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The Past Is Prologue: Archives And History In Nova Scotia

CHARLES B. FERGUSSON

For a topic such as this one winged words would seem to be demanded, and I fear that what I shall say may be all too pedestrian. Be that as it may, all of you who have visited the National Archives in Washington will recall how the words "The Past is Prologue" stand forth in bold relief at the front of that magnificent building as a symbol of the significance of the historical treasures inside. You will just as clearly recollect not only the common "hint of woe" of the shipwrecked characters in *The Tempest,* but also the memorable utterance of Antonio, the usurping Duke of Milan.

> We were all sea-swallow'd, though some cast again,
> And by that destiny to perform an act
> Whereof what's past is prologue, . . .

These two instances of the words the "past is prologue" may serve as an excuse, if one were needed, for a few remarks upon the meaning and the use of history. As Mommsen once said, one reason why no single doctrine has ever captured Clio completely is that history is too difficult for general agreement to prevail among historians. The science of history may establish the facts, but, as Pieter Geyl has shown, the meaning of those facts will be endlessly debated. Holborn declared that an

objective knowledge of the past can only be attained through the subjective experience of the scholar. Hence the need to sound, ground, and justify our subjective knowledge. We must verify our references. As William James asserted: "I have to forge every sentence in the teeth of irreducible and stubborn facts."

Carlyle pointed out that the Artist in History may be distinguished from the Artisan in History. He had no doubt that in history, as elsewhere, there were artisans and artists, men who laboured mechanically in a department, without eye for the whole, not feeling that there is a whole, tiresome researchers, to use Churchill's phrase, and men who inform and ennoble the humblest department with an idea of the whole, and habitually know that only in the whole is the partial to be truly discerned. Nietzeche's charge that historical thinking had overpowered the creative, spontaneous forces of life, and that historians had succumbed to a lifeless scientism was not made against Carlyle.

Although the techniques of historical scholarship may be acquired like the techniques of any other craft, the art of analyzing, synthesizing, and combining the facts into a truthful and persuasive whole will be the result of cultural influences, imaginative insights, conception of the past, sensibility, and talent in writing. These are some of the reasons why history must always be changing.

Whether the aim of history is narration or analysis or resurrection, or a combination of all three, the study of the past, as someone has observed, should be a liberating experience, lifting us out of the parochialism of time and place and enlivening the imagination. "The effect of historical reading," Macaulay wrote, "is analogous, in many respects, to that produced by foreign travel." It is, indeed, travelling in time.

Should a historian be a mere observer of the past or should he search the past with the preoccupations of the present? Some

historians seemed to think that the offices of judging the past and of instructing the present for the benefit of future generations had been assigned to history. Shrinking away from such lofty responsibilities, however, Ranke, the father of modern historical scholarship, aspired only to show what actually happened. Ranke, feeling that history ought no longer to play the role of philosopher or judge, intended his words about reconstructing the past "as it actually was" as a more modest role for history. Subsequently, however, Ranke's modest self-denial became a famous phrase regarded as a boast that history could actually achieve this kind of exactitude. Although the historian's fundamental commitment is to truth, he can neither extinguish himself nor get all the facts.

Although objective truth might be the ideal, James Harvey Robinson flatly declared that what was called objective history was simply history without an object. He proposed to bring historical knowledge to bear on the quandaries of our life today with a view to facilitating readjustment and reform. "Today," Frederick Jackson Turner stated, "we understand Roman history better than did Livy or Tacitus, not only because we know how to use the sources better but also because the significance of events develops with time, because today is so much a product of yesterday that yesterday can only be understood as it is explained by today."

Many centuries ago, Sophocles wrote that a sensible man judges the present by past events. This means that we may identify with the past, become involved with the present, and in some degree, anticipate the future. As George Santayana put it, those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it.

God alone knows the future, someone has said, but only an historian can alter the past. If reason is but choosing, man knowing the past may by his choices affect his future. The recent past, Lord Acton, Regius Professor of Modern History in the

University of Cambridge and planner of *The Cambridge Modern History,* asserted, contains the key to the present time.

If history, reduced to its lowest terms, is memory of things said and done, the importance of records is obvious. It has been said that our custom of taking records and preserving them is the main barrier that separates us from the scatter-brained races of monkey, for it is this extension of memory that permits us to draw upon experience and to establish a common pool of wisdom. Apart from the power to create, this ability to store up creations and observations is said to be man's most significant advantage over other creatures. Hence the value of records.

Lord Acton declared that history to be above evasion or dispute must stand on documents, not on opinions. This pertinent statement confirms the value of records and affirms the need for archives.

Joseph Howe expressed similar sentiments in his apt and oft quoted saying: A wise nation preserves its records, gathers up its muniments, decorates the tombs of its illustrious dead, repairs its great public structures, and fosters national pride and love of country by perpetual reference to the sacrifices and the glories of the past.

Nova Scotia, rich, vivid, and colourful in tradition, has a vibrant and fascinating history. The Archaeology of today lifts the curtain upon men who lived here ten thousand years ago, widening our horizon and arousing our curiosity. Relics of aborigines antedate the recorded arrival of Europeans, including Norsemen about the year 1000 A.D., John Cabot and his men in the *Mathew* in 1497, Portuguese, Spanish, French, and English fishermen, and the discoverers and explorers of several nations. Attempts at settlement were made on Sable Island by the French in 1518, at Ingonish by the Portuguese about 1520, and on Sable Island, again, by the French in 1598. Effective

settlement by Europeans began when DeMonts built the Habitation of Port Royal in 1605 and Scottish settlements were established near the same site and at Beleine not far from English Harbour in Cape Breton Island in 1629. When the first social club—the Order of Good Cheer—was instituted in 1606, Chief Membertou who claimed to have seen Jacques Cartier over sixty years earlier on the St. Lawrence was present. When Sir William Alexander, later Earl of Stirling, received the Royal Charter of 1621, Nova Scotia got its name, and shortly afterwards it got the coat-of-arms which forms the basis of its flag.

Conflicting claims to the region were based upon discovery, settlement, occupation, and the arbitrament of war. Sovereignty changed nine or ten times between the destruction of the Habitation at Port Royal in 1613 and the Treaty of Utrecht a century later. By that treaty Nova Scotia or Acadia, with its ancient limits was to be British, although Isle Royale (Cape Breton Island) and Isle St. Jean (Prince Edward Island) remained French for a time. Nova Scotia became an outpost of New England as well as an outpost of empire. There were wars in which the Indians were involved. British sovereignty was only barely maintained with New England aid. New Englanders had a memorable involvement, in conjunction with a squadron of the Royal Navy, in the first chapter of Louisbourg in 1745. Following the restoration of Louisbourg to France, Halifax was founded at the expense of the British Government in 1749. Amidst the vicissitudes of war the Acadians faced the unhappy fate of deportation. The second capture of Louisbourg in 1758 and the Treaty of Paris at the end of the Seven Years' War in 1763 eliminated French claims to the region.

To understand ourselves better we need to know more about the peopling of the province. Its settlers included the ancestors of the Acadians, Scots, and English, "Foreign Protestants" from continental Europe, New England planters, fishermen, and lumbermen, returning Acadians, Yorkshiremen,

Loyalists, disbanded soldiers, refugees, and others. Uprooted or displaced persons constituted substantial segments of our population with pathos and poignancy pervading part of the lives of many continental Europeans, Loyalists, Scots, and Irish.

We take pride in our past politics, our past economics, our past culture. Canadian political liberty, sharing the legacy of Magna Carta, Habeas Corpus, and Bill of Rights, slowly broadening down from precedent to precedent and developing its own peculiar characteristics began in Nova Scotia when the first legislature was elected and convened at Halifax in 1758. That was the first parliament in any part of what is now Canada. Ninety years later the first responsible government in the British Empire outside the British Isles was formed in Nova Scotia when a change of government took place after a vote of want of confidence in 1848. The coming of Confederation, the issue of repeal, better terms, the proposal for secession, Maritime Union, and the movement for Maritime Rights command the attention of us all.

Perhaps some observers may regard the use of the phrase "The Golden Age" as an instance of inflation of terms. But there is no doubt that Nova Scotia had pride of place in the days of sail, when wooden ships and iron men made Nova Scotia famous on the seven seas and Nova Scotia forged ahead until it became the leading shipbuilding and ship-owing Province in the 1870's.

Industrial development, transportation, and communications are meaningful themes in our history. To mention coal, gypsum, gold, and salt, potatoes, oats, tomatoes, and apples, cod, haddock, lobsters, and swordfish, iron, steel, textiles, and electronics, canals, railways, and automobiles is to remind ourselves of the need for historical investigation in many lines.

Equally varied and vivid are our cultural developments. Only a superficial knowledge is needed to realize that Lescar-

bot's little drama of 1606 at Port Royal, entitled "Neptune's Theatre", was the inspiration for the name of today's Neptune Theatre. Lescarbot's little play, the first dramatic production in Nova Scotia, was presented at the water's edge at Port Royal, with some of the colonists dressed as Neptune and his six Tritons and with four Indians on a precarious and movable stage of canoes on water. Literature is instanced in *The Letters of Mephibosheth Stepsure* of Rev. Thomas McCulloch, in the Sam Slick Series by T. C. Haliburton, and in the writings of Joseph Howe. Newspapers had their Canadian beginning in the *Halifax Gazette* of March 23, 1752. Music, opera, ballet, architecture, and the arts generally deserve their share of investigation and interpretation.

In the days when Nova Scotia was young, colonizers and colonists wrote promotional or eye-witness accounts of the area. These included Champlain's works, Lescarbot's history, Sir William Alexander's *Encouragement to Colonies,* Sir Robert Gordon of Lochinvar's "Encouragements for such as shall have intention to be Under-takers in the new plantation of Cape Briton, now New Galloway in America," and Nicolas Denys' *Description and Natural History of Acadia.* Otis Little, a Harvard graduate, who had been at Annapolis Royal in 1736, published in London in 1748 a pamphlet to encourage immigration to Nova Scotia, and he then became one of the founders of Halifax and the first Attorney General of the Province. John Wilson, who had been Inspector of Stores, wrote an account of the transactions in Nova Scotia from the founding of Halifax in June 1749 till August 5th, 1751.

As settlement proceeded and society progressed, the value of records for writing a history of the Province was more and more recognized. In 1773 a Mr. Legge, in Halifax, who announced his intention of writing such a history, solicited suggestions and information. He received a number of replies but if he expected to get all the information he needed by asking for it he

does not seem to have succeeded. In 1776 an account of Nova Scotia appeared in a translation of a work by Abbe Raynal dealing with the British settlements in North America. A few years later—in 1783-84—Rev. Jacob Bailey collected materials and wrote an account of the Province for Rev. Samuel Peters. About three years later S. Hollingsworth wrote a description of Nova Scotia which appeared in two editions. Without a critical use of documentary materials, however, no treatment of the history of the Province was likely to be adequate.

