineer-in-chief, Ottawa, 1877, and subsequent reports.

² The original agreement between the Dominion Government and the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway Company is to be found in the Dominion Act, 3 Edw. VII. c. 71 (assented to October 24, 1903); supplemental agreements are in the Sessional Papers, e.g. No. 37a, 1904.

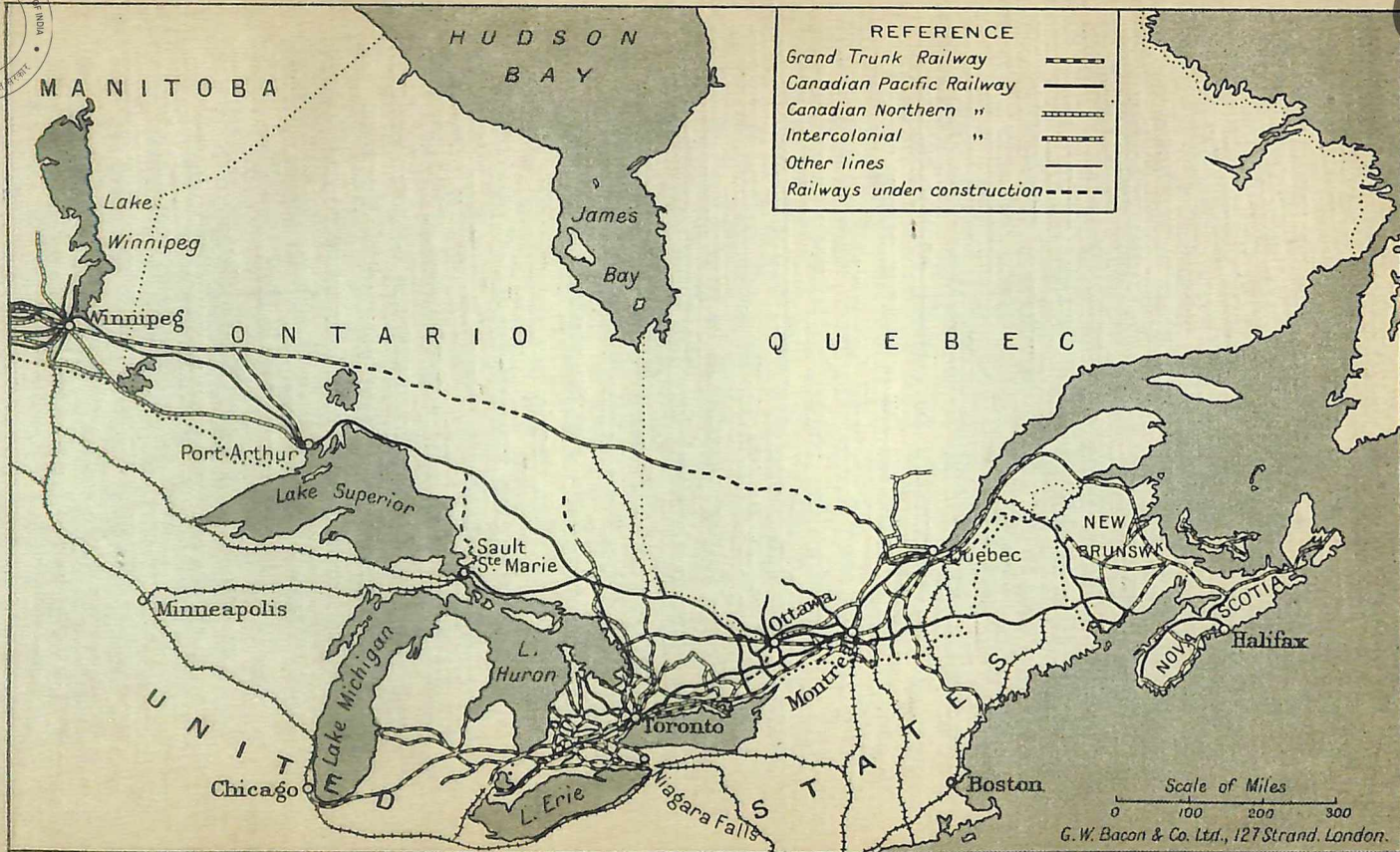


FIG. 11. Railways of Eastern Canada.

government the National Transcontinental Railway which has been constructed at the cost of the government. Both portions of the system have been built in accordance with the policy which was adopted when the original Grand Trunk Railway was built in eastern Canada, in the middle of the nineteenth century. This policy involved the construction of the line in a permanent manner at the beginning, in order to avoid the subsequent necessity of practically reconstructing it out of earnings. The wisdom of the adoption of this policy half a century ago, while the country was in a rudimentary stage of development, may be doubted; but the wisdom of its adoption now, when the line had to compete with a system thoroughly equipped and thoroughly permanent, cannot be questioned. The line traverses the continent nearly parallel to the Canadian Pacific Railway, but at varying distances to the north of that line, connexion between them being effected by branches. The wisdom of placing the terminus of the Grand Trunk Pacific so far north on the Pacific Coast as Prince Rupert remains to be proved.

A third transcontinental line has been partially constructed by the Canadian Northern Railway Company. This line, which has been in progress since 1895, has been built in the same manner as nearly all the railways on the American continent, that is, in a manner just sufficient to carry the anticipated traffic for a period of years, the improvements which are necessary to render the line permanent being left to be accomplished gradually out of surplus earnings. The company has been assisted by Dominion and provincial guarantees and land grants.

The only other railway of first importance in Canada is the Intercolonial Railway, which was built by the Dominion in order to connect the Maritime Provinces with Quebec and Ontario, and was from the beginning, therefore, rather a political than a commercial enterprise.

These great trunk lines having been completed, the railways of the future must necessarily be mainly branch and connecting lines. The provision of these may be gradual, and thus the borrowings of the country on rail-

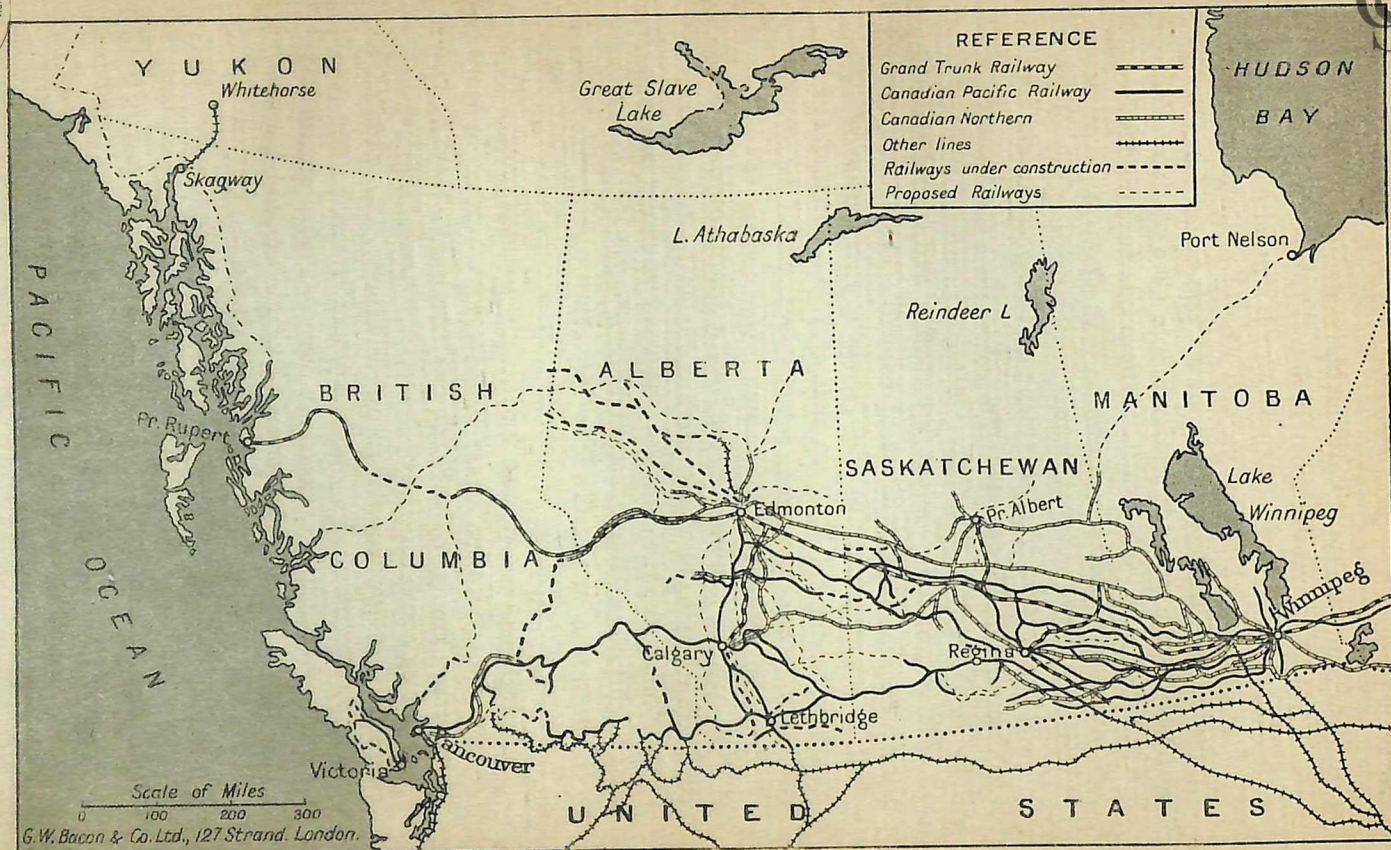


FIG. 12. Railways of Western Canada.



way account are not likely in the immediate future to be so great as they were from 1900 to 1913.

The public administration of railways is in the hands of a Ministry of Railways, and also of a Railway Commission.¹ The latter has powers somewhat similar to those of the Interstate Commerce Commission of the United States. The National Transcontinental Railway is under a separate commission. In Ontario there is a Railway and Municipal Board² which deals with railway questions within the province; and there is in addition a Commission for the management of the Ontario Government Railway in Northern Ontario.

Electric
railways.

There are independent interurban and radial electric railways in nearly all the provinces. These lines sometimes, though not invariably, occupy a portion of the public roads and link up many of the smaller towns. They have not been constructed upon any uniform system, and most of them belong to small local companies. These lines are, in general, served by hydraulic power, those within a radius of about one hundred miles from Niagara Falls being, for the most part, served by current conveyed at high potential and 'stepped down' at the place where the power is utilized. The important development of the future is likely to appear in the increase of radial lines from the lake towns, and in the improvement of the connexions between these lines and the urban railway systems. The principal technical problems may be regarded as consisting in the reconciliation of high speed and frequency of service on public thoroughfares already sufficiently crowded by ordinary traffic, and in the provision of suitable connexions between the urban and interurban lines. The principal administrative question is whether the urban railways should be owned and administered by the municipalities or by joint-stock companies. The magnitude of the capital expenditure, and the difficulties in which the technical services of

¹ See Annual Reports of the Railway Commission, Ottawa.

² See Annual Reports of the Ontario Railway and Municipal Board, Toronto.



municipalities are customarily involved, have hitherto limited any considerable development of municipal enterprise in this direction.

Labour, Commerce, &c.

The organization of labour is more effective in the eastern and western industrial regions than in the central region, where agriculture largely predominates; and it is more effective in the industrial portions of Nova Scotia and Ontario than in the similar portions of the province of Quebec. The development of the labour movement in Canada has followed the same direction as the movement in the United States.¹ Excepting during its earlier years the Canadian movement has been slenderly influenced by the movement in Great Britain. The growth of trade unionism in Canada has been slow and fluctuating, and its progress has been at once stimulated and hampered by its international character. In Ontario and in Nova Scotia the close proximity of the eastern industrial region of the United States, and the frequent migrations across the border in either direction, have rendered the international union necessary from the labour point of view. But the international union has occasioned the development of difficulties peculiar to itself. Questions about the collection and administration of union funds in two different countries have arisen constantly, and the non-payment of dues by the Canadian unions has occasionally led to their being cut off from the international unions. When strikes occurred in Canada, employers have been more than usually reluctant to meet the representatives of their men, when these representatives came from rival industrial centres in the United States. While the unions in the United States have stimulated the formation of branches in Canada, there can be little doubt that the international union

Organiza-
tion of
labour.

¹ *Report on Labour Organization in Canada, 1911*, Ottawa, 1912; *id.*, 1912, Ottawa, 1913, and *Report on Strikes and Lock-outs in Canada from 1901 to 1912*, Ottawa, 1913.

is to some extent responsible for the fact that there is no labour party, in the political sense, in Canada. This condition has also been contributed to by the circumstances that the wage-earners are scattered over an immense area in proportion to their total numbers, that relatively few of them are concentrated in any one place, and that the organizers of the two political parties have dealt shrewdly with the labour leaders. Labour questions have thus been confined to the purely economical plane, and have not been thrust into the sphere of party politics. In the Dominion and in the provinces alike both parties conciliate the labour vote, and probably divide it nearly equally between them. Individual labour members have occasionally been elected in the Dominion and in the provincial legislatures. The appointment of arbitration and conciliation boards has been facilitated by legislation, and in certain cases such boards have been advantageously employed in the settlement of minor disputes. In more important strikes, however, they cannot be said to have been effective, no means of compelling workmen to work on terms determined by a board, or of compelling employers to carry on their business on terms similarly determined, having yet been found.

The Bureau of Labour of Ontario was established by an Act of the Provincial Legislature on April 25, 1900.¹ A Department of Labour for the Dominion, which had been founded in 1900, was erected in 1909 into a separate Ministry of Labour, the minister having a seat in the Cabinet.² The Bureau of Labour of Ontario is merely a statistical office for the collection of data concerning trade unions. The Department of Labour of the Dominion exercises much wider functions. To this department is confided the working of the Industrial Disputes

¹ The Ontario Bureau of Labour issues annual reports which are published in the Dominion Sessional Papers.

² The organ of the Dominion Department of Labour is *The Labour Gazette*, which is published monthly at Ottawa. It contains reports of proceedings under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, and chronicles the movements of wages and prices.



Investigation Act, 1907. Under this Act arbitrators may be appointed in cases of industrial dispute.

The imports into Canada from the United Kingdom are chiefly the following: cotton and woollen manufactures, paper, paints, iron and steel manufactures, lead and zinc, machinery, leather, glass, drugs, carriages, and books. The imports from the United States are animals, books and periodicals, breadstuffs, bricks, carriages, coal, cordage, raw cotton, drugs, electrical apparatus, fish, fruits, furs, glass, grasses, rubber, leather, brass, copper, agricultural implements, iron and steel fittings and forgings, other iron and steel manufactures and machinery, mineral oils, paper, paints, provisions, seeds, sugar, vegetables, wood, and woollen manufactures. Import trade.

The chief exports of goods produced by Canada to the United Kingdom are cattle, breadstuffs, fish, fruits, furs, leather, metals, mineral oil, paper, provisions, timber, and wool. The chief exports to the United States are breadstuffs, animals, coal, fish, fruits, copper, iron and steel manufactures, paper, provisions, salt, seeds, and wood. Export trade.

SUMMARY

The economic history of Canada has, in a general sense, followed that of the United States. Although the settlement of Acadia and New France was nearly coincident with that of Virginia and New England, the latter was carried on with more vigour than the former. While the French colonies were adding territory to territory, the English colonies were consolidating their position and were building up compact settlements. The political status of the French and the English colonies was changed almost simultaneously, the former passing into the hands of Great Britain, and the latter acquiring independence. The rapid growth in population of the United States and the national ambitions drove that country into the industrial revolution, which in the early part of the nineteenth century affected western Europe profoundly. The land policy of the United States contributed with



other causes, notably the immigration of poverty-stricken Europeans, to the formation of a large proletarian class. The accumulation of capital, the foundation of which had been laid in the Colonial Period, provided the means for the exploitation of the proletarian mass, which continued to pour into the country. The results of this exploitation were the concentration of the mass, and the growth of the great cities. There were three reasons why Canada could not follow immediately the United States in this industrial expansion. There was in the early part of the nineteenth century no capitalist class in Canada. The French-Canadians had not been touched with the furore of industrialism, and the English were poor and without skill in industrial affairs. There was no proletarian class; the French *habitant* had his land, and the English settler could get land also on no onerous terms. The third reason was that so far as was known in the early part of the nineteenth century, in the absence of the means of communication, the mineral and other resources were at too great a distance from the settlements which had been formed, and there was no product like cotton which could be made the subject of manufacture.

The
National
Policy:
tariffs.

Canada had thus to wait until the gradual growth of the population and the gradual growth of capital and credit enabled her to provide the means of communication which were necessary to connect the interior with the sea-board. But, meanwhile, the United States had gone far. Her industrial production was even outrunning her domestic demand; she began to seek foreign markets. Canada lay at her doors, and the products of American factories might find even a readier sale there than in the west, where the distance over which goods had to be transported was much greater. The growth of the policy of protection which resulted partly from financial exigency, and partly from the inheritance of colonial days, reacted upon Canadian opinion, and the pressure of a period of depression re-enforced this opinion. The result of these influences was the adoption of what came



to be known as the National Policy. Although the protective tariff was imposed by a Conservative government, it was continued by a Liberal administration until the Conservative party came once more into power. Under it a number of new industries had come into existence; American manufacturers had crossed the line and established factories in Canada. Wages and prices had adjusted themselves to the higher level which a policy of protection involved. It would have been quite impossible without dislocation of industrial and commercial relations to have made any serious modification of the system of protection. The Liberal party even established a system of bounties in order to encourage the manufacture of iron and steel. Moreover, the duties originally imposed for purposes of protection became necessary for purposes of revenue. The division of taxable areas among the Dominion, provincial, and municipal governments practically forced the Dominion government into a policy of indirect taxation. The public lands, saving those in the North-West Territories, had been handed over to the provincial authorities, and there was no other large possible source of direct revenue. The Dominion might have imposed an income or a property tax, but public opinion would have been opposed to any such expedient. The expenditures of the Dominion in the provincial subsidies, in the subsidies to railways, in the construction of canals, harbours, &c., demanded some important and elastic source of revenue, which might be counted upon to expand with the prosperity of the country. These considerations, together with the fear that a modification of the tariff might produce industrial disturbance, sufficed to produce the defeat of the Liberal government on the proposal to adopt a policy of reciprocity with the United States. Some weight ought also, no doubt, to be attached to the fact that the rising spirit of nationality was hostile to any measure which might seem to make in the direction of political absorption.

The chief economic problems which Canada encountered at the beginning of the twentieth century were: Economic problems.



how to develop the lines of communication in such a way as to secure economic independence; how to induce immigration in sufficient numbers and of a suitable character in order to occupy her immense territory; and how to foster the credit of the country in such a way as to induce the flow towards it of the capital which was necessary for the exploitation of its resources.

Bibliographical note.

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CHAPTER VIII

POPULATION AND CULTURE

By W. L. GRIFFITH

Immigration and Settlement

Immigration :
adminis-
tration.

IMMIGRATION into the Dominion of Canada is under the control of the Minister of the Interior, who administers the Immigration Acts, and makes such regulations to control the movement as may be necessary from time to time. By statute, certain classes are prohibited from landing in the Dominion, among them being persons mentally or physically defective, diseased persons, criminals, beggars and vagrants. Exceptions may be made by the minister under some conditions, the object being to keep out those who would be a moral or physical danger or those likely to become a public charge. Persons



Russia, 5,000 from the Scandinavian countries, 5,000 from France, Belgium, and Holland, and 6,000 Chinese.

Political
and economic
considerations.

Immigrants from the United Kingdom are specially desired, not only for their inherent qualities but to balance the foreign element, and to help the Canadians to preserve the traditions and characteristics of the British race, and maintain that spirit of loyalty to the Empire which pervades the country in such a marked degree to-day. It is not thought that this will be weakened by the large immigration from the United States which has been taking place during recent years. A great proportion of these people are stated to be either Canadian born or of Canadian descent, and the others, of various nationalities, quickly identify themselves with the country of their adoption. The material from the United States is of the best possible character, composed as it is of experienced tillers of the soil coming from a region where agricultural and climatic conditions are similar to those in the North-West Provinces of the Dominion. Besides being men of fine character, physically strong, and of quick intelligence, the incoming American farmers bring a substantial amount of capital, the average being calculated at \$1,000 per head in either cash, stock, or effects. The adaptability of the American farmer would in any case make him a valuable acquisition to the country, but his capital and experience result in his at once becoming a most successful settler.

Immigration
of children.

Another very successful section of the immigration work is that connected with the children, orphans and waifs and strays sent out by philanthropic societies, and poor-law children emigrated by British boards of guardians, who act through the recognized societies. These must have receiving homes in Canada from which to distribute the children, and to serve as homes for them should the necessity arise for their return at any time before they reach the age at which the societies cease to be responsible. The government has a department specially engaged in the supervision of this work, and its reports testify to the satisfactory results which are



achieved. Applications are received for a far greater number of children than are available, many being from people wishing to adopt one. Great care is taken to choose good homes, which are afterwards visited periodically, and if the surroundings and treatment are not satisfactory the children are removed and placed elsewhere. Only a very small proportion has to be returned to England owing to ill health or misconduct, but of course the children have been chosen for suitability in the first instance. In the year 1911-12 the number of children emigrated from the United Kingdom under this system was 2,668, while the applications received in the same year for children amounted to 31,000, making it evident that a great expansion of this movement is possible if the authorities in Great Britain will send the children out.

The immigration most desired by the Canadian government is that from the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Austria, Holland, Belgium, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and the United States, and as active a propaganda as is allowed is maintained to bring the advantages of settlement in Canada before the peoples of the countries named; but apart from those persons who have more or less capital which will enable them to take advantage of the innumerable opportunities they can find to establish themselves, the only positive encouragement given by the Dominion government is to immigrants of the domestic servant class and to those who wish to follow an agricultural pursuit. To all such, if they are physically strong and otherwise suitable, the government guarantees employment. The rapidly extending cultivation of the country by the farmer is of course being followed by developments in other directions—villages are becoming towns, and towns are quickly growing into cities, with industries and distributing facilities of all kinds, but the Dominion government does not seek to promote the immigration of professional men or mechanics as such, nor of women incapable of taking or unwilling to take work as domestic helps. If these classes go out they

Government provisions for immigrants



do so entirely on their own responsibility. Female domestic servants are in great demand, the wages ranging from 25s. to £3 a month in eastern Canada, and from £2 to £4 a month in the west. Cooks are paid from £2 to £4 in private families, and higher rates in restaurants and hotels.

The government has immigration halls at many centres at which newly arrived immigrants may stay for a few days without charge for shelter and bed, but they must provide their own food. For women there are also special hostels, some of them subsidized by the government, at which board and lodging is provided at a nominal charge, some of them being free for the first day. In addition to the government agents, various church and national organizations do considerable work with a view to lending a helping hand to new arrivals, and special attention is paid to female immigrants by committees of the societies affiliated with the National Council of Women.

Settlers
on the
land.

Speaking broadly, it is better for every intending settler on the land to take employment with a farmer for a period to acquire a knowledge of Canadian methods and conditions. Most men who have had agricultural experience will find one season sufficient to make them acquainted with the differences which exist between English and Canadian methods. Inexperienced men may require a longer time, and before starting it is well they should realize that the life is one of hard and continuous work. Its exactions may not be quite as great in some directions as farm work at home owing to the more general use of machinery, but as a rule the hours are longer than those worked by an English farm hand. Any one with the necessary physical strength can be placed in a situation by the government agents, and the wages earned will be from £20 for the novice to £40 for the experienced man the first year, rising to £60 after Canadian training. These rates are in addition to board and lodging. Generally the hired man lives in the house with the farmer and fares in exactly the same way



whether it be well or ill—and the variations are considerable.

Having gained experience, the settler's next step is to start farming on his own account, and the amount of capital at command will probably decide the question whether to take up a government homestead, or to purchase wild land or an improved farm from a private owner or from a railway or land company. Particulars are given elsewhere of the terms on which government land is obtainable. Assuming choice is made of prairie land in the west, the cost of the homestead would be nothing beyond the registration fee of \$10. Probably the intending homesteader has some general idea of the district or part of the country where he would like to settle, and he presents himself at the land office there to consult the maps, which are corrected from day to day, for vacant quarter sections (160 acres), and make inquiries as to their character. These are given him from the surveyors' reports, and he may find some one, a guide or government official, who can speak of them from personal observations. Taking note of several vacant lots, he goes out to make his selection, and having decided on one he returns to pay his registration fee. To find a desirable homestead within easy distance of a well settled centre is not to be expected, and rather than take poor land it is better to go into a new district, keeping in mind the probability of a railway being built in that direction, this being specially important for the man whose object is wheat farming. As his produce has to be 'teamed' to the railway, along which the elevators are built, his proximity to his market has a great influence on his profits.

With a capital of £250 a man of experience can make a fair start, as that sum will enable him to erect a house, buy a team, machinery and some stock, and live until he has raised a crop. With industry 40 acres may be broken the first year, ready for sowing the following year, and with good fortune 800 to 1,000 bushels of wheat may be harvested, worth £100 or more at the elevator. In

The independent farmer.

Capital requirements.

addition, he would probably produce sufficient food of various kinds for stock to meet the needs of the homestead. Each year a larger acreage would be brought into cultivation, and soon after he has obtained the patent for his land he would be in possession of a farm which could be readily sold for £500. This cannot be done without great industry and self-denial, but it represents the early history of many successful farmers who now own large areas of land. Success has been reached by many who started with less than the capital named, but the struggle was necessarily keener and longer. On the other hand, men with more capital may buy wild land near railways and settlements, or purchase farms more or less in cultivation, thus ensuring ready access to markets and avoiding the isolation which is for a time the almost inevitable lot of the homesteader.

Those who settle on government lands outside the prairie districts, in Ontario and other provinces, must farm on different lines, as the ground is generally timbered and requires clearing. In such cases mixed farming is the course it is necessary to pursue, and the returns, while not so immediate, are less subject to the vagaries, of the weather and are ultimately as satisfactory.

Education and Religion

As each province has the control of its own educational system, it is necessary to examine the regulations of each to acquire a comprehensive knowledge of the whole, but the following particulars, while revealing important differences in methods, show that the democratic principle exists in all.

Ontario.

Ontario is justly proud of its educational system, of which the following are the principal features : a division of State and municipal authority ; clear lines separating the function of the university from that of the high schools, and the function of the high schools from that of the public or elementary schools ; a uniform course of study ; all high and public schools in the hands of professionally trained teachers ; the examination of teachers



under provincial instead of local control; a common matriculation examination for admission to the universities and to the learned professions; a uniform system of text-books; the system national instead of sectarian, but affording under constitutional guarantees and limitations protection to Roman Catholic and Protestant separate schools and denominational universities.

The province is for the most part divided into counties, which are subdivided into minor municipalities, consisting of townships and incorporated villages, towns, and cities. Through their municipal councils, counties are under obligation to make grants of money to high schools, and both counties and townships must contribute certain sums in aid of public schools, but much the greater part of the money required is raised locally. Each township is divided into school sections, and each of these sections is provided with a public school. There is a board of trustees for each school section, incorporated village, town, or city, elected by the ratepayers, men and women, who, within the regulations of the Education Department, appoint the teachers and determine the amounts to be expended for buildings, equipment, and salaries. The government, however, grants the certificates of teachers and inspectors, authorizes the text-books, fixes the courses of study, and prescribes the duties of trustees, inspectors, and teachers.

There is no Established Church nor any connexion between Church and State, and no religious body has any voice in the management of the high or the public schools or the university, but recognition of religion is shown in the regulations of the Education Department, which provide that every public and high school shall be opened with the Lord's Prayer and closed with the reading of the Scriptures and the Lord's Prayer or the prayer authorized by the Department of Education, but no pupil is compelled to take part. The clergy of any denomination have the right to give religious instruction to the pupils of their own church, in each school house, at least once a week after the closing hour in the afternoon. Teachers

who have conscientious objections to the religious exercises are relieved of that part of their duty.

Each board of trustees has power to establish kindergartens for children between the ages of four and seven years, and the system has been introduced into all the large cities and many of the principal towns, a small fee being generally charged.

Townships are divided by their municipal councils into sections, each of which has its own school (a few have two schools) managed by a board of three trustees, who hold office for three years, one going out of office annually. A grant of money is paid by the government to each school according to the average attendance of pupils, and the county council is obliged to make an equal appropriation. In addition, the township council must give a grant of \$100 (\$150 if two teachers are employed) to each school, and the ratepayers are taxed to raise whatever further sum the trustees require to maintain the schools, which are all free. It may be interesting to note that in rural schools agriculture is one of the compulsory subjects. Cities, towns, and incorporated villages also receive their share of the legislative grant for public schools, and the balance necessary is raised by the municipal council. The public school board consists of six or more members, two elected from each ward. As in the rural schools, the public schools are all free, and free text-books may be provided or a small fee be charged for their purchase. Night schools may also be established.

It is held that as the State gives the boon of free schools to all it has a right to see that the expected advantages are realized, and consequently it makes attendance between the ages of eight and fourteen years compulsory, certain exceptions being allowed.

From the primary school, a pupil may pass on examination to the high school, which is maintained by (1) government grants, (2) county grants, (3) district or municipal grants, and (4) fees of students. The question of free high schools is left to be determined by each locality, this



option having been found more satisfactory than making all high schools free by Act of Parliament or fixing a uniform fee for the province. About one-third of them are free and the fees in the others vary from \$2.50 to \$26 per year. High school examinations are held at the same time and on the same papers in every high school, and the student who passes may secure a certificate or certificates which will admit him as a matriculant to any university in the province; to the School of Practical Science; to a course of study in law, medicine, dentistry, or pharmacy; to a course of theology in any divinity school or some other institution for the professional training of teachers. To have a permanent licence to teach in a public school it is necessary to obtain at least a second-class certificate, which can only be secured by those who have attended the normal school, but the higher positions in the teaching profession are open only to the graduates of the School of Pedagogy.