Rev. Andrew Brown, a Scottish Presbyterian minister, who had been a student of the famous Scottish historian William Robertson and who came to St. Matthew's Church, Halifax, in 1787, only 38 years after the founding of this city, was so inspired by Clio that he set out not only to collect documents and reminiscences but also to write a history of Nova Scotia. He also consulted records in London. He collected many important records and he wrote a draft of a portion of his projected history of North America. Many of his papers are in the British Museum or at Edinburgh University.

Others who projected a history of Nova Scotia included Dr. William Cochran, George Isham Parkyns, and William Sabatier. Cochran, a graduate of Trinity College, Dublin, became a professor of Greek and Latin at Columbia College, New York, master of the Halifax Grammar School, editor of the *Nova-Scotia Magazine,* and head of King's College, Windsor. Although he made notes and memoranda, he too failed to complete a history of Nova Scotia. Parkyns was an artist and historian who, assisted by William Sabatier, a Halifax merchant and afterwards chairman of the Committee for Trade, and sheriff of Halifax County, hoped in 1801 to produce an illustrated history of the British Provinces in America. They sought assistance from knowledgeable persons, and Parkyns made at least four scenic views in this area, but their plan failed to reach fruition.

Anthony Lockwood's *Brief Description of Nova Scotia* was published in 1818. He was a Professor of Hydrography and Assistant Surveyor General of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, and his book was merely a technical description of the harbours of the Province.

Thomas Chandler Haliburton was more successful. If his history was begun as a hobby, it was also history with a purpose, for he was aware of the unfavourable opinion of Nova Scotia which was then common in Europe, and he resolved to try to eradicate it. Burke had referred to "that ill thriven, hard-visaged, and ill-favoured brat." Goldsmith had described Nova Scotia as "a place where men might be imprisoned, but not maintained," because "it was cold, barren and incapable of successful cultivation." Others had depicted it as a land of unrelenting sterility by dubbing it "Nova Scarcity." Haliburton resented this erroneous impression and he set out to counteract it.

Many difficulties would have to be surmounted before a real history of the Province could be produced. Haliburton could not devote all his time to this project, for he was then a struggling lawyer at Annapolis Royal and he was soon to become a member of the Legislative Assembly of Nova Scotia. There was no public library in Annapolis Royal; there was no Archives Building in the Province; and little had yet been done to collect and preserve, and less to make accessible, the records of the Province. Haliburton consulted as many records as he could find, and he enlisted the aid of many persons. So laborious was the task that he became discouraged at times. He persevered, however, for seven years until the work was done. It appeared in 1829, in two volumes, under the title *An Historical and Statistical Account of Nova Scotia.* He had done what others had failed to do. He had produced a history of Nova Scotia worthy of the name.

T. B. Akins, who aided Haliburton in gathering information for his history, acquired an absorbing interest in the history

of Nova Scotia, won the prize of the Halifax Mechanics' Institute in 1839 for an essay on the early history of Halifax, and became enormously concerned over the condition of the records of the Province. In a letter to the President of the Halifax Mechanic' Institute in 1841, he proposed the establishment of a depository of Provincial records, and he soon came to be recognized as the guiding spirit of a mission which he had made his own and he was acknowledged to be the driving force behind it. He continued his urging for fifteen or sixteen years, until the legislature of the Province, by a resolution, moved by Joseph Howe and seconded by J. W. Johnston, decided in 1857 to provide for the care and the management of the public records and historical documents.

Recognized as the man for the assignment, Akins became the first Provincial Archivist in 1857, when he was appointed Record Commissioner. He continued as Record Commissioner for 34 years until his death in 1891. His achievement, primarily concerned with records of government prior to Confederation, was a notable one. It included examining, selecting, binding, and cataloguing documents, and arranging to get transcripts of documents in London, Quebec, and Boston. In all, while Akins was Record Commissioner, more than 500 volumes of manuscripts were sorted, classified, arranged, catalogued, and bound.

Even though Nova Scotia still lacked an Archives Building, Akins's work made possible a number of worthwhile publications. Perhaps worthy of special mention are Beamish Murdoch's *History of Nova Scotia,* which appeared in three volumes between 1865 and 1867, Akin's *Selections from the Public Documents of Nova Scotia,* a volume of 755 pages, which was published in 1869, and Duncan Campbell's *History of Nova* Scotia, which was printed in 1873, as well as papers read at meetings of the Nova Scotia Historical Society which was instituted in 1878.

The establishment of the Record Commission in 1857 was

a significant step. The longest continuous public archival organization in Canada began at that time. A pre-Confederation statute of Nova Scotia also has a signal place in the history of public records, for by Chapter 24 of the Revised Statutes of 1864, the books, papers, and records of all public offices, provincial and county, were thereby vested in Her Majesty the the Queen and her successors.

Although the second full-time archivist was not appointed until forty years after the death of Akins, the care of the records of the Province was entrusted to three governmental employees, in turn, during the interval. Francis Stephen Beamish, who was the first of these three, had charge of the records from 1891 to 1895, when this responsibility was transferred to Edwin C. Fairbanks who held it till 1899.

The custody of the records was then given to a man whose main work was done as Curator of the Provincial Museum—Harry Piers. For thirty-two years Piers had the dual role of Curator of the Provincial Museum and Deputy Keeper of the Records. In 1799 Piers assumed the care of 508 volumes of manuscripts and 43 boxes and bundles of records. To these he added at least 323 volumes and 319 plans, many of the new accessions being military muniments, as well as a collection of photographs.

During his custodianship many of the records were transferred to the Technical College Building between 1914 and 1916, and the project of publishing some of the Provincial records was continued. Two volumes, edited by Professor Archibald MacMechan, were published in 1900 and 1908. The first of these was *A Calendar of Two-Letter Books and One Commission Book in the Possession of the Government of Nova Scotia,* 1713-1741; *the second was Original Minutes of His Majesty's Council of Annapolis Royal,* 1720-1739.

Nova Scotia had had a custodian of records ever since ten years before Confederation, but it still lacked the accommodation necessary to make the records easily accessible to scholars and others. Eventually, however, through the inspiration of Premier E. N. Rhodes and the benefaction of Mr. W. H. Chase the crying need for an archives building was met.

The decision to provide an archives building was a noteworthy one. It was suggested by Premier Rhodes when he was the guest of W. H. Chase at a fishing lodge on the Restigouche River in 1928. After reflecting upon it Mr. Chase, the "Apple King of Nova Scotia", and a member of the board of directors of a number of companies, resolved to provide the means for a building in which many things of historical value and interest would be preserved to inspire that vision without which the people perish. The following winter Mr. Chase, whose matriculation essay sixty years earlier, entitled "The Hope of Our Country", had elaborated the theme that the hope of our country lies not in the rich assets of her minerals and other natural resources, but in the vision and calibre of her manhood, informed Premier Rhodes that he would assume the responsibility of erecting a suitable archives building.

For a time the donor desired to remain anonymous, but the essential decision had been made. When the announcement of it was issued early in 1929, it was asserted that Nova Scotia was to have the first provincial archives building in Canada. Premier Rhodes provided for "a self-perpetuating Board of Trustees", which, as he put it, "should lift the control and management out of the political rut for all time." The Board of Governors of Dalhousie University offered a site for the new building, and the Board of Trustees of the Public Archives of Nova Scotia, at first comprising the Lieutenant-Governor, the Chief Justice of Nova Scotia, the President of Dalhousie University, Dr. J. C. Webster, and Dr. A. G. Doughty, and shortly afterwards also including the Premier, the Leader of the Opposition in the House of

Assembly, the President of the Nova Scotia Historical Society, and Mr. W. H. Chase, made arrangements for the construction of the building. Andrew R. Cobb was commissioned as Architect, and the contract was let to the McDonald Construction Co. Premier Rhodes laid the cornerstone on August 29, 1929.

When the Archives Building was formally opened on January 14, 1931, it was asserted that Mr. Chase, whose vision and generosity had made possible a splendid edifice which was to become "a House of Learning", had indeed provided Nova Scotia with a casket worthy of the priceless jewel of her history and traditions. By that time collections of records had been transferred to the new building and others continued to be acquired.

Although the Public Archives of Nova Scotia had as yet no permanent director, steps had been taken to appoint an Archivist, and on August 3, 1931, Professor D. C. Harvey, Rhodes Scholar of Prince Edward Island and recently head of the Department of History at the University of British Columbia, commenced work in that capacity. Under his direction until 1956, and since his retirement in that year, a great deal has been done to assimilate and to make accessible a large amount of material.

A Rhodes Scholar of Nova Scotia followed a Rhodes Scholar of Prince Edward Island when, after serving in the Royal Canadian Navy, as Civil Service Examiner in Ottawa, and as Assistant Provincial Archivist, I succeeded Dr. Harvey as Provincial Archivist. Some of the achievements of the Public Archives of Nova Scotia are recorded in its annual reports, which disclose a markedly increasing interest in research and scholarship.

Since the Archives Building was formally opened in 1931, there has been a signal development in the organization and use

of public records and historical documents. Some of the fruits of this development are seen in the publication of the institution, in the theses of graduate students, in the research of other scholars, and in the works of writers. In earlier days the number of daily visitors was small. Now the number of researchers and the scope of investigation are substantially greater. Archival materials are being collected from all parts of the Province and elsewhere, and increasing use is being made of microfilm.

The Public Archives of Nova Scotia is both a building and an institution. As a building it is a storehouse for the preservation of historical records of many kinds, including documents, microfilms, newspapers, books, maps, pictures, and other muniments. As an institution, it is an historical laboratory for the use of historical documents.

There are a great many public records, including records of government in its executive, legislative and judicial capacities. Among these are commissions, and instructions of governors, minutes of council and correspondence; journals of assemblies and councils, other papers dealing with legislation, as well as the various courts of law. Legislative records deal with many aspects of provincial life, such as immigration and settlement, communications, trade and commerce, taxation, revenue, finance, and currency, religion and education, agriculture, fisheries, mining, manufacturing, and industry in general. In the Archives Building there are also many municipal records, including the old township books which throw light on the New England migration of 1760 and subsequent years and the papers of the Quarter Sessions which administered local government until 1879, as well as minutes of the councils of incorporated towns and cities and of other municipalities.

Among other records in the Archives Building are personal and private papers, including diaries and correspondence, and records of families, businesses, churches, and societies. To give

you an indication of the quantity of such papers, I need only say that we have records of more than 150 churches, as well as of about 225 businesses.

May I earnestly solicit your assistance in collecting and preserving historical records and archival materials? I would like to see deposited in the Archives Building records of all kinds which may illuminate our development. These include not only jublic records, but also personal papers, correspondence, diaries, political papers, and records of businesses, churches, educational institutions, and societies. There is no limit to the scope or to the volume. For instance, when we consider industrial development, how useful it would be to have the benefit of a study of businesses which have previously been in operation in this Province.

We in archival institutions must try to keep up with the times in procedures and techniques. Relationships with the academic community, with business, with government, and with the general public are important. Finding aids, catalogues, indexes, inventories, and calendars are constantly being made. There is need for the speedy retrieval, arrangement, and analysis of records and data. Developments of tremendously potential significance are those relating to automation. The usefulness of the computer in analyzing and indexing records is now being tested in Washington.

Perhaps you will permit one final comment. As an Illinois archivist declared last year, "The financial support of archival agencies is fully as necessary as their continuing use by scholars." May scholars and other interested persons unite in this worthwhile cause!

The Makings Of A School Museum

MORTIMER V. MARSHALL

I

The history of our Nova Scotia schools may be traced through such articles as books, texts, school-room furniture, charts, maps, other visual aids to learning, and so on. One can detect various stages in the evolution of the schools even when they overlap.

First comes the French period which has been described by Patrick W. Thibeau in his book, Education in Nova Scotia Before 1811. Most children did not attend school. Only the children of prominent and influential persons or some boy who was dedicated to the priesthood, would be taught the rudiments by the priest, and then be sent to France for his more advanced schooling.

Dating from the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 the English period begins with such schooling as was made available being under the direction of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. This Society of the Church of England provided trained and capable teachers who often were prepared to double as clergymen on Sunday.

About 1832 the provincial government, which consisted of the English Governor and his appointed Council, began to set aside small grants to be given to support schools. This effort came under the control of the Provincial Secretary.

This transition period was marked by a real "rash" of private schools. Pictou Academy and Acacia Villa are well known. Yarmouth Seminary, Annapolis Academy, and many others arose, built by subscription and supported by pupils' fees supplemented by small grants from the government. However, the little-known schools were those that provided what we now call "elementary education". Many a dame instructed urchins from neighbouring families in the alphabet and reading, numbers and sums, in her kitchen as she did her cooking and sewing. Each child would bring his penny and the good dame wielded the switch to keep the throng in order. From such efforts came what were until recently called "the common schools".

As the schools that received governmental grants improved, the private efforts were discontinued. With government money came government demands, reports, supervision, standards, and control. Neither church effort nor private enterprise was capable of meeting the need, for the need increased with the awareness that it was important to have literate citizens. Successive stages can be identified: compulsory provision of schools, compulsory and universal assessment to provide the money to pay for schools, compulsory attendance of children at school (which only became 100% operative when the children's allowances were instituted), compulsory curriculum, compulsory training of teachers. These advances did not come into effect suddenly, of course. New measures came in step by step, over a period of years, and sometimes against stubborn opposition.

It is the purpose of this article to describe some of the artifacts that have come to hand that are related to stages in this evolutionary process. What a splendid School Museum they

would make; and what an excellent research centre could be associated with it!

The oldest specimen is a license to teach issued to Ephram Clarke, Gentleman, and signed by Lieutenant-Governor Sir John Coape Sherbrooke in the 52nd year of His Majesty's reign. It requires a little historical knowledge and simple arithmetic to arrive at the conclusion that His Majesty must have been George III and the date of the license is 1812. One might question why the Lieutenant-Governor had to be bothered with issuing a teacher's license.

In 1835 the principal at Annapolis was Mr. Daniel Cornwell. Beginning on May 26, 1835, he recorded in detail all the things he taught each day until January 12, 1836. His notebook is a large ledger, 14 inches by 17 inches, containing 87 sheets. Counting both sides of each sheet there are 174 pages of copperplate writing with headings in a variety of printing styles, and many diagrams frequently water coloured in six or seven hues. Very infrequently Mr. Cornwall made slips in spelling or grammar, but he gets high marks for firm, beautifully neat handwriting.

The first subject in the book is Geography. He records all the things he taught: General Remarks, The Whole Earth (with diagram of both hemispheres in white, yellow, blue, pink and green). At the bottom of page 6 is the date, June 2, A.D., 1835. Then come individual countries: Sweden, Denmark, Russia, Prussia, map of Europe (seven colours), Poland, Kingdom of the Netherlands, Germany, Saxony, Turkey in Europe and so on.

Then comes Asia which includes The Birman Empire, Tartary and Hindostan (map). The Oriental Archipelago, Australasia, and Polynesia follow. The North American section includes The Late Spanish Dominions. The map shows Mexico

extending north to present-day Oregon and including land to the east to enclose present Texas. Alaska is designated as Russian America. South America and Africa follow with maps quite differently divided from arrangements accepted in 1971.

The "United States of North America" (not America) shows several "territories" on its map, such as, Arkansas, Missouri (Great American Desert), Oregon, Michigan, Wisconsin, and the "Spanish Provinces of Texas". Many present-day states are missing.

There are only four British Provinces: Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Lower Canada, and Upper Canada. The account of Nova Scotia has one sentence about education: Provision is made for common education by an annual grant from the government, the higher branches are taught in the academies of Pictou and Annapolis, the College of Halifax, and the University of Windsor. The detailed map of Nova Scotia shows no Yarmouth County; its space is included in Annapolis and Shelburne Counties. Guysborough County is called Sydney County. Pictou is "the District of Pictou", Antigonish is "Upper District", and Cape Breton contains the "North" and "South Districts".

The Geography ends, after 25 pages, on July 25, 1835. Then comes The Principles of Surveying. This section includes Decimals with arithmerical processes using them, and Square Root (six pages). Geometrical Problems follow with many very neat diagrams. After ten pages there is a "Scholium": By the same method a rectangle or oblong may be described the sides being given.

Beautiful Old English lettering introduces Plane Trigonometry. Problems are worked out by both geometric methods and by calculation, using the functions of an angle. Rectangular trigonometry leads to Oblique Angular Trigonometry. A quadrant is explained and methods of finding height are illustrated

and demonstrated both geometrically and by calculation. Diagrams are very neat and carefully coloured. Lines, poles, perches, and chains are explained and used in problems. Calculations are worked out in detail and sometimes cover all of a large page. Finding meridian distances takes up such things as southings and northings, eastings and westings, bearings and departures. Then comes Divisions of land. Promiscuous Questions follows. The forty pages ended on November 28, 1835.

Bookkeeping by Single Entry gives Day Book entries for a general store and teaches "to" for debtor and "by" for credit. Homespun cloth was going for one shilling and sixpence a yard. Potatoes were one and six a bushel. Then the Ledger was illustrated and balanced. A half-page illustrates the phases of the moon. Then come Deeds (Quit Claim and Mortgage), a Will and a Codicil, Bill of Sale, Indenture, Bond, and Power of Attorney. Alligation (Medical, Alternate, Partial and Total) is explained and illustrated.

Ratio and Proportion are called Single and Double Position. Foreign Exchange takes up seven European countries. Converting Bank Money into Current Money involves something called "agio" which is "generally from 3 to 6 per cent in favor of the bank". Finally there are a few problems on Weights and Measures in different countries, Conjoined Proportion, a Promisory Note, and Simple Interest.

In summary, this very carefully kept record by Mr. Cornwell one hundred and forty years ago gives us an insight into what constituted a good secondary education at that time, and suggests changes, not only in the content and terminology of such an academic field as Mathematics but also in selection of such material for educational purposes.

A good example of a private school is Acacia Villa School which existed at Hortonville, or Horton Landing as it was then

called, until 1920. In addition to offering a good academic education for adolescent boys and young men it met the needs of certain groups. The many sea captains in Nova Scotia at that time frequently took their wives on their voyages, so their boys were sent to this residential school where a fatherly principal, who had several sons and daughters of his own, would keep them in order and, if need be, supervise them during vacations. Boys who had gotten out of hand at home and at their home schools soon got their come uppance at this school. Older boys and young men who were working at firms, or possibly were going to sea, could come to the school during the winter months and leave in the spring. Many of the boys trained at this school, too, went on to further study at university.

Dr. Joseph R. Hea founded the school in 1852. His prospectus, dated May, 1853, says that the school has had such success that he feels warranted to solicit continued support and patronage. The proprietor called the school Lower Horton Seminary. He was a graduate of King's College, Fredericton, and had been a professor of languages at Sackville Academy. There were two terms beginning January 15 and July 15. Mrs. Hea cared for sick students. Twenty boarders could be accommodated. Care was taken to teach good manners and the Bible. The chief concern was to teach the "elementary branches of an English Education". There were two vacations of a month each beginning on June 15 and December 15. The mail coach passed daily to and from Halifax and tri-weekly to and from Annapolis.

In 1865 the school was purchased by Mr. Alexander McNutt Patterson and became known widely as "Patterson's School". It was a superior school for a number of reasons. It secured superior teachers. Sir Robert Borden, Frank Parker Day, David G. Davis, Mr. Justice Patterson, E. W. Robinson, George Bancroft, J. C. Crowe, and many others who rose to eminence in academic or professional cirlces were members of the staff. The organization of the school was thorough and the

discipline was enforced, both of which evoke respect from pupils. Consideration was given to the needs and interests of pupils. They could enter at any time. They continued with a subject at the place they had reached formerly. Individual purposes and interests could be cultivated through a variety of courses: matriculation, general, commercial subjects, science, music. There was an interesting program of extra-curricular activities: sports, debating, dramatics, music, declamation, rifle shooting, military drill, and literary. Pupils had to write letters to their parents each week. They attended church each Sunday. Classes were small and total enrolment was never over 100 so each pupil was known personally, and there was always some one who praised, criticized, corrected, inspired, and above all cared. Close contact was kept with the parents, as a couple of letters from Mr. Patterson, written about a boy to his father, show. A boy's autograph book, among our possessions, shows the "family" feeling of the school. Former students spoke of the old school with warm affection. The Pattersons frequently had parties of pupils invited to their home, or cared for them in their home when the school was closed and parents were absent. Mrs. Arthur Patterson, daughter-in-law of the principal and a teacher in the school, used to read stories to the younger boys after they were in bed. The ratio of boys to teachers was 10 to 1.

Yes, Acacia Villa was a good school but it was made obsolescent by the rising tide of gradually improving public schools. Neither church auspices nor private enterprise could meet the demand for good schools for all the children. As the provincial government came to play a larger part, the public schools began to have more and more good teachers, good school buildings and facilities, a good curriculum, and good textbooks. These schools now had science laboratories, libraries, gymnasia, and playing fields, things which Acacia Villa School had had for many years. Moreover, a thorough elementary schooling was first provided for all children, and then later a good universal secondary schooling. Such privileges were no longer the perogative of the wealthy.

Now its buildings are gone and its former students becoming fewer each year. But a cairn with a brass plaque from the Historic Sites and Monuments Board marks its place and a considerable collection of artifacts and documents is held at nearby Acadia University, from its original prospectus to the big bell that sent its melodious note out over the hills of Horton.