The Roman Catholics of Ontario have certain educational privileges guaranteed to them by the Act of Confederation. All ratepayers, no matter what their religious belief, are liable to pay 'public' school rates unless they become 'separate school' supporters. The term 'separate schools' applies to Protestant and coloured persons as well as to Roman Catholics, but in practice the exception to the general public school system is confined chiefly to Roman Catholics who desire to establish separate schools in localities where their supporters are sufficiently numerous for the purpose. It is provided that any number of heads of family, not less than five, being residents of the place and Roman Catholic, may unite and establish a separate school. After the specified formalities they are exempt from the payment of rates towards the 'public' school. The separate schools are under government inspection, and are generally conducted in accordance with the same regulations as the public schools, the trustees being elected by the separate school supporters.

In order to secure a uniform standard of higher educa-

tion by the union of various denominational universities with the provincial university, the University Federation Act, 1887, was passed. It was contended that a high standard could best be maintained where there are uniform examinations for graduation as well as for matriculation, and among other things that members of churches need not be taxed to maintain half a dozen universities to do work already provided by the State. It was moreover felt that all the advantages claimed for denominational oversight might be retained in connexion with the plan of university federation. A college federated with the University of Toronto carries on the same work as University College, and undergraduates, who for one hour of the day receive instruction in Latin or moral philosophy in different colleges, will meet together for another hour to receive lectures from university professors in mathematics, civil polity, chemistry, or some other subject. In addition to colleges devoted to technical instruction, the following denominational colleges are federated or affiliated: Victoria University (Methodist), Knox College (Presbyterian), St. Michael's College (Roman Catholic), Wycliffe College (Episcopalian), and Huron College (Episcopalian). Of those which are not affiliated are Trinity College, Toronto, connected with the Episcopal Church; and Queen's College, Kingston, connected with the Presbyterian community. The McMaster University, Toronto, is supported by the Baptists, while the Roman Catholic University is the University of Ottawa.

Quebec. In Quebec a working arrangement has been devised which recognizes in large measure the rights of conscience, at least so far as two broadly distinguished types of religious belief are concerned, while maintaining effective government control, and securing to every school, whether sectarian or not, its national character, a problem which becomes really difficult when some disputable incidence of local taxation arises through difference of creed. In Ontario, the preponderance of Protestants, though smaller, is not less decisive than the preponderance of Roman Catholics in Quebec, and the solution of the difficulty of



securing the privileges of the vast majority to the dissident few, has been solved in each province in a different way.

The Council of Public Instruction is the body responsible for all important changes in the method of providing public education, and it has, within the limits set by statute and subject to the approval of the provincial government, full power to control the management of all schools. This council is divided into two committees, the one consisting of the Roman Catholic and the other of the Protestant members. The superintendent of education is *ex officio* chairman of the council and of each of these committees, but he is entitled to vote only in the committee to which he by religion belongs. The religious-division thus begins with the central authority, and is met with in almost every detail of the local administration. The public schools of the province are classified as Roman Catholic or as Protestant schools, and no public school exists which is not identified with one or other of these religious classes.

The Roman Catholic members of the council (i.e. the members of the Roman Catholic committee) are :

1. The bishops, ordinaires or administrators of the Roman Catholic dioceses and apostolic vicariates, *ex officio* members.
2. An equal number of Roman Catholic laymen appointed by the lieutenant-governor in council.

The Protestant committee consists of Protestants equal to the number of Roman Catholic members appointed by the governor in council, who are appointed in the same manner. The lieutenant-governor therefore appoints the whole of the Protestant committee and one-half of the Roman Catholic committee. All appointed members hold office during pleasure. For all practical purposes each of the two committees of the council has the same statutory powers in regard to matters specially concerning education of its own religious faith, as the council which the two committees together compose has in regard to all matters not specially concerning one or other of them.

There is one special provision in regard to the constitution of each committee—the members of the Protestant committee may associate with themselves five members to assist them in their labours with the same powers as the ordinary members, but they do not form part of the council ; and in regard to the Roman Catholic committee, each bishop, vicar apostolic or administrator of a diocese may appoint a delegate to represent him if he should be unable to be present at a meeting through illness or absence from the province.

The local authorities for public instruction are called school corporations, which means indifferently a corporation of school commissioners or school trustees, ' commissioners ' being responsible for the schools of the majority and ' trustees ' for the schools of the dissentient minority. The local areas are called ' School Municipalities '. The word ' municipality ' does not imply the existence of a city nor necessarily even of a town within its limits. It is, in fact, merely an area bearing to the smaller areas—' school districts ' (which may not exceed 5 miles in length or breadth)—a relation similar to that between an *arrondissement*, and the *communes* of which it consists, in France. The school municipality, then, consists of smaller units, the school districts, and the authority that deals locally with education in a direct manner is the school corporation of commissioners in the case of the ' majority ' schools, or the ' trustees ' in the case of the minority schools, who have been elected for any school municipality.

The following will indicate the difference between the functions of school commissioners and school trustees. If, in any municipality, the regulations and arrangements made by the school commissioners for the management of any school are not agreeable to any number whatever of the proprietors, occupants, tenants, or ratepayers, professing a religious faith different from that of the majority of the inhabitants of the municipality, they may signify their dissent in writing to the chairman of the commissioners, and on the date of the annual election



they elect three trustees. If, in any municipality, the ratepayers who belong to the religious denomination of the dissentients become the majority, they signify their intention of organizing themselves in consequence. On the date of the next election they elect five commissioners, either for all the ratepayers, if the former majority, which has become the minority, has not declared itself dissentient, or for the majority alone if the minority has declared itself dissentient. Dissentients are not liable for any taxes or school rates which may be imposed by the school commissioners, nor, on the other hand, are members of the majority liable for the taxes levied by trustees. Arrangements are made to ensure either the provision of schools by dissentients or the payment of the taxes levied by the school commissioners, the representatives of the majority, and also for the education of children of dissentients where there is no school of their own religious faith in a neighbouring municipality.

Individuals of the dissentient minority cannot be elected to serve as school commissioners or vote at their election, nor can individuals of the majority, where there is a dissentient minority, be elected to serve as school trustees or vote at their election. Every person elected is bound to accept office, under a penalty, but he may not be re-elected without his consent within four years after going out of office, which is held for three years.

The duties of school commissioners and trustees are, among other things, to appoint qualified teachers, to see that the course of study authorized by their respective committees is carried out, and to see that no books are used other than those specified by the council or the committees—though it is provided that the priest of the Roman Catholic Church of the municipality has the exclusive right of selecting all books for the use of the pupils of his communion that have reference to religion or morals, and similar rights are secured to the Protestant committee in respect of pupils of communions other than the Roman Catholic.

The school commissioners and school trustees also levy the taxes in their municipality which they deem necessary for the support of the schools under their control, and the sum arising from such taxes must not be less than the sum allowed to such municipality out of the common school fund of the province. Certain property is exempt from school taxation, such as Crown property, buildings used for public worship, charitable institutions, and hospitals. Over and above the taxes levied, the commissioners and trustees fix the amount to be paid in monthly fees for the eight school months for each child of school age, from 7 to 14 years, and such fees may not exceed 40 cents, nor fall below 5 cents, per month. Attendance is not compulsory.

The facilities for superior education are provided by universities, colleges, seminaries, academies, high and superior schools, model schools, and educational institutions other than the ordinary elementary schools, and the superintendent of education apportions the grants for education, the division being made between the aggregate of the Roman Catholic and Protestant institutions respectively in the relative proportion of the Roman Catholic and Protestant populations of the province according to the latest census figures available.

The Roman Catholic Laval University is situated at Quebec and Montreal: the Protestant University of McGill at Montreal; and there is also the University of Bishops College at Lennoxville.

Nova
Scotia.

The educational system in Nova Scotia provides free schools, the unit being the school section 4 miles in extent. In the rural district the governing body is composed of three trustees, elected by the ratepayers, and they levy the school tax. The funds for teachers' salaries are supplemented from two other sources—one is the county fund, which raises by statute a sum equal to 30 cents per head for each inhabitant, and the other is the provincial fund paid direct to the teachers, the amount to each depending upon the class of certificate held. In addition, the balance of the county fund is divided in



proportion to the attendance of the children, and the province makes grants to county academy or high schools, which admit free any student passing the entrance examination.

In towns the trustees are known as school commissioners, 3 being appointed by the municipal council and 2 by the provincial government. In the city of Halifax there are 12, of whom the city council appoints 6 and the provincial government the other 6.

In the regulations issued by the education department religion is not mentioned as even an optional subject, but it is imperative to give instruction in moral and patriotic duties and inculcate by precept and example respect for religion and Christian morality. Devotional exercises are allowed if no parent objects, and in that event an attempt at modification is made to remove the objection. If this fails the exercise may be held immediately before opening the school for secular work or after its close, no pupil being compelled to attend. The trustees are assumed to understand the local conditions of their section and have large powers for regulating such exercises. In a few towns 'separate schools' have been established by Roman Catholics, and have won recognition from the local educational authorities.

A law is in existence requiring school sections to vote annually 'Yea' or 'Nay' on the question of compulsory attendance until it is adopted, after which it remains permanently in force. In Halifax and a few of the towns compulsory attendance is the rule. From the common schools students can pass to the high schools, making a twelve years' course, free. Trustees may open evening schools, and separate schools for boys and girls, but co-education is the general plan.

In addition to the elementary and high schools, there are a normal school for the training of teachers, a mining school, school of art, school of cookery, schools for the study of agriculture and horticulture, and the University of Dalhousie at Halifax, the University of King's College, Windsor, and the Acadia University at Wolfville.



New
Brunswick.

In New Brunswick there are three ranks of schools under the state system—common, superior, and grammar or high school. The superior school is an advanced common school and both are free. The size of the school section is 4 miles, and the regulations in regard to trustees and finance are similar to those in Nova Scotia ; in towns, however, of the governing body, part nominated by the governor in council and part by the town council, two must be women. School attendance is not compulsory.

In regard to the question of religious teaching, the school law declares that all schools conducted under its provisions must be non-sectarian, and no dogmatic religious teaching is allowed. Practical Christianity, however, is encouraged, the teacher is directed to strive diligently to inculcate the principles and encourage the practice of Christian morality. In addition, the teacher has the privilege of opening and closing the school by reading a portion of the Scripture (from either the common or the Douay version) and repeating the Lord's Prayer. These religious exercises are purely voluntary and no pupil can be required to be present.

In towns most of the Roman Catholic children are grouped together in the same schools under teachers of their own faith, and this arrangement enables the children to be instructed in that faith either before or after school hours.

The University of New Brunswick is situated at Fredericton, and the University of Mount Allison College at Sackville.

Prince
Edward
Island.

In Prince Edward Island the elementary schools are free, and the system under which they are carried on is so similar to those of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia that a repetition of the details is unnecessary.

Manitoba.

In 1871 a measure was passed in the provincial legislature, establishing a system of strict denominational schools, but provincial statesmen were not satisfied with the result. They felt that separate schools for Catholic, Episcopalian, Presbyterian, and Mennonite, for English, French, Hungarian, and Finn, perpetuated the barrier



towards the creation of a homogeneous Canadian people by the diversity of language which fostered the separatist point of view on matters concerning the general welfare of the whole community. Considerations of economy and efficiency also had their weight. Finally, in 1890, a measure was introduced to the provincial legislature which applied the principle of undenominational education with strict logical consistency to all schools. This Act met with the most determined opposition from the Roman Catholics, and much litigation ensued and political animosity was aroused.

The Act remains in force, however, and under it free schools are provided wherever there are ten children of school age, but no school district may include more territory than 20 square miles. Children of non-resident parents or of parents whose property is exempt from school rates, may be called upon to pay fees not exceeding 50 cents per month. Attendance is not compulsory.

The schools are managed, as regards rural districts and towns and villages not divided into wards, by three trustees, and in all larger villages, towns, and cities which are so divided, by two trustees for each ward. The committees thus formed are called school boards, which may charge 20 cents per month for text-books to resident pupils, \$1 to those non-resident, and \$2 to those attending the collegiate department. They are financed by legislative grants, municipal grants, and local taxation as in the other provinces, and the authorities may also raise money by way of loan.

Intermediate schools are combined with ordinary public schools, and the collegiate schools are the secondary schools proper, entered after examination. These prepare pupils for the entrance examination of the University of Manitoba, to which certain denominational colleges are affiliated.

In the public schools religious instruction may be given in school hours, the regulations permitting the reading without note or comment of certain selected passages from the authorized English version or the Douay

Saskatch-
ewan.

version of the Bible, and the use of a prescribed form of prayer.

In the province of Saskatchewan, the educational council consists of five members appointed by the lieutenant-governor in council, two of whom must be Roman Catholics, and they serve for two years. In this province a public school district must not exceed five miles in length or breadth, and must contain at least four persons actually resident and liable to assessment, and twelve children between the ages of 5 and 16 years. In a rural district attendance is compulsory for children from 7 to 13 for at least 100 days, 60 of which must be continuous in rural districts, and for 150 days if resident in towns or villages. The schools are free, but if one or more departments are maintained for pupils above Grade VIII fees may be charged to such pupils, not exceeding \$9 for the first term, and \$6 for the second term. Text-books are also free.

The schools are managed by trustees in the usual way, but the assessment rate may not be more than 12 mills in the dollar. Where there are 10 children between the ages of 7 and 14 in a rural district, the school must be open 140 teaching days in the year, or if 12 children live within a mile and a half, 190 days. In towns and village districts the time is 210 days. The board of any district have power to provide for the cost of the conveyance of children to and from school. In addition to the local assessment, there are grants from the legislature which are graduated to encourage the prolonging of the number of teaching days in the year and the employment of teachers with superior certificates.

Schools may be opened by the Lord's Prayer, but religious instruction may be given only in the last half-hour in the afternoon under regulations of the board, and no child is compelled to attend this lesson. Separate schools may be established by the minority whether Protestant or Roman Catholic, and the ratepayers establishing them are only liable to assessments of such rates as they impose upon themselves in respect thereof.



In the case of land owned by a Protestant and occupied by a Roman Catholic, or vice versa, the land is assessed for separate school purposes, to the owner. The University of the province is at Saskatoon.

The system of the province of Alberta is so similar to Alberta. that of Saskatchewan that it need not be further described. The University of Alberta is situated at Edmonton, and the University of Calgary in the city of that name. Both provinces have normal schools for the training of teachers.

A system of free education exists in British Columbia, British with compulsory attendance between the ages of 7 and Columbia. 12 years. There are 'school districts' and 'rural districts', the former including the schools established within the municipal boundaries of Victoria, Vancouver, New Westminster, and Nanaimo. In each city district there are one high school, two or more graded schools, and one or more ward schools. In rural districts only graded and common schools. They are managed by trustees as in the other provinces, a novel feature being that the wife of an elector may vote as substitute for her husband. Chinese and Indians have no vote.

The cost of the public schools in the cities is met partly by the city council and partly by the provincial government, which makes a *per capita* grant based on the actual attendance of the pupils. At high schools fees may be charged. In the rural districts the local assessment is supplemented from government funds also. Crown lands are set apart in a large number of school districts as school reserves. All public schools must be conducted on strictly secular and non-sectarian principles. The highest morality is inculcated, but no religious dogma or creed may be taught, though the Lord's Prayer may be used in opening and closing the school. There is a normal school for the training of teachers at Vancouver.

In almost every province agriculture is one of the subjects prescribed for the more advanced classes, and its study can be continued in the colleges established for that purpose.

*Native Peoples*¹

Indian
Reserves.

The great majority of the Indians are now in reserves which have been secured to them by treaties. It became necessary that they should be induced to abandon their wandering habits, under which living was precarious, and that steps should be taken for their improvement, and they were persuaded to settle down on reserves where they could be educated, receive instruction in agriculture, and in other ways learn to become self-supporting. Certain sums were distributed by the government on the signing of each treaty, and an annual payment fixed of \$25 to each chief, \$15 to each of three subordinate chiefs, and \$5 to each member of the band, in addition to some cattle, seed grain, and certain agricultural implements. The treaties also stipulated that there is to be a school in each reserve, that no intoxicating liquor may be sold, and that the right be given to fish and hunt on unoccupied land in the district. These are the conditions under which the Indians now live, and while progress in the direction desired has not been rapid, taking all the circumstances into account, it is sufficiently good to be encouraging. But notwithstanding the sympathetic treatment accorded to them, and the efforts which are never relaxed to inculcate hygienic knowledge, their numbers are decreasing, being 104,956 in 1912, distributed as follows : Alberta 8,113, British Columbia 24,781, Manitoba 10,373, Nova Scotia 1,969, New Brunswick 1,903, Prince Edward Island 300, Ontario 26,393, Quebec 12,817, Saskatchewan 9,545, North-west Territories 5,262, Yukon 3,500.

Measles and whooping-cough are prevalent, with a much higher mortality than is caused by these diseases in the

¹ [See F. W. Hodge, *Handbook of American Indians North of Mexico*, Washington, 1907 seqq. ; F. Boas, *Kwakiutl of Vancouver Island*, New York, 1909 ; T. Crosby, *Among the An-ko-me-mums or Flathead Tribes of Indians*, Toronto, 1907 ; J. Teit, *Thompson Indians of British Columbia*, New York, 1900 ; and *The Lillooet Indians*, New York, 1906 ; C. H. Tout, *British North America : The Far West, the Home of the Salish and Déné*, London, 1907 ; also references on p. 172.]



white races; but in the reports of the medical officers in every province the one disease which dominates, with a few exceptions, is tuberculosis. Every effort is being made to combat the scourge, but no doubt it will continue to prevail until there is a wider acceptance by the Indians of the information given them on the measures necessary for its prevention.

Their religions are: Anglican 19,056, Presbyterian 1,893, Methodist 15,324, Roman Catholic 41,114, Baptist 1,318, Congregationalist 20, other Christian beliefs 923, pagan 9,048. Their education is provided for by three classes of schools, to the support of which the Dominion Government contributes, the amount thus paid in the year 1911-12 being \$745,000. The schools are conducted under the following auspices:

Udenominational, 47 day and 2 industrial schools.

Roman Catholic, 80 day, 30 boarding, and 9 industrial.

Church of England, 77 day, 13 boarding, and 4 industrial.

Methodist, 38 day, 4 boarding, and 4 industrial.

Presbyterian, 7 day and 8 boarding schools.

Salvation Army, 2 day schools.

Religion
and edu-
cation of
Indians.

There was in 1912 an enrolment of 7,399 in the day schools, 2,335 in the boarding schools, and 1,569 in the industrial schools, divided, as regards boys and girls, in almost exactly equal numbers. The day schools meet most of the necessary requirements, but the difficulty experienced is to secure the regular attendance of the children. The best means to this end has been found to be the conveyance of the children to the school and the provision of the midday meal, and these inducements are offered in many places. In the boarding schools the pupils are fed and clothed, and in addition to instruction in the ordinary branches of an English primary education, the boys receive instruction in gardening, the care of animals, primitive farming, and odd jobs. The industrial schools are also residential, but the technical education is more advanced and boys are trained in agriculture, carpentry, shoemaking, blacksmith's work, baking, &c. The industrial school graduates are generally helped by the Department of Indian Affairs, when they return to



the reservation, by the gift of oxen and implements to a certain amount, and the granting of a loan to be repaid within a given time, the obligation being met with commendable promptness in a large number of cases. The percentage of cases in which the assistance has been wasted is extremely low.

Farm instructors, appointed by the government, superintend the agricultural operations, and these efforts to induce the Indians to follow agricultural pursuits are meeting with a fair measure of success. In 1912 they had under cultivation over 60,000 acres, with crops valued at \$1,500,000. Their other principal occupations are hunting, trapping, and fishing, besides which some are engaged in various industries, and their earnings in 1912, including the amount mentioned for agriculture, reached the sum of \$5,500,000.

The majority of criminal cases against Indians are due to their having been supplied with intoxicants, but when their number is considered, as well as the environments of many of them, the number of cases of serious crime is small.

Ethno-
logical in-
vestiga-
tions:
Nootka
Indians.

As it had been felt by the Geological Survey Department of the Dominion Government that it was desirable to undertake a systematic investigation among the native tribes of Canada, for the purpose of gathering extensive and reliable information on their ethnology and linguistics, a beginning was made in the autumn of 1910 among the Nootka Indians of the west coast of Vancouver Island. The Nootka language was found to be one of considerable phonetic difficulty and complexity of structure. Inquiries were made into grammatical form, and mythological and ethnological texts were collected, these being considered valuable, not only as illustrating native speech in actual idiomatic use, but also from a strictly ethnological standpoint expressing the native point of view in matters of custom and belief. The most valuable of the texts are a long and detailed legend of the chief's family of the Ts'ishya'ath tribe, beginning with the creation of man and the Deluge and ending with the



recent genealogy of the present chief, and an equally long origin myth of the wolf ritual or Tlokwana, the most important religious ceremony of the Nootka Indians.

Among the topics that were investigated were the native geography of Barkley Sound and Alberni Canal, personal names, inheritance of family privileges, secret rituals for the attainment of power in hunting and fishing, the wolf ritual, the doctoring ritual, and potlatches, and a set of 67 songs was taken down on the phonograph. It is believed that a satisfactory beginning has been made of a scientific study of the Nootka Indians, but several years' work will be necessary before anything like a complete account of them can be presented.

Work was done in 1911 in the Iroquois and Algonkin Iroquois and Algonkin. reservations of Ontario and Quebec, special attention being directed to investigating the structure of the languages of the Mohawks and the Senecas. The great care taken in the matter of phonetic accuracy made it apparent that most, if not all, attempts at recording Iroquois had been notably lacking in that regard. Linguistic data on Delaware showed it to be a phonetically quite specialized Algonkin language, in pronunciation peculiarly lifeless and abounding not merely in voiceless final vowels, like several other Algonkin languages, but also in voiceless final syllables or groups of syllables. Linguistic material was also obtained from the Iroquois of Mohawk speech near Montreal, and at Rivière du Loup on Malecite, and at Lac St. Jean on both Montagnais and Cree. The investigator states his belief that Montagnais and Cree are dialects of one language, and asserts that this means that what is a single language, all the dialects of which are mutually intelligible, is spoken from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to west of the Yellowhead Pass in the Rocky Mountains.

In the same year (1911) ethnographic work on the Hurons. Hurons or Wyandots of Lorette (Quebec), and Amherstburg (Ontario), furnished excellent data on their social status, social dynamics, and technology. Information was collected relating to the phratries, the clans, and

a fraternity ; the hierarchy of the clans in the phratries, and of the individuals in the clans ; and, finally, the ancient villages. The existence of the phratries was revealed by a text recorded in Wyandot and by some survivals in connexion with the seed game. The text gives an explicit account of the origin, at a great council of prehistoric times, of the federation of all the clans but one into two mutually dependent phratries, respectively under the leadership of the Big Turtle and Deer clans. The eleven Huron clans, in order of precedence, are given as follows : the Moss Turtle (Big Turtle), the Speckled Turtle (or Small Turtle), the Prairie Turtle (or Terrapin), and the Beaver clans constituted the Big Turtle phratry ; while the Deer phratry consisted of the Deer, the Bear, the Porcupine, and the Hawk clans. These two phratries in the old tribal councils occupied the opposite sides of the council fire. The Wolf clan was a third unit, all by itself, standing at one end of the fire. Extensive accounts of the subsequent origin of the Snake and Snipe clans have brought an interesting contribution to the much disputed question as to how clans originate. The origin of the Snake clan—vividly described in a text, and in a series of songs recorded phonetically with translation as well as on the phonograph—is still clearly remembered by most of the old Oklahoma Wyandots. Briefly it runs as follows. At the end of her puberty seclusion a maiden was devoted to a mythical monster-snake by her relatives of the Deer clan, with a view to securing ‘ powers ’ and a new crest. Thereafter the relatives of the maiden, in collateral line, became the constituent members of the Snake clan, that has held annual feasts until about half a century ago to commemorate this event. The mode of origin of the Snipe clan among the Wyandots, the existence of which has probably not yet been recorded, is radically different, as about two centuries ago it was brought from outside into the Wyandot social system. A Seneca woman of the Snipe clan, having married a Wyandot, came to reside among the Wyandots. Owing to her not having



been adopted into a Wyandot clan, as was the custom, she retained her own clan and transmitted it to her descendants. The Snipe clan, thereafter assimilated to the other Wyandot clans, has subsequently counted many members, the individual names of whom, framed according to the traditional rules of the Hurons, have been recorded. Three out of these eleven clans—the Prairie Turtle, the Hawk, and the Beaver clans—have been extinct for some length of time, and only a few representatives of the Snake and Snipe clans are still to be found.

The number of traditional individual clan-names collected in the course of the present study may exceed seven hundred; approximately a sixth of these could not be translated, as their meaning has been forgotten. A small proportion of the names that could be translated have been found to refer to the mythology of the clans, while the greater number allude either to various attributes of the clan totems or to a characteristic trait of some deceased ancestor.

With regard to societies devoted to shamanistic and doctoring practices, the former existence of the White Lion fraternity has been demonstrated. The origin of the White Lion fraternity seems to have taken place two or three centuries ago, at the time when a number of Huron bands were dwelling in the vicinity of Lake Michigan. A text and a series of ritual songs, duly recorded, and other collateral information describe circumstantially how, in the course of fantastic events, many individuals belonging to three different clans evoked from an awful stream a monster-lion, to whom they surrendered a maiden with the definite purpose of getting his blood for magical operations. At the special command of the monster, annual or occasional feasts have been held until recent years, in the course of which songs and rituals were performed in conformity with the initial instructions.

The Hurons were governed by their tribal and clan councils, the jurisdiction of neither of which conflicted with the other, that of the tribal council being strictly Huron government.

confined to matters of general concern, and that of the clan to affairs of internal and local interest, as each clan had one or more villages of its own. The phratries, the function of which was essentially concerned with tribal government and marriage regulations, were the constituent elements of the tribal council ; the clan councils, on the other hand, were mere aggregates of individuals. A consequence of this was that while, in the tribal council, each clan had but one vote, in the clan council the same right was extended to every individual, with the exception of those not of mature age. The function of the clan totems was not only connected with various traditional events and associated customs, but also with the graphic and symbolic representation, in the form of a communal crest or emblem, of the people of the clan. It is interesting to note that very little evidence to the same effect obtains regarding the phratry totems, the Big Turtle and the Deer.

Matrilinear inheritance of clan rights has been the rule down to the present day in Wyandotte (Okla.) and Anderdon (Ont.), and very few exceptions may be found. The advanced decadence of the Lorette Hurons having caused this rule, however, to fall into almost complete oblivion, the rigid outlines of the clans have long faded away ; a result of which is that, while in Oklahoma very few violated the taboo prohibiting inter-clan marriage, no such taboo is known to the Lorette people. Many interesting customs and ceremonials have lingered almost to the present day in connexion with the ritual of conferring individual names on children or adults in conformity with the rules of matrilinear inheritance, and in connexion with the adoption of distant relatives or of strangers with a view to having them fill the vacant places of direct descendants and thus maintaining the integrity of the clans.

Micmacs.

Work among the Micmac Indians, who are scattered in groups throughout the maritime provinces, was also done in 1911, and a careful study was made of the remaining folk-lore and mythology of the tribe. The most notable



figure in their mythology and folk-lore is Glooscap (Kulóscap or Klúskâbe), a kind of culture-hero, who made man and became his friend, making, naming, and subduing the animals; he victoriously fought and destroyed giants and monsters, brought the summer to Canada, and finally, when the world became evil, went away to a happy island, sailing in his canoe and promising to come back some day.

Of Eskimos in Canada there are estimated to be 4,600, Eskimos and, in conjunction with the American Museum of Natural History of New York, researches have been made among those who live in the Arctic Region between Mackenzie River and Hudson Bay. Three reports of an ethnological character have been received, respectively entitled 'Ethnological Report on the Eskimos of Coronation Gulf Region'; 'Distribution and Seasonal Migrations of the Copper Eskimos'; and 'Prehistoric and Present Commerce among the Arctic Coast Eskimo'.

At the Victoria Memorial Museum at Ottawa a collection is being formed of ethnological material which is being obtained by purchase and otherwise, and a set of lantern slides illustrating Canadian ethnology is in preparation as the beginning of a stock for lecture purposes.

[General works on the Dominion include W. L. Griffith, *The Dominion of General Canada*, London, 1911; J. C. Hopkins, *Progress of Canada in the Nineteenth works of* Century, Toronto, 1902; and *Canada, an Encyclopaedia of the Country, reference* Toronto, 1898-1900; and reference may also be made to the handbooks prepared in connexion with visits of the British Association to Canada. An exhaustive bibliography for the period 1534-1906 will be found in N. E. Dionne, *Québec et la Nouvelle France*, Quebec, 1905-9, the fourth volume of which contains a list of maps, charts, &c., published in 1503-1908.]



CHAPTER IX

GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

BY W. L. GRIFFITH

Develop-
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represent-
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govern-
ment.

THE first attempt to establish representative and legislative institutions in Canada was made in 1767, when George III issued a proclamation by which the people were given the right to elect representatives to an assembly, but it largely failed in its object because it required all persons holding office or elected to an assembly to take oaths against transubstantiation and the supremacy of the Pope, and, as the great majority of the inhabitants were of French extraction and belonged to the Roman Catholic faith, they refused to take the oath. Consequently, though relatively insignificant in numbers, the English element continued to hold the reins of power by means of the executive council and public offices. In 1774 the Parliament of Great Britain gave the first constitution to Canada by passing the Quebec Act, which went in the direction of conciliating the French Canadians, as it placed the Roman Catholic population on the same footing as the Protestants, allowed their church as a corporate body to retain its property, and restored French civil law in respect of property and individual rights, but, with the full approval of the French, the criminal law of England was retained. This Act established a legislative council nominated by the Crown, the project of the assembly being indefinitely postponed. A further and long step in the extension of popular government was brought about by the immigration of the United Empire Loyalists who settled in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Ontario. The settlement of so large a number of English people multiplied difficulties which were constantly arising between the two races, and were increased by the fact that the two systems of law were



frequently clashing, necessitating once more the interference of the British government. On this occasion two separate provinces were formed in which the two races could work out their own future, as far as practicable apart from each other, thus strengthening the French-Canadian position as a distinct nationality and perpetuating their religion and institutions.