II

In 1850 the first Provincial Superintendent of Education was appointed, William Dawson, later Sir William Dawson, already a well-known geologist and later chancellor of McGill University. In the first annual report which he submitted he describes the state of schools throughout the province as he had found them during the year. In his second report he describes his observations on a visit to the schools of New England and New York, and includes recommendations for Nova Scotia. The province was passing into the period of governmental management and control of schools. During the next forty years, until the appointment of Dr. A. H. MacKay as superintendent in 1891, the transition was in progress from good schooling for a few to good schooling for all.

The attainment of this goal came about gradually. The Normal School which was founded in 1854 up-graded the candidates for teaching positions. They had come from a great variety of schools was varying standards. The system of academic examinations for teachers that was set up in 1867 became the "provincial examinations" that came to be written by all students in grades VIII to XII, and are still in use. The grade-ladder from I to XII was not set up until Dr. MacKay's time. Compulsory assessment was attained and thus free schools came about. A system of teacher's licenses according to academic level was devised, and a license obtained through the Minimum Professional Qualifications examinations (M.P.Q.) was arranged. A

number of Inspectors of Schools enabled the provincial department to see that its regulations were carried out.

The Free School Act brought a remarkable institution into being, the one-room country school. Within walking distance of every child in the province was a school house and a teacher (walking distance was defined as a mile and a half). This institution has never been thoroughly studied nor appreciated. Any child of ability and ambition had the road to an education opened to him.

Among the artifacts in our collection are several pictures. One shows a very primitive, almost a log-cabin type of school. But it does have a stove, a pail of drinking water, and a blackboard. The teacher is a man although most of such schools came to be staffed by women. Other pictures of the one-room school show the wooden, shingled building, usually unpainted, wherein the boys and girls read orally, did their sums on slates, and recited lessons. Some of the "boys and girls" were young men in their twenties who spent the winter learning mathematics and navigation. A visit to one such school on North Mountain on a very windy March day found a porch door ineffectually braced with a piece of cord-wood so that the chilly gale entered the school room freely. The children and teacher were gathered close around the stove. One of the combined desk-with-seat was obviously homemade, very roughly made too. It is now a part of our collection.

All children in the School Section (its official designation) were eligible to attend the school and receive instruction without fees. This ruling applied to both elementary and secondary levels so many an entrant to Normal School or university received the necessary knowledge in the one-room school, often by a great deal of self-instruction from the prescribed textbooks. Uniform textbooks for use in schools were not prescribed until 1892 in Dr. MacKay's superintendency. We have an example of the

primers used during this period. Called "The Child's Primer" it was one of a number that followed, and, to some extent, imitated the doughty old "New England Primer". "In Adam's fall, we sinned all", it began. Choice of a text lay with the teacher, or what was available in the school or home, or a neighbor's home. Pike's "Arithmetic", published in 1796, opened one's eyes to the Rule of Three that my grandfather used to talk about. Among its "promiscuous questions" it demonstrated how to calculate the size of Noah's Ark.

A research paper by Miss Laura Shortliffe studied the changes in arithmetic texts over the last hundred years. A similar study of readers would show that their content reflected social problems. Earlier readers spoke much of death (Lucy Gray, We Are Seven, etc.) for death was a familiar visitor in many homes. A good deal of religious material appeared too, for the problem of eternal life was always present. Then came less religious material but an abundance of moralizing (Be Nice to Old People, Tidy Tom and Dirty Dick, Stick To Your Bush, etc.) More recently have appeared stories about children, about pets, and about games. The readers mirror the times.

The Royal Readers Series went out as I began school in 1903, but the old readers were to be found around our house, their pictures of bears and wolves chasing sleighs to be enjoyed. In 1893, the first year of prescribed texts, they were chosen by the provincial department. Benjamin Greenleaf's "Introduction to the National Arithmetic on the Inductive System" was in use in 1867 and McCabe's "English Grammar" in 1893, both by A. and W. Mackinley, Halifax. Lindley Murray's Reader and Lennie's Grammar were in use over many years, in Great Britain as well as in the United States. Our collection of over 1000 volumes of old school text books was capable of furnishing 20 for an exhibit of the National Library for Expo year, and four texts plus a teacher's license of the First Class received by Mary Coffin in 1868, were retained by the National Library for the subsequent exhibit during the year following.

Slates were used for pupils' seat work. We have two old school slates and two boxes of slate pencils, one box decorated by red-white-blue stripes and the other by a picture of Britannia. How those slate pencils would squeak as the urchin worked out a long division question or completed the sentence with "rise" or "raise", "sit" or "set", and so on!

A picture appeared in "Eighty Years Progress of British North America" by H. V. Hind, T. C. Keefer, Charles Robb, M. H. Perley and Rev. William Murray in 1864 (Publisher L. Steffins, Toronto). The picture contrasts school apparatus and equipment of the district school as it was a century previous (1763 approximately). The 1763 school was equipped with andirons, tongs, shovel and bellows; a long backless bench; a pail; a sloping desk facing the wall and windows; an ink pot with a quill pen; a slate; four books; and a straight edge. The school of 1863 had wall maps; six different kinds of globes to illustrate the earth, earth and moon, sun and earth, etc.; a dictionary; a slate with the alphabet printed around the slate frame; geometrical shapes and solids; a counting frame; and boxes probably containing dominoes or counters.

Another interesting picture in our collection shows the school-master seated at his triangular sloping desk on which is a quill pen, a dunce seated on a stool with dunce cap on his head, a fire place, a small backless bench for little children, the sloping desk against the wall with backless benches before it, a demijohn at the teacher's feet, a drinking horn hanging at the desk's side and several tricorne and other hats hanging on pegs. One of the pupils is as big or bigger than the master. In both pictures a broken window is filled by an old felt hat.

The school inspectors gave examinations at certain centers during these years, probably to select applicants for admission to the Normal School. We have several lists of names with marks for Windsor, Wolfville and Kentville for the years 1876 to 1887.

In addition to the signatures of the inspectors, Roscoe and McGillavrey, the forms carry the names of the Superintendent of Education, David Allison and A. S. Hunt.

The Educational Review of Saint John, N.B. for August and September 1890, (its forth year), carries lively news and articles. Some of the heated opinions show us the battles of yesteryear. Titles are: The Canadian Education Convention, French Acadian Convention, Newfoundland Schools, Mission of the Kindergarten, Three articles on Science and two on Music, Echoes from the United States National Association, Normal School Education, Summer School of Science, Nova Scotia Education Association.

A pupil's Geometry Exercise Book of 1873 works its way through the first four books of Euclid in very neat writing and carefully constructed diagrams.

A teacher's notebook and plan book combined, dated 1884, belonged to Burgess McMahon, Teacher. The very tiny, almost microscopic, writing carries many notes concerning the details of a very busy conscientious life: time tables, plans for lessons, discipline, visits from parents (followed by notes in shorthand), personal expenses, notes for talks on courtesy and virtues, schedules and problems for examinations, pupils' names with marks—all the minutiae and details of a teacher's busy days. Mary Tobin had been talking in class, Frank Nelson had been told to stay and did not, James Cronen was climbing the door. Four boys were "crossing a fence". Somebody was "running up stairs". An inspiring poem begins:

"Be in time for every call
If you can, be first of all.
Be in time!

Notes for desk work on February 13, 1884:
Anal. "I went *there* by boat *long ago*"

"They deemed him penurious".
The strain made the timbers *bend.*
(Probably the underlined words were to be parsed.)

N.B. counties and capes on the board

I had a little pony, etc. She said, "Sir, we are seven."
To find dividend —3 ques. and variety
Under the heading, Oral Lessons, are listed Meanness, Treachery, Jealousy, Confidence, Affection, Love, Anger, Kindness, Gratitude, Punctuality, Promptness, Politeness, Honour, Lying, Swearing, Stealing, Vulgarity. This reminds one of a section that was found in the School Law for many years under the heading, Duties of a Teacher. After a long list of virtues which teachers were supposed to inculcate it said "and all other virtues".

One other notebook: an inspector's. A large part of the book is taken up with the preparation of a speech about The School System. An insert is the finished product on note paper which no doubt was read, in whole or in part, on presentation. The last four notes in the book read as follows:

To the Board of School Commissioners for Kings County: The petition of the Trustees of Centreville Section, No. 44 Sheweth That

To the Board of School Commissioners for Kings County: The Trustees of Centreville Section, No. 44, being unable to

To the Board of School Commissioners for Kings County: The petition of the Trustees of Centreville Section No. 44 humbly sheweth: That whereas the ratepayers of said section refused to vote money for school purposes at the last annual meeting thus depriving the Section of a school for the winter

To the School Commissioners for Kings County: The petition of the Trustees of Centreville School Section No. 44 humbly sheweth:

1st That the ratepayers refused to vote money for school purposes at the last annual school meeting

2nd That said Section has been without a school for the past winter term and the Trustees are unable to secure a school for the summer

3rd That there is a large number of children who should attend school

At this point the inspector discontinued.

Personal documents put flesh on the bones, and show the operation of the process of education in terms of real people, e.g., a diary by a young girl from Falmouth who was attending Normal School, an autograph book from a student at Acacia Villa School, and so on. The statistical facts and generalizations can be gathered from the libraries.

III

The first part of this account covered the period when religious and private auspices attempted to provide education in the province. The section just concluded covers the transitional period up to Dr. MacKay's regime which began in the 1890's. This third section is largely the story, in terms of our collection of documents and artifacts, of Nova Scotia's schools under the aegis of the provincial government.

Private schools disappeared from the scene until the only ones left were The Halifax Ladies' College and schools under the auspices of religious denominations.

Schools that had been built by subscription became more supported by tax money. In a very few areas the local people, who had put up the money to build and equip a school resented and resisted the government taking it over, and several were burned to avoid this.

The province was divided into School Sections, each with a number. Once a year the rate payers of each section met to express their views on school matters, decided on a salary for the teacher, and appointed a new trustee. The urban centres had school boards, the majority appointed by the elected town council, the minority appointed by the provincial government.

The central government always has three functions: to set up and maintain standards, to provide financial assistance, and to furnish leadership. Its force is exerted through legislation and through regulations of the Department of Education. Setting standards, maintaining standards, and furnishing leadership demand two devices: reports on official forms and inspectors.

Dr. A. H. MacKay, a Scot from Pictou County, the locus of long-established Pictou Academy, because the Provincial Superintendent of Education in 1891, and he held this office until 1926.

Being a ranking biologist Dr. MacKay gave a strong leadership in science and nature study. A form called "Nature Observations" went out at the opening of school to every teacher. This prompted the teacher to lead the children in observing nature phenomena, like ice forming, leaves falling, snow in the air, snow on the ground, etc., and in spring, robins' return, young birds, first dandelion, etc.