The Constitutional Act of 1791 extended the political liberties of the people in the two provinces of Upper Canada and Lower Canada—now Ontario and Quebec—organized under the Act, by giving them a complete legislature composed of a governor, a legislative council nominated by the Crown, and an assembly elected by the people on a restricted franchise. Various causes induced much political discontent during the following fifty years, becoming at one time so acute that in Lower Canada the constitution was at one period suspended for three years, 1838–40. The feeling which had arisen that the separation of the two races had been a political mistake then led to an effort towards a national amalgamation. The Act of 1840 reunited the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada under one government, but the French Canadians were displeased with the fact that in official documents and parliamentary proceedings the French language was no longer placed on the same footing as English, and they suffered under a sense of injustice that Upper Canada was given the same representation as Lower Canada in the assembly, notwithstanding the larger population of the latter at that time. The first-mentioned grievance was soon remedied by an amendment of the Act, and the clause providing for equality of representation proved a security when the Upper province increased more largely in population than the French-Canadian section. This Act gave the Canadian legislators full control of taxation, supply, and expenditure, in accordance with English constitutional principles, and these conditions existed until 1867. Up to this time the provinces of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island had not been given written constitutions

Constitution of 1791 and later Acts.



by the Parliament of Great Britain, but to all intents and purposes they had enjoyed as complete a system of self-government as Upper and Lower Canada, and had not suffered from the complications which had arisen there from the differences between two races of people, although each had troubles of its own of another kind. Their constitutions are to be found in the commissions of the lieutenant-governors, dispatches of the colonial secretaries, imperial statutes, and other official documents.

Union of
1867.

Some years before 1867 statesmen came to see that if real progress was to be made a union of all the provinces was necessary. As things were, each had its own government, its own laws, its own parliamentary system, and each in its way was developing along lines of policy dictated by purely local considerations; each, too, had a tariff designed to keep out its neighbours' produce. In these circumstances, a movement was set on foot advocating the union of all the provinces, and in the autumn of 1864 a representative meeting of men of all shades of political opinion was held to consider the carrying out of such a measure. Eventually a set of resolutions was agreed upon and then adopted by the various legislatures, embodying the conditions on which the provinces would agree to a federal union. Presented to the Crown in the shape of addresses, they resulted in the British North America Act, 1867, which framed the present constitution of the Dominion of Canada. British Columbia had occupied a detached position. In 1849 Vancouver was constituted a Crown colony, and in 1858 what was formerly called New Caledonia was created a second Crown colony under the name of British Columbia, and included all that is now known as British Columbia, excepting Vancouver Island. The latter had a legislative assembly, but it could not remove its executive officials, and of the legislative council which was organized in British Columbia in 1863, only three of its thirteen members were elected by the people, five being government officials and the other five magistrates appointed by the government. This brief sketch of the events preceding



confederation may make plain provisions in the Act which might be otherwise unintelligible.

By the British North America Act, 1867, it was declared that the provinces of Canada (Upper and Lower), Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick shall form and be one Dominion under the name of Canada : that it shall be divided into four provinces named Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada to be two separate provinces, Upper Canada constituting the province of Ontario and Lower Canada constituting the province of Quebec. A general census of the population was required to be taken in 1871 and in every tenth year thereafter. Under the heading of 'Executive Power' it is enacted that the executive government of and over Canada shall be vested in the reigning Sovereign (at that time Queen Victoria); that there shall be a governor-general to act on behalf of the Sovereign; that he may be authorized to appoint deputies; that, to aid and advise the government, there shall be a privy council for Canada, the members of which shall be chosen and summoned by the governor-general and may be removed by him. The command-in-chief of the naval and military forces is declared to be vested in the Sovereign, and, until otherwise directed, the seat of government is to be Ottawa.

Under the head of 'Legislative Power' the Act provides that there shall be one parliament, consisting of the Sovereign, an upper house styled the Senate, and the House of Commons: the privileges, immunities, and powers of the Senate and of the House of Commons are declared to be such as may be enacted by an Act of the parliament at any time, providing that they never exceed those which, at the passing of the British North America Act, were possessed by the House of Commons of the United Kingdom. It is also enacted that there must be a session of the parliament of Canada once at least in every year. The composition and regulations prescribed in the Act in regard to the Senate and the House of Commons are dealt with under the heading of 'Parliament'.

Constitu-
tion of
the Do-
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Parlia-
ment.

Under the head of 'Money Votes', it is enacted that Bills for appropriating any part of the public revenue shall originate in the House of Commons, and it must be for a purpose first recommended to the house by message of the governor-general in the session in which the Bill, vote, resolution, or address is proposed. Bills passed by both houses must be presented to the governor-general for the Sovereign's assent, and he may declare that he assents in the Sovereign's name, that he withholds the assent, or that the Bill is reserved for the signification of the Sovereign's pleasure. In the latter case the Bill does not come into force for two years unless the governor-general signifies in the meantime that it has received the assent of the Sovereign in Council.

Under the heading of 'Provincial Constitutions, Executive Power', provision is made for a lieutenant-governor for each province to be appointed by the governor-general, the appointment to run for five years, except for reason assigned, and the salaries to be fixed and provided by the parliament of Canada.

Distribu-
 tion of
 legislative
 powers :
 (a) Do-
 minion
 Govern-
 ment.

Dealing with the distribution of legislative powers, the Act declares that the parliament of Canada shall legislate in connexion with all matters not coming within the classes of subjects assigned exclusively to the provincial legislatures, but further declares that the exclusive legislative authority of the parliament of Canada extends to all matters coming within the following classes of subjects :

1. The public debt and property.
2. The regulation of trade and commerce.
3. The raising of money by any mode or system of taxation.
4. The borrowing of money on the public credit.
5. Postal service.
6. The census and statistics.
7. Militia, military, and naval service, and defence.
8. The fixing of, and providing for, the salaries and allowances of civil and other officers of the government of Canada.
9. Beacons, buoys, lighthouses, and Sable Island.
10. Navigation and shipping.
11. Quarantine, and the establishment and maintenance of marine hospitals.



12. Sea-coast and inland fisheries.
13. Ferries between a province and any British or foreign country, or between two provinces.
14. Currency and coinage.
15. Banking, and the incorporation of banks and paper money.
16. Savings banks.
17. Weights and measures.
18. Bills of exchange and promissory notes.
19. Interest.
20. Legal tender.
21. Bankruptcy and insolvency.
22. Patents of invention and discovery.
23. Copyrights.
24. Indians, and land reserved for the Indians.
25. Naturalization and aliens.
26. Marriage and divorce.
27. The criminal law, except the constitution of the courts of criminal jurisdiction, but including the procedure in criminal matters.
28. The establishment, maintenance, and management of penitentiaries.
29. Such classes of subjects as are expressly excepted in the enumeration of the classes of subject by this Act assigned exclusively to the legislatures of the provinces.

None of these is to be deemed as coming within the class of matters of a local or private nature comprised in the following enumeration of classes of subjects assigned exclusively to the legislatures of the provinces :

(b) Provincial governments.

1. The amendment from time to time, notwithstanding anything in this Act, of the constitution of the province, except as regards the office of the lieutenant-governor.
2. Direct taxation within the province for the raising of a revenue for provincial purposes.
3. The borrowing of money on the sole credit of the province.
4. The establishment and tenure of provincial offices, and the appointment of provincial officials.
5. The management and sale of the public lands belonging to the province, and of the timber and wood thereon.
6. The establishment, maintenance, and management of public and reformatory prisons in and for the province.
7. The establishment, maintenance, and management of hospitals, asylums, charities, and eleemosynary institutions in and for the province, other than marine hospitals.
8. Municipal institutions in the province.
9. Shop, saloon, tavern, auctioneer, and other licences, for



the raising of a revenue for provincial, local, or municipal purposes.

10. Local works and undertakings, other than such as are of the following classes :

(a) Lines of steam or other ships, railways, canals, telegraphs, and other works and undertakings, connecting the province with any other or others of the provinces, or extending beyond the limits of the province.

(b) Lines of steamships between the province and any British or foreign country.

(c) Such works as, although wholly situated within the province, are before or after their execution declared by the parliament of Canada to be for the general advantage of Canada or for the advantage of two or more of the provinces.

11. The incorporation of companies with provincial objects.

12. Solemnization of marriage in the province.

13. Property and civil rights in the province.

14. The administration of justice in the province, including the constitution, maintenance, and organization of provincial courts both of civil and criminal jurisdiction, and including procedure in civil matters in those courts.

15. The imposition of punishment by fine, penalty, or imprisonment, for enforcing any law of the province made in relation to any matter coming within any of the classes of subjects enumerated in this section.

16. Generally, all matters of a merely local or private nature in the province.

Educa-
tion,
legisla-
tion, &c.

Each provincial legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to education, subject to the following provisions : (1) That nothing in such law shall prejudicially affect any right or privilege with respect to denominational schools existing at the time of the union ; (2) all the powers, privileges, and duties at the union by law conferred and imposed in Upper Canada on the separate schools and school trustees of Roman Catholics are extended to the dissentient schools of both Protestants and Roman Catholics in Quebec ; (3) where in any province a system of separate or dissentient schools exists by law at the union or is thereafter established by the provincial legislature, an appeal shall lie to the governor-general in council from any act of any provincial authority affecting any right or privilege of the Protestant or Roman Catholic minority ; (4) if the provincial legis-



lature fails to carry out these provisions, the parliament of Canada may make remedial laws.

The parliament of Canada may make provision for the uniformity of laws relative to property and civil rights in Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, but such an Act does not have any effect in any province until it is adopted by the legislature.

Each province may make laws in regard to agriculture and to immigration, but the parliament of Canada may also make laws in regard to the same subjects, and the provincial law only has effect as long and as far as it is not repugnant to any Act of the parliament of Canada.

The chapter in the Act dealing with the judicature provides that the governor-general shall appoint the judges of the superior district and county courts in each province, except those in the courts of probate in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; that until the laws relative to property and civil rights and the procedure of the courts in Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick are made uniform, the judges of the courts in those provinces shall be selected from the respective bars of those provinces; that the judges of the courts of Quebec shall be selected from the bar of that province; that the judges of the superior courts may only be removed on address by the Houses of Parliament, and that the salaries, allowances, and pensions of the judges (except the courts of probate in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick) shall be fixed and provided by the parliament of Canada. Further, the parliament of Canada may establish a general court of appeal and any additional courts.

The Act transferred from the provincial legislatures all duties and revenues, except such as are reserved or are raised in accordance with special powers by the Act, to a consolidated revenue fund to be appropriated for the public service of Canada, and after making provision for expenses of collecting interest on provincial public debts, the salary of the governor-general (£10,000), and the transfer of stocks and other property, it is declared that the provinces shall retain the ownership of all lands,



mines, minerals, and royalties belonging to them at the time of the union. Several clauses deal with the adjustment of the various provincial debts, and are followed by one which provides for the following annual payments by Canada to the several provinces for the support of their governments and legislatures: Ontario \$80,000, Quebec \$70,000, Nova Scotia \$60,000, New Brunswick \$50,000. An annual grant in aid of each province is to be made equal to 80 cents per head of the population as ascertained by the census of 1861, and in the case of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick by each subsequent decennial census until the population of each of those two provinces amounts to 400,000, at which rate the annual grant thereafter is to remain. The grants are subject to the deduction of all sums chargeable as interest on the public debt of the provinces in excess of the several amounts stipulated in the Act. There was a further grant to New Brunswick for a period of ten years.

Provin-
cial
excise
laws, &c.

It was enacted that all articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any one of the provinces should, from and after the union, be admitted free into each of the other provinces, but provision was made for the continuance of provincial customs and excise laws until altered by the parliament of Canada. Duties and revenues possessed by the various provinces before the union, reserved to the respective governments or legislatures by the Act, or raised in accordance with the special powers conferred by the Act, were in each province to be formed into one consolidated revenue fund to be appropriated for the public service of the province, and no lands or property belonging to Canada or any province were to be liable to taxation.

General
provi-
sions.

The general clauses provide for the continuance of all courts, legal commissions, &c., existing at the union, until repealed, abolished, or altered by the parliament of Canada, and for the use of either the English or French language in the debates of the houses of the parliament of Canada and the houses of the legislature of Quebec, both languages to be used in the respective records and journals of those



houses, all Acts of parliament and of the legislature of Quebec to be printed and published in both languages, and either language to be used by any person or in any pleading or process from any court of Canada established under the Act in any of the courts of Quebec.

A joint declaration having been made by the provinces that the construction of the intercolonial railway was essential to the consolidation of the union, it was made an obligation on the parliament of Canada to connect the River St. Lawrence by rail to the city of Halifax, Nova Scotia.

Finally, provision was made to admit to the union, should they desire it, Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, and British Columbia, and also Rupert's Land and the North-West Territories.

The parliamentary powers in connexion with the establishment of provinces were more clearly defined in the British North America Act, 1871, and power was given to legislate for any territory not included in a province, and an Act of 1886 made provision for the representation in parliament of such territories. The Manitoba Act, 1870, provided for the formation and representation of that province; British Columbia was admitted to the union by Order in Council dated May 16, 1871; Prince Edward Island by Order in Council dated June 26, 1873; the Alberta Act, 1905, and the Saskatchewan Act, 1905, established those provinces and provided for their government.

From the foregoing will be seen the leading principles on which the Canadian system of government rests, namely, a federation with a central government exercising general powers over all the members of the union, and a number of local governments having the control and management of certain matters naturally and conveniently falling within their defined jurisdiction, while each government is administered in accordance with the British system of parliamentary institutions. These are the principles embodied in the resolutions of the Quebec Conference of 1864, which agreed that the system of

General
principles
of Cana-
dian
govern-
ment.

government best adapted under existing circumstances to protect the diversified interests of the several provinces and secure harmony and permanency in the working of the union would be a general government charged with matters of common interest to the whole country, and local governments for each of the provinces charged with the control of local matters in their respective sections, and desiring to follow the model of the British constitution so far as circumstances would permit, with the executive authority or government vested in the Sovereign of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. With this constitutional law, however, there were adopted the practices which can only be found in the usages and conventions that have originated in the general operation of the British constitution. Professor Dicey in one of his works showed clearly that constitutional law, as it is understood in England and in Canada, consists of two elements ; the one he calls the ' law of the constitution ' is a body of undoubted law ; the other he names the ' conventions of the constitution ' consisting of maxims or practices which, though they regulate the ordinary conduct of the Crown and of ministers and of others under the constitution, are not in strictness law at all. Thus if it is necessary to ascertain whether a certain power belongs to the Dominion or to a provincial government, reference is made to the written constitution, the British North America Act ; but if the question is the nature of the relations between the governor-general and his advisers, the conventions and usages of parliamentary or responsible government must be studied. There is therefore not only a written constitution, to be interpreted whenever necessary by the courts, but a mass of English precedents and authoritative maxims which form an unwritten law having as much force practically in the operation of the political system as any legal enactment on the statute book.

The British North America Act can only be amended in its material and vital provisions by the Imperial Parliament. The Act gives power to the Canadian legis-



lature itself to make amendments in certain domestic matters which do not affect the fundamental principles of the constitution, but those provisions which constitute the executive authority of the Dominion, regulate the terms of union, and define the limits of the jurisdiction of the several governments, cannot be altered except by the Imperial Parliament.

The power to make treaties with foreign countries has not been conferred upon the Dominion, as a dependency cannot of her own action enter into a treaty arrangement with a Sovereign nation, but in practice, when a question of Canadian policy is in consideration, the King in Council gives the necessary authority to Canadian representatives, any resulting treaty when passed by the Canadian parliament being submitted for approval to the Imperial Parliament. In Canada the governor-general has the right of veto, similarly to the power held in Great Britain by the Sovereign, but it is just as seldom used in one case as the other: the governor-general, however, has also the power to reserve bills for the consideration of the Imperial government, and they may be disallowed within two years if they are found to conflict with imperial interests and are beyond the legitimate powers of Canada as a dependency. The cases where a bill is disallowed are exceedingly rare, and, within the limits of its constitutional jurisdiction, the Dominion parliament enjoys an authority as ample as that possessed by the Imperial Parliament, practically wielding sovereign rights within the limit of her territory.

It has already been said that the British North America Act provided that the government should be carried on by a representative of the Sovereign, an upper house styled the Senate, and a House of Commons, and that there must be a session of the parliament once at least in every year.

Under the Act of 1867 the Senate consisted of 72 members—24 for Ontario, 24 for Quebec, 12 for New Brunswick, and 12 for Nova Scotia—the two last named being designated the Maritime Provinces: but power

was given to add 3 or 6 members representing equally Ontario, Quebec, and the Maritime Provinces. In case any such addition is made, the governor-general must not summon any new member, except by direction of the Sovereign, until each of the 3 divisions is again represented by no more than its normal number of 24. The inclusion of Prince Edward Island carried with it a representation of 4 senators, but the Act had previously provided that if Prince Edward Island join the union, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia should each lose two senators, so that the representation of the Maritime Provinces still remains at 24.

Increases in the number originally fixed were authorized by various Acts, and on British Columbia joining the union, 3 more were added ; and when the provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta were formed, there was a further addition of 4 in each case, making a total of 87. Parliament, however, had power to increase the representation of Alberta and Saskatchewan to 6 each after the completion of the census taken in 1911.

Senators are nominated by the Crown, which practically means by the government of the day ; they must each be of the full age of 30 years, natural-born or naturalized subjects resident in the province for which they are appointed, and must have real and personal property worth \$4,000 over and above all debts and liabilities. In the case of Quebec a senator must have his real property qualification in the electoral division for which he is appointed, or be resident therein. Senators hold their seats for life subject to the provisions of the Act, but they may resign. A senator's seat becomes vacant, however, if he is absent for two consecutive sessions, if he becomes a bankrupt or insolvent, if he is attainted of treason, or convicted of any infamous crime, or if he ceases to be qualified in respect of property or residence. Any question respecting the qualification of a senator must be heard and determined by the members of the Senate themselves.

Fifteen members, including the Speaker, who is ap-



pointed by the governor-general in council, form a quorum, and questions are decided by a majority, the Speaker in all cases having a vote; when the votes are equal the decision is deemed to be in the negative. As in the British House of Lords, the Senate possesses power to introduce bills other than money bills and measures imposing taxes or those involving the spending of public money received from the people.

The House of Commons originally consisted of 181 House of Commons members, but there are now 221, Ontario being represented by 86, Quebec by 65, Nova Scotia 18, New Brunswick 13, Manitoba 10, Saskatchewan 10, British Columbia 7, Alberta 7, Prince Edward Island 4, and the Yukon Territory by 1.

In providing for the increase or readjustment of representation, the British North America Act, 1867, made Quebec the basis on which the numbers should be fixed. The members from Quebec remain at 65, and the members assigned to each of the other provinces bear the same proportion to the number of its population as the number 65 bears to the number of the population of Quebec. In the computation a fractional part not exceeding one-half of the whole number requisite for entitling the province to a member is disregarded, and, on the other hand, a fractional part exceeding the half is looked upon as a whole number. The readjustment takes place after each decennial census, but a reduction is not arranged for in the Redistribution Act which is subsequently passed unless the proportion which the number of the population of the province bore to the number of the aggregate population of Canada at the previous readjustment is diminished by one-twentieth part or upwards, and no readjustment takes effect until the termination of the then existing parliament. The results of the census of 1911 indicated a considerable gain in representation from the provinces in the west, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia, at the expense of Ontario, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island.

Parliament has power to increase the number of members of the House of Commons, provided the proportionate representation of the provinces is not disturbed, the population per member in Quebec being the basis for the representation of the other provinces. Membership of the House of Commons is not dependent upon any property qualification, it being necessary only that he should be a British subject by birth or naturalization ; nor need he reside in the district for which he is elected, but a senator may not be elected, or sit or vote in the House of Commons. Insanity, bankruptcy, or conviction of a felony, carry with them expulsion from the house.

The Speaker is elected by the members of the House of Commons from among their own number, and he presides at all meetings of the house (provision being made for temporary absence). Contrary to the practice in the Senate, the Speaker of the House of Commons does not vote except when the other votes are equally divided. Twenty members, counting the Speaker, form a quorum.

Payment
of mem-
bers.

The Speakers of the Senate and of the House of Commons respectively each get a salary of \$4,000 per annum. Each member of the Senate and of the House of Commons receives an indemnity of \$2,500 for each session which extends beyond 30 days : for a session of fewer than 31 days the allowance is \$20 per day. A deduction of \$15 per day is made for every day beyond 15 on which the member does not attend a sitting of the house of which he is a member, allowance being made for illness or absence on military duty. Travelling expenses are also paid for one journey each way between the member's place of residence and Ottawa, and to the member occupying the recognized position of Leader of the Opposition in the House of Commons there is paid an additional sessional allowance of \$7,000.

Qualifica-
tions.

Except for the disqualifications which follow, any British subject may be a candidate for a seat in the House of Commons, no qualifications in real estate being required. The disqualifications are—conviction of cor-



rupt practices at an election, being directly or indirectly interested in a government contract, being a member of a provincial legislature, holding office as sheriff, registrar of deeds, clerk of the peace, county Crown attorney, or being an employee of the government, the latter classification not including ministers of the Crown. The election of any person declared ineligible is void, but in the case of any member of a provincial legislature receiving a majority of votes, notwithstanding his disqualification, the person having the next largest number of votes is declared elected.

When the governor-general appoints a body of advisers to assist him in the government he calls them to be members of the privy council and to hold certain offices of state, and to become heads of certain departments whose functions are regulated by statute. The departments are as follows: justice, finance, agriculture, secretary of state, external affairs, marine and fisheries, naval service, militia and defence, inland revenue, interior, post office, public works, trade and commerce, customs, labour, and railways and canals. There may also be some members of the government without portfolio. Privy councillors when not in the government retain their honorary rank, but it has no official responsibility or meaning and merely entitles them to certain precedence on state occasions.

Departments of Dominion government.

The minister of justice is by virtue of his office attorney-general and is entrusted with practically the same powers and charged with the same duties which belong to the office of attorney-general in England, so far as these are applicable to Canada. The minister of finance has the supervision and control of all matters connected with financial affairs and public accounts, and he is receiver-general, to whose credit all public moneys must be paid. The duties of the minister of agriculture relate to the administration of matters connected with agriculture, public health and quarantine, arts, patents, copyright, &c., but an intention has been expressed to transfer some of these to other departments. The duties of the secre-

Ministers.

tary of state include the keeping of the state correspondence and of the state records and papers, and the minister in charge of the department is registrar-general. In 1909 the Department of External Affairs was created by statute, to have the conduct of all official communications between the government of Canada and the government of any other country in connexion with the external affairs of the Dominion, and all matters relating to the foreign consular service in Canada. The minister of marine and fisheries has control, among other charges, of matters relating to pilots, the construction and maintenance of lighthouses, piers, wharves, steamboat inspection, the registering and measurement of shipping, hydrographic surveys, deck and load lines, and the regulation of sea-coast and inland fisheries. He is also minister of the naval service, a department recently formed, and as such has the management of all naval affairs, including the construction, purchase, &c., of naval establishments, and of ships and other vessels. The fisheries protection service is also under his control. The minister of militia and defence is charged with and is responsible for the administration of militia affairs, and of the fortifications, ordnance, arms, armouries, stores, &c., belonging to Canada. The department of customs is under a minister, but the commissioner of customs is appointed by the governor-general. The department has control and management of the collection of customs duties and of matters incident thereto. The department of the minister of inland revenue has the control and management of the collection of stamp duties, and the preparation and issue of stamps and stamp paper, except postage stamps, of internal taxes, standard weights and measures, and the collection of bridge and ferry tolls and rents. The minister of the interior has the management of affairs in connexion with Crown lands and all other public lands not specially under the control of other departments, immigration and Indian affairs. The postmaster-general may, subject to the acts in force, establish or close post offices, appoint or suspend postmasters, make mail con-



tracts and promulgate regulations in regard to postal matters and the money-order system, grant licences for the sale of stamps, &c. The minister of public works has the management, charge, and direction of dams, construction and repair of harbours, piers, and works for improving navigation ; of slides, dams, and other works used for the transmission of timber and the collection of fees incident thereto, roads and bridges, public buildings and telegraph lines ; the maintenance and repair of government buildings and all other property belonging to Canada, or for the acquisition, construction, or alteration of which any public money is voted or appropriated by parliament, except works for which money has been appropriated as a subsidy only. The duties and powers of the minister of trade and commerce extend to the execution of the laws and Orders in Council relating to such matters connected with trade and commerce generally as are not by law assigned to any other department ; also to the Cullers Act, the Inspection and Sale Act (with the exception of certain parts), the Manitoba Grain Act, and the census. The minister of labour is charged with the administration of the Conciliation and Labour Act and the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907, and with such other duties as may be assigned to him by the governor in council. The minister of railways and canals has charge of all matters in connexion with railways throughout the Dominion and all the canals are under his direction and superintendence.

As the cabinet depends for its existence upon the approval of the House of Commons, most of the ministers are drawn from it, the Senate never contributing more than four members. Every minister has the right to communicate with the governor-general on departmental matters, but on general matters the premier is the medium of communication. The cabinet, as in England, is bound by certain conventions, not to be found in the written constitution, but established by parliamentary usage. On the death or resignation of the premier, the cabinet is dissolved and ministers hold office only until a new

The
cabinet.



premier is called. In the case of an adverse vote in the Lower House, the premier either resigns or must convince the governor-general that a dissolution is necessary on the ground that the adverse vote does not represent the wishes of the people. Proclamations resuming or dissolving parliament, writs of election, &c., are signed by the governor-general and countersigned by the minister or other proper officer.

Provincial
legisla-
tures.

Of provincial legislatures there are nine, belonging respectively to Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia, and each has considerable powers of local government conferred by the British North America Act. Their work in each case is carried on by a lieutenant-governor, appointed by the governor-general in council, whose term of office is five years, though he can be removed for reason assigned. The lieutenant-governors are paid by the Dominion parliament. In addition to the lieutenant-governor, there is an advisory council composed of the ministers and responsible to the legislature, which consists of elected members. In the provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia respectively there are two houses, the Legislative Assembly and the Legislative Council. The position of the latter is similar to that of the Senate, the members being appointed by the lieutenant-governor in council (practically by the government of the day), and holding their positions for life unless they are convicted of crime, become bankrupt, or are otherwise disqualified by law. There are 24 members in the Quebec council and 20 in that of Nova Scotia. They can initiate or amend all classes of Bills except money Bills or those dealing with taxation, but these they can reject.

Dominion
payments
to pro-
vinces.

The British North America Act made provision, as has been stated, for annual payments by the Dominion to the provinces for their governments and legislatures. In the case of Ontario this was \$80,000, Quebec \$70,000, Nova Scotia \$60,000, New Brunswick \$50,000, and to each in addition an annual grant of 80 cents per head



of the population as ascertained at the census of 1861, and in the case of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick at each subsequent decennial census until the population reached 400,000 in each case, at which rate the grant was to remain. When other provinces were admitted or formed, similar provisions were made, and under them Manitoba receives \$30,000, British Columbia \$35,000, and Prince Edward Island \$30,000 per annum, and 80 cents per head of population up to 400,000. Alberta and Saskatchewan each receive \$50,000 per annum, and an annual grant of 80 cents per head on a population of 250,000 as a minimum up to 800,000 as a maximum. Various other payments have been provided for from time to time for considerations peculiar to each province, large sums being payable to Alberta and Saskatchewan as compensation for the Dominion taking over the land.

A sessional indemnity is paid by each province to its members. In Ontario the allowance is \$10 a day if the session does not extend beyond 30 days, and if that length of time is exceeded, each member gets such an amount as may be appropriated for the purpose. In Quebec for each session which extends beyond 30 days the allowance is \$1,500, in Manitoba the allowance is fixed at \$400 per session, in British Columbia at \$600, Alberta \$1,500, Saskatchewan \$1,500, Nova Scotia \$700, New Brunswick \$500, and Prince Edward Island \$200.

The powers vested in the provincial governments have been already enumerated, and all those powers not within the defined jurisdiction of the provincial governments are reserved in general terms to the central authority. It was the object of the framers of the constitution to leave to the old provinces as many of those powers and privileges that they exercised before the confederation as are necessary to the efficient working of a local government, and at the same time to give the central power effective control over all matters which afford unity and permanency to the whole federal organization, of which the provincial entities form political parts or divisions. The Dominion and local governments, however, also exercise

Payment
of pro-
vincial
members.

Dominion
and pro-
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govern-
ments :
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powers.



certain rights in common, among them being concurrent powers of legislation in regard to agriculture and immigration. The Dominion parliament may make laws on these subjects for the country as a whole, while each legislature may do so for the province over which it has jurisdiction, provided no provincial Act is repugnant to any Dominion Act. A study of the two sections of the British North America Act will show that there are certain other subjects which may fall partly within the province of both. For instance, the Dominion government under the general provision giving it jurisdiction over 'the regulation of trade and commerce' has legislated fully in the matter of insurance, and the provincial legislatures have acted under the very wide right to incorporate companies 'with provincial objects'. The question of jurisdiction was decided by the courts of Canada and affirmed by the privy council, and the principles laid down have served to prevent conflict of authority on other subjects. It was held that the local body may legislate in regard to insurance companies desiring to transact business within provincial limits. On the other hand, if the company wishes to carry on operations outside of the province it comes under the provisions of the federal law. The authority given to the Dominion parliament to legislate for the regulation of trade and commerce does not include the power to regulate by legislation the contracts of a particular business or trade in a single province. Therefore while power may be given to contract for insurance against loss or damage by fire, the form of the contract and the rights of the parties thereunder depend upon the laws of the province in which the business is done.

Criminal
law.