It would be unfair and incorrect to designate Dr. MacKay's administration as chiefly characterized by official forms, but the many forms reflect the activities and the standards of the period. There had to be a system.

The back bone of the system was the grade ladder. In some schools there had been no grades; pupils simply continued their progress in a subject from where they had left off. One of the first achievements, before 1900, was a system of grades from Grade I to Grade XI. Each pupil did a grade a year and at the end of the school year either "passed" or "failed". But in some of the existing secondary schools there had been an additional year for students who were preparing for university. This was of long standing and could not be taken away, so a post-graduate year called "senior matriculation" was found in some centres, and is to this day. It was Grade XII. The grade ladder was a fixed feature of the landscape for over 80 years and is firmly fixed in the thinking of one and all, so firmly indeed that any other system is incomprehensible, as recent proponents of the "ungraded school" are finding out.

With the system of grades came a prescribed system of textbooks. Previously teachers were free to use any textbooks whatever. Now the curriculum was decided by the provincial department of education when it selected and prescribed the texts. Our collection contains most of the books that have been used. People have been only too willing to donate the texts that their children had been using over the years

The provincial examinations grew out of the examinations that had been devised for administration to candidates for teacher training. For the first forty years of its existence the Normal School at Truro had given chief place to academic work in order to bring teachers up to standard; only a small part of its work was pedagogical. With a uniform curriculum and uniform standards for all schools, the academic work became unnecessary and "Normal" became simply an institution for training in teaching.

The provincial examinations have also been a fixed feature of the provincial school system. For many years they were given

at the end of grade VIII (for entrance to high school), and to grades IX, X, XI and XII. The system was rigorously controlled with precautions and rules for security, marking and reporting. We have samples of the "provincial certificates" back to pre-1900. As part of the "provincials" students who thought of teaching could write the M.P.Q.'s (Minimum Professional Qualifications) based on reading certain prescribed books on School Law and Forms, School Hygiene, Teaching Methods, etc. Three subjects were written for the lowest license, and at the most six subjects could be written (for a Class B license, Grade XI). University graduates could write the University Graduate Testing Examination.

		Certificates	
Academic Standing		Pedagogical Training	License to
Grade	Called	Exam or Normal	Teach
VIII	—	—	—
IX	D	Third Rank	Third Class (D)
X	C	Second Rank	Second Class (C)
XI	B	First Rank	First Class (B)
XII	A	Superior First Rank	Superior First Class (A)
University Degree		Academic Rank	Academic Class

Beginning in 1926 graduates of universities who wanted to be teachers could study pedagogical courses, including Practice Teaching, during their undergraduate years. Soon after this the M.P.Q. was discontinued, and gradually the lower licenses were given up. The Normal School became the Teachers College and its training course was extended to two years, one academic and one pedagogical.

The "Annual Return" became a very important matter in a teacher's life. The prescribed Register of Attendance had been faithfully kept each day. Now the complete record of the pupils: parents, addresses, attendance, and many other details had to be reported on the prescribed form and forwarded to the Inspector.

The central idea, of course, was to provide a "good English education" (in contradistinction to Latin) to all children. But in addition to the academic and professional training; teachers were encouraged, or compelled, to learn other things. We do not have a certificate or license for a Kindergarten or Home Economics teacher but we have them for Manual Training teachers. We have a diploma issued in 1904 to Minetta Crandall from the School of Horticulture. There was also the Summer School of Science. We have a Diploma in Rural Science issued to Bertha Decker in 1914. We also have Bertha Decker's Certificate in Military Instruction and Physical Training which was a requirement for all teachers for many years. We also have a certificate of appointment as Inspector dated 1907.

Forms for a Teacher's Contract (1883, 1896), Annual Return for Woodworking at Antigonish in 1902, the School Register for Apple River in 1881, Report on a Free Public Library (School), these and others are in the collection. Of course the archives of the Provincial Department of Education will have a much more complete collection of documents and will also have statistical summaries of data. They have at times very kindly assisted us with samples of forms used and textbooks discontinued.

What has been said here will demonstrate the interest that could be generated and the value that could be attained by drawing together documents and artifacts into a functional museum. It could have two functions: an interesting display, and a research centre.

As a display it has been visualized as two mock-ups of typical country schools, one as found in the mid-eighteenth century, and one in the mid-nineteenth century. Along with this could go display cases for books, documents, workbooks, notebooks, etc. We need a "ball frame", or abacus, a pot-bellied stove or a long narrow box that burned cord-wood. Some of the

old charts used in schools would be useful. How vividly their pictures of dinosaurs, human anatomy, mathematical figures, foreign lands, and so on, impressed themselves on five- and six-year olds. We have some of the "Church maps", in use for over a century, and a tonic sol fa chart. We need samples of the different types of seats and desks.

As a research centre there is a great number of interesting projects that suggest themselves. What were the changes in the subjects on high school certificates? Spanish occurred for a few years; physiology at one time. The grade XII work required two years at one stage. At another time there was a female "A" and a male "A", females of course being inferior to males in dealing with rigorous academic matters. Have standards advanced as much as some people think? Maybe they have fallen. When I recall the exponential series and logarithic series in our old grade XII Algebra I do not accept any imputation of advance in standards. Why were there two grades I at one time, one called grade I Beginners, and the other grade one Repeaters (or, colloquially "Little grade I" and "Big grade I"). A detailed study of the daily and yearly work of the old one-room school would be highly desirable. What a debt is owed to it! What amazing character and strength those young women teachers must have had. On "Arbor Day" there used to be special ceremonies. What were they, and why have them? What has been the nature of high school closing exercises?—of extra-curricular activities?—of Christmas concerts? Why, when, and what were "Accredited High Schools? Studies of enrolments, attendance, teachers' salaries, school board members, etc., all would give valuable background knowledge. Just now, in 1971, agitation for ungraded schools and smaller schools is growing. Are we really headed back to the "good, old one-room school"? It had many virtues.

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John Fillis, MLA

JAMES F. SMITH

When Governor Charles Lawrence opened the first Legislative Assembly of Nova Scotia in 1758, he presided over a body of 19 members, the most of whose names have disappeared into historical obscurity. Although time adds colour to the past, life for the ordinary citizen during those early pioneer years was certainly more eventful and interesting than is today's mechanical existence. With this thought, it is pertinent to examine the biography of at least one of those 19 representatives who met that autumn for the first session of our provincial Legislature.

John Fillis, son of John Fillis, was born in 1723 or 1724 and grew up at Boston. Fillis was a constable there (1750-51) and it was around 1753 that he moved to the young settlement of Halifax. His name does not appear in the 1752 census.

Apparently he prospered here as he is recorded as being a merchant, shipowner, and distiller who conducted business at the foot of Prince Street, Halifax, according to an old map in the Crown Lands Dept. Fillis possessed one of only two wharves which were then privately owned. He was engaged in the mercantile trade and probably had a branch business at Boston as his son John (the third one of that name) was stationed there at

the outbreak of the American Revolution (1775). The family firm was known as John Fillis & Son.

In 1758, when the original Legislative Assembly of Nova Scotia was chosen, John Fillis was among the 19 attending members for the first of his several terms in the Legislature. (This fact is memorialized by a wall tablet in the main entry of today's Province House—1971). So Fillis was present at the Halifax Court House on 2 Oct. when Governor Lawrence opened the first session of the Assembly, but Fillis either lost or gave up his seat in 1759, at the end of the second session.

It would seem that, in the 1750's and 60's, a near monopoly on the Halifax rum trade was enjoyed by Joshua Mauger and, to a lesser extent, by John Fillis. Fillis received his first license to sell liquor for the fee of a guinea a month which was to be used for the support of the poor (who were often paupers because of liquor—a vicious circle).

During Lord William Campbell'ss governorship of Nova Scotia (1766-1773), the Legislature voted to raise the excise tax on rum, a potentially harmful move for Fillis's business. With the help of Mauger's able assistant, John Butler, Fillis drew up a protest against the new revenue act and sent it to the Board of Trade in London, England. (The Board controlled Nova Scotian affairs at this time.) Although the new tax meant loss of profits for the two distillers (Mauger and Fillis) who now control five-sixths of the rum trade, the whole province stood to gain from the Legislature's action. Nonetheless, the Board of Trade ordered Governor Campbell to restore the old duty rates and so Fillis's protest had its desired effect.

Fillis's next appearance in the Legislative Assembly was on 22 Oct. 1768 when he was sworn to a seat for Halifax County in place of Benjamin Gerrish who had been appointed to the Executive Council of the province. Fillis held his seat until 1770.

On 19 Dec. 1771, he was appointed a Justice of the Peace for Halifax County. On 11 June 1772, he again took a seat in the Legislature, this time for the township of Barrington (Shelburne County) after the previous member, Richard Gibbons, had been denied his seat a year earlier. This particular Legislature became known as the "long" one because it lasted 15 years, until 1785 (as did Fillis's term as the member for Barrington).

Rumblings of trouble in the American colonies were beginning in the early 1770's. The Boston Tea Party of 1773 is established history. Of more possible interest to Nova Scotians is the fact that Halifax had its own tea troubles. A fact to keep in mind is that the tea everyone objected to came from the East India Company.

It was in Sept. 1774 that William Smith, Halifax merchant and a judge of the Inferior Court of Halifax County, received a quantity of tea from New England. Smith sent out the town crier to give notice of a meeting of other merchants "to consult on some measures relative to a parcel of Tea consigned to him." (Brebner, p. 145) The Collector of Impost and Excise prevented the meeting by informing the merchants that it was illegal.

Smith was summoned before the Executive Council to explain his actions. He said that he had told Governor Francis Legge that he wanted nothing to do with East India Company tea (which the cargo in question was not) and that he would not have called a meeting if he had realized it was illegal. He said he had consulted several friends (including John Fillis) who had approved his actions.

Fillis admitted having given such advice and stated that he "looked on all tea alike that was chargeable with a British duty, 'but did not trouble himself about it, as he did not deal in it.' "

The Council advised that Smith be removed from all his government offices.

Apparently the investigation continued because, before Council, Sept. 19th, George Henry Monk testified that he had received a cargo of East India Company tea and had asked William Smith to share in its sale. Smith had refused at first but later agreed to handle part of the cargo. John Fillis was at the wharf for the landing of the tea where many people complained against it, especially Fillis, who "declared that the measures of government were oppressive, and that he had thoroughly considered it, and was firmly of the opinion, and used several arguments to dissuade the purchase of it . . . " Fillis admitted the charges and Council advised that he be removed from all his government offices. (This advice must have been ignored as Fillis seems to have retained his posts).

Governor Legge was moved to call the whole affair "alarming circumstances." (The preceding quotations are from Beamish Murdoch's *History of Nova Scotia,* Volume II, pp. 522-523.)