The criminal law affords another example of jurisdiction by both federal and provincial authorities. The Dominion parliament has exclusive jurisdiction over the criminal law, but the local legislatures necessarily have it within their power, as provided for in the Act, to impose punishment by fine or imprisonment, to enforce any law of the province within its legislative authority. Many



instances of conflict in regard to jurisdiction might be cited which have been carried to the courts of Canada and the privy council, but the principle of the settlement in each case has been that each legislative body should act within the legitimate sphere of its clearly defined powers, and the Dominion parliament should no more extend the limits of its jurisdiction, by the generality of the application of its law, than a local legislature should extend its jurisdiction by localizing the application of its statutes.

As on the one hand the federal parliament cannot extend its own jurisdiction by a territorial extension of its laws, and legislate on subjects constitutionally provincial, by enacting them for the whole Dominion ; so, on the other hand, a provincial legislature cannot extend its jurisdiction over matters constitutionally federal, by a territorial limitation of its laws, and legislate on matters left to the federal power, by enacting them for the province only, such as, for instance, the incorporation of a bank for the province.

In one most important respect the Dominion government exercises a direct control over the legislation of each province : it can disallow, within one year of its receipt, any Act of a provincial legislature which is at variance with the interests of the Dominion. This illustrates the fact that the Dominion government now holds the position towards the provincial governments that England held before the confederation.

The Yukon Territory is governed by a commissioner and a territorial council, the latter elected for three years.

The affairs of the North-West Territories are controlled from Ottawa through a commissioner.

There is not a uniform franchise for Dominion elections, common to the whole of the country ; the qualifications for a vote, except where otherwise provided, are those established by the laws of each province to govern elections for the provincial legislature. These laws differ in certain details. They all agree in confining the vote to British subjects, either born or naturalized, of the



male sex and of the age of 21 years, and each provides for certain disqualifications, such as holding the office of judge, being a lunatic or prisoner, or having been convicted of corrupt practices at elections.

Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, B.C. In Ontario a voter must have resided in Canada for the nine months preceding the day for preparing the list on which he is to be entered, and he must be a resident of and be domiciled in the district for which the list is being prepared. In Manitoba an elector must have resided in the province for one year, and three months in the electoral division. Indians or persons of Indian blood receiving an annuity or treaty money from the Crown, or who have received an annuity or treaty money within three years, are disqualified; and for persons not British subjects by birth, who have not resided in Canada for seven years, there is an educational test in English, German, Icelandic, or any Scandinavian language. In Saskatchewan and Alberta the time is twelve months in the province and three months in the district, and the disqualifications extend to Chinese and Indians in the former province and to Indians in the latter. In British Columbia, one must have been six months in Canada and one month in the particular district; there is an educational test, and Indians and Asiatics are excluded.

Quebec. In Quebec, it is provided that the following persons, and no others, being males, of the full age of 21 years at the time of the deposit of the list, subjects of His Majesty by birth or naturalization, and not otherwise legally disqualified, shall be entered on the list of electors:

1. Owners or occupants of immovable property valued at a sum of at least three hundred dollars in real value in any city municipality entitled to return one or more members to the legislative assembly, or two hundred dollars in real value or twenty dollars in annual value in any other municipality.

2. Tenants paying an annual rent for immovable property of at least thirty dollars in any city municipality entitled to return one or more members to the legislative assembly, or at least twenty dollars in any other municipality, provided that the real value of such immovable property be at least three hundred dollars in such city municipality or two hundred dollars in any other municipality.



3. Teachers engaged in an institution under the control of school commissioners or trustees.

4. Retired farmers or proprietors, commonly known as *rentiers* (annuitants), who, in virtue of a deed of gift, sale or otherwise, receive a rent in money or kind of a value of at least one hundred dollars, including lodging and other things appreciable in money.

5. Farmers' sons who have been working for at least one year on their father's farm, if such farm is of sufficient value, if divided between the father and sons as co-proprietors, to qualify them as electors under this chapter, or who have been working on their mother's farm for the same time. If there are more sons than one they shall all be entered in so far as the value of the property permits, the eldest being entered first. These provisions equally apply in cases in which the father or the mother have farms in several municipalities.

6. Proprietors' sons residing with their father or mother, subject to the conditions set forth in paragraph 5, *mutatis mutandis*.

7. Navigators and fishermen residing in the electoral district, and owners or occupants of real property, and owners of boats, nets, fishing gear and tackle, within any such electoral district, or of a share or shares in a registered ship, which together are of the actual value of at least \$150.

8. Farmers' sons shall exercise the above rights, even if the father or mother is only tenant or occupant of the farm.

9. Temporary absence from the farm or establishment of his father or mother, during six months of the year in all, or absence as a 'student', shall not deprive the son of the exercise of the electoral franchise.

10. Priests, rectors, vicaires, missionaries, and ministers of any religious denomination, domiciled for upwards of two months in the place for which the list is made.

11. Persons who are domiciled in the electoral district and who draw from their salary or wages, in money or in kind, or from business, employment, trade or profession, a revenue of at least \$300 per annum, or persons who work by the piece in factories and who derive at least \$300 per annum therefrom.

New Brunswick has manhood suffrage. Every male of the age of 21 years and a British subject who has been resident in the province for twelve months, is entitled to vote, if he is not in some way legally incapacitated. In Nova Scotia there are property, tenancy, and income qualifications. Prince Edward Island qualifies property owners and tax-payers.

Other
provinces.

Except in the remote districts, elections are all held Elections.

on the same day, the seventh after nomination day, and the method of voting is practically the same as that in England. The laws for the prevention of bribery and corruption are very strict and any infraction provides a case for the unseating of the member. If a candidate is proved to be personally guilty of bribery or corruption he may be disqualified from sitting in the House of Commons, or voting or holding any office for seven years.

Municipal
govern-
ment.

Each province legislates for the government of its own municipalities, and in every case general powers are taken for the election of mayors, aldermen, &c., and for the general conduct of affairs as in England, but in certain particulars they differ from each other and have a wider scope than in the United Kingdom.

British
Columbia.

In British Columbia, councils may provide for the payment of an indemnity to each alderman, reeve, or councillor. They may grant aid by way of bonus for the promotion of waterworks, electric or other lighting systems, or other industries established within the municipal limits, or grant exemption from taxation for a period not exceeding 10 years, and they have other powers in the direction of guaranteeing debentures of industries, giving aid to railways, &c. They can purchase or construct water or other works, and acquire tramways, or electric light plant ; raise municipal revenue by licence, taxes, or rates upon persons, upon real property, or upon improvements ; have power to grant aid for hospitals, agricultural societies, charitable institutions, &c. Churches, cemeteries, hospitals, orphanages, and property vested in or held by His Majesty are exempt from taxation.

Every male between the ages of 21 and 60 years of age, residing in any township of district municipality for at least 30 days, is liable to perform statute labour for 2 days in the year on the roads or highways in the municipality, which, however, may be commuted by a payment of not more than 2 dollars per day. The council has power to issue what are known as 'trade licences', and to make charges for the same ; these include licences for the sale of liquor ; on merchants,



retail traders, hawkers, theatres, &c. The licences cover a very wide area, as will be seen from the fact that one section of the Act reads as follows : ' From each astrologer, seer, fortune teller, or clairvoyant, not exceeding fifty dollars for every six months.'

In Saskatchewan, the municipal and school taxes are levied upon lands, businesses, income, and special franchises. The councils have power to pass by-laws for bonusing, exemption from taxation, subscribing for stock, or guaranteeing the payment of debentures issued in respect of any industrial, commercial, charitable, or engineering undertaking. They can also grant to any telephone syndicate, or company of gas or electric light, or power syndicate or company, or street railway syndicate or company, any special franchise whether exclusive or not ; but such by-laws must receive the assent of two-thirds of the burgesses voting thereon. Property held by the Crown, by the government of the province, every place of public worship, universities, the Y.M.C.A., hospitals, property belonging to the city and used for civic purposes, public libraries, and the income of every person up to the amount of \$1,000, are exempt from taxation. A sum of money may be included in the annual estimates to be expended in the reception and entertainment of distinguished guests.

In towns revenues are raised in the same manner as in cities. Property exempt from taxation is generally the same as in cities, with the addition of grain. In rural municipalities, among the exemptions from taxation and assessment are all lands held in trust for the use of any tribe of Indians. The council of a municipality may by by-law authorize a single tax of so much in the dollar, based upon the actual value of all lands (without improvements), to raise the sum required in the estimates, but this rate shall not exceed four cents in the dollar. Statute labour is to be performed on the public roads, bridges, drains, or ditches ; provision being made for commutation.

In Alberta the regulations are very similar to those of Saskatchewan.

Manitoba. In Manitoba, any city having at least 10,000 inhabitants shall pay to the mayor \$1,200 per annum, and to each alderman \$300 per annum. Rates are raised upon the assessed value of property within the municipality. By-laws may be passed exempting from taxation in whole or part any industry for any period not exceeding 20 years, but it is necessary that such by-law shall receive the assent of the electors. Councils have also power to exempt from taxation any charitable institution, buildings used for missionary purposes, or other charitable work in connexion with Indian missions. They can also pass by-laws governing the licensing of commercial travellers, eating-houses, public exhibitions, &c., and for licensing and regulating trading stamp concerns. Under the Assessment Act, all lands and personal property shall be liable to municipal taxation, with certain exceptions, including Crown lands, municipal lands, Indian lands, public schools, churches, ships, militia horses. In rural municipalities, provision is made for the payment of an indemnity to each member of the council, together with a travelling allowance. Statute labour is provided for, and is in proportion to assessment; commutation can be arranged.

Ontario. In Ontario, all municipal, local, or direct rates and taxes are, where no other expressed provision is made, levied equally upon the whole rateable property, real and personal, of the municipality. Various property is exempt from taxation, including Crown lands, Indian lands, public educational institutions, churches, city and town halls, the personal property and official income of the governor-general of Canada, the official income of the lieutenant-governor of the province, incomes of farmers, &c. Among other persons, no innkeeper or saloon-keeper is qualified to become a member of the council. In cities having a population of 100,000 or more, there shall be a board of control, consisting of the mayor and four aldermen. The members of this board may be paid, but the sum shall not exceed for each member \$1,000 per annum. Boards of control are also provided for in



cities of less than 100,000 but more than 45,000 inhabitants. The salaries in such cases shall not exceed for each member \$400 per annum. Councils may pass by-laws for making grants in aid to universities and colleges within Ontario, or to historical, literary, or scientific societies. Fair and market tolls, and licence fees, &c., are also provided for. A sum may be included in the annual estimates to be expended in the reception and entertainment of distinguished guests, and also an appropriation to be expended in diffusing information respecting the general advantages of a city.

In Quebec, it is provided that the mayors and aldermen shall not receive any salary or indemnity in any form whatsoever. Persons in Holy orders, the ministers of any religious denomination, officers of the army or navy on full pay, and keepers of taverns, hotels, or houses of public entertainment, cannot be mayors or aldermen, nor fill any other municipal office. On the polling day it is enacted that no person shall within the limits of a ward in which the poll is open, either send, lend, or deliver, or gratuitously supply, any quantity whatever of spirituous or fermented liquor. The council may make by-laws to regulate the conduct of apprentices, servants, &c., towards their masters, and the conduct of masters towards the former. The council may levy annually on every 'immovable' a tax not exceeding two per cent. of the real value, and on all land under cultivation an amount not exceeding three-quarters of one per cent. A tax is also leviable on stock in trade; on tenants, not exceeding eight cents in the dollar on the amount of their rent; a poll tax on male inhabitants who are not liable to any other taxes; taxes on all trades, manufactures, &c.; this latter tax, however, may be imposed in the form of a licence. Property held and occupied for public worship, presbyteries, parsonages, and cemeteries, buildings occupied and possessed by charitable establishments, lands belonging to His Majesty, or to the federal and provincial governments, or to the municipal corporations, are not subject to taxation.

In New Brunswick, one-sixth of the sum to be raised is levied by an equal rate as a poll tax on male persons being 21 years of age, and the residue of the sum is levied upon the whole rateable property, real and personal, and rateable income, in just and equal proportions. Various property is exempted from taxation, including cemeteries, but not churches. Any sum of money received by way of pension by a Chelsea or Greenwich Hospital pensioner is not taxable, and exemptions are made in the cases of deserted wives and widows. No person licensed to sell spirituous liquor is entitled to become a member of a council. Powers to issue licences and to charge fees therefor are also possessed by the councils.

Nova
Scotia.

In Nova Scotia, all real and personal property and income, with certain exemptions, is liable to taxation for all purposes for which municipal, town, local, or direct taxes and rates are levied. Among the exemptions are Crown property; churches, school lands, colleges, school houses, &c.; funds invested in provincial debentures; fish, being the property of the person fishing for and catching the same; and ships to the extent of one-half their value. A poll tax is also leviable.

Prince
Edward
Island.

In Prince Edward Island all real property is liable to assessment and taxation. Such property is rated at its full cash value. Taxes are also levied under the Public Roads Act. Public lands, schools, church property, and Indian reserves are exempt from taxation.

Finance

Revenue.

The current revenue of Canada is to a large extent obtained from customs taxation, the amount paid into the consolidated fund under that heading in the fiscal year ended March 31, 1911, being nearly seventy-three million dollars (\$72,965,394) out of a total of \$117,780,409. Excise duties form the next most important source of income, followed by railways, post office, and Dominion lands. There are some thirty other sources of income, but as they are mostly represented by fees for various services controlled by the Dominion government, they



do not call for remark. The cost of collecting customs duties amounted, in the period under review, to \$2,187,174, that expenditure covering such items as inspections, preventive service, board of customs, revenue cruisers, secret preventive service, laboratory, &c.

By the terms of the British North America Act the power to raise money by any system of taxation was stated to be within the legislative power of the Canadian parliament, and it is under the provisions of a Canadian Act that customs duties are levied. The tariff at present in force is that known as the Customs Tariff of 1907, which contains three schedules : (1) the list of articles subject to duty and those entering duty free, (2) the list of articles subject to drawback for home consumption, and (3) a list of prohibited-goods. The first schedule gives the rates of duty in separate columns headed respectively 'British Preferential Tariff', 'Intermediate Tariff', and 'General Tariff'. Those rates of duties, if any, set forth in the first column apply to goods the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom and most of the British dominions. The intermediate tariff is intended to apply to goods to which its benefits shall have been extended by arrangement as in the case of the treaty with France. By Order in Council the benefit of the intermediate tariff has since been extended in part to Belgium, the Netherlands, and Italy. The general tariff applies to all goods not entitled to admission under the intermediate tariff or under the British preferential tariff.

Customs
and excise
tariffs.

Excise duties are levied under the provisions of the Inland Revenue Act (Chapter 51, Revised Statutes of Canada, 1906). Of the total revenue under this heading spirits and tobacco are the principal contributors.

The Intercolonial Railway, with the Windsor branch, Railways. and the Prince Edward Island Railway, which are the only lines under Dominion government management, were for many years worked at a loss, but for the year ended March 31, 1911, there was a surplus of over \$250,000.

The income derived under the general heading of Dominion lands.

Dominion lands comprises sums represented by fees paid by persons entering for free homesteads on lands administered by the Dominion government, pre-emption and purchased homestead fees, timber, grazing, and coal land dues, mining fees, the export tax on gold, &c.

Defence and Police

Militia.

There was a militia force in existence at the date of confederation, the administration of which passed from the provincial to the federal government, and as it has always been the policy of the Imperial government to hand over to Canada the responsibility of maintaining her own military force and of defending her frontiers, the British garrisons were withdrawn about the year 1870 from all stations, except Halifax in Nova Scotia, and Esquimalt in British Columbia. In 1906 these were also handed over to Canadian control. The militia force of to-day, as established by law, consists of three portions: the permanent force, the active militia, and the reserve militia. Section 10 of the Reserve Militia Act of Canada runs as follows: 'All the male inhabitants of Canada of the age of eighteen years and upwards, and under sixty, not exempt or disqualified by law, and being British subjects, shall be liable to service in the militia; provided that the Governor-General may require all the male inhabitants of Canada capable of bearing arms to serve in the case of a "levée en masse".' A certain number of persons are exempt, amongst them members of the privy council, judges, members of the executive council, clergy, telegraph clerks, revenue clerks, police and fire brigade, professors in universities, &c., together with persons who, from the doctrines of their religion, are averse to bearing arms.

The strength and organization of the forces are dealt with in Chapter XVI.

The Royal Military College at Kingston, established about 35 years ago, for the training of officers, provides an excellent education, and many graduates from it have joined the Imperial army and the Canadian permanent military force.



A factor exercising an influence on the military education of the youth of Canada is the Strathcona Trust, founded by the late High Commissioner for Canada. Its object is twofold—(1) the improvement of the physical and intellectual capacities of the children while at school by a proper system of physical training, calculated to improve their physical development, and at the same time to inculcate habits of orderliness, alertness, and prompt obedience ; (2) the fostering of a spirit of patriotism in the boys, leading them to realize that the first duty of a free citizen is to be prepared to defend his country, to which end all boys should, as far as possible, be given an opportunity of acquiring some acquaintance while at school with military drill and rifle-shooting. Before a province can participate in the benefits of the trust, it must pledge itself to include in the regular curriculum of its schools instruction in physical training for the children of both sexes. The amount of the trust is \$300,000, the income from which is divided annually among the provinces which have expressed their adhesion to the terms of the trust. They are not pledged to form cadet corps, but are expected to encourage their formation. The militia department makes itself responsible for the instruction of the teachers, so far as is necessary to enable them to give the special instruction required.

The Act creating a department of the naval service Navy. was passed on May 4, 1910, and the government was empowered to appoint a naval board to advise the minister, and to organize and maintain permanent, reserve, and volunteer forces, to establish a naval college, and to place at the disposal of His Majesty for general service in the Royal Navy, ships or men of the Canadian Naval Service. It was arranged with the British Admiralty that Canada should take over the dockyards at Halifax and Esquimalt respectively, to form the bases of two naval stations, that on the Atlantic to include the waters north of 30° N. lat. and west of the meridian of 40° W., and the other on the Pacific to include the waters north of 30° N. lat. and east of the meridian of 180°.



H.M. cruisers *Niobe* and *Rainbow* were purchased, and the original intention was to build additional cruisers in Canada, but a change of government was followed by the declaration of a new policy, of which an account is given in Chapter XVI.

The Royal Naval College at Halifax is for cadets, and candidates for entry must be between the ages of 14 and 16 years, British subjects, and they or their parents must have resided in Canada for two years immediately preceding the entrance examination.

Royal
North-
West
Mounted
Police.

When making provision for the government of the territory taken over from the Hudson's Bay Company, and part of which now forms the provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta, statutory power was given to the governor in Council under an Act passed in 1873 to constitute a police force in and for what were called the North-West Territories, and the various detachments into which the force is now divided cover not only the provinces named but the territory to the north extending to the Arctic and also the Yukon Territory. When the provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta were formed, the question of the maintenance of the Royal North-West Mounted Police was settled by an agreement to leave the control of the force with the Dominion government, the provincial governments to pay a portion of the cost. For the most part their duties consist of patrol work, the detection and suppression of crime, and other duties ordinarily associated with a police force, but they also in various ways assist several of the government departments, particularly the departments of the interior, agriculture, Indian affairs, and customs. They also provide guards of honour for distinguished visitors, and have several times been required to accompany government expeditions to the far north.

The force is administered at Ottawa, under the supervision of the prime minister, by a comptroller, who ranks as a deputy minister. The commanding officer is styled the commissioner, and his head-quarters are at Regina in Saskatchewan. There are two assistant commissioners,

and the total strength is about 650. Candidates for enlistment as constables must be British subjects between the ages of 22 and 30, intelligent, active, able-bodied men of thoroughly sound constitution, sober and steady, and must produce certificates of exemplary character from reliable persons. They must be able to read and write either the English or French language, have some knowledge of the care and management of horses, and be able to ride. The term of engagement is five years, but the commanding officer has repeatedly recommended that it be reduced to three. A recruit of less than three months' service may claim his discharge on payment of \$50, but after that period it is only granted as a special privilege and on payment of \$3 per month of the unexpired term of service, with a minimum payment of \$50. Staff sergeants are paid \$2.50 or \$2.00 per day, other non-commissioned officers \$1.75, constables \$1.25, special constables and scouts \$2.50. Members of the force are supplied with free rations, free uniforms and necessaries on joining, and periodical issues during service. The minimum height of recruits is 5 feet 8 inches, the minimum chest measurement 35 inches, and the maximum weight 175 pounds. Non-commissioned officers and constables on discharge, after completing 20 years' service, or who have completed not less than 15 years' service and are incapacitated, are entitled to receive a pension. The standard of requirements is very high, and the medical examination of candidates strict. Unless intending recruits are convinced that they are thoroughly sound and fit for service it is unwise of them to incur the expense of proceeding to Regina, which is the only point at which enlistment takes place, and in any case it is well to make previous inquiry as to whether recruiting is proceeding.

[See Sir J. G. Bourinot, *Canada and the United States*, Philadelphia, 1898, Literature and How Canada is Governed, Toronto, 1909; A. E. Bradley, *Canada in the Twentieth Century*, London, 1906; H. E. Egerton and W. L. Grant, *Canadian Constitutional Development*, London, 1907; A. R. Hassard, *Canadian Constitutional History and Law*, Toronto, 1900; A. B. Keith, *Responsible Government in the Dominions*, Oxford, 1912; A. Siegfried, *The Race Question in Canada*, London, 1907.]



CHAPTER X

NEWFOUNDLAND

BY J. D. ROGERS

Physical Conditions

Position.

NEWFOUNDLAND is an island situated between Cape Breton Island and Labrador, and is 42,734 square miles in area, its maximum length and its maximum breadth being 317 and 316 miles respectively. Cabot Strait, between Cape Breton Island and its south-western extremity, is 60 miles wide; and Belle Isle Strait, between Labrador and its northern shores, is 70 miles long and 10 to 15 miles wide. It is the nearest American island to Europe, and Ireland is the nearest European island to America; the distance being 1,680 miles between St. John's and the coasts of Galway. Ireland is about three-fourths as large and twenty times as populous as Newfoundland.

Physical features.

Newfoundland is penetrated by innumerable deep fiords, the deepest and largest of which are near the south-east corner of the island. Beginning from Cape Freels, which is the northern point of Bonavista Bay on the east coast, and proceeding southward, six successive bays or fiords will be noted: Bonavista Bay (39 miles), Trinity Bay (50 miles), and Conception Bay (35 miles), on the east coast; and St. Mary Bay, Placentia Bay (60 miles), and Fortune Bay (65 miles), on the south coast; the numbers in brackets denoting the extreme lengths of the bays inland. There are small fiords or inlets within these big fiords; and the east coast between Cape St. Francis, which is the southern cape of Conception Bay, and Cape Race, which is the southern point of the island, is honeycombed with inlets, in one of which St. John's, the capital of the island, lies hidden from sight, and in



PLATE XIX. GRAND FALLS, NEWFOUNDLAND
(Anglo-Newfoundland Development Co.)

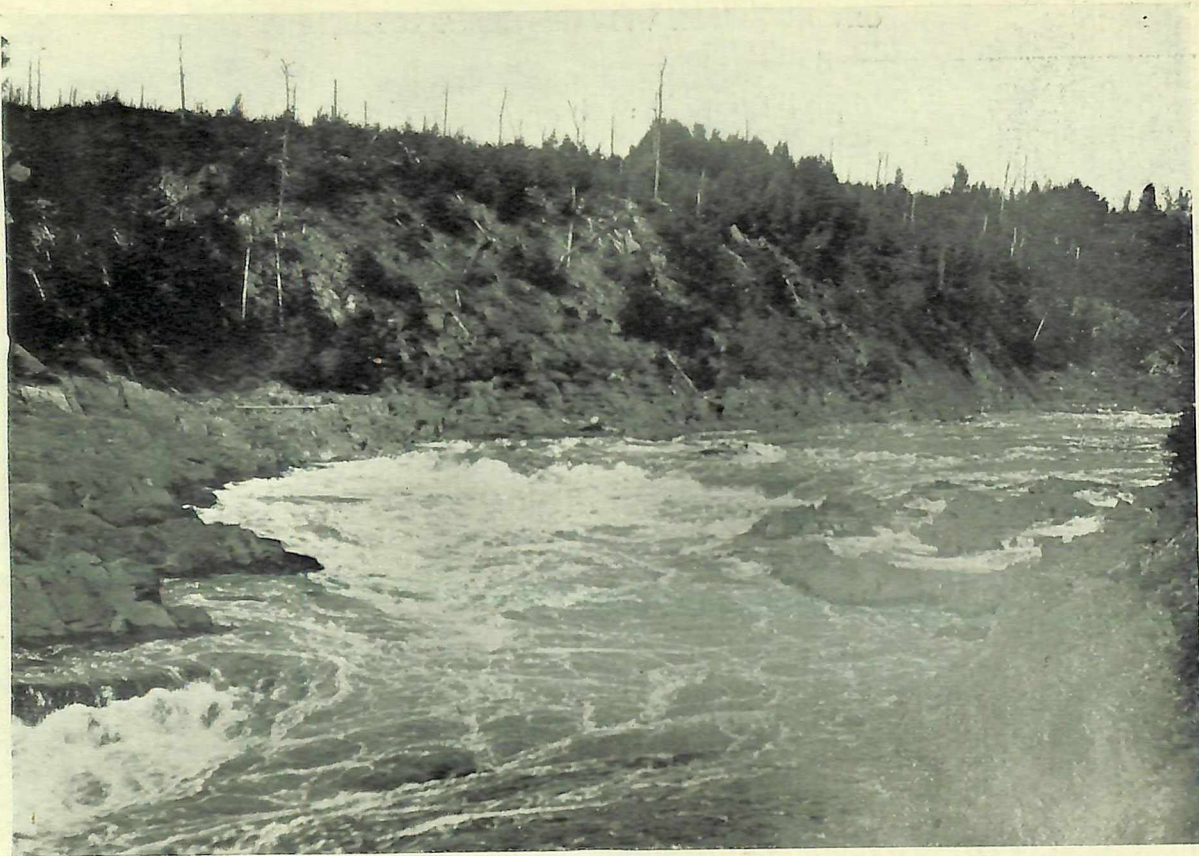


PLATE XX. GRAND FALLS, NEWFOUNDLAND
(Anglo-Newfoundland Development Co.)



another of which Ferryland is situated. Between Cape Race and St. Mary Bay, Trepassey Harbour is an important inlet or group of inlets, and in the middle of the east coast of Placentia Bay is Grand Placentia, now called Placentia, the old French capital of French Newfoundland, which is still more hidden from sight than the English capital. Conception Bay contains, in a small south-western nook or corner, Cupid's Cove, and on its western shores the towns of Harbor Grace and Carbonear; and Cupid's Cove, Harbor Grace, Ferryland, Trepassey, and Carbonear are almost as interesting historically as are Placentia and St. John's. In the depths of Trinity Bay lies Bull's Arm Creek, which leads to an isthmus 2 or 3 miles wide between Placentia Bay and Trinity Bay. Everything to the south or south-east of this isthmus is called Avalon Peninsula; an unfertile, rock-bound, bare plateau, some 200 or 300 feet above sea-level, with a few heights almost 1,200 feet high and with many little lakes, but without rivers or mountains or valleys of any importance. Its numerous creeks, ports, and harbours, however, are of the utmost importance.

In the folds of Bonavista Bay lies a creek called Freshwater Bay. If a straight line be drawn from this creek to Connaigre Bay, which is the westernmost inlet of Fortune Bay, all the country south and east of this line forms a peculiar geological region, intermediate between Archaean and Cambrian, and called by Mr. Van Hise Algonkian. The geological strata of this region are divided by Mr. James Howley into an upper and lower series, which he calls Avalon and Huron respectively, both being clearly Algonkian. It should be added that 'Huron', as he uses the term, comprises only a part of what is usually called Huronian by Canadian geologists. The topmost sandstone of Signal Hill, which is the hill from which ships arriving at St. John's are signalled to the town, is typical of the upper or Avalon formation, which lines almost all the coast from Freshwater Bay to Cape Race, and thence almost to Placentia Harbour, the rest of the country round Placentia and Fortune Bays being

Geological
divisions :
first
geological
area.

almost all composed of the lower or Huron formation. On the west of Trinity Bay the Avalon formation is sometimes capped by Cambrian; and Bell Island, in Conception Bay, with its singularly rich iron mines, is said to be Silurian. From an agricultural point of view this Algonkian district is ungrateful, but for some centuries the whole historical interest of Newfoundland was concentrated on its many-dented shores. It will be observed that this, the geological line of division from Freshwater Bay to Connaigre Bay, which will be termed the first geological line of division, runs, like all the six fiords, and like all the promontories between them, from north-east to south-west or *vice versa*; and Terra Nova River, the greater part of which is east of the geological line thus drawn, also runs in the same direction. Moreover, all the strikes of strata in Newfoundland, and its only mountain range, called Long Range, all its other rivers—Gander, Exploits (which is its greatest river), and Humber (which is its second greatest)—and all its most important lakes, such as Red Indian Lake, Grand Lake, and Deer Lake, conform to the same rule.

Long Range, which is Laurentian, or the most primitive form of Archaean, forms a geological as well as a geographical boundary, and everything west of it belongs to the Palaeozoic or so-called Primary geological formation, of which Cambrian is the lowest and Silurian is the next lowest stratum; so that the western edge of this range may be regarded as the second line of geological division. As the first geological area lies east of the first geological line, so the third geological area lies west of the second geological line of division, and the second area lies between the two lines.

Extent
of the
third
geological
area.

The following districts, rivers, and bays lie wholly within the third geological area, or the area which lies west of the Long Range: the Codroy Rivers, where grassy valleys decorated with yellow birch and balsam firs supply the best dairy produce, and some of the best agricultural produce in the island; the wooded slopes of Cape Anguille; St. George's Bay; the Bay of Islands, including Humber



Arm and Humber Mouth, where the Humber River debouches and the town of Birchy Cove is situated ; Bonne Bay ; Parson's Pond, where there is oil ; Ingornachoix Bay and St. Barbe. The settlements in St. George's Bay and Bay of Islands attain the dignity of towns and are capitals of the west ; Ingornachoix and the Bay of Islands are particularly interesting to Englishmen as the principal scenes of the first of the many masterly oceanic surveys made by Captain James Cook (1768). The Humber is the only river which pierces Long Range, and links what is east of it with what is west of it. Through this gap the railway runs, and the only Carboniferous formations east of Long Range lie in and around Humber River and the lakes into which it or its tributaries expand.