Evidently both Smith and Fillis were quite embarrassed over the Halifax tea affair because the revolutionists in New England were searching for any signs of rebellion in Nova Scotia. They latched onto the Smith-Fillis adventure and exaggerated the story so much that General Thomas Gage, Governor of Massachusetts and Commander of British Forces in North America, on hearing the story, felt bound to warn Governor Legge of Nova Scotia against the two conspirators. In fact, it had been an earlier warning from General Gage that had put Governor Legge on the defensive and caused so much trouble for Smith and Fillis. Gage said that many of those immigrants to Nova Scotia from Massachusetts would "use every means to Debauch the minds of the People of your Province." (Brebner, p. 268.)

Indeed, this was not the end of Fillis's problems. He was one of a number of Nova Scotians suspected of sympathizing with the American Revolutionists. (Richard Uniacke and Malachy Salter were two others.)

On 12 June 1775, the "long" Legislature opened its 7th session.

One night, some hay belonging to Joseph Fairbanks and under army contract was set afire and burned. In an anonymous statement sent to Boston, John Fillis and William Smith were described as "factious and rebelliously disposed" and it went on to claim that they were "instruments in the burning of the hay."

On 16 June, Fillis and Smith complained to the Legislature about "such unjust reports" and "begged relief from the house." Mr. Richard Cunningham who had just come from Boston swore under oath that he had been told that Smith was a suspect in the case of the hay fire and that General Gage had been so informed. Cunningham also swore to being told that Gage had a list of disaffected persons in Nova Scotia with Fillis and Smith at the very top. Also, Cunningham said that the deputy quartermaster-general told him that if anyone tried to interfere with the passage of supplies to the army, that a force would be sent "to destroy the towns in the bay of Fundy, and that the Indians should be set on them."

However, after consideration, the house declared: " 'Resolved, that this house do esteem Mr. Fillis and Mr. Smith to be dutiful and loyal subjects to his majesty King George the third—that they have acknowledged the supreme power of the British legislature—that they have behaved with decency and good order, and the house is unanimously of opinion that the said reports are base, infamous and false, and that the authors thereof merit punishment.' (This was published in the Nova Scotia Gazette of 20 June.)"

(Preceding quotations are from Murdoch's *History of Nova Scotia,* Volume II, pp. 539-540.)

The burning of Mr. Fairbanks' hay has formed a part of the plot of *His Majesty's Yankees,* an historical novel by the prominent Nova Scotian author, Thomas H. Raddall (Doubleday and Co., Inc., Garden City, New York, 1962, pp. 71-73. Smith and Fillis serve in the novel as minor characters.

Nova Scotian politics in the second half of the 18th century were a mirror of the graft and corruption of British politics; salaries, smuggling, the debt structure, duty collection, etc., were part of the political spoils system. The province was sinking farther into debt each year and Governor Legge was determined to straighten things out. He was well aware that both Councillors and members of the Assembly had been helping themselves to provincial monies.

It was the Assembly which had originally questioned the situation. Happy to cooperate, Governor Legge appointed a committee in the late autumn of 1774 to audit and report on the province's finances. The auditors reported that more than 11,000 Pounds were owing to the Province from various sources. The Governor and his ally, Solicitor General James Monk, forged on. Monk was unrelenting in his drive to press charges; in fact, he was too eager.

A number of Councillors and Assemblymen (including John Fillis) were eventually mentioned as being among the defaulters. One of the more common accusations concerned the collection of duties at the province's ports. Salaries and fees were often removed before money was turned over to the Province.

However, the "old guard" were not going to submit quietly to Monk's activities. When Councillor (and unsavoury troublemaker) Jonathan Binney was called up to account for certain

money deficiencies, he swore he had done no wrong. When ordered to make restitution, he and his whole family chose to go to jail to make martyrs of themselves and win support from the public against the unpopular Governor and his Solicitor General.

Nonetheless, Governor Legge believed the Legislature would be pleased with the auditors' report. When the Assembly met on 12 June 1775, the members were divided in their feelings and the Revolutionary outbreak in the other colonies added to the confusion. John Fillis and William Smith were against the Governor because they felt he was responsible for their uncomfortable position in the eyes of General Gage at Boston. They became very active in the Assembly to justify the recent clearing of their reputations regarding revolutionary connections.

The Legislature received a petition from the imprisoned Jonathan Binney and so they requested that the Governor suspend prosecutions until they had examined the auditors' report. The Governor assented and a committee of three (including Fillis) went to work.

However, the Governor suddenly upset things by causing a stir over other provincial matters. Regarding Binney, the Legislature finally decided to reduce the amount he was required to pay the province.

Relations between Governor and Assembly steadily worsened. The "old guard" were at work to unseat the Governor. By mid-July the Assembly had slashed or completely cancelled the defaults of most of those who had been implicated by the auditors' report. Next, John Fillis was one of three Assemblymen chosen to revise a petition of grievances (aimed at Legge) to be sent to England.

In early 1776, the affair came to its climax. The Governor and his supporters carried their case to England but they had

been preceded by their opponents (including Binney, now out of jail). The opponents had, with other items, two petitions: one, rather inaccurately described as coming from "the Principal inhabitants of Nova Scotia", contained 19 signatures, including that of John Fillis. (Brebner, p. 249)

Legge was doomed; the Binney Case was his downfall. He retired to a home in England leaving Nova Scotia to his victors. One must feel sympathy for him, the well-meaning advocate of "clean" government. However, he was upopular with the people he tried to help and was, in the words of the historian Brebner "dutiful, loyal, and courageous, but he was also very stupid." (Brebner, p. 212.)

The Halifax population was delighted with Legge's dismissal and John Fillis was, no doubt, one of those Assemblymen who attended an expensive public dinner to celebrate revenge on the unfortunate Legge on whom most laid the blame for the problems of the past few years.

Fillis faded from the foreground during the remaining years of the Revolution but he kept active in the Legislature. On 1 Nov. 1784, he was chosen to be Speaker of the Assembly. However, he declined to serve. Later that month he became a member of a committee to inspect Government House.

In 1785, being re-elected to the Legislature (this time for the township of Halifax), he was present for the opening of the 6th General Assembly on 5 Dec. Fillis held his Halifax seat until his death.

With regard to the church, John Fillis was a Congregationalist. With Malachy Salter, he was one of the two leading men of Mather's, later St. Matthew's Church. In 1787, he gave a bell to St. Matthew's which was used until the church burned on New Year's Day, 1857. Onlookers were startled by the bell's clanging as the tower collapsed into the burning building.

Fillis owned a quantity of land within the province, including property in Annapolis and Kings Counties, at Horton, Granville, and Cornwallis, and especially at Grand Pre where he was in possession of the area containing the now famous Acadian church and well.

John Fillis was twice married. His first wife was Elizabeth Stoddard whom he wed at Boston, 24 Dec. 1747. She was born at Boston, 24 July 1725, and was the daughter of Thomas and Tabitha (Hodgdon) Stoddard who were married at Boston, 2 Apr., 1723. Elizabeth died likely just around the time of the emigration from Boston to Halifax (c. 1753). It is not clear whether she actually came to Halifax.

By his first wife, Fillis had issue:

i. John, born at Boston, 7 Dec. 1748; died likely as an infant.

ii. John, born at Boston, 5 June 1750-8 Apr. 1829. He was a resident of Halifax and left issue.

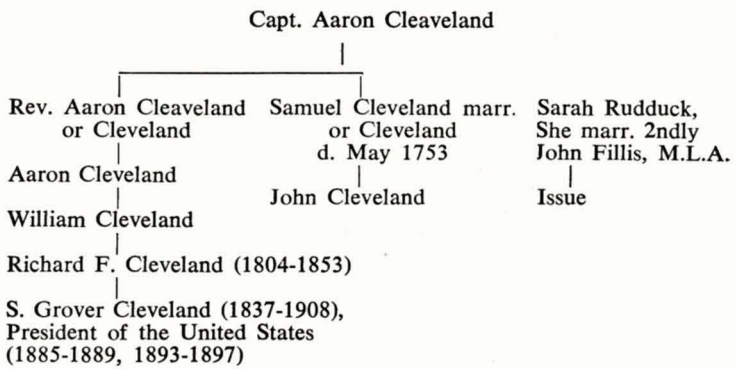
iii. James, born at Boston, 28 Nov. 1752
It is possible that he may have died shortly after birth and was connected with his mother's death.

John Fillis married as his second wife, a widow, Mrs. Sarah Cleaveland, daughter of John Rudduck. This marriage took place at Halifax, 19 Oct. 1756. She was born about 1720 and died at Halifax, 22 Aug. 1795, in her 75th year.

Sarah's first marriage had been to Samuel Cleaveland who had come from Boston to Halifax in 1749 (when the town was founded) with his two brothers, Aaron (a clergyman) and Josiah. One presumes that he was married to Sarah at this time. On 16 May 1753, a small sloop (owned by Henry Ferguson and Samuel Cleaveland) was sent by the government to Jeddore,

Halifax County, to bring back to Halifax some Indians. After first behaving peacefully, the Indians next day attacked the vessel and the small crew on board. All but one of the crew were killed and scalped (including Cleaveland). The lone survivor claimed to be French. He was turned over by the Indians to the French who eventually freed him to return to Halifax. The vessel was destroyed by the Indians. Mrs. Sarah Cleaveland, widow, was granted by the Executive Council 25 Pounds for her interest in the ship with another 30 Pounds to her and her children as a gratuity.

Through her marriage to Samuel Cleaveland, Mrs. Sarah Cleaveland Fillis was a great-great-grandaunt of President Grover Cleveland of the United States. The following chart illustrates the relationship:



Samuel Cleaveland and his wife Sarah had at least two children:

i. John, named in his mother's will (1793).

ii. Dorcas, named in her mother's will (1793). She married a Mr. Best and was a widow at the time of her mother's will.

John and Sarah Cleaveland Fillis appear to have lived all their married life at Halifax in a residence on Water Street at the foot of Prince Street. John spent his last Legislative years serving on various committees until he died at Halifax, 16 July, 1792, aged 68. He was buried in St. Paul's Cemetery.

With his death, there passed from the Legislature the last of the members of the first Assembly (1758) although at least three other of the original members were still living.

Fillis' demise aroused the Providence, Rhode Island, *Chronicle* to remember his supposed American Revolutionary sympathies when the paper remarked in its obituaries (20 Sept. 1792): "John Fillis, Esq., at Halifax, N.S.; a friend of the American prisoners, imprisoned there during the late war."