In the third geological area the formation of the southern section between Cape Anguille or the Little Codroy River and Bay St. George inclusive is Carboniferous, and it was in this district, on Great Barachois River (an arm of Robinson's Brook), that Jukes found coal (1839). From thence northward to Humber Arm, Bonne Bay, and Pond's River, a few miles south of Ingornachoix Bay, a Silurian strip, some 10 to 20 miles wide, lines the ocean ; and here asbestos has been found in Port-à-Port Bay, and oil at Parson's Pond. The Carboniferous strip (including coal measures) reappears east of this Silurian strip and east of Long Range, at and between Deer Lake, Birchy Pond, Sandy Lake, and a part of Grand Lake, and along those parts of the Humber which connect these lakes. Further north, Ingornachoix Bay is Cambrian, but the country to the north of Ingornachoix Bay is Silurian, except at St. Barbe, where there is a narrow strip of Cambrian, which corresponds to a similar but much longer strip of Cambrian sandstone between Bradore Bay and Chateau Bay on the coast of Labrador, on the opposite side of Belle Isle Strait. This and other correspondences between the two sides of the strait point to a time when the strait did not exist. The coal measures of the Carboniferous formations are similar

Physical conditions of the third geological area.



to those at Pictou in Nova Scotia and Inverness in Cape Breton Island, and of the same geological horizon as those in England. But the coal has not been worked to any extent. Coal measures are the most recent geological strata in the island. The third geological area is the most fertile in the island from an agricultural point of view, but it is very hilly, some of its hills being composed of intrusive granite, serpentine, or diorite of uncertain age.

The
second
geological
area.

The second geological area, with a few exceptions, is the most unfertile in the island. Long Range is of Archaean gneiss, mica-slate, acid volcanics, and the like, and runs along the whole length of the island at a height rarely exceeding 2,000 feet from 'the bold bare barren heights' of Cape Ray, which is the south-westernmost point of the island, to Canada Bay in the north-east of Petit Nord, as the thick chimney-shaped promontory between White Bay on the east, Parson's Pond (or thereabouts) on the west, and Cape Bauld, in the far north, used to be called. It reappears in Belle Isle and the rocky islets of Chateau Bay on the Labrador coast. It is a continuation of the Laurentian system which runs through Cape Breton Island from near Port Hastings to Cape North, and is flanked, as Long Range is flanked, on its western rim by Carboniferous outcrops. Except for a thin strip of Silurian on the west coast of White Bay, the west coast of Newfoundland, from Canada Bay to Fleur de Lys Harbour, is also Laurentian. From thence to Cape St. John, and from Cape St. John to the mouth of the Exploits river, are some hundreds of narrow creeks, in many of which—notably in Tilt Cove, Betts Cove, and Little Bay—copper is or has been worked. The formation in which the copper of Tilt Cove occurs was described by Alexander Murray in the following ascending order: (*abc*) slates with red jasper, (*d*) diorites with green slates, (*g*) dolomite, (*i-k*) diorite and serpentine, (*l*) steatitic slates with red jasper, (*ef, h*) copper carbonates, copper 'specks', and copper sulphurates amid black and green slates, jasper, diorite, or serpentine; and he relegates it to the Lauzon division of the Quebec series (Murray and Howley,



Geolog. Survey of Newfoundland, pp. 103, 125)—that is to say, to Lower Silurian—but it is possibly of an Upper Archaean or Algonkian Age. Serpentine and diorite formations run inland from the coasts of this copper-bearing belt, sometimes for 20 miles. The coast between Cape St. John and the mouth of the Exploits forms the western half of what is called Notre Dame Bay; the eastern half ends in Ragged Harbour, which is on the same meridian as the east point of Fogo Island. This eastern section is Silurian; and a broad Silurian strip, well wooded and well watered, runs thence almost to La Poile Bay, near the western extremity of the south coast. This strip includes the Exploits River and its lakes (Red Indian Lake and Victoria Lake). The dense woods which surround them have been felled since 1905 by the Anglo-Newfoundland Development Company and other timber, wood, and pulp companies for purposes of lumber, pulp, and paper-making. The lower half of the Gander River is similar in its industry and geology. Notre Dame Bay is not itself a fiord, but it is full of numerous creeks which are fiords in miniature, and of islands, chief among which in size and historical importance are Fogo and Twillingate.

Leaving Notre Dame Bay on our west, we arrive at Cape Freels, which derives its name from Friar Lewis (Frei Luis), the companion of the early Portuguese explorers, who discovered this coast in the early sixteenth century. Cape Freels is the northern point of Bonavista Bay, and the whole country between it and Ragged Harbour on its west, and between it and Freshwater Bay in the middle of Bonavista Bay to the south, is Laurentian. Bonavista Bay, like Notre Dame Bay, is distinguished by its many islands, of which Greenspond, where its capital town is situated, is of some historical importance.

It will be seen that the Exploits and the greater part of the Humber and Gander and the neighbourhood of Bay D'Espoir are Palaeozoic, and the copper zone is also non-Laurentian. With these exceptions the second geological area south of Petit Nord and east of Long

Range consists of barren bare uplands, hard and stony, with marshes of deep spongy caribou moss, beds of dwarf 'juniper' breast high, occasional tree-tufts, and countless lakes and tarns.

The rivers themselves are puny compared with Canadian rivers, and shallow even from a European standpoint, but furnished useful means of transit to North American Indians, and abundant salmon both to them and to Europeans.

Climate.

Although Cork, on the south coast of Ireland, is north of the northernmost part of Newfoundland, the climate of Ireland is far warmer than that of Newfoundland; the annual mean for St. John's (about 41° F.) being often only one or two degrees more than the January mean for Dublin. From the east of Greenland and the east of Baffin Land two arctic currents unite off Labrador and the united current passes south along the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland, bringing ice-floes in late winter and icebergs during the greater part of the year. The sea freezes every year, and Belle Isle Strait is choked with ice during winter and spring, though the thermometer on land rarely stands at less than zero Fahrenheit. The icebergs are from the glaciers of east Greenland, and consist, therefore, of congealed fresh water, which on melting dilutes and changes the colour of the salt sea.

Marine fauna.

The ice-floes of spring bear with them the bay seals, the harp or Greenland seals (*Phoca Groenlandica*), and the hooded seals (*Cystophora cristata*), which bring forth their young upon the ice in February; and the young, or rather their oil and skins, are marketable in March. The herrings of May, the caplin of June, the squid (or cuttlefish) of August, and the herrings of September invite the codfish to the eastern and southern shores of Newfoundland in vast numbers.

The Banks.

The Banks of Newfoundland—a series of submarine plateaus less than 100 fathoms deep and as large as Newfoundland, south and south-east of which they lie—are a favourite haunt of the cod. Here, in summer, the arctic current and Gulf Stream meet; and on the gravelly



and sandy surface of the plateaus myriads of invertebrates furnish food for cod or the fish and cephalopods on which the cod thrives. The Banks lie south of the latitude of the north end of Conception Bay; the westernmost bank, that of St. Pierre, is south of St. Pierre Island, which lies off Fortune Bay on the south coast; and the principal bank or Grand Bank is far out in the Atlantic. These banks resemble some shadow of the island of Newfoundland cast upon the ocean by the setting sun in summer.

The indigenous island fauna include great auk and walrus (both of which are extinct), beavers and otters (both of which are becoming rare), fox, lynx, marten, musk-rat, North American hare, wolf, black bear, white bear (on ice-floes only), willow-grouse, ptarmigan, razor-bill, puffin, and, above all, the caribou or American reindeer. The caribou spend winter in the south and summer in the north, and they bring forth their young in May, and migrate to and from the north in March and October respectively. There are no snakes, and were no frogs. Frogs, Norwegian reindeer, and all the domestic animals, including, it is supposed, dogs, have been imported. The salmon is the principal freshwater fish.

Land
fauna and
vegeta-
tion.

The flora include fir-trees, spruce, larch (which includes so-called juniper), and birch; and more rarely wych, mountain ash, alder, balsam poplar, and aspen. Fruits include crowberry (*Empetrum nigrum*), cranberry (*Vaccinium oxycoccus macrocarpon*), blueberry (*Vaccinium uliginosum*), cowberry (*Vaccinium Vitis-Idaea*), and partridgeberry (*Gaultheria procumbens*).

Population and Settlement

The population of Newfoundland consists, or has from time to time consisted, of Beothics, Micmacs, Eskimos, British, and French. The Eskimos, who were probably visitors from Labrador, have gone north; the Beothics, who were the original natives, are an extinct race; the Micmacs, who were probably visitors from the south,

Nation-
alities.



are about 200 in number, and occasionally some half-dozen Montagnais from Labrador mix with them ; few French remain as settlers, and among the British settlers, Englishmen from the south-west of England and Celtic Irishmen were conspicuous by their presence and Scotsmen were conspicuous by their absence during more than the first 250 years of the British occupation. Probably at the date of the conquest of Canada (1763) there were more Celtic Irishmen in Newfoundland than in the whole of America ; and there were no Scots, or scarcely any, in Newfoundland, although Scotsmen formed the backbone of the North American colonies, and almost monopolized the settlements of the Hudson's Bay Company.

Icelanders (1000-6) discovered and John Cabot (1497) rediscovered Newfoundland ; but the former discovery was forgotten and the rediscovery by Cabot led only to annual fishing excursions from western Europe. Cabot was in the service of Henry VII, King of England, when he made his discovery, and in 1583 Sir H. Gilbert, under a patent from Queen Elizabeth, proclaimed English sovereignty over the island at St. John's, but did not plant any settlement in the island. The fishermen of many nations continued to visit the island after as well as before the proclamation, and amongst these visiting fishermen Basques, Bretons, Devonshire men, and Portuguese were foremost. Probably the majority of the Basques were French, but there were many Spanish Basques also ; and the Bay of Islands once bore a Spanish name, and such names as Spaniards Bay, in Conception Bay, denote that Spaniards and Englishmen met there. Shortly after the French settled in the island they drove away the last of the Spanish fishermen. The Portuguese, who left their name to Portugal Cove in Conception Bay, disappeared from the fisheries at a still earlier date. All the annual European excursionists left Europe in spring and returned in autumn.

No settlers of any European nation arrived until John Guy of Bristol led out a colony of settlers from the south-west of England to Cupid's Cove in Conception Bay (1610) ;



and this colony afterwards founded a branch colony at Harbor Grace in the same bay. Before 1628 the branch colony became the trunk, and the settlement at Cupid's Cove eventually disappeared, although its name is mentioned in the records until nearly the close of the century. This branch colony was at first called Bristol's Hope, and probably assumed its new name—which was the usual English corruption of Havre de Grace (at the mouth of the Seine)—at the time that the French port began to play a part in James I's naval operations against France. A second independent colony under Vaughan and Whitbourne settled at Trepassey (1616). There were two other colonies projected by Lord Falkland, one near Reneuse, and the other between Bonavista Bay and Trinity Bay (1623); but Lord Falkland never came near the island; his northern colony never existed except on paper, and his southern colony had no effect of any consequence. In 1621 Lord Baltimore (aided by Captain Wynne) founded an important settlement, Ferryland, and about the same time St. John's appears as a colony that had nothing to do with its sister colonies. The colony of Ferryland or Avalon is of equal importance with the colonies of Cupid's Cove, Harbor Grace, and St. John's in the early history of Newfoundland.

Avalon is a Somersetshire name, which Lord Baltimore, who came from Somersetshire, bestowed on his colony; and this name was shortly afterwards used for what is now called the Peninsula of Avalon. This peninsula was now solely in British occupation, on that side of it which faced Europe. No one went inland. The colonists lived by fishing in boats near the shore and only used the shore for their houses and gardens, for ground and stages for drying and salting cod, and for occasional trapping, shooting, and boat-building in winter. In the whole peninsula there were no settlers except British settlers; and they occupied detached ports in Conception Bay and along the east coast further south, and claimed to occupy Trinity Bay. The foreign annual fishermen avoided bays

and coasts in which there were British settlers and transferred their industry elsewhere. The settlers did not drive away the annual British fishermen, who still made their ocean trips to and fro and competed with them ; but the fishermen in ships were at a disadvantage compared with the fishermen in boats, and gradually adopted the method of fishing with boats only, the ship-owners' boats being usually kept or hired in the island. The travellers from afar were favoured by the home government, which relied on the maxims that long voyages make good sailors, and that good sailors make a country great ; accordingly these travellers were allowed first choice of drying grounds, and in order not to interfere with their drying grounds the settlers were forbidden by charter, Orders in Council, and otherwise, during the whole of the seventeenth century, to build houses near the shore—a prohibition which was universally ignored—and although there was usually some one, like Sir D. Kirke (1637–51), who claimed to be governor of the whole colony or group of colonies, there was never any governor whom any of the travellers or all of the settlers looked up to as governor until 1675. The travellers claimed to be autonomous under a so-called admiral of their fleet, and the colonial governors vainly disputed their claim. The travellers also claimed fishing easements on the shore and the right to regulate the fishing easements of the settlers ; but the settlers asserted with success a prior right to the parts of the shore where they actually settled, although for the first two centuries they never ventured to assert rights of property in land. Therefore, travellers and settlers perpetually quarrelled ; and the English part of the island was anarchical until captains of English royal or state ships were sent out to convoy the fishing fleet to and fro, and to act as commissioners of inquiry, or for establishing law and order.

The first commissioners of this kind were laymen as well as officers of the navy who were sent out under the Commonwealth (1651 et seq.) to preserve the colony from supposed Royalists. But the system of sending



out naval captains as commissioners only became habitual in and after 1675 in consequence of the French occupation of Placentia. The earliest of these commissioners were required to report whether it was politic that the colony should continue its existence, and unanimously reported in the affirmative. They also prepared the first statistical accounts of the colony, and after 1675 officers of the Royal Navy were sent out annually to convoy the fishing fleets from England, if necessary, and to continue these inquiries and statistical accounts. While they were in the colony they also acted as governors ; but it was long before they assumed that title. The word 'governor' came into use during the wars with France, sometimes as the title of the naval officer (1699 et seq.), sometimes in order to denote the military officer in command of the garrisons during winter when the naval officer and his ships were always absent from the colony. The first garrison arrived in 1697, and with it the first minister of religion of any denomination who had ever set foot in the British colony since 1629. After the war was over the garrison was withdrawn, but a prominent citizen was frequently elected or nominated without legal sanction to maintain order during winter.

In 1728 the title and office of governor was permanently conferred by Order in Council on the officer commanding the king's ships on the station at Newfoundland, and although this appointment was made annually it became the practice to appoint the same officer for three or four successive years, and although no governor was ever present in the colony during winter until 1817, each governor was authorized by his commission to provide for the maintenance of law during his absence. The laborious evolution of law-courts, constables, naval officers, and custom-houses took place between 1728 and 1813 ; at which last-mentioned date the so-called admirals of the fishing fleet which plied between England and Newfoundland were finally deprived by Act of Parliament of the judicial functions which they had claimed to exercise from time immemorial.

This process of turning an ungoverned into a governed colony was effected by naval officers and to a less extent by military officers ; and the presence of these officers between 1675 and 1713 was due to the existence of a French colony in the neighbourhood of the British colony in Newfoundland.

French
coloniza-
tion.

In 1662 French soldiers and settlers occupied Placentia on the east coast of Placentia Bay, which was almost unknown to the English travellers or colonists. Long ago French fishing ships used to frequent the south coasts of the island and to assemble in Placentia Bay year by year (e. g. 1594) ; and Breton fishing ships discovered Belle Isle Strait before Cartier passed through it on his first voyage of discovery in St. Lawrence Gulf (1534). Ever since 1608 French colonizing efforts were concentrated on Quebec and Montreal ; and it was only in 1660 that French statesmen decided to found a half-way house between France and Quebec close to the old French fishing grounds in Placentia Bay. The French colony was military from the first, and contained a garrison, a commandant, who was also governor, and various officials and priests ; otherwise it resembled the British colony in its fishing settlers, and in the competition between the latter and the itinerant French fishermen. Like the British settlers, the French settlers hugged the shore. The French government tried to keep their settlers in or near Placentia, but the settlers possessed detached settlements at Hermitage Bay (which is just outside Fortune Bay, being one or two miles beyond Connaigre Bay) at the time of the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), and on various points on the intervening coasts. In 1698, owing to attacks by French on English settlers, to which reference must be made later, the English settlers reached the north coast of Bonavista Bay. Consequently what has been called the first geological area, that from Freshwater Bay in the west of Bonavista Bay to Connaigre Bay in the west of Fortune Bay, was lined by settlers, after a century of colonial effort on the part of two great colonizing nations ; and at both ends of the line there was an overflow of settlers



into one or two adjoining bays just outside this area. The limits are significant from an oceanic as well as from a geological point of view. If one line were drawn eastwards out to sea from Freshwater Bay, and a second line were drawn south-eastward out to sea from Connaigre Bay, and the two lines were joined in the Atlantic some 300 miles from their starting points, they would enclose the Newfoundland Banks.

The French fishing colonists, like the British fishing colonists, included servants as well as permanent settlers. Servants were men who came for two summers and one winter to help in fishing; and British servants came almost exclusively from the south-west of England, or from the south of Ireland; and it was from these servants that the ranks of the British settlers were mainly recruited. The colony of Newfoundland down to the late nineteenth century was almost exclusively Anglo-Irish. Every naval captain in his annual tour compiled statistics of population and of the fisheries, all of which were admittedly imperfect, and many of which are partly copies of the statistics compiled in previous years. Still, they are of considerable value, and show that the British settlers and servants were more numerous than the French settlers and servants; but it must be remembered that there was also a French garrison before a British garrison existed, and that the presence of servants during winter was largely a matter of national habit. The British settlers were about 600 in number and lived in some 40 ports; in all of which (and in some adjacent ports) more than half the colony have always lived. All the 200 odd French settlers also lived then in the same ports on both sides of Placentia and Fortune Bay, where settlers live now, but in far fewer of those ports.¹

¹ Statistics of population in Anglo-French period (1662-1713) are as follows:—

British settlers	. . .	523 (1677); 817 (1706)
French „	. . .	166 (1687); 225 (1710)
British 'servants'	. . .	1342 (1677); 1565 (1708)
French „	. . .	474 (1687); 354 (1710)

The British settlers lived (1675-81) on the coast in:—

1. Trinity Bay; at Bonavista, Trinity, Bonaventure, Little Harbor, 1321-4

Indians.

The French and English settlers differed in their relations with natives. The only native American Indians of Newfoundland were Beothics, a kind of Indian as unlike any other North American Indian as Algonkin is unlike Iroquois. They did not frequent the Peninsula of Avalon and were only seen once or twice in the early seventeenth century as far south as Trinity Bay, after which they were scared back to their home by Red Indian Lake, which is an expansion of the Upper Exploits River. They used to paddle down the Exploits River, and visit the islands of Notre Dame Bay for eggs every year, but caribou and freshwater fish were their staple food. They had no dogs. When in the eighteenth century British salmon fishers reached as far north as the Exploits (c. 1762), hostilities began, which ended in the total disappearance of the Beothics between 1822 and 1827, except for one woman who died in a St. John's hospital in 1829. It has been suggested that some wild Indians who appeared at the Bay of Seven Islands in Labrador (1831) were the last of the Beothics (Bonnycastle, *Newfoundland*, ii. 251), but this is mere guess-work. No one knows whither they went or whence they came, and the British colonists made nothing whatever of their aboriginal neighbours. Doubtless British settlers mismanaged the native question; but it must not be assumed that the British colonists caused, although they undoubtedly contributed to, this mysterious disappearance.

The Micmacs were the chief offenders. The French on their first appearance in the island as settlers were attended by Micmac hunters and trappers (1662). The Micmacs were Algonkins from Cape Breton Island who came over Cabot Strait in their frail canoes to hunt the

'Barrow', Ragged Harbor, Witless Bay, Heart's Content, New Perlican, Scilly Cove, Hants Harbor, Salvage Point, Old Perlican.

2. Conception Bay; Bay Verde, Carbonear, Harbor Grace, Mosquito Cove, Bryan's Cove, Robert's Bay, Port de Grave, Cupid's Cove, Brigus, 'Briskett' Bay, Harbor Maine, and Portugal Cove.

3. On the south-east coast at Torbay, Quidi Vidi, St. John's, Petty Harbor, Bay Bulls, Toad's Cove, 'Ballina', Briquis, Caplin Bay, Ferryland, Aquafort, Fermeuse, Reneuse, and Trepassey.



caribou on the barren lands north of Bay D'Espoir and Cape Ray, and it is possible, although there is no reason to suppose, that they preceded the French. In 1680 or thereabouts—if Cormack's date is correct—the Micmacs advancing from the south, probably from Bay D'Espoir, attacked the Beothics with French weapons on 'Shannoc brook', a tributary of the Exploits to the west of Great Rattling Brook, and almost exterminated them. After this battle Micmacs were never seen within, and Beothics were never seen outside, the valley of the Exploits and its tributaries. Neither French nor English tamed the Beothics, but French friendship for the Micmacs and other Algonkins of Labrador and elsewhere had important effects upon the history of the British as well as the French colonists.

When the European war broke out between France and England (1689 to 1713) Frenchmen guided by Indians marched inland from Placentia, by ways deemed impossible by British settlers, and raided the British settlement some three or more times. It was felt that two hostile powers could not live so near one another in so primitive an island, and accordingly in 1713, by the Treaty of Utrecht, all the French settlements in or off Newfoundland were transferred to Great Britain, and the French settlers, or most of them, went to Louisbourg in Cape Breton Island. The islets of St. Pierre and Miquelon at the foot of Fortune Bay were assigned to Great Britain by the Treaty, but were re-transferred to France at the close of the Seven Years' War by the Treaty of Paris (1763), when they became once more a colony for settlers of the old type and the rallying point for French fishermen. These islets are still French and are the only colonies which France retains in North America. Meanwhile British settlers gradually drifted into what had been the French settlements of Placentia and Fortune bays.

After all or most of the French settlers left Newfoundland (1713) Micmac hunters did not cease to visit southern Newfoundland, and 300 Micmacs arrived in Bay D'Espoir



in 1765. In Cormack's time there was a Micmac settlement in Bay D'Espoir (1822), and a few hundred Micmacs still live on Conne River, Bay D'Espoir. It is uncertain whether or not the origin of this Micmac settlement was the movement of 1765 mentioned above.

Colonial
expansion.

Every British settlement that was made in Newfoundland since the first six colonies were founded, represented or resembled an overflow from some adjoining or adjacent bay ; and no body of settlers went far from their fellows until after the Treaty of Paris, when a few British settlers began to occupy St. George's Bay, some 150 miles from their neighbours (before 1783), and one or two of these detached settlers went to live at Humber Arm (1780 ?) and Bonne Bay (1809 ?). In all these settlements Micmacs took part, selling game and fish and sometimes marrying their daughters to the white settlers, so that the unwonted character of these settlements may have been partly due to Micmac influence. These three settlements on the west coast became the nucleus of the present settlements on the Treaty coast, or that coast upon which fishing rights were guaranteed to the French by the Treaty of Utrecht.

While establishing British sovereignty over the entire island, the Treaty of Utrecht reserved to French visitors fishing rights between Cape Bonavista at the northernmost point of Trinity Bay on the east coast, and Point Rich north of Ingornachoix Bay on the west coast. These rights included a right to land on the coast and dry fish ; but did not exclude others from the exercise of similar rights. The Treaty of Versailles, at the conclusion of the War of Independence (1783), substituted Cape St. John for Cape Bonavista, and Cape Ray for Point Rich ; and the Declaration of Versailles (1783) added an undertaking that the British king would remove British settlers from the Treaty shore, and would prevent British fishermen from interfering with French fishermen. This declaration was embodied in an Act of Parliament (1788), without which it would have been unenforceable, infringing as it did the first principles of British freedom. If

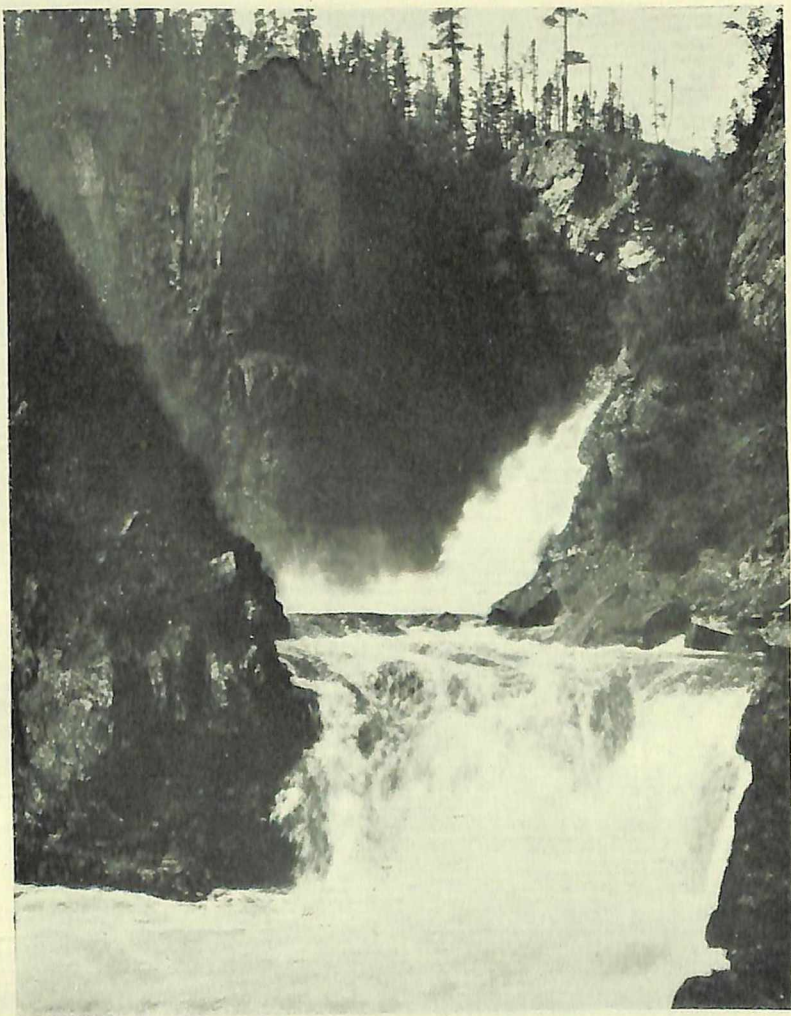


PLATE XXI. STAR RIVER FALLS, NEWFOUNDLAND
(Anglo-Newfoundland Development Co.)

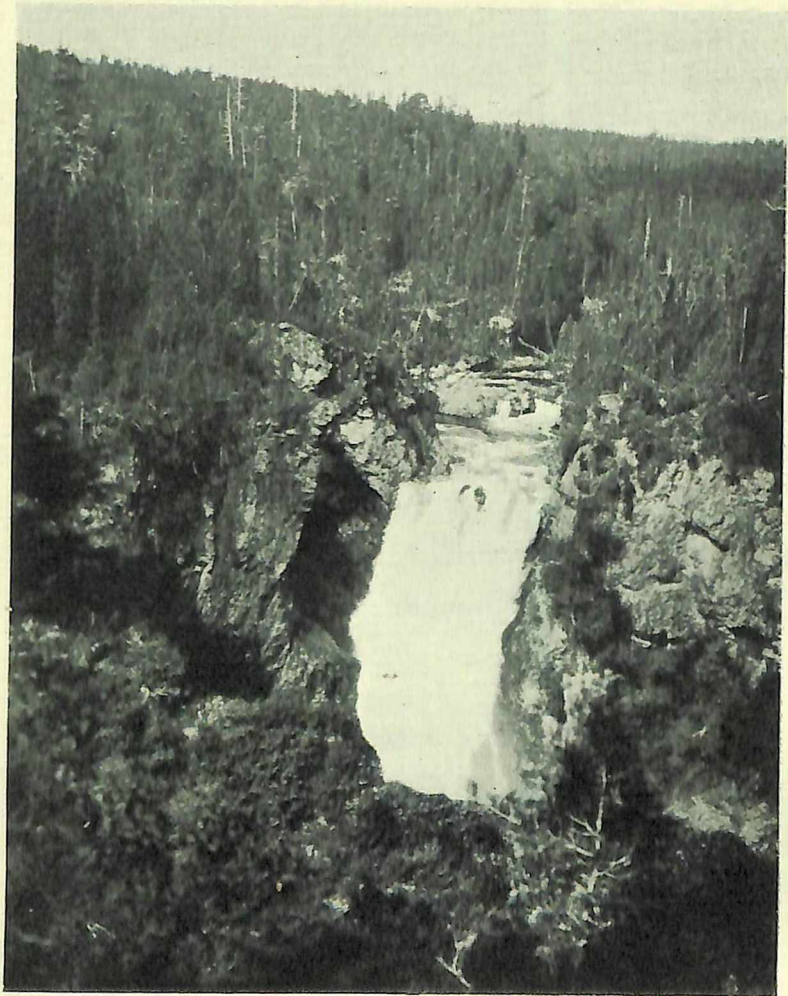


PLATE XXII. STAR RIVER FALLS, NEWFOUNDLAND
(Anglo-Newfoundland Development Co.)



the Act had been carried out the settlement on St. George's Bay would have been razed to the ground ; therefore it was partly carried out and partly evaded by men of war of both nations amid constant friction on both sides until 1904, when the provisions of the Declaration of Versailles and of the Act of 1788 were abrogated by treaty. Meanwhile, St George's Bay and the other west coast settlements lived under a cloud and had no judicial, local, or political institutions until 1862 ; and St. George's Bay and what is now St. Barbe district further north became electoral districts for the first time in 1878. Before that date La Poile and Burgeo electoral district had been formed (1855) so as to comprise a long line of tiny scattered fishing settlements on the innumerable creeks and islands of the south coast west of Fortune Bay, which during the preceding thirty or forty years had been gradually filling up the interstices between Hermitage Bay and St. George's Bay. St. Barbe district had been peopled at the same time, and the present continuous ring of settlements round the south and west and north-east coasts of the island dates from about the year 1850. But the beginning of the movement for joining hands by establishing a connected series of settlements between Fortune Bay, St. George's Bay, Bay of Islands and Bonne Bay, and all round the coasts of Petit Nord dates from 1818 or thereabouts. In stating what was the cause of this movement we must recur to some of the facts which have already been referred to incidentally.