The Fillis estate was valued at almost 30,000 Pounds, a very large amount for that time in Nova Scotia. The fortune was amassed from his sizeable business interests and, no doubt, as one article suggests, through shrewd speculation. Money gave the man a social standing as has always been the case. He had daily contact with the leading citizens of Halifax and Nova Scotia through the Legislature and his business. Perhaps another sign of his social position is illustrated through the marriages of his daughters: one married an English sea captain who founded Bridgetown, N.S. (their portraits hang in the Public Archives of Nova Scotia), another wed a son of Halifax prominent Malachy Salter, a third was the wife of a member of the well known Avery family of the Annapolis Valley (it was this daughter who inherited the famous property at Grand Pre), and I have found statements that another daughter (unnamed) married the architect of Province House, John Merrick. I have discovered no proof whatsoever to substantiate this last item. The husbands of Fillis's daughters are easily traceable although there is the possibility that one of them may have made a second marriage to Mr. Merrick.

Mrs. Sarah Fillis' will, dated 16 Jan. 1793 and proved 26 Oct. 1796, gives a further look at the family's circumstances. After bequeathing certain amounts of money to her Cleaveland and Fillis children and various grandchildren, she declared that "... all the rest residue and remainder of my personal Estate and my Real Estate of what kind or nature soever I give ... to my Son Thomas Fillis ..." Sarah expected that this "residue and remainder" would be about 3,000 Pounds, making her total earthly worth, according to her will, approximately 6,000 Pounds. In a final interesting comment, Sarah mentioned that "most of my property consists of Debts due to me the collecting of which may take some time...." (Perhaps times have not changed so drastically after all!)

John and Sarah Cleaveland Fillis had issue:

i. James, born 1757, died 3 Apr. 1759, aged 23 months, 15 days; buried in St. Paul's Cemetery.

ii. George, born 1758, died 4 Apr. 1759, aged 10 months; buried in St. Paul's Cemetery.

iii. Susanna, married Benjamin Salter, son of Malachy Salter, M.L.A. of Halifax, and had issue.

iv. Mary Roach, Born 27 Mar. 1760, died 25 Aug. 1848. She married (1) John Achincloss; (2) Capt. Samuel Avery of Halifax and Horton. There was issue from both marriages.

v. Thomas, named in his mother's will (1793).

vi. Elizabeth, married John Boyd of Halifax and had issue.

vii. Charlotta (or Charlotte), died shortly after 1800. She married Capt. John Crosskill of Halifax and Bridgetown, and had issue.

MEMBERS OF THE FIRST LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY OF NOVA SCOTIA (1758-1759)

Although there was provision for 22 members, only 19 were present at the opening of the first Assembly on Monday, October 2, 1758. After sitting for two sessions, the Assembly was dissolved on August 13, 1759. Of the areas represented by the members, the only surviving recorded designations are for Mssrs. Kedie and Knaut who sat for Lunenburg.

1. *William Best* (1707-1782) of Halifax and Cornwallis. He came to Nova Scotia with the Edward Cornwallis settlers in 1749 and served later terms in the Assembly for Halifax township (1761-1765) and Halifax County (1765-1770).

2. *Jonathan Binney* (1724-1807) of Halifax. He again served in the Assembly as a member for Halifax township (1759-1765) and was appointed to His Majesty's Council (1764-1807).

3. *John Burbidge* (1716/17-1812) of Halifax and Cornwallis. He settled at Halifax with Cornwallis in 1749 and served later Assemblies as member for Halifax township (1759-1765) and Cornwallis township (1765-1770). "When he died he was the oldest militia officer, the oldest Justice of the Court of Common Pleas, and the oldest magistrate in the Province."—Eaton's *History of Kings County*, p. 474.

4. *Robert Campbell* (1718-1775). He came to Halifax in 1749 and served in a later Assembly as a member for Halifax County (1770-1775).

5. *Joseph Fairbanks* (1718-1790) of Halifax. He took part in the siege of Louisburg (1745) and came to Halifax in 1749. In a later Assembly, he served as a member for Halifax township (1776-1785). It was his hay

which was burned in the fire with which John Fillis and William Smith were implicated.

6. *Henry Ferguson* (died 1777) of Halifax.

7. *John Fillis* (c. 1724-1792) of Halifax. He came to Halifax during its early days and served in later Assemblies as a member for Halifax County (1768-1770), Barrington township (1772-1785), and Halifax township (1785-1792).

8. *Lambert Folkers* (died 1761) of Halifax.

9. *William Foye* (1716-1771). He came to Halifax with Cornwallis in 1749 and was Provost-Marshal for the Province of Nova Scotia (1749-1771).

10. *Joseph Gerrish* (1709-1774) of Halifax. He served with the 1745 expedition against Louisburg and was a member of His Majesty's Council (1759-1762). He was dismissed from the Council but was reappointed in 1763.

11. *Philip Hammond* (still living 1770).

12. *Alexander Kedie* of Lunenburg and Mahone Bay. Kedie came to Halifax with the Cornwallis settlers (1749).

13. *Philip Augustus Knaut* (1716-1781) of Lunenburg. He came to Halifax with Cornwallis in 1749 and served in later Assemblies as member for Lunenburg township (1759-1765), Lunenburg County (1765-1770), and Lunenburg township again (1770-1781).

14. *William Nesbitt* (died 1784) of Halifax. He came to Halifax with Cornwallis in 1749 and served as Attorney General of Nova Scotia (1753-1779). In later Assemblies, Nesbitt was a member for Halifax County (1759-1783) and during that time he was Speaker of the House.

15. *Henry Newton* (1733-1802) of Halifax. He served as a member for Halifax County in the second Assembly (1759-1760) before being appointed to His Majesty's Council (1761-1802).

16. *William Pantree* of Halifax.

17. *Joseph Rundle* (died 1763).

18. *Robert Sanderson* (1696- ?). He was the first Speaker (1758-1759) of the Assembly and went to England where trace of him was lost.

19. *George Suckling* (still living 1779). He left Nova Scotia and was Chief Justice in the Virgin Islands, at least in 1778-1779.

* * * *

20. *Malachy Salter* (1716-1781) of Halifax. He did not take his seat in the first Assembly until October 30, 1758 - 28 days after the opening. In following Assemblies, Salter served as a member for Halifax township (1759-1765) and Yarmouth township (1766-1772). He did not attend the Assembly sessions after 1768 and his seat was declared vacant in 1772.

21. *John Anderson.* He did not take his seat.

22. *Benjamin Gerrish* (1717-1772) of Halifax. Although elected to the first Assembly, he did not take his seat. In following Assemblies he represented Halifax township (1759-1760), Liverpool township (1761-1765), and Halifax County (1765-1768). In 1768, he was appointed to His Majesty's Council.

On November 21, 1758, application was made for electing two new members to replace J. Anderson and B. Gerrish "who are out of the province." Only one member was elected; he was:

23. *Archibald Hinshelwood* (1720-1773). He took his seat April 6, 1759, but his election was declared void and so he vacated his seat April 9. Hinshelwood had come to Halifax with Cornwallis (1749) and served in later Assemblies as member for Lunenburg County (1759-1760), Lunenburg township (1761-1770), and Lunenburg County again (1770-1773).

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The Founding Of Pictou

ROLAND H. SHERWOOD

PICTOU, THE SHIRETOWN of Pictou County is preparing to celebrate the 200th anniversary of the Landing of The Hector, the old Dutch ship that brought nearly 200 Scottish emigrants to the area.

Committees are being formed to include all of Pictou County in the celebrations, with the main events centered on the shiretown, as it was near the present site of the town that the Highland Scottish emigrants landed in the wilderness that was to be their home on September 15th, 1773.

But the Hector people weren't the first settlers in the county. Six years before, an organized and well-equipped company of the settlers from Pennsylvania, composed of Lowland Scottish and North of Ireland people had arrived on June 10th, 1767, and were fairly well established when the Hector people arrived.

To a great many living in Pictou County, not too well versed in the history of the town and county, the date of 1773 is generally accepted as the date for the beginning of the Town of Pictou. This is confused thinking.

Those who came on the Betsey six years before didn't found the town either. While June 10, 1767, and September 15th, 1773 marks the arrival of settlers, first from Philadelphia, and later from Loch Broom in Scotland, there was no attempt at founding a town. The settlers spread over the county away from the waterfront as we know it today. Many of the Philadelphia people were located near Town Gut Bridge, at a spot that was to become known as Mortimer's Point, and later as Norway Point. The first, because Edward Mortimer, a successful business man of those early days, settled there, and the second name being derived from the fact that Lord Strathcona purchased the Mortimer-built property and promptly re-named it Norway House after such a place owned by the Hudson's Bay Company of which he was one of the governors. The name, Norway Point, is so-called to this day.

It was left to Deacon John Patterson, another early, and successful business man of the times, who came on the Betsey from Philadelphia, to move from Mortimer's Point (Norway Point) to the wilderness area farther east for the planned purpose of founding a town.

This deacon, John Patterson, 2nd, (to distinguish him from his father, also John Patterson, and his son, John Patterson 3rd) is little remembered or honored in the town he founded.

True it is, that the tombstone over his grave in Laurel Hill Cemetery has carved words of praise as to his worth, but few ever see the historic stone or read the words. And true it is, that Patterson Junior High School carried the name that was very prominent in early Pictou. But few know whether the school was named for Deacon John Patterson or Squire Robert Patterson, both of whom earned themselves a place in the nearly forgotten history of the town.

For the record, Patterson Junior High School was named by Bruce Murray, then a schoolboy in 1949, when the town ac-

quired the Wartime Housing School at Victory Heights. The Patterson selected for this honor was none other than John Patterson, 2nd, founder of Pictou Town.

The family name of Patterson is retained in the long street that runs from High northward to the Pictou-North Colchester exhibition grounds, and carried considerable traffic during the exhibition, but whether the honor was for Deacon John or Squire Robert is not known.

Pictou, naturally, has grown considerably since those days of 1788 when John Patterson 2nd, laid out the first street and cut the trees to create a path that led down to his wharf. That street, when it became more than a pathway, was named in the days of John Patterson, altho it was generally known as Deacon's Hill, even as it is to this day. The official town name is Constitution Street. That name, it appears, was given to this long up-hill street from Church to High, in the days during or following the American Revolution. Possibly this was done to appease those in the little town who were in sympathy with the revolted colonies, and opposed to the royalty-inspired names such as Prince, George, Queen Victoria and Prince William that spoke of loyalty to the Crown.

The great stand of trees through which wound the pathway from Deacon John Patterson's home to the waterfront is gone, but the first frame house in the budding town, built by John Patterson 2nd, is still standing behind the large residence at the top of Deacon's Hill.

In the days when Pictou was founded by Deacon John Patterson, that is, in 1788, his interest lay in that section of land closely associated with his wharf and warehouse, to which he went daily down the long hill, and struggled up again at the close of the business day. Today, there are no trees or stumps, or pot holes on this steep hill. Pavement has made the climb easier, but

no less a grade than it ever was, and students to Pictou Academy who use this route to classes possibly think less of the steep climb than did the Presbyterian deacon from whom the hill took its local name.