If the reader will look back on what has been written, he will note four periods at which the colonization of Newfoundland made a departure in some new direction. The first new departure took place in consequence of the French occupation of Placentia (1662) : it was mainly political, but it also meant closer settlement on the coasts occupied by the old British colonists, and it was due to the spirit of Anglo-French competition. The second new departure was due to the natural outburst of energy, which inspired Englishmen after the conclusion of the long Anglo-French wars which were waged

from 1689 to 1713.¹ Then it was that the colonists began to fish for salmon and to catch bay seals, on or near the Laurentian coasts between Cape Freels and Ragged Harbour (1718 seq.), then, too, the islands of Fogo and Twillingate were inhabited (1733) and began to serve as centres for these new industries and as bases, amongst other things, for seal-fishing. The tide of settlement had now reached the eastern threshold of Notre Dame Bay; meanwhile, in the south, settlers were occupying the vacant homes of the departed Frenchmen in Placentia and Fortune bays, and among these immigrants Channel Islanders and Irishmen were conspicuous. In 1722, we hear of a salmon-fishing establishment at Salmonier on St. Mary's Bay, which lay half-way between the old French colony and the old English colony; so that the former gap between the two colonies began to be filled up. The two other dates after which colonial energy began to seek new outlets were 1762 and 1818, when the long line of connecting links between south-west, north, and north-east began to be formed. These two dates are also the approximate dates when the long Anglo-French wars were concluded. Reference has already been made to the year 1762 as the year in which English salmon-catchers

¹ The following figures show how in the eighteenth century settlers began to outnumber visitors :

	average 1725-7	average 1733-5	average 1736-40	average 1748-50	average 1764-74
Masters, women and children	1,380	1,720	1,660	2,470	5,660
Other residents in winter	1,320	1,380	2,190	3,480	6,670
Total	2,700	3,100	3,850	5,950	12,330
Summer fishermen from England and Ireland	2,390	3,050	2,630	2,980	5,430
'Passengers' of do.	1,630	2,110	3,200	4,390	6,450
Total	4,020	5,160	5,830	7,370	11,880

Probably half of the 'passengers' never returned to England but settled in Newfoundland or America.

The first four columns are from original records; the fifth from the Second Report on Newfoundland, 1793, App. 6, H. It is assumed that masters, women, and children formed part of the winter residents.



reached the mouth of the Exploits River and fought with the Beothics. This move forward was as significant from a geographical as well as an ethnical point of view, for it meant that the eastern half of Notre Dame Bay, or the Silurian section of the bay, was now in British occupation. Because the valley of the Exploits was Beothic territory, and because the settlers and Beothics could not agree, the copper coast, or the western half of Notre Dame Bay, was avoided; and in 1762 we hear of one settler at Sop's Arm in White Bay, that is to say, west of Notre Dame Bay, but this plan of jumping over the Beothic sphere of influence, and of beginning afresh beyond it, was balked by Frenchmen, who now began to reassert their fishing rights on the coasts north and west of Cape St. John.

During the long wars of the Austrian Succession and of Frederick the Great, French fishermen had neglected the northern and north-eastern coasts of Newfoundland, but they returned there in force after the Treaty of Paris (1763). This treaty in giving French Canada to Great Britain gave with it Labrador. Accordingly, as there was no room for British fishermen or rights for British settlers in the midst of the French fishermen, the men of Fogo and Twillingate and Sop's Arm made a leap over the French as well as the Beothic reserves and set up fishing establishments in Labrador. Sop's Arm was abandoned, and Fogo and Twillingate acquired a new significance as bases of the Labrador fishery. The union between the east coast of Labrador and Newfoundland which has endured ever since is due to this sudden leap forward, which again was due to the fishing rights of the Frenchmen. The Labrador fishery proved to be a valuable extension of the east-coast fisheries of Newfoundland and led to the enrichment of the whole colony. People also from the west of England, such as Major Cartwright, Jerseymen from Jersey, and Moravian missionaries co-operated with the Newfoundlanders in the new venture. In 1763 Labrador, Anticosti, and the Magdalen Islands were united to Newfoundland by proclamation; in 1774

Union of
Labrador
with New-
foundland.



they were reunited to Canada ; but Labrador and Anticosti were given back to Newfoundland (1809-25), and lastly (1825) that part only of Labrador which lies east of a line drawn from Blanc Sablon due northwards to lat. 52° and thence to Hudson Strait was permanently annexed to Newfoundland.

Native
Eskimos
and
Mont-
agnais.

The advance to Labrador brought Newfoundlanders into contact with the Eskimos of Belle Isle Strait. The Eskimos hate and are hated by North American Indians, and their habits differ. The Eskimos hunt whales, walrus, and seals, eat raw meat, use dogs (which are according to some authorities tame wolves), and avoid inland districts. The American Indians of eastern North America live by hunting land animals, cleave to rivers, rarely use dogs, and usually avoid the sea. In 1638 or thereabouts the Eskimos murdered French fishermen somewhere near Croc in Petit Nord ; and thenceforth the North American Indians became friends with the French, obtained firearms from them, and gradually exterminated the Eskimos on the north shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Nevertheless, Eskimos frequented Cape Bauld, Quirpon Island, as late as 1764, and made friends with Sir Hugh Palliser, then Governor of Newfoundland, and with the English shortly afterwards, but they retired further north as English settlers arrived. Conversely, a French settlement which had been made in Bradore Bay, Labrador, between 1713 and 1763, had lured a few Montagnais, who are Algonkins, from the inland solitudes of Labrador, southward to Newfoundland, where they mixed and intermarried with the Micmacs. Cormack met one or two Montagnais (1822), and a few are still to be seen in Newfoundland.

Perman-
ent
settlers.

In the eighteenth century the permanent settlers gradually outnumbered the fishermen who came from Europe. In the early part of the century the European fishermen began to cultivate more distant fishing grounds on the Grand Banks of Newfoundland ; in the later part of the same century they betook themselves to Labrador. After the Napoleonic wars the European



fishermen ceased to cross the Atlantic in large numbers, or else sought the coasts of Labrador, which were then beginning to be important fishing grounds. In the early nineteenth century shipbuilding began in Newfoundland, so that the settlers began to compete successfully with the fishermen who visited them from Europe on oceanic fishery grounds and on the distant coasts of Labrador, as well as in the near neighbourhood of their own coast. Therefore the Europeans were doubly beaten.

Irishmen threatened to outnumber Englishmen in the colony during the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth century. If we may assume—and the assumption is not unreasonable—that in the nineteenth century Protestants were Englishmen and Roman Catholics were Irishmen, Irishmen and Englishmen were to one another as 50·6 to 49·4 in 1836, as 48 to 52 in 1854, as 42 to 58 in 1869, and as 66 to 34 in 1901; 93 per cent. of the Protestants in 1901 were Anglicans or Wesleyans. The figures are important because when the numbers of (Irish) Roman Catholics and (English) Protestants were nearly balanced Irish riots were frequent.

Newfoundland was never a convict settlement, although a few convicts were sent there from England or Ireland in the early eighteenth century. As the contrary has often been asserted, the following extract from Captain Osborn's Report on the Fishery for 1731 may be once more cited: 'It is now become a practice of masters of ships to bring over here transported felons instead of Irish servants.'

Government and Economic Conditions

The governor became a resident governor in 1818, but as yet, like the early Australian governors, he was unprovided with any executive or other council. Sir Thomas J. Cochrane (1824–34), the first governor of Newfoundland who devoted himself seriously to road-making and agriculture, was also the first governor who was helped or hampered by a council; and in the last two years of his command (1832–34) representative institutions were in force, that is to say, there was an



executive and legislative council consisting of some ten members, who were either officials or nominees of the governor, and a legislative assembly consisting of the representatives of nine electoral districts, all of which were sea-ports or bays. In 1855, which was the year in which responsible government was introduced into the Australasian colonies—except New Zealand, which already enjoyed it, and Western Australia where it was shortly afterwards introduced—responsible government was introduced into Newfoundland. Owing to the splitting up of existing districts and to the addition of La Poile and Burgeo district, the nine electoral districts were increased in number to fifteen in 1855, and there were thirty instead of fifteen members. With the addition to the constituencies of St. George's Bay (1878), and of what is called St. Barbe District (1878), in consequence of the progressive occupation of hitherto unsettled districts, and owing to the separation of Fogo from Twillingate (1885) in consequence of the prosperity which these towns derived from the then recent discoveries of copper on the copper coast of Notre Dame Bay, the constituencies were afterwards increased to eighteen, and the members to thirty-six in number. Under responsible government the Crown appoints the governor for a term of about five years, the Governor-in-Council nominating the fifteen members of the Legislative Council for their respective lives. The Legislative Council corresponds to the British House of Lords, and the members of the House of Assembly, which corresponds to the British House of Commons, are elected for four years by voters who enjoy household suffrage.

Indus-
tries :
Fisheries.

The principal industries of this island are fishing or industries like rope-making, boat-building, and ship-building, which assist fishing ; and the principal fish is cod. The one unchanging factor in the history of the island is the never-ceasing cult of the inexhaustible cod. Cabot caught cod by letting down hampers into the sea ; cod are caught within the three-mile limit almost all round the coast ; and where cod are scarce or non-existent, as in Hare Bay in the far north, there are hardly any



inhabitants. About 250,000 quintals of cod were exported from the little old British colony of 1675-7; and about 500,000 quintals were exported a century later from the colony, which then included the old French as well as the old British colony.

During the nineteenth century almost the whole of the colony and of the adjoining coasts of Labrador have been fished, and the average annual catch in the nineteenth century equalled 1,000,000 quintals. As the area of pursuits widened, the yield increased, but not in proportion. The earliest British colonists seized the best points of vantage; the earliest French colonists seized the next best points, and the whole of Labrador only exports what the early British fisheries on the coast of the peninsula of Avalon yielded in the years 1677 to 1681. Three-fourths of the exports of cod go to Brazil, Portugal, Italy, and Spain, which pay little or nothing in return to the exporters directly. Payment is made by imports of meat, bread, and butter—half from Canada and half from the United States—and of clothes from England, and coal from Canada; all these imports together being, as a rule, a little less in value than the total value of the exports of cod. Brazil and the Mediterranean owe the debt which Canada, the United States, and England pay; the paying states recouping themselves by their trade with the owing states. Thus the cod sets in circulation a current of trade which runs round the world; Newfoundland is the starting point of the current and the goal to which it returns. Herring were regarded as of value only as food for cod until the middle of the nineteenth century, but the pickled and frozen herring trade began to assume considerable proportions during the second half of that century, and the herring became food for human consumers. Americans and Canadians are the principal purchasers; and the principal fishing grounds for herring are at St. George's Bay, and the Bay of Islands on the west coast. Lobsters did not become important articles of merchandise before 1880, nor did whales before 1897. The chief haunts of the lobster were Ingornachoix Bay and St. Barbe and other places on



the west coast, and Nova Scotians as well as Newfoundlanders took part in the lobster industry.

Minerals:
forest in-
dustries.

Almost all the industries of the island have to do with fishing; the only mining consists of iron-mining carried on in Bell Isle in Conception Bay, where there are rich beds of haematite iron ore, and in Pilley Island in Notre Dame Bay where there are iron pyrites; while copper-mining is carried on at Tilt Cove and Little Bay, and was formerly carried on at Betts Cove—all of which are on the shores and creeks of Notre Dame Bay. Such asbestos and oil as have been found, near Port-à-Port and Parson's Pond respectively, are close by the western coasts. When we reflect what a leading part mineral development played in driving people inland in South Africa, Australia, New Zealand (South Island), British Columbia, and elsewhere, we may well marvel that the only effect produced by this cause in Newfoundland has been to make men cling more closely than ever like limpets to their rock-bound coasts.

The Anglo-Newfoundland Development Company acquired a vast concession for cutting timber and wood in the valley of the Exploits in 1905, and proceeded to build a small model town at Grand Falls on the Middle Exploits with reservoirs, dams, paper-mills, and machinery, for the purpose of dealing with these concessions. Some tiny hamlets have grown up by the side of the railway, but Grand Falls is the only inland town in Newfoundland. In 1910 the exports of pulp and paper, if added to the exports of lumber, raised this industry to an equality with the iron-mining industry, almost at one bound. What this meant to Newfoundland can only be gauged by studying the relative values of the different industries which are given elsewhere. In reading the statistical tables it should be borne in mind that almost all that is produced in Newfoundland is exported to distant countries, and that almost all its first necessities of life are imported into it from countries near to it in blood or distance or political association or in some or all of these qualities.



A railway was built at the close of the nineteenth century from St John's northward to the Lower Exploits River, westward thence to the Bay of Islands, and southward thence to St. George's Bay and Port-aux-Basques near Cape Ray. In 1913 it had two completed branches to Carbonear in Conception Bay and to Placentia in Placentia Bay, and various branches which were in course of completion to Fortune, Trinity, Bonavista, and Bonne bays, and to Trepassey near Cape Race. The apparent object of the railway is to connect St. John's with Port-aux-Basques, which is the port from which steamers start for Sydney in Cape Breton Island. Instead of connecting these points directly it more than doubles its course by wandering round the body of the island (excluding Petit Nord). The reason for this circuitous course is that if it left the coasts it would pass through solitudes and therefore it keeps as near as possible to where passengers may be served, and skirts the heads of the great bays—Trinity, Bonavista, Notre Dame, St. George's Bay, and Bay of Islands, where the country is principally settled. The roads of the island are fair in the neighbourhood of large towns, but are very rough elsewhere.

The political questions which agitated Newfoundland since it became a colony or self-governing dominion with a resident governor and council, have all turned on questions of such burning interest as the great questions of cod, herring, and lobster. Indeed, at one time these questions almost set Europe and North America on fire. Ever since 1839 French as well as British cruisers patrolled the treaty shore in order to protect the fishermen of French and British nationality. As the French fishermen exercised the drying and curing part of their business on dry land, and as British sovereignty was admitted by the Treaty of Utrecht as paramount and exclusive over the whole island, it was difficult to reconcile the actions of the French naval officers with the principles of international law. The settlers of Newfoundland and their government resented the presence of the French and their claim to govern themselves and control Newfoundlanders

Political
questions:
the
fisheries.

on soil which was British ; and they tried to subject the intruders to colonial laws, but without success, because the colony or dominion had no executive where it had no electoral district, and when the treaty shore was divided into electoral districts and had an executive, the executive was too feeble for the purpose. From year to year, the naval officers of both nations patched up temporary compromises by means of some *modus vivendi* more or less distasteful to the Newfoundlanders, and peace was maintained. At last in 1904 the old treaty rights which had been conferred by the Treaty of Utrecht and renewed from time to time by subsequent treaties, were bought up by the British from the French Government, in consideration mainly of certain rectified boundaries in Central Africa ; and Lake Chad came to the rescue of the remoter outposts of Newfoundland. Since that date the treaty shore became wholly British territory, free and discharged from French easements. But it was still subject to American easements. Easements of a less vexatious character than the French easements had been bestowed on the United States of America or its citizens in 1818 as a sequel to what is known as the Canadian war of 1812. These easements did not include drying rights on the shores of Newfoundland except on unsettled parts of the south coast ; and the whole of the south coast was settled in or before 1850. Moreover, American fishermen had no preference over Newfoundland fishermen, like the preference which the Declaration of Versailles accorded to Frenchmen. But the American convention contained ambiguous reference to bays and coasts and creeks and shores, to cod caught 'on the shores', and to 'fish'. It was partly owing to these ambiguities and partly owing to the refusal of the Americans to be bound by colonial laws for the protection of the fisheries, and for prohibiting Sunday fishing and the like—on the ground that colonial laws could not qualify treaty rights—that disputes occurred between Newfoundlanders and the men of Massachusetts ; and on one occasion the Imperial authorities, by Order in Council made in exercise of the



powers of the Act of Parliament relating to these fishing easements (1819), annulled a Colonial Act which infringed the treaty rights and appeared provocative (1905). Various arrangements were substituted from time to time for the treaty rights, and after three-quarters of a century of negotiation and of actual conflicts between British settlers and American fishermen, the question was referred to the Hague Tribunal for decision by arbitration (1907) and the decision was given in 1910. The decision, among other matters, held that local laws bound American citizens, unless they were unreasonable or *mala fide*, and that the United States vessels while exercising their rights were bound to report at custom-houses or to customs officials when facilities existed. Bays were also defined, and other ambiguities were satisfactorily explained. After the close of these disputes the fisheries of Newfoundland ceased to embroil two continents; and these absorbing topics of political excitement ceased to interest Newfoundlanders, who resumed their peaceful pursuit of the never-failing cod, herring, lobster, and seals.

The only other events and accidents which diverted Newfoundlanders from their devotion to the sea, and threatened to divert them from piscatorial to political pursuits, were connected with terrestrial pursuits, but resulted only in turning them towards Canadian or English capitalists and away from the American capitalists whom they had trusted. In 1852 a company was created to build a telegraph from St. John's to Cape Ray. It was financed by Americans of New York, who failed before its completion and caused wide-spread ruin. Then Cyrus Field of New York formed another company, which completed the line to Cape Ray, and laid one cable from Cape Ray to Aspy Bay in Cape Breton Island (1856), and a second cable from Valentia in Ireland to Bull's Arm in Trinity Bay, which he connected with the telegraphs of Newfoundland (1858). Newfoundland was now a link in the chain which held Europe and North America together. Sir Charles Bright was the principal engineer of this great enterprise, and the capital with

Other
political
questions.

which it was achieved was English. After three months' success the cable failed, but the men who made it were undaunted. In 1865 a new company was formed, with English capital, and two new Atlantic cables were successfully laid from Valentia to Heart's Content in Trinity Bay (1866), and were shortly afterwards extended to Placentia and St. Pierre Island and so to North Sydney in Cape Breton Island. This new enterprise proved a permanent success. Similarly, in making the semicircular railway which has been mentioned, American financial companies undertook the task during the eighties and failed, after which Mr. Reid, a Canadian capitalist of Montreal, continued the task and succeeded in the nineties. He and his company, the Reid Newfoundland Company, also undertook to run passenger steamers plying between points on the coasts of or belonging to Newfoundland, the passenger steamers between Great Britain or Canada and Newfoundland being Scotch or English. In 1894 there were only two banks in Newfoundland and they were American. In 1894-5 both failed. The colony proposed to join the Dominion of Canada for financial reasons. But the financial terms of union proved unacceptable; the Bank of Montreal came to the rescue of the colonial finances; and the banks upon which Newfoundland relied were thenceforth Canadian instead of American. Branch Canadian banks were afterwards opened at Harbor Grace and at Birchy Cove (in the Bay of Islands). The moment for political union slipped by; and Newfoundlanders returned once more to more congenial pursuits and showed no disposition to encourage a relapse into political idealism. Consequently the waves of political excitement in 1895-6, like those other waves of political excitement which have been discussed, subsided and died a natural death or were lulled to sleep. Once more men said *Revenons à nos morues*. No other dominion or colony resembles Newfoundland in its economic conditions, and in politics it may well remain a thing apart and an exception to the modern tendency to sweep dominions and colonies into large groups.



Local government in Newfoundland is in a rudimentary condition. Until 1888 there were no municipal institutions in the colony, but the local affairs of large towns were delegated to water companies or the local road boards which will be presently described. Amongst other duties entrusted to the water companies, sewerage and drainage were usually included; and in the capital city the functions of a local road board were discharged by the governmental board of works, which also supervised the roads of the colony elsewhere, and in St. John's enforced the provisions of various Acts prohibiting wooden buildings, prescribing lateral streets as 'firebreaks', and the like.

The first St. John's town council was created in 1888, and the first purely elective council was created by a law of 1902 which was still in force in 1913. The municipal council of St. John's consists of a mayor and six town councillors, all of whom hold office for four years. As the council was the lineal descendant of water companies, its principal duties are to control the local water-supply, sewerage, and drainage. To these fundamental duties are added the duties formerly discharged by the road board or the board of works—such as the duties of maintaining and lighting streets, and of applying the building regulations laid down by the legislature, and, lastly, such miscellaneous matters as the care of parks, the building of baths, and the regulation of cab-fares.

Certain duties usually performed by municipalities are conspicuous by their absence from this list. Nothing is said about the police or constabulary, which the central government controls. There was provision for a volunteer fire-brigade in one of the earlier Acts, but not in the Act of 1902, which only prescribes contributions of about £2,500 per annum towards the cost of the fire-brigade which the government organized in 1893 or shortly afterwards. Electric tramways are confided not to the town council but to a public company which was formed by Messrs. Reid in 1896, and pays to the council licence fees and a percentage on its earnings.

In order to carry out its functions the town council of St. John's is authorized to levy water rates, sewers rates, and other rates on owners and occupiers. Rates are leviable in respect of vacant land, and also on vessels entering or clearing at the customs-house.

The council also taxes insurance companies, banks, gas and electric lighting companies, hawkers, auctioneers, moneylenders, non-resident collecting agents, hired horses, vehicles, theatrical and athletic entertainments, and every public and quasi-public 'billiard-table, sippio-board, and bagatelle board'. The central government also collects and pays to the council coal duties, local Crown rents and sums for lighting and cleaning the town, and the amounts annually voted as road and similar grants in respect of the area included within the municipal boundaries. Special legislation has also been enacted to provide for the towns of Harbor Grace, Carbonear, Placentia, Heart's Content, and Twillingate; but they are still indebted to water companies, electric companies, and the like for the elementary necessities and conveniences of municipal life; and St. John's is the only municipality in the colony.

Inside as well as outside towns, the government annually appropriates a certain proportion of the proceeds of general taxation towards roads, bridges, and ferries. There are no local rates for these purposes, although the central government delegates the administration of the funds which it appropriates to the use of any district to the local boards for that district. Electoral districts being the only recognized sub-divisions of the colony, the road board districts either coincide with the electoral districts, or consist of divisional sections carved out of them by the governor in council in pursuance of the Local Affairs Acts, 1898 et seq. The boards are or may claim to be elective, but they have no power of imposing rates or taxes and derive their revenue from the sums annually assigned to them by the Public Service Act, or, in other words, the Appropriation Act of the year. The defects of this system may be best illustrated by taking



PLATE XXIII. NEWFOUNDLAND: CORDUROY ROAD CROSSING
MARSHLAND

(Anglo-Newfoundland Development Co.)

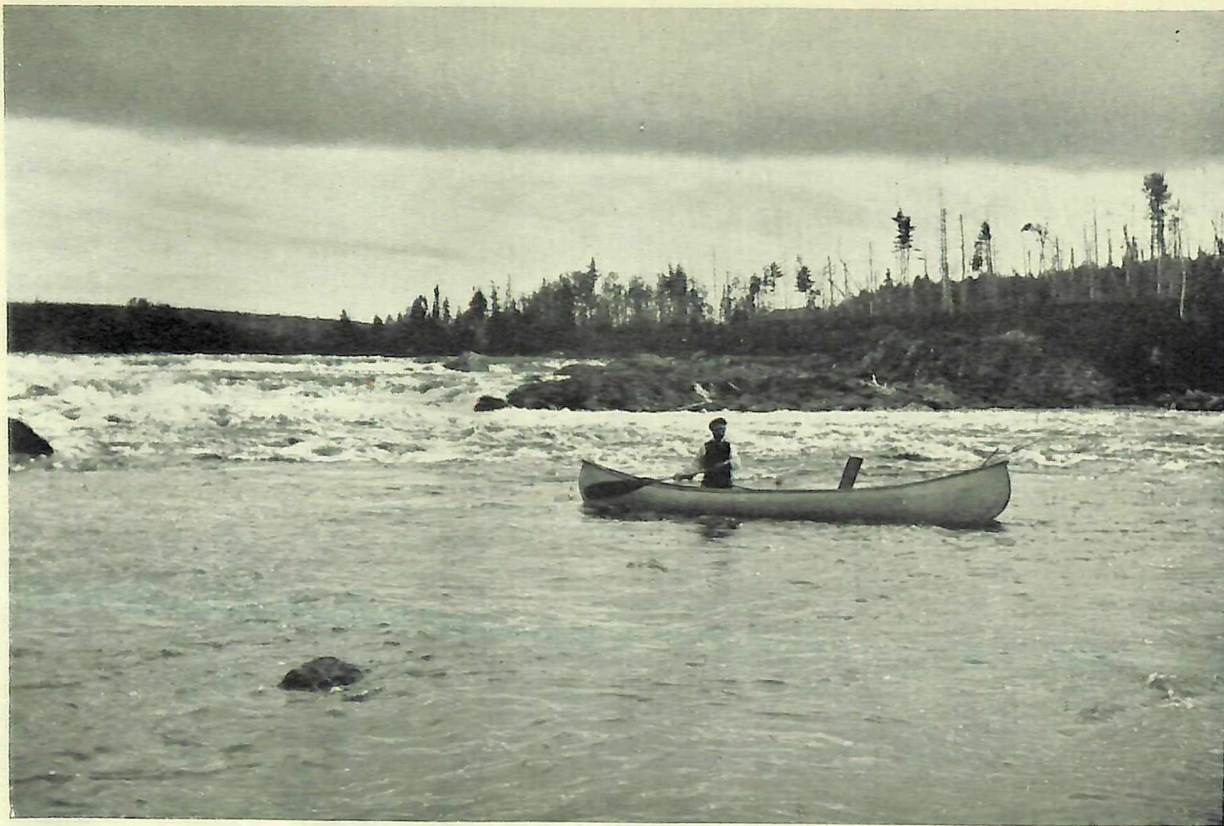


PLATE XXIV. RED INDIAN FALLS, NEWFOUNDLAND
(Anglo-Newfoundland Development Co.)



as an example the Public Service Act for 1912. The whole statute-book for 1912 occupies a little more than 200 pages of which no less than 150 pages are dedicated to the intricate details of this one Act. So far as roads, bridges, and ferries are concerned, it provides in the first place that about £14,000 shall be allocated to the 18 electoral districts proportionately to their population, these sums being paid to the road or local boards without any direction as to how or where they shall be applied. Next the Act specifies some 145 items aggregating £13,500 or thereabouts and allocates each item to a certain main road or section of a main road which it describes. Next some 120 ferries, which are elaborately described, are designated as the recipients of various sums whose total amount is about £3,500.

Similar detailed appropriations are made by the same Act with regard to local constables, all of whom look to the central authority for their salaries, which are sometimes barely £10 per annum. Similar details, too, occur with regard to the expenditure upon poor-law relief, salaries of £4 and upward being made payable to some 60 relieving officers. Poor-law relief is included under the heading of public charities, and public charities include also items under the control and management of the central authorities—such as the lunatic and poor asylums, the lazaretto, and the general and fever hospitals at St. John's; and include subscriptions to self-dependent, self-regulating institutions like the Church of England, the Roman Catholic and the Deep Sea Mission orphanages, the Irish Benevolent and the St. Vincent de Paul Societies, the Halifax blind, deaf, and dumb institutes, and the Salvation Army rescue homes in St. John's, the Dorcas Societies elsewhere, and the hospitals in the north; but it also includes items capable of being applied by responsible units of government, and sums so applicable may, notwithstanding these minute specifications, be paid direct to the local boards or council (if any) of the place in question. Thus, what were originally road boards have been invested with the rights and duties of adminis-



tering charitable and poor-law relief ; and a system of general local self-government is seen in an inchoate stage of development. The stage is only inchoate, for it must be borne in mind that local levies for local services are unknown, that there is no local financial authority for raising as well as spending money ; and that from the point of view of expenditure, all these payments for local services are regarded as part and parcel of the expenditure of the central government. The total sums voted by the central government for roads, bridges, and ferries amount to about £38,000 ; and the sums for charities amount to about £74,000, the total estimated expenditure provided for by the Public Service Act being approximately £430,000. But several sums are not provided by this Act, which is annual : notably a sum of £64,000 which is set apart for education by the Education Acts, which are not annual Acts.

Educa-
tion.

The most interesting branch of local government in Newfoundland is education ; but here the metaphor of branch is hardly appropriate, as the educational bodies are independent tree-trunks, whose growth the central government only stimulates. Under the Education Acts (1903 et seq.) fees of one dollar (4s. 1d.) per child are payable but are rarely paid, and almost the entire cost of education is borne by the central government, which distributes its payments for educational purposes amongst the various religious bodies in proportion to their relative numbers. In 1912, out of 1,070 schools, the Church of England owned 352, the Methodist Church 335, and the Roman Catholics 325 schools ; and the next most numerous schools were those of the Salvation Army which were 58 in number, although 12 years previously there were only 2. These figures, which include some 7 or 8 denominational colleges and academies, give a total of one school for every 220 inhabitants, and for every 47 enrolled pupils ; and it might be thought that these figures should suffice for all needs. But some of the schools are only open half the year ; overlapping often occurs ; and the clefts and serrations of the coast-line, and the great



number and small size of the hamlets and villages by the sea add enormously to the difficulty of providing education for all who need or desire it.

For the purposes of education the principal Education Act of 1903 divided Newfoundland into 53 Church of England districts, 69 Wesleyan districts, 43 Roman Catholic districts, 5 Salvation Army districts, and 2 Presbyterian districts ; but the numbers and names of the districts have been slightly increased or varied since that date. Each district has a board, of which the senior minister of the denomination is, as a rule, chairman. As a rule, each district contains several schools ; and different denominations preside over the same, or what is practically the same, district. Churches—not the State—created these districts in accordance with what they regarded as the religious demands or facilities of the neighbourhood ; accordingly these districts do not coincide with, or dovetail into, the electoral divisions of the colony. Nevertheless, like the electoral divisions, the educational districts are described in language which almost always savours of the sea, and lie for the most part between adjacent coves or bays or harbours. It is hard to suppose that in any colony except Newfoundland a parallel could be found to the language of the Education Act of 1903, which in one of its sections allots certain sums to educational boards ‘in districts other than St. John’s’, and translates this phrase in the marginal note to the section into ‘special grants for outports’, as though every district were a port. Although the educational districts violate the principle that Newfoundland is a country divisible only into electoral divisions, it illustrates the principle that its divisions are marine and are defined by reference to salt water.

There is no co-ordinating educational authority, no minister of education or educational department of state ; and each important denomination has a superintendent of its own. A question put forward by one of these superintendents may be recorded in illustration of the system or want of system which prevails : ‘Is it essential

that Anglican statistics should be compiled in an Anglican office and all Anglican allocations of government grants certified by Anglican hands ? ' Book-keeping, statistics, supervision, and inspection are carried on not in one office but in four or more offices by the representatives of the interested denominations, so that information on any point which may arise in any year must be sought in the two Roman Catholic, the three Anglican, the one Methodist, and the one Salvation Army report for that year. Elementary education aims at being universal and at covering the whole field, but although national payments promote, no national institution secures this result. Education is headless, or rather leaves the denominations to provide themselves with heads of their own hue or colour in the hope that by these means some substitute for or semblance of a national system of education may be evolved.

Uniformity of study and standard is secured by passing scholars through certain grades, and submitting them to examinations conducted under the auspices of the Council of Higher Education. Each denomination has one or two colleges at headquarters ; and here the keenest contests of the year take place, and the excitement is intense as to whether the Rhodes Scholarship, which is the coveted distinction of the year, shall fall to a student at Bonaventure College (Roman Catholic), Bishop Field College (Anglican), or the Methodist College at St. John's. Teachers' conventions, the massing together of all schools in a neighbourhood on Coronation or Empire Day without distinction of denomination, are also occasionally employed as means for promoting unity ; and Arbor Day or a day for tree-planting, boy scouts and the use of Nelson shields as prizes—these shield being made of copper taken from Nelson's flagships *Victory* and *Foudroyant*—lend a significant tone to the lighter sides of life at the elementary schools. At Grand Falls the Anglo-Newfoundland Development Company have provided a school building 'magnificent in all its apartments', according to the official report, where children of different





Protestant denominations pursue their studies through every grade ; and a somewhat similar establishment has been provided by private benefactors at Bishop's Falls. But these are exceptional cases, and, as a rule, the schools conducted by the different denominations remain distinct, and are united only by a common scheme of public examinations and study.

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CHAPTER XI

LABRADOR

BY DR. WILFRED T. GRENFELL

THE area to which the name Labrador applies is generally understood to be the whole peninsula between the Atlantic Ocean, Hudson Bay and Strait, the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and an imaginary line drawn from the bottom of James Bay to Mingan. This area is mostly attached to Quebec Province, and, as such, is called by many Lower Quebec, to distinguish it from the east coast section which belongs to Newfoundland. The boundary line between these sections is still a matter of dispute. The wording of the grant of the eastern part of Newfoundland cannot be adhered to literally, for while

Position
and area



it grants the Atlantic seaboard to Newfoundland, the line laid down was intended to follow the height of land from Cape Chidley till it meets the line drawn due north from Blanc Sablon. This is the view taken by Sir William MacGregor, G.C.M.G., who spent part of two summers surveying in those districts. It is claimed that the total area covers 500,000 square miles.

Apparently, though there is really little known about the country, it acquired its name in the fifteenth century, from a slave on a ship from the Azores in whose honour it was called the 'Laborer's Land'. It most honestly deserves the title, for it yields nothing but to hard work, though as such it is valuable, if only as a nursery for a hardy and resourceful people.

Climate.

Labrador lies between the latitudes of $60^{\circ} 30' N.$, and $50^{\circ} 30' N.$, practically the same as England and Scotland. Yet its mean temperature is that of Northern Alaska, which lies between 60° and $70^{\circ} N.$; while the North Cape of Norway, which is in $71^{\circ} N.$, and well inside the Arctic Circle, is warmer than the southern boundary of Labrador. The cold current coming from the polar sea through Fox Channel and Davis Strait sweeps its entire coasts. The rainfall and winter snows are by no means excessive, being considerably less than in the British Isles. The coast is beset all the year round by numerous icebergs, ever drifting south with the current. These are born in Greenland, where the pressure of the ice-cap forces the glaciers on till they break off and float away in the south-easterly current. They are the only contribution which that country confers upon Labrador. The surface of the water, warmed directly by the sun, undercuts these enormous masses; tons fall off, the equilibrium is upset, and, rolling over and over, a berg will at times break up in a few minutes. When, however, the floe ice of winter prevents the direct rays of the sun from reaching the water, the icebergs drive farther and farther to the south, and in the months of March, April, and May may be very dangerous to shipping.

Frost.

Labrador has an Indian summer of four months. The



snow disappears from the land in May, only remaining in the crevices and mountain coombs. There are no peaks which remain snow-capped all the year round, and there is only one small glacier, situated in the Torngat Mountains near Cape Chidley. The days in summer are long and warm, but the nights are cold, and the seaboard is always liable to summer frosts. With every mile of distance from the coast, however, this liability decreases, and at the bottom of the long fiords and in the valleys of the rivers four good frost-free months can be counted upon. Yet, beginning in November, all the rivers freeze over and remain solid for fully six months, while for two more they will be blocked now and again according to the direction of the winds, which carry in and out the broken sea-ice made in the north, till the heat of June and July has melted it. Fortunately the westerly winds largely preponderate, and an ice 'jam' is unusual after July 1. The liability that early gales, occurring about the equinox and before the winter cold has again fixed the ice in Fox Channel, may break up and carry along a quantity of ice into Hudson Strait and block it, has been discussed as a difficulty in the way of the proposed route for conveying grain from western Canada to Europe by steamers.

The cold in Labrador is never extreme ; on the prairies of the west a temperature of 50° or even 60° below zero is by no means common, while even at Cape Chidley no temperature below 40° has ever been recorded. Moreover, the general idea of an arctic night in Labrador is entirely erroneous ; the length of the days and nights, and the diurnal variations of temperature are to all intents and purposes those of Great Britain.

On the east coast the tides are practically negligible, having a range of only six or seven feet, and changing at times on the surface with the direction of the winds. In Hudson Strait, however, they are exceedingly dangerous. There their range is from thirty to forty feet in the springs, where, running at a speed of six knots an hour, they cause nasty overfalls and races. In the Bay

Temperature.

Tides and storms.



itself, also, the tides have considerable range, but they do not affect the deep eastern side as they do the western, which is always shallow and flat. In the Strait of Belle Isle the current never exceeds three knots, and changes its direction every three hours after full and low water. While Labrador is occasionally visited by cyclonic storms, they are no worse than those which occur further south, and are by no means as frequent as is generally supposed. Thus, gales which have done really serious damage to the fishing fleets are usually as much as ten years apart; such a storm occurred in 1908. Tornadoes and hurricanes are unknown.

Aurora
Borealis.

An unusual phenomenon, probably better observed in Labrador than anywhere else, is the Aurora Borealis. In the spring and fall the sky is often brilliantly illuminated for night after night. There is not a great amount of colour in the display, and the flashing beams so strongly suggest the movements of vast hosts of spiritual beings, that the Eskimos have called it 'the spirits of the dead at play'. At other times the varied colours of the spectrum are plainly visible, and suggest the serried ranks of gaily uniformed armies marching across the vault of heaven.

Physical
features:
elevation
and rivers.

The Labrador peninsula consists of an ancient plateau of crystalline rocks, which was elevated above the sea in early geological times. The height of land runs from the North Atlantic Coast inland, till about two-thirds of the way down the coast it is fully 300 miles from the seaboard. It then slopes gradually to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and still more gradually to the west and north-west coast. There is only one river of any size which runs toward the east. This is known as the Grand River, and drains many hundreds of miles of lakes on the surface of the central height of land. It finally breaks through the mountain range in a wonderful fall known as the Grand Falls. They were practically discovered by John McLean, a factor of the Hudson's Bay Company at Ungava, who every year journeyed overland to Hamilton Inlet for his mail. The Falls at one leap are nearly twice as high as Niagara. The circular basin



into which they jump has a diameter of about 200 yards, all around which rise steep rocky walls about 500 feet in height, while the spray rises in a continual column to a height of 1,000 feet. The Indians dread and keep away from the spot, regarding it as the abode of the Manitou. The marvellous gorge running for many miles below it is named Bowdoin Canyon. The whole undoubtedly forms one of the foremost scenic attractions of the world. Other rivers which flow towards the east are the Kenamou, Northwest, Fraser, and Eagle rivers. There are many others, but as all of these have their origin east of the height of land, none is very large. It is estimated that one-fifth of the whole of Labrador is covered by freshwater lakes. It is possible to enter the Manicouagan River at the Gulf of St. Lawrence, canoe 300 miles to Summit Lake, cross the lake, and canoe down the Koksoak River 400 miles to Ungava Bay. On the other hand, it is possible to travel by canoe 150 miles from the coast to the Hamilton River, thence 600 miles west, then by a short portage to Big River, and thence 700 miles to Hudson Bay. No country in the world can be covered by boat with so few portages.

These rivers contain many fish. The game ouananiche, or land-locked salmon, keeps to the rapid water; brook trout running up to many pounds in weight are taken with great ease on fly or bait, while numerous white-fish will also rise to the artificial fly.

Almost every river runs out into a fiord, while the entire east coast is split up into an archipelago of islands and inlets, so that natural harbours abound. So much so is this the case, that there is hardly a place along the whole coast where anchorages are more than five miles apart. There are about thirty main fiords, which vary in length from 30 to 130 miles, Hamilton Inlet, Sandwich Bay, and Lewis Bay being the largest. At Nain, in 57° N. lat., and for a hundred miles on each side of it, lies a belt of twenty miles of islands.

The temperature of the sea-water never rises above 45° in summer, while it grows colder at every successive

Marine
condi-
tions.



fathom down, till at 100 fathoms it will register below the freezing-point.¹ The sea-bottom, after falling to a depth of 200 fathoms, runs off many miles seaward, only sinking to rise again 150 miles off shore into banks covering some 6,000 to 7,000 square miles. On these, immense quantities of infusoria, or small animal life, carried by the polar current, and called arctic slime, maintain large numbers of fish. To these banks many fishermen resort for halibut and cod, while the same slime, carried in along the shore, maintains innumerable small fish, and in pursuit of these come the cod which have made Labrador famous.

Geology. The geology of Labrador has not yet received the attention which might have been expected. The scanty covering of the land by vegetation, and the unusual absence of rock débris, leave the rocks themselves so exposed that Labrador affords a most attractive field to those interested in the problems of the earth's formation. The formations now in existence are practically all crystalline or Archaic, chiefly syenites and gneisses. Professor Daly, of the Harvard Institute of Technology, describes them as the very earliest foundations of the earth's crust, and calls them the 'Archaic Basement Complex'. The northern cliffs are everywhere marvelously marked by outcrops, through the superincumbent masses of crystalline rocks, of jet-black trap. The strange tracery of the zigzagging fissures, now filled with solidified matter, has plainly written the story of the resistless forces of the molten under-earth. In one region only, but there abundantly, are found deposits of the iridescent feldspar known as Labradorite, which gives such perfect colour reflections when polished transversely to the lines of cleavage.

Mountains.

The mountain ranges of Labrador appear to have arisen from pressure which crumpled the surface from Cape Chidley to Hamilton Inlet in a north-east and south-west direction, and from that to the Gulf of St. Lawrence

¹ These deep temperatures are not uniform, patches of warm water occurring in places at considerable depths.



west and east. The three main ranges or spurs of the central plateau reach the coast in the region of Port Manvers, Cape Mugford, and Ryan's Harbour. The southernmost group, called the Kiglapeits, or dog-toothed mountains, are the Sierras of Labrador. They are about 3,000 feet high: Mount Thoresby, which directly overhangs the sea, is 2,700 feet in height. The Kaumajet, or shining-top range, is 500 feet higher, the summit of the Bishop's Mitre, also on the seaboard, measuring 3,500 feet. This mountain, like the lofty island of Nannuktot, or White Bear Island, was also an island not long ago. A narrow raised beach alone now unites it to the mainland. These ranges, like all the land to the south, have been entirely submerged under the ancient ice-cap. The result is that the same pressure or friction which scooped out the valleys of the east coast, and was exerted in a west-to-east direction, has flattened their summits and levelled off their peaks. With the northernmost range, however, this has not been the case, and the Torngats, or 'Devils', as the range is called, still possess Alpine crags and 'arêtes', which add immensely to their beauty. These last are undoubtedly the highest; and over the Iron Strand, and above the magnificent fiord of Nakvak they rise over 4,000 feet; while it has been reported that in the region known as the Four Peaks, some 40 to 50 miles inland, the mountains are 6,000 to 7,500 feet above sea-level. This at least is true—that the cliffs and peaks of northern Labrador are the finest on the whole east coast of North America.

To-day nothing remains of the old ice-cap, with the possible exception of a small glacier near Chidley discovered in 1907 by Mr. Edward Bryant, and in summer even the highest peaks are bare of snow. Professor Daly has suggested that the Grinnell Glacier of south Baffin Land is another persistent vestige of it. Every evidence combines to show that the north-east coast is gradually rising, and the east coast more rapidly than the west.

Disastrous forest fires which have occurred since the white occupation have disforested over three-fourths of the



country, and destroyed the vegetation and the covering of the soil, in many places leaving nothing but rock.

From the physical constitution of the country we naturally turn to history of man's connexion with it—a relationship which is still dim and uncertain. The original inhabitant was undoubtedly the Eskimo, but whence he came is as yet unsettled. It is generally supposed that he was once a Mongol inhabitant of northern China—that he was driven north by the pressure of humanity, and at last wandering over by the Aleutian Islands, he travelled round the polar sea until he reached Labrador. From thence he is supposed to have journeyed on to Greenland. This view is supported by much evidence, especially the similarity of language which would still enable a Greenland Eskimo to understand one from Alaska; a similarity of face, particularly the almond-shaped eye, and also the small stature, though the Eskimo of the Herschell's Island region are considerably taller. The earliest accounts, however, locate the Eskimo in the Gulf of St. Lawrence as far down as Anticosti, and also in Newfoundland. They are to-day a simple, stolid, inoffensive people, and seem always to have possessed these characteristics. They readily made treaties with the whites, which, however, the latter most ruthlessly and murderously broke. It is true that murders of those who tried to steal their country have been recorded against them, and they have been described as murderous savages, but retaliation, and not natural cruelty, has been the cause of it. The barbaric treatment which they have received at the hands of successive white and red visitors of every kind, inclusive of New England fishermen and white traders, was sufficient to drive them to any measures which would commend themselves to an animal at bay. Once they extended as far south as St. John's River, but the white man has driven them back till now there are none south of Hamilton Inlet.

Popula-
tion :
Eskimo.

Indians.

Besides these shore-dwellers, who roughly number now 3,500, of whom 1,500 are on the north-east coast, there are about the same number of true North American



Indians. All these are of Algonkin stock, evidences of whose former occupation extend from the Mississippi to Hudson Bay and the Atlantic Ocean. The southern Montagnais can still talk to the Nascaupies of the north and east, though in the south they are now much mixed with white blood. It was the Iroquois, after the French settlement, who drove the less warlike Crees into the cold and barren region, and practically the whole of the interior of Labrador is still their hunting ground.

Both aboriginal races are steadily diminishing in numbers. Somehow the Indians manage to exist by their hunting, living on fish, berries, and game. But, as a rule, they visit their reserves on the Gulf shore once a year for supplies, generally about June or July, or else they seek the Hudson's Bay posts at Ungava, Davis Inlet, or Whale River. These are their festive seasons, for in September they must return by long and wearisome river journeys to their own hunting grounds, more especially as the game has become greatly depleted. Only an ever-disciplined race could exist at all, and even so their mortality foretells their extermination.

There is a fine virile variety of Indian in the north-west who occasionally trade at Fort Chimo. They look down somewhat on the Nascaupies, a name which probably means 'weakling', though the race call themselves Nenenot or 'the ideal people', just as the Eskimo call themselves Innuits, or 'the people'. The whole number of the Indians are sometimes called mountaineers, or Montagnais Indians. In the south-west is yet another branch of the Crees. They trade between Mistassini and Nichicum, a Hudson's Bay post in lat. 53° N., on a lake of that name, and now the only inland post of the whole interior. The unit of value used to be the beaver, but until recently trade was largely irrespective of prices, the general principle being to keep the families whether they caught much or little. In spite of this, however, starvation of whole families was by no means unknown, especially when periodically the rabbits failed, and the migrating partridge did not return. Each family by

custom owned their own hunting grounds, and no family is complete without its keen little hunting dog, which trees partridges and locates bear-holes and porcupines running along the bank. Now, of course, all the Indians use the modern rifle, but for fishing they still employ the wooden spear, the torch, and net of sinew or twine; while they often catch many partridges by a pole with a noose, or shoot them with a spruce bow and arrow, in order to economize ammunition. In the same way, whenever possible, caribou are killed with a spear while swimming in the lakes, and often in very large numbers. The carcasses are left at the place where the animal was speared, to dry in the sun and wind, and are consumed later. In fact, these migrating bands preserve better than anywhere else in North America the features of aboriginal Indian life and customs. In their relations with one another they display unselfishness and other high qualities. Their language is full and expressive, the verbs having nearly the whole burden, and being accordingly subject to innumerable inflections. In the north they are nominally Protestant, in the south and west, Catholic, but they still possess many ancient superstitions, and numbers of them are not yet free from the fear of the Windigo, or big cannibal, that rushes out on the hunter. The spirits are not generally evilly disposed, but become more so as they resemble human beings. The Tshe Manitou, or Good Spirit, is almost unapproachable; and there is a distant conception of the Trinity.

Discovery
and deve-
lopment.

The history of Labrador has well been termed a pageant rather than a drama. The country has been a stage across which figures have passed and left no connexion with those that followed. Professor Fernald of Harvard identified the botany of the early Norse Sagas with that of Labrador, but Fridtjof Nansen has endeavoured to show that the entire early Saga stories were mythical. Again, while Antonio Zeno of Venice, John Szkoliny of Poland, and others have claimed pre-Columbian visits to this part of North America, it would seem safer to discredit all of them. The grandiloquent stories of the



great town of Brest and the doings of the Sieurs de Donjeon and de Combes, and the whole narrative told by Mr. Samuel Robertson should be placed in the same category, and with them the Arcadian invasion of 1753. However, Bjarni Herjulfson probably sailed west for many days and discovered a land which was high, mountainous, and covered with glaciers. Some claim that this was undoubtedly Labrador, but if so the glaciers were not glaciers. In the year 1000 Leif Ericson, following his steps, discovered Helluland, the land of flat stones. This also has been called Labrador. But the characteristics of Labrador rocks are that there are few loose rocks at all except the numerous ice-born boulders that cover every hillside, and are never flat. In 1121 Eric Gnipsson was appointed Bishop of Greenland and Vinland. In 1824 the following inscription was found on an island off Baffin's Land—'Erling Sighvatson, Bjarni Thorharson, and Eindod Oddson raised these marks and cleared ground on Saturday before Ascension week, 1135.' John Cabot was the real discoverer of Labrador. He believed that he was finding a passage to Asia. It was in his second voyage of 1498, while seeking the wealth of Ormus and Ind, that he struck the Labrador shores. In 1500 Gaspar Cortereal cruised along the best part of the east coast. He succeeded in capturing sixty miserable Indians, whom he carried off to King Manoel of Portugal for slaves; after which, on his third voyage, he disappeared. Martin Frobisher and John Davis both visited Labrador in 1577 and 1586 respectively. In 1670 the famous Hudson passed along the northern coast into the bay. Fish was valuable in those days, and Sebastian Cabot's stories that 'cod sumtymes stayed his shippes' encouraged Norman and Breton, and then Spanish, fishermen to seek the shore. In 1534 Jack Cartier met a French fishing-boat in the Strait of Belle Isle, searching for the port of Brest. Remains of Spanish stations were still visible at Bradore in 1704. It was not until 1763 that the English fishermen really came out.

In 1661 the Compagnie des Indes granted to one

François Bissot the Île au Cerfs on the Labrador coast 'en Seigneurie'. Jolliet, discoverer of the Mississippi, married one of his daughters, and settled on the coast. He was ruined, however, by the English invasion of 1690, and died forgotten on an island there. In 1702 another tanner, De Courtemanche, obtained a grant to trade and fish in South Labrador. From that time to 1760 many similar grants were made to Frenchmen, who established stations as far north as Hamilton Inlet. So we learn that in 1744 several thousand barrels of cod oil were exported to France. Order was kept on the coast by De Courtemanche, who, as commandant of a port in Bradore Bay called Fort Ponchartrian, had plenty of trouble with Eskimo and fishermen. He was followed in office by his stepson, François Brouague. After the English conquest the French for the most part returned home, and the coast, from Mingan to Bradore, was held by the English Labrador Company, under Matthew Lymburger of Quebec, while Bristol firms built stations at Cape Charles and Temple Bay.

In order to preserve an open fishery for the Dorset and Devon fleet, the Canadian east boundary was now fixed at St. John's River, all the remainder being put under the command of fishing admirals, and united to Newfoundland. But though Sir Hugh Palliser, the governor, built a fort at Chateau to enforce order, such a disorderly crowd (the worst scum from the colonies) sought these fishing grounds that it proved of no avail. The New England fishermen especially resented their exclusion, and it became a lesser cause of the American Revolution. In 1774 Labrador was again handed over to Canada, and in 1809 again given back to Newfoundland. The present arrangement was only reached in 1825, the boundary line being placed at Blanc Sablon River. There could be no better example of the small interest taken by the Home Government in the boundary lines of North America. For the line across the land was to be drawn from Anse Sablon, a place which does not exist, 'to the entrance of Hudson Bay,' a spot which no man has as yet been



able to locate, while if the line were really drawn between the points named it would fall largely in the Atlantic Ocean.

The most interesting single figure in Labrador history is undoubtedly Major Cartwright, whose inimitable journals have just been republished in America. His brutality and licence, his piety and real business integrity, are so frankly recorded, and so ingenuously depicted, that one gets an idea of the spirit of the times which is almost unique. Among his other valuable records are those of the catches of salmon in Eagle and Paradise rivers, in numbers which were as great as all those now caught in all Labrador together. This shows that unrestricted netting has seriously depreciated that valuable fishery. Cartwright also formed fishing companies at Forteau and Blanc Sablon.

In 1818 a concurrent right to fish 'on the coasts, bays, harbours and creeks of Labrador' was granted to the American fishermen, just as a similar grant had been made to the French in Newfoundland. As both these countries granted large bounties to their men, the English fishermen felt the competition keenly.

Labrador has only on two occasions been the scene of fighting between Europeans. In 1778 American privateers robbed and destroyed all the fishing stations from the Gulf to Hamilton Inlet. One can scarcely imagine a more pitiable side-light upon the devilry of war. Again, in 1796, three French frigates burned and destroyed all they could find, all the fishing vessels, stores, and supplies, besides razing the small fort at Chateau. The Hudson's Bay Company only sold to the Dominion their 'right to the trade and commerce of Labrador and all lands round Hudson Bay' in 1870, rights which had been proved valid in 1752. In 1831 they founded Fort Chimo in Ungava Bay, and a year or two later Rigolet Post and Hamilton Inlet. They now have posts at varying distances all round the coast, and have lately established one at Cape Wolstenholme, and also at Lake Harbour in Baffin's Land. Others have been deserted owing to



the moving of the population and the depletion of game. No book on the country is more interesting than that by their factor, John McLean, called *Notes of a Twenty-five Years' Service in the Hudson Bay Territories*, published in 1838. Messrs. Revillon Frères, of Paris, have three stations in Labrador.

White
popula-
tion.

The present white population of Labrador is derived from sources hitherto referred to, French, Jerseyemen, Newfoundlanders, a few American Loyalists, and the half-breed population which has grown up around them. To these the Hudson's Bay Company have added many Scots, Norwegians, and English, whom they have brought out as servants and officers, and whose offspring have married and remained in the country. Many well-known Canadians have served their apprenticeship in Labrador.

Industries.

The present industries of Labrador are fishing, furring, sealing, and whaling. There are no factories, no constructive work, no conservation. For centuries the country has been just as fully exploited as man could manage, and it is little wonder if, like a pond on a hill-top with no intake, it should show signs of running dry. Immense herds of harp and hood seals once visited its coast in the spring and autumn, on their journeys to their whelping ice off the southern coast or in the Gulf, where in the month of March they give birth to their young. Much money was made netting the old seals along the Labrador coast, but now the herds have been so depleted by Newfoundland steamers that it scarcely pays to set the nets. Many poor settlers go short of boots, clothes, and meat as the result. The skins of the young seals are taken off with the fat attached and sold as pelts, fetching about ten shillings apiece and weighing about fifty pounds. The baby fur is fast for three weeks after birth, and for that reason they are hunted and killed while they are still lying helpless on the ice. Their skins are now dyed and used for robes; they are white when born. The old seals drive them into the water at that tender age, when they learn to swim, and at the same time they lose their baby fur. They now strike

Sealing.



out direct for the north and are called 'beaters', owing to their imperfect gait. They spend the summer in Melville Sound and Baffin's Bay, and return as one year old bachelor or Bedlamer seals. They do not breed till their second year. In their third year they develop a black patch over their back and shoulders, and are known as 'old harps' or 'saddle-backs'. The hood seals are very much larger than the harps, and are characterized by a large bladder of skin over the nose. This the male can inflate at will, and it gives him not only a most terrifying appearance, but also affords him considerable protection—as, for instance, from hunters who are accustomed to kill their victims by sticking them in the nose with a dogwood pole called a seal bat. The more well-to-do Labrador settlers fished with what were called 'frames', or a huge submerged room of net set from the shore, with a sunken net door which was hoisted up by a capstan on the land as soon as a school of seals was seen to enter. Poorer men used gill nets with large meshes in which they entangled the seals and drowned them. The seals are often eaten, before they can be taken from the nets, by the voracious ground sharks which abound in these northern waters.

Cod and halibut are the chief sea-fish. The latter are Fisheries. taken almost wholly with long lines, on the banks which lie 150 miles out in the Atlantic. They are mostly taken by New England men, who have larger and better fitted vessels, and whose protected industry gives them a great advantage over any others. The fish are salted on deck and taken home in bulk, where as a rule they are smoked before being sold. Long lines for the cod fishery are coming more and more into vogue. The old method of hand-lining proved too slow a process, limiting the earnings of a single man to some fifty quintals, or \$350 to \$400 a year. This led to their adopting nets, somewhat similar to seal frames, called 'traps'. One leader of net set to the rocks bars the progress of the school of cod as they browse along close to the shore. They follow the twine and are led to a room of net with



incurred doors, so that as they go round and round the inside, they do not swim out again. The doors are hauled, and then the net floor passed over a boat or boats till the fish are a solid mass in one corner of the surface, when they are bailed into the boat. Seines are also used for cod in suitable localities. Of late years the cod have either learned to avoid the traps, or have been driven away by them. Once ashore, the fish are split, the backbones removed, and the rest salted and dried in the sun for two or more days according to the cure desired. Oddly enough, each market seems to wish a different amount of salt or hardness, and perhaps the most difficult thing in Labrador and the most expensive part of the industry is getting sunshine enough for the process. The principal markets are in the Mediterranean, to which the best of the fish goes. A little is shipped to England, and the balance to South America and the West Indies. The immense quantities of offal, heads and fish remains, are wasted, no way having yet been discovered of remuneratively collecting it for conversion into fertilizer.

Export of
cod.

The annual export of cod from Labrador is worth approximately three million dollars, and weighs thirty-five to forty thousand tons. There appears to be a diminution in the quantity taken, and no scientific efforts and inquiries to prevent such a wholesale disaster are being made. The fish is carried to market by small Welsh and Norwegian vessels, which run many risks, and incur many losses on their hazardous voyages. No better sailors exist than the crews of these small and venturesome craft. The price of fish depends largely on the catches made by the French and Norwegians, but of late not only has the price been rising, but new markets have been opened. The salt for the fish is brought from Cadiz and Valencia by the vessels which carry the cargoes home. The business of a fish merchant, however, is far from being always remunerative, as there are a thousand openings for loss and depreciation. Though the fish firms in St. John's, Newfoundland, which handle most of the



Labrador fish, are of very old standing, all have seen hard times, and more than one have been forced to compound with creditors.

The herring, for which Labrador was once so justly famous, have almost entirely left. The mackerel have absolutely gone; but the reason is unknown. Formerly it paid thousands of Newfoundlanders to take passage on schooners going north with the summer fishery, if they were too poor to own vessels themselves, and then, lodging in tiny huts of wood and sods, to fish in punts and small sailing boats from the shore. They returned in the autumn with the same schooners, which were compelled by law to carry them back. But the number of these has been steadily decreasing. For besides a plot of land at home which gave them potatoes and cabbage, they had no second string to their bows, and in the event of getting no summer catch they were left destitute for the winter. So deep-set in these men, however, is the love of the sea, that often they would leave for the Nova Scotian mines in winter, and spend any money left over from their expenses in again returning to Labrador the following year.

Herring,
mackerel.
Immi-
grant
fishermen.

The salmon fishery may also be considered a sea-Salmon fishery, and the North Atlantic salmon is the finest in the world. The cod traps and the nettings of the rivers have greatly impoverished the catch, and also apparently diminished the size of those taken in the rivers. But in spite of this, excellent fishing for sea trout, brook trout, and salmon is obtainable in all the rivers, at least as far north as Cape Harrison. The bulk of the salmon fishery is now in the hands of the Hudson's Bay Company.

Labrador fur is especially valuable, owing to its dark Fur colour, though the extensive forest fires which have denuded so much of the land have had a deleterious effect, by the inevitable laws of environment, upon its shade and its quantity. Like everything else in the country, the fur has been badly exploited, and the numbers of immature skins which are seen every year show how little heed men pay to the laws when it does

not suit them to do so. The most valuable fur is the black and silver fox—sports of the common red, but sports as capable of perpetuation as the seedless orange or the white blackberry. The farming and conservation of these animals is comparatively easy and very remunerative, and was introduced into Labrador in 1912. It has already proved successful in Maine and Prince Edward Island. The skin of a good large dark silver fox will fetch £400 in the market, and has fetched considerably more, while a red fox will seldom sell for more than £2 10s. The patches or half and half variety range up to £10 at most. Another animal altogether, the arctic white fox, fetches up to £3. He is smaller, but very abundant, coming south on the arctic floe ice and breeding in Labrador. The marten cat, or sable, is worth about £6, and is still fairly plentiful in the interior. The mink, mostly taken along shore, realize about £2. Lynx, much less numerous than formerly, have become more valuable, owing to the splendid black dye which they take, and have risen from £1 to £10 in value. Otters, varying from fuzzy brown to shining black in colour, are taken on all the rivers, and fetch similar prices. Beavers are sold by the pound. Owing to their serious diminution, laws against killing them have been passed, but have saved the lives of very few. As soon as any number gather on a river, it is impossible to protect them, for Indian bands succeed in finding customers for them in spite of every precaution. Ermine is numerous though small. At times it fetches 5s. a head. The most common fur is musquash. It has greatly increased in value. Black bear, though fairly plentiful, are comparatively of little value, the best skins only fetching £5. It is a long while since the Barren Ground bear has been found in Labrador. A few straggling white bears from the polar sea are killed on the coast every year, as they loiter to catch young ducks and seals on their way north. Wolverine and blue fox are uncommon; squirrels and woodchucks are numerous, but valueless. The arctic wolf is still fairly common; he is a cowardly beast, and never

attacks man. He is much larger than the Eskimo dog. The latter are really the greatest trouble on the coast, for while they are splendid for transport in winter, they make any kind of garden, or the raising of domestic animals, impossible.

The Labrador mammalia are more numerous than might be supposed. The list published by Outram Bangs of Boston is probably complete. Besides those mentioned above there are many mice, moles, bats, voles, lemmings, and some rats. The arctic hare, which is fairly common, is greyish blue in summer and white in winter. Like almost all the animals of Labrador he assumes a protective colour. The most important, however, of the food mammalia are the caribou. The woodland variety has become very scarce, but the Barren Ground species are still abundant in the north. The ease with which these animals make a living summer and winter, and their marvellous natural increase, though they are unprotected and beset with innumerable enemies, suggested that the immense tracts of land, now quite valueless, might be converted into a huge ranch for reindeer. Experiment has so far only extended to northern Newfoundland. There, however, the climate and conditions are identical. It is in every way justifying itself. The original 300, imported from Lapland, are now a fine herd of 1,200. This is exclusive of 50 sold to the Dominion Government and sent to the Peace River district, and of nearly one hundred superfluous stags killed and eaten for food. The hauling capacity of a deer is equal to that of at least four dogs, but for rapid transport the latter are still preferred, though deer can make a greater speed when they choose. Their milk is rich and bland, but so long as the does and fawns run together it is no easy task to collect much from them. The excellent meat has a flavour between that of beef and mutton. The skins are exceedingly valuable for winter robes.

Among the sea mammals the most valuable, the right whale and the bowhead, are almost extinct. The sulphur-bottom is scarce, and since the establishment



of whaling factories on the coast, even the humpback and finback are diminishing in numbers. The sperm whale, or cachalot, is practically only a visitor. The white whale is still common in the north and south, but the walrus and narwhal, once numerous, are now rarely taken off Labrador. Porpoises are still common, as also are dolphins, but it does not pay to hunt them, except for dog food.

Birds.

The birds of Labrador have been carefully listed by Drs. Townsend and Glover, of Boston. Two hundred and sixteen varieties are known at present. The most valuable among them are rapidly diminishing from indiscriminate slaughter, there being no one to enforce the close season regulations. The esculent arctic curlew, which formerly blackened the sky in flocks, is now almost extinct, £10 being offered for a single skin. It is in the States, however, that this bird has been destroyed by the poulterers. Fortunately the Canada goose is still numerous, a fact that is due to his nesting singly and far in the country. The willow grouse and rock ptarmigan are both important food factors, but they are migratory, going north in summer, and their supply in any particular region can never be counted upon. The spruce partridge, owing to his stupidity and confidence in man, is an unusually easy prey, and is rapidly becoming rarer. A large variety of small land birds are apparently attracted every year by the numerous berries that are ripened only by lying on the plants under the snow all winter. The black duck, snipe, teal, and widgeon are the next most acceptable birds for food, but the native eats everything which falls to his gun, and consumes quantities of eider ducks, auk, and even gulls. Besides the Eskimo curlew, the Labrador duck, the American oyster-catcher, and the passenger pigeon are exterminated. Quite a large number of the eggs of ducks, gulls, and auk are still taken in the spring, and preserved for eating during the summer.

Mollusca.

Among the molluscs of the coast clams and scallops are common, but as they bury themselves so deep in the mud, and cannot live in shallow water wherever the



Bottom is subject to freezing, they are hard to obtain, though excellent for food. The edible mussel also is found along the entire coast, and on these sometimes starving families have had to depend for their existence when the winter supplies have run out, and no new supplies have arrived. The common cockle and the *Astarte*, or little brown clam, are also common. The gastropods are, however, commoner than these bivalves, and various large whelks are a usual adjunct to a Labrador meal. There are many other varieties, of which Mr. Charles Johnson of Boston has written. The list is still very incomplete, however, as little work has been done on them in the field. Land molluscs are comparatively rare. Of the crustaceans the lobster is the most valuable, but is seldom taken north of Battle Harbour, and only in any abundance to the westward of the Strait of Belle Isle. Over eighty varieties have been listed by Miss Mary Rathburn from various previous lists.

The flora of the country has yet to be fully worked out, Flora. but Professor Delabarre of Providence, Rhode Island, has done considerable work on the subject. Labrador is the most southerly country which has a predominantly arctic vegetation. It presents an amazing wealth of strikingly coloured flowers, so that in places the land gives the appearance of a cultivated garden. Besides this it has still a quantity of accessible timber—spruces, larches, firs, birches, and balsam poplars. The soil of the country is moist, but cold and rich in humic acid and in salts, all of which facts tend to produce physiological dryness, and nearly all the plants have special protection against this and the drying winds from which they are so poorly sheltered. Thus they have large roots, a stunted or low growth, small leaves, generally thick and recurved with thick cuticle and plain edges. Some store water in the cells of the leaves or stems, and have hairy coverings to prevent evaporation. Owing to the scarcity of insects few of the flowers depend on them for fertilization, the large majority relying on the winds. The magic rapidity of the appearance of flowers when the snow vanishes is



due to the fact that to survive at all in such short seasons the embryonic leaves and flowers that are to appear one year are always formed during the previous season. Plants which mature slowly may flower, but cannot seed and persist in the short summer. Those which have berries which are attractive to small animals naturally tend to spread.

Forest
belt.

In the forest belt there are altogether nine species of trees. This belt is continuous over southern Labrador between 52° and 54° N. lat., except on the hill-tops along the coast. North of 53° all the hill-tops are barren, and in 55° more than half the country is treeless. North of a line from Hebron in 58° to Ungava Bay trees disappear. The barrenness of the southern islands has given a very wrong impression of the real condition of the country inland, as the valleys of the rivers south of Davis Inlet are all well timbered. The black spruce is by far the commonest tree, though all timber when cut is considered spruce. It affords an excellent fibre for making paper.

Flowering
plants and
berries.

The lovely white flower of the Labrador tea and the red swamp laurel form most of the undergrowth of the south, while in the north the *Cladonia*, or Iceland moss—a white lichen—covers most of the barrens. Blue campanulas, red saxifrages, fireweeds, yellow ranunculi (American golden rod), blue gentians, the abundant white *Canadensis*, and later on its brilliant red berries, with many other familiar plants, make the slopes of the hills in southern Labrador gorgeous. In the marshes there are many berries. The yellow cloudberry, named locally the bakeapple berry, and largely used for food, is in great abundance in the south. Sweeter, but less abundant, is the red arctic raspberry. Two blueberries, *Vaccinium Pennsylvanum* and *uliginosum*, are very abundant, but the mountain cranberry is of most use, as being far easier to preserve. No Labrador family need suffer from want of vegetable salts, for these berries will keep sweet all winter if simply preserved in cold water. The ubiquitous bearberry is often acceptable, especially in the hot autumn days when the traveller cannot find water.



There are also numberless Boleti and Russulae, which are edible and easily preserved by drying.

The further list of other emergency foods as given by Mr. Thompson Seton might have saved life if travellers were familiar with them, and with methods of cooking them. Such are Iceland moss, reindeer moss, rock tripe, the buds and outer and inner bark of the aspen, and the inner bark of willows and birches.

With insects as with plants the numbers of species are Insects. comparatively few, though the numbers of individuals are endless. There are, however, probably about 750 species, and unfortunately cold has no controlling effect upon them. The mosquito egg will hatch out in water just above the freezing-point. During July and August the lowlands are scarcely habitable, for where there is still water the mosquitoes breed, and where the water is running, the black fly. Fortunately none of these carries germs affecting man; indeed Labrador has no endemic diseases. There is no malaria, no leprosy from fish-eating, no harmful tape-worm as in Greenland from the numerous dogs. There are two varieties of bot-fly which make the lives of the deer miserable. One deposits its larvae in the animal's nose, whence they crawl up into its frontal sinuses. The other bot lays its eggs on the hair within reach of the animal's mouth. The deer lick this off, the saliva releases the larvae from their cases, and the deer swallow them. They then burrow through the animal's tissues till they lie just beneath the skin. The writer has never seen a head or skin free from one or other of these pests. At maturity the larva bores out and falls to the ground, where it hatches out into a fly again. The deer-flies and horse-flies are also at times troublesome. They are large buzzing insects resembling wasps. On the Hymenoptera, Lepidoptera, and other insects Dr. Charles Johnson, of Boston, has written at some length. On the Coleoptera Mr. John Sherman, of Brooklyn, is the authority. He has collected over eighty varieties. Over one-third are carnivorous ground beetles, mostly black. There are two water beetles also carni-

Social
 condi-
 tions, &c.

vorous which are peculiar by being seldom found anywhere else but in Labrador. They have power to rise from the water and fly for miles over the country.

For the white people of the country, except in the west, little or nothing has been done for their mental development along academic lines, though their spiritual welfare has not been neglected. Nowhere in the world will a more peaceful, law-abiding community be found. The truck system of trade and the absence of money as a medium of exchange has kept a large proportion always in debt, and their lot in life has been little better than serfs to their suppliers. Their houses are small and ill ventilated, their dietary is poor and rendered less efficient through the ignorance of the rudiments of domestic science. The absence of resident doctors to enlighten them and afford treatment in case of need piled up arrears of surgery that were formerly pitiful to see. A child born with or acquiring a disability, which in civilization might be easily remedied, was often obliged to pass through life deprived of some invaluable function for earning a living. With no opportunity of making sufficient provision for old age, and no communal institutions, the shadow of probable privation when physical capacities should fail hung over the lives of many. But of late years much has been done to make matters better in this respect. The means of transport have been greatly improved, more especially by the Government of Newfoundland; direct telegraph lines and wireless stations have made communication possible in times of need. The three small hospitals erected at strategic positions some 200 miles from each other by the Royal National Mission to Deep Sea Fishermen have been partially subsidized, and a better system of poor relief and fuller opportunities for the administration of justice have been instituted. Three lighthouses have been erected on the east coast, and a systematic survey has been undertaken.

In the extreme north at the Moravian stations the Eskimo have been taught the three 'R's' and the



doctrines of Christianity. Unfortunately, parties of them have been taken to civilization for show at exhibitions, at which they contracted various diseases. This, combined with disregard for and ignorance of sanitation or hygiene, is inevitably and rapidly destroying them. To remove an Eskimo is now prohibited by law.

The writer has no doubt that Labrador has a future of economic importance. It will probably yet afford valuable mineral products. Its forests are still of sufficient importance to promise labour as the pulp supply of the world elsewhere diminishes. With proper conservation there is no reason why its fisheries and its fur supplies should not recuperate. Fur-bearing animals can be bred and selected. Its flora that gives a return to man can be improved and added to. There is no question that as a vast reindeer ranch it could contribute a valuable quota to the proteid food supply of the world. But it needs capital, in both cash and intelligence, for its development. If points of call were made in Labrador by steamers plying between Hudson Bay and Lower Canada, if a direct line of steamers to Europe were instituted, if a railway were built connecting the east coast with Quebec, if roads were built along which people could travel, these new factors would soon make great changes in the country.

Economic future of Labrador.

See R. Bell, 'The Labrador Peninsula,' in *Scottish Geogr. Mag.*, July 1895; W. G. Gosling, *Labrador*, London, 1910; W. T. Grenfell, *Down North on the Labrador*, London, 1912; *Labrador*, New York, 1913, and other works; A. P. Low, 'Labrador Peninsula' (*Geol. Surv. Reports*), Ottawa, 1894-5; 'Observations on the Labrador Coast' (*ibid.*), 1895; A. S. Packard, *The Labrador Coast*, New York, 1891.



THE BRITISH WEST INDIES

INCLUDING THE WEST INDIAN ISLANDS, BRITISH
GUIANA, AND BRITISH HONDURAS, WITH BERMUDA.

CHAPTER XII

TOPOGRAPHY, POPULATION, AND GOVERNMENT

BY ALGERNON E. ASPINALL

Topo-
graphy.

THE islands of the British West Indies form links in the chain of islands which stretches in a semicircle from the south of Florida to the eastern end of Venezuela on the mainland of South America, and encloses the Caribbean Sea. They lie between latitudes 28° and 10° N. and longitude 59° and 81° W. and comprise (1) the Bahamas; (2) Barbados; (3) Jamaica, with Turks and Caicos Islands, and the Caymans; (4) Trinidad and Tobago; (5) the Windward Islands, including Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and the Grenadines, and (6) the Leeward Islands, comprising Antigua, with Barbuda and Redonda, St. Kitts, Nevis and Anguilla, Montserrat, Dominica, and the Virgin Islands. The colonies of British Guiana on the mainland of South America and British Honduras in Central America are also generally considered part of the British West Indies, and in the present and two following chapters the insular colony of Bermuda, situated almost equidistantly between the Bahamas and Nova Scotia, will also be dealt with.

§ 1. *The West Indian Islands*

Relief.

With the exception of the Bahamas and Barbados the islands are exceedingly mountainous. Indeed there is every evidence to show that most of them are formed



by the mountain ranges of a vast submerged land-mass. Many of the almost land-locked harbours of which the islands boast—and notably those of St. George's in Grenada and Castries in St. Lucia—are undoubtedly the craters of submerged and long extinct volcanoes. From the central ranges of mountains, which are densely clothed with tropical vegetation, spurs run down to the coast, forming valleys of great beauty and fertility. Some of the West Indian islands are scarcely more than single volcanic cones, and of those belonging to England cloud-capped Nevis falls under this category (see further Chap. XIII.).

Nature has provided the West Indies with many superb Harbours. harbours, the most notable of which is that of Kingston in Jamaica, which covers an area of 16 square miles, with a depth of 7 to 10 fathoms over 7 square miles, and the Gulf of Paria, between Trinidad and the mainland of South America, which could easily, it is said, hold all the navies of the world. Other sheltered harbours of importance are those of Montego Bay and Port Antonio on the north coast of Jamaica, St. John's, Falmouth, and English Harbours in Antigua, St. George's in Grenada, and Castries in St. Lucia. Barbados has only an open roadstead—Carlisle Bay; but it is well sheltered from the prevailing winds and affords an excellent anchorage.

The islands vary greatly in size. Jamaica, with an Areas. area of 4,207 square miles, is the largest, while Trinidad, which has 1,754 square miles, comes next in order of size, and then Dominica with an area of 305 square miles only. The areas of the remaining islands are: St. Lucia 233 square miles, Barbados 166, St. Vincent 140, Grenada 133, Tobago 114, Antigua 108, St. Kitts 65, Nevis 50, Anguilla 35, and Montserrat 32. The Bahamas, Turks, and Caicos Islands, the Cayman Islands and the Virgin Islands, cover 4,404, 166, 89, and 58 square miles respectively.

It would be impossible to exaggerate the exquisite Scenery. beauty of the scenery of the West Indian islands. Cloud-capped mountains covered from base to summit with a wealth of tropical vegetation, valleys densely cultivated



with cacao, sugar-cane and fruit trees, surf-bound coasts fringed with graceful coco-nut palm trees, coral strands, whose brilliant whiteness are in pleasing contrast to the indigo blue seas of these low latitudes, form pictures of surprising charm. It would be difficult to say which is the most beautiful island. Many would award the palm to Jamaica, whose superb Blue Mountains do not belie their name when seen from afar through a framework of palm trees, and whose Bog Walk, the gorge of the Rio Cobre, enjoys an almost world-wide reputation. Others would give it to Trinidad, whose capital on the shores of the Gulf of Paria is approached through wonderful gateways of sentinel islands—the famous Bocas del Dragone, the Dragons' Mouths, through which the caravels of Columbus sailed after the great discoverer paid his first visit to the island.

Of the smaller islands, Dominica is perhaps the most beautiful, boasting, as it does, many picturesque waterfalls, while the grandeur of its mountains is unsurpassed in the West Indies. Grenada, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent are scarcely less attractive, the first-named island having its romantic Grand Étang, the 'great pond' in the mountains which fills the crater of a long extinct volcano. St. Lucia, too, has rare scenic charm, the most noteworthy view which it affords being that of Castries Harbour and the serrated coast-line from the historic Morne Fortuné over which Edward Duke of Kent, great-grandfather of King George V, hoisted the English colours on April 4, 1794. In the same island are the Pitons, strange sugar-loaf mountains which rise from the sea on the leeward coast. In St. Vincent, the mysterious Soufrière Mountain, a volcano which has a dreadful association with Mont Pelée in Martinique—they simultaneously burst into violent eruption in May 1902—forms a prominent feature of the scenery.

Popula-
tion:
aborigines.

When Columbus discovered the West Indian Islands, he found them inhabited by two distinct races of Indians, the Arawaks and the Caribs. The former, a timid and peaceful people, occupied the larger islands, known after-



PLATE XXV. THE FIRST BOCA, TRINIDAD

(Phot. Permanent Exhibition Committee of Trinidad and Tobago, per West India Committee)



PLATE XXVI. TOBAGO: SEA-BEACH AND COCO-NUT PALMS
(Phot. Permanent Exhibition Committee of Trinidad and Tobago, per West India Committee)



wards as the Greater Antilles, while the Caribs, a warlike and truculent race, were confined to the smaller islands. The Arawaks, who were forced by the Spaniards to work in the mines of Hispaniola, were soon exterminated ; but the Caribs were not so easily stamped out, and until the end of the eighteenth century they proved a constant source of trouble, and for years an obstacle to colonization. It was, indeed, not until 1796 that they were finally suppressed. In that year Sir Ralph Abercromby defeated them and their French Republican allies in St. Vincent, and the government caused the majority of the survivors to be deported to the island of Ruatan off Honduras.

The Arawak and Carib Indians still exist as distinct races in British Guiana ; but in the islands a few representatives of the Carib race only remain. They have their home in St. Vincent and Dominica, where they form a peaceful and law-abiding portion of the communities, eking out an existence by fishing, raising ground provisions, and making baskets. In British Guiana, on the other hand, they maintain their warlike proclivities, though these are only now directed against neighbouring tribes.

When the colonization of the West Indies began in earnest, the necessity of finding labour for the plantations had to be faced, and the Spaniards eventually solved it by adopting the plan of the Portuguese and introducing slaves from Africa, an example which was soon followed by settlers of other nationalities. Sir John Hawkins began trading for slaves in 1562, and Sir Francis Drake followed in 1568. At the end of the sixteenth century the Dutch took up the trade, and in 1662 and 1672 English 'African Companies' were formed to introduce slaves, and proved a source of great wealth. In 1688 the African trade was thrown open to all British subjects, and by the end of the seventeenth century 25,000 negroes were being imported annually by British ships into the islands. The English secured the 'Assiento', or contract to supply Spanish America with slaves, in 1713, subject to the payment of a quarter of the profits to the King of

Spain ; but the monopoly did not pay, and the failure of the English Company to meet a claim of £68,000 led to war in 1713, and though the agreement was renewed by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, it was annulled in 1750.

Meanwhile, favoured with an abundant supply of cheap labour, the West Indies became exceedingly prosperous and the wealth of the proprietors immense. But towards the end of the eighteenth century a cloud appeared in the horizon. The agitation for the abolition of the slave-trade commenced in 1776, and, as the outcome of a vigorous campaign conducted by Wilberforce, Clarkson, and others, the traffic in human beings was suppressed by Act of Parliament in 1807. The vigorous and long-drawn-out agitation for the abolition of slavery itself followed, and in spite of the protests of all concerned in the great sugar industry, the Abolitionists had their way, and, by the famous Act of 1833, slavery too was abolished. By the provisions of this enactment, all slaves were to become free on August 1, 1834, but were to be apprenticed to their former owners until 1838, or, in the case of agricultural labourers, until 1840, while £16,640,000 were voted as compensation to slave-owners in the West Indies. Antigua and Bermuda dispensed with the apprenticeship system altogether, and in no instance was it continued after 1838.

Labour
problem :
coolies.

With the abolition of slavery the labour question became acute. The erstwhile slaves, glorying in their newly-won freedom, showed a total disinclination to work, and a serious crisis resulted. Efforts were made to fill the deficiency with free labourers from Madeira, St. Helena, Rio, and Sierra Leone, but the supplies from those places proved quite inadequate. Then in 1838 a small, but very successful, experiment was made with the introduction of East Indians, and in 1845 the introduction of coolies from Calcutta, under a system of indenture, was begun. With the exception of the years 1849 and 1850, it has continued ever since, under the control of the Indian and Imperial Governments. British Guiana, Trinidad, and Jamaica now receive East Indian immigrants annually, and in the two first-named colonies



East Indians form a large proportion of the population, while they are also found in St. Lucia and other islands which once received Indian immigrants.

Chinese were also imported into British Guiana between 1853 and 1867, and a number of them found their way to the islands, where they now form peaceful and law-abiding citizens.

Mention having been made of the aborigines, of the negroes, and of the East Indian and Chinese immigrants, it remains to refer to the white population, which in the West Indies is, unfortunately, steadily dwindling. The white population was established in a variety of ways. First, there were the original white settlers, then in the days of slavery each slave-owner was compelled to employ a certain number of white servants, to serve in the local militias; later on Oliver Cromwell sent out many Irish prisoners, notably to Nevis and Montserrat, while Barbados received a large influx of Royalists at the time of the Commonwealth. Many English gentlemen, Royalist officers and divines, were sent out to the West Indies to be sold as slaves, and it is recorded that a number changed hands at a cost of 1,500 lb. of sugar per man.

White
popula-
tion and
other
immi-
grants.

The original type of negro in the West Indies has been greatly modified by admixture with the various white races, and at the present time all grades of colour are to be met with in the islands, the individual characteristics of the several white races being blended with those of the negro and producing different types according to the parentage, Spanish, French, or English. Thus, in Trinidad a strong Spanish element exists in the coloured classes, while in Dominica and St. Lucia, as might be expected from the earlier history of those islands, the Gallic character is very noticeable. In Trinidad, in addition to the Spanish families descended from the original Spanish settlers, there are many representatives of old French Royalist families, which migrated there from Guadeloupe and Martinique at the time of the French Revolution. In the small islands of Montserrat and Nevis the Irish element is strongly represented, for the



reasons above stated. Jamaica stands, however, in a somewhat different category. Captured from the Spanish in 1655 by Cromwell's troops, which had been sent against Hispaniola, many soldiers of the invading army were persuaded to settle there. Later on a Portuguese element was introduced, and at the present time few traces remain of the original Spanish settlers.

Perhaps the most striking indication of the source of the original colonization of the islands is seen in the architecture of the older buildings. Thus, in Trinidad the Spanish type predominates, in Dominica and St. Lucia the French, while the fine old mansions which are still to be found in Barbados are strongly reminiscent of the mother country.

Chinese are met with to some extent in Trinidad, and occasionally in the islands. It is probable that they result from the Chinese imported at one time into British Guiana, or perhaps they may have drifted down from Cuba, where Chinese immigration in large numbers was at one time practised.

Portuguese are to be found in most of the islands, as a result of the immigration carried on at one time from Madeira, and of the trade relations which have existed for many years between the West Indies, notably Barbados, and the Brazils.

Effects of
local con-
ditions on
immi-
grants.

The West Indies afford interesting opportunities for observing the effect of local conditions upon non-indigenous races. The wide variation of climate, the conditions of the northern islands, which are far more suited to white population than those of the southern while that of Barbados is more suggestive of temperate latitudes, has had the effect of producing a more stubborn strain in some islands than in others.

It is not possible to say that the long effect of the tropics on the descendants of white families originally coming from the east has been prejudicial. Where the original stock has been pure, where there has been no intermarrying with brown types, and where favourable conditions of life have been preserved, it may be stated that there has been no decadence. There is evidence of



this in the representatives of families which have been resident in the tropics for many generations. When depreciation is seen, it has arisen from too much intermarrying, a position of affairs unavoidable when a white population is small and communication with the outer world scanty. It has been stated, as regards agriculture, that white labour in the field is impossible. There is no reason to think that with the proper material, maintaining a life suitable to the conditions, white labour in this respect would not be a success. But at the present time it may be said that field labour is entirely in the hands of the coloured races. Where the stock has remained pure, where there has been no admixture with white blood, the negro races have retained their physique. As regards the East Indian immigrants, there is not the slightest doubt that the change of residence and general conditions has produced a vast improvement in them mentally and physically. There is no comparison to be made between the coolie as he arrives and as he is after a few years' residence. The self-reliant, hardy peasant proprietor would not be recognized as the cringing, low individual of the early days of indenture.

The census taken in 1911 showed the population of the various West Indian islands, British Guiana, and British Honduras, to be as follows :

	1911.	Per Square Mile.
Bahamas	54,944	12·7
Barbados	171,982	1036·0
Jamaica	831,383	197·6
Turks and Caicos Islands	5,615	33·8
Trinidad and Tobago	333,552	179·2
Grenada	66,750	501·9
St. Lucia	48,637	208·7
St. Vincent	41,877	299·1
Antigua	32,265	189·8
Virgin Islands	5,557	95·8
St. Kitts	26,283	404·4
Nevis	12,945	258·9
Anguilla	4,075	116·4
Montserrat and Redonda	12,316	379·0
Dominica	33,863	111·0
British Guiana	296,041	3·3
British Honduras	40,458	4·7

In the old days of slavery, education was practically non-existent in the British West Indies. It was not considered desirable in those unenlightened times for the slaves to be taught to read or write, and even the upper classes had few opportunities of educating their children locally. Those who could afford to do so consequently sent their sons and daughters to Europe, where, however, the standard of education at that period was far from high.

The long-drawn-out agitation for the abolition of slavery in the British West Indies brought about a change. Private benevolence had already endowed Codrington College in Barbados, and the sporadic efforts of a few individuals were now supplemented by missionary enterprise on the part of various religious bodies in the mother country which led to the formation of schools here and there.

In bringing about the emancipation of the inhabitants of the West Indies from total ignorance, an important part was played by the Mico Charity, the history of which is interesting. In 1666 Lady Mico, the widow of Sir Samuel Mico of the Mercers Company, died, and in her will bequeathed £1,000 for the redemption of Christians made prisoner by Moorish pirates. Freehold premises in London were purchased, and, as shortly afterwards Algerian piracy was suppressed, the funds accumulated until, in 1830, they amounted to £120,000. Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton then suggested that the interest might be applied to the Christian instruction of children in the West Indies, and a charter was obtained, the home government contributing £17,000 per annum, which was continued until 1841. Training institutions were established in Jamaica and Antigua, and schools in Trinidad, the Bahamas, and St. Lucia, together with Mauritius and the Seychelles. In 1841 the government grant ceased, and with the exception of the Mico Institute in Jamaica, which still flourishes, these educational establishments were gradually closed.

Before passing to a question of state-aided education,



PLATE XXVII. ST. GEORGE'S, GRENADA
(Phot. Government of Grenada, per West India Committee)



PLATE XXVIII (a). CODRINGTON COLLEGE, BARBADOS
(Phot. A. E. Aspinall, West India Committee)

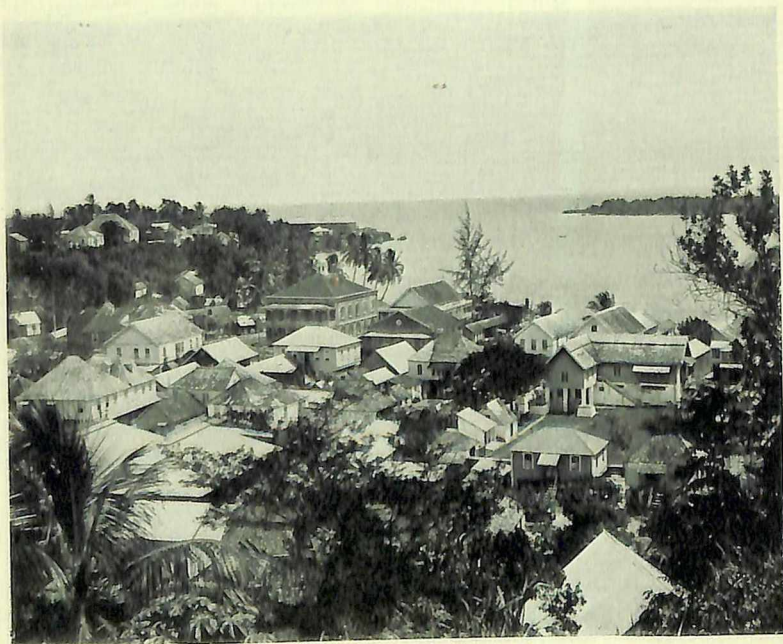


PLATE XXVIII (b). PORT ANTONIO, JAMAICA
(Phot. West India Committee)