From this point in the time of the after-years, it seems that John Patterson 2nd, was something of an opportunist, and one with foresight. When he made the decision to move from Mortimer's Point, now Norway Point, with the purpose of founding a town, it was at a time when large numbers were coming to Pictou County, and the timber trade, especially in white pine, was at its height.

While there were Scottish emigrants to what became the Maritime Provinces as early as 1770, particularly to Prince Edward Island, a more steady flow of settlers came to Prince Edward Island in 1772, to take up land granted to Sir William Alexander over a century and a half before. But the largest body of Scots came in 1773. Some 200 Highlanders, mostly from Rossshire and Invernesshire, came in the aged Dutch ship, Hector, that sailed from Loch Broom in Scotland. That vessel was owned and captained by John Pagan.

The arrival of the Hector people in Pictou Harbor on September 15th, 1773 was quite an event. There were no wharves big enough for the old vessel, so anchor was dropped in the channel, and the Scots waded ashore, but not without the skirl of the pipes, which, while thrilling to the Scots was terrifying to the Micmac Indians who watched from the close-packed trees that lined the shore. John MacKay, the impoverished Scot who came aboard the Hector as it was about to sail led the Highlanders ashore in the new land. Those aboard the Hector who had saved the kilt donned them for the landing. Carrying and ferrying their meager belongings, the Hector people came ashore to an un-enthusiastic welcome from those who had come 6 years before in the Betsey. Those already established along the shores

of Pictou Harbor saw a strange people, wearing a strange dress, the kilt, and speaking a strange tongue. It was the Gaelic, for few among the arrivals in 1773 spoke any English.

The new arrivals found too that much of the shore properties were taken up, but disappointment and hardships the Pictou Scots did manage, beginning with crude shelters for their families, and all worked together.

But it must be noted that all who came on the Hector didn't stay in Pictou. After a short time the Roman Catholic Scots among them moved to Antigonish and established there.

Because of this fact, the planners for the 1973 Hector celebration have asked that committees be formed in Antigonish County, and that the Scots, many of whom are descendants from the Hector people, plan to be part of the Hector celebrations.

While the Hector Scots didn't receive a joyous welcome from the Betsey people this did not deter them from welcoming some countrymen, more unlucky than themselves, who gave up their unsuccessful attempt to form a settlement at Bryndenell, Prince Edward Island, to which place they had emigrated from Scotland in 1774.

There were others that came to Pictou, not all of them Scots, after the Revolutionary War when British regiments were disbanded in Halifax. One of those regiments was the 82nd Duke of Hamilton's, made up mostly of Lowland Scots, with some English and Irish among them. These men were given grants of land, said "to be near Pictou," but actually at Merigomish where the land is still known as "The 82nd grant" altho passed to others long years ago. Only about 50 of the disbanded soldiers stayed their lands. Others sold and went back to Halifax and re-enlisted. Many of the Roman Catholics from the Western Highlands and the Isles, went to Antigonish and Cape Breton.

Returning to John Patterson, 2nd, founder of Pictou Town, one of the first things he did was to lay out a street. This he called Water Street, as it is to this day, for it followed the contours of the harbor; a narrow, crooked, muddy way that in the years which followed was subject to fill on the harbor side and the street straightened.

The first quarter century were hard years for those in the pioneer hillside hamlet of Pictou, but not for John Patterson, 2nd, altho he shared the pioneer life and the hardships of those early days, he did manage to become the largest land owner in the town he founded. He became a successful merchant and trader, and it has been written of him that he was "an honest, upright man."

As a non-commissioned magistrate, he administered the law as he saw its need in the light of his stern religious upbringing, and his own brand of homespun justice.

John Patterson was ambitious to the extent that where he saw a shilling or a pound note, or something for barter, he had the knowledge and the ability to secure it. In this respect he built houses, bridges, mills and a jail in his time.

John Patterson, 2nd, destined to become known, by historians at least, as "The Founder of Pictou Town", was a carpenter by trade, and as such built the first windmill in Pictou County. This was located near Town Gut Bridge. He was the first to seek out the good timber stands, and with the instinct of a born trader, made good use of ships, his own and others, to carry the timber to the British markets. In this he prospered for a time.

But even in the cluster of huts that was eventually to become the shiretown of the county, and altho far away from the scene, the effects of the American Revolution were felt. The timber trade with the Old Country, a constant source of revenue,

was almost cut off. There was no assistance for the settlers from the Nova Scotia government of the time, for, with many settlers from the Colonies whose sympathies were with the Americans, it was not a little task to keep Nova Scotia within the British Empire, for the bitter feelings created by the Revolution split the settlers into opposing camps, an opposition bitterly felt but not flaring into violent action.

Many of those, but not all, who came on the Betsey from Philadelphia, and their friends, favored the American point of view of a break with England, while those who arrived in the Hector, and others who joined them later, were staunch in their loyalty to the Crown. But there were some toward instances, such as the one where American sympathizers seized the vessel, "Molly" loading lumber for England and flying the British Flag, and owned by Captain David Lowden. The rebels took the vessel, sailed it to Baie Verte in New Brunswick and abandoned it there, fearing the arrival of a British man-of-war which had been alerted by Captain Lowden himself who rowed across Northumberland Strait to Charlottetown to carry the word of the seizure.

While the Pictou of today has only one tavern on Water street, it runs a poor second to the 1780's when there were at least three "houses of entertainment" on Water street and others on various streets. One of these was set up by the man who founded the town, John Patterson, 2nd, a Presbyterian deacon. Patterson didn't operate the tavern, but he did set William Lindsay up in business, and in the matter of profitable trade very likely brought to the Pictou taverns, in his trading schooners, ample supplies of West Indies rum.

That first successful attempt to lay out a town, with one street running between the tree sumps, wasn't called Pictou. John Patterson was born in Paisley, Scotland, or nearby, and in honor of the Scottish Paisley called his new town venture, New

Paisley. Before the shiretown finally received its present name, it was to be known at different times as Coleraine, Alexandria, Donegal, Teignmouth, Southampton, Wamsley, New Edinbrough and New Paisley.

In the early days of the shiretown much of the prosperity of this venture was founded on the sale of West Indies rum. Even John Patterson, 2nd, staunch and strict in his religious beliefs, saw such sales strictly as a matter of business, even as today we accept our improved highways knowing that much of the money to build them comes from the sale of liquor through the government stores.

Vessels out of the port of Pictou in the late 1700's and early 1800's carried fish to the West Indies, and returned with sugar, rum and molasses, with the most important item in the cargo being the rum.

It was well known by those in the business, such as John Patterson, 2nd, that without this product of the West Indies the timber trade would be at a standstill. Only by the generous use of rum were the trees felled and brought to the waiting ships.

Tavern keepers were men of high standing in the town, and a goodly amount of business was transacted in the taverns. Even the magistrates and lawyers met in the taverns, and possibly solved a case or two. Law cases, that is.

In those days it was not thought improper for every household that could afford it, and even those that couldn't, to have a supply of hard liquor on hand. Every function, be it dance, wedding, funeral or frolic was only successful with a good supply of rum.

Figures on the amount of hard liquor that comes into the town today are not available. But in John Patterson's day it has

been recorded that one merchant alone, in one year, imported 400 puncheons of rum, most of which went to get timber out to fill the holds of the great number of sailing ships that came into the port in the latter years, particularly during the Napoleonic War.

The Town of Pictou has prospered with the years, but in many respects retains an old world charm, seen in the old court house, built in 1813 and still in use, retaining much of the original furnishings, and the many stone houses, topped by English chimney pots that are scattered throughout the town.

Water street still runs within sight of the harbor waters as it did in the days when it was laid out by John Patterson, 2nd. And facing to this street, in a park where the Old Market stood, and for years known as Market Square, stands the Hector Monument, a tribute in bronze to the Highlanders who came on the Hector. This monument was unveiled during the 150th anniversary of the "Landing Of The Highlanders" celebrated in 1923. Then Market Square became Pioneer Square, and later, Hector Square. And there it rested until the 26th day of November, 1943, when a locally built steel cargo ship was christened Hector Park, and the Town Council officially changed the name Hector Square to Hector Park, which remains to this day.

There are old buildings along Water street, the first street to be laid out in the budding town by John Patterson, 2nd. These have attracted the attention of many visitors to the town in the long years of its history, and they still do. Like the series of stone buildings midway the length of the street, where, still visable above the doorways are the painted signs of "BANK", "SALOON" and the names of merchants who did business along this street.

The 150th anniversary of the coming of the Hector was a gala event in the summer of 1923, with all parts of the county

having special days in the week-long celebration. The planning for the 200th anniversary in 1973 is again being organized on a county wide basis with the expectation that, as they did in 1923, large numbers of native Pictonians now scattered over the North American continent, will again come home for "Hector Week."

Many still refer to 1767, when the Betsey arrived with settlers from Philadelphia, as the date when Pictou was founded. Still others consider the 1773 date of the Hector arrival as the founding date. At those times there was no semblance of a town, or any attempt to give it that semblance. The honor stands to the memory of John Patterson, 2nd, deacon, who in 1788 laid out the lines to found his town of New Paisley on the site where the shiretown stands today.

Nova Scotia's Forgotten Decades: 1900-1920

DAVID E. STEPHENS

The history of Nova Scotia is familiar to most persons who have an interest in this province. But there is one period of time which usually represents a void in their minds, and that is the first two decades of this century. It was the period between the nineteenth century and the first world war. It was the period when the old was slowly being pushed out as new ideas were making an impression at an ever increasing rate, a point at which Nova Scotia tried to decide if it should keep the old traditions or go ahead with modern ideas and progress. It was the period of time that is still within living memory of some, yet not really old enough to be included in our history books. It is the period of time when Nova Scotia entered the twentieth century.

POPULATION AND CLIMATE:

In 1911, the official population of Nova Scotia was given as 492,338. This was an average of 22.98 persons to each square mile of the province. This was broken down as 306,210 persons living in rural districts and 186,128 in urban. These figures represented a growing trend towards a decreasing rural population. Of the total population, there were 251,019 males and 241,319 females. This shortage of females was not only common to Nova Scotia, but to every other province as well.

During the same year, Cape Breton Island had a population of 122,084, representing about one quarter of the total population of the province. This gave the number of persons per square mile as 39.13. The total population figures of the island included several hundred indians. About one-eighth of the island's population was considered to be French Acadians. In addition, about one third of the people living on Cape Breton Island were supported by the fishing industry, which employed approximately 7,000 men.

We are always hearing of how "in the old days" the winters were extremely harsh. During the second decade, the Nova Scotian climate was described as "moderate", with winters not being too severe (average mean temperature was 27°F) and the summers having no extreme heat (average mean temperature was 65°F). The average rainfall, including snow, was given as 45.6 inches.

Sable Island was on the northern lane of travel between North America and Europe. There had been over 200 ship wrecks on this tiny sand-bar island by the time Nova Scotia entered the twentieth century, near the treacherous Cape Sable, which jutted out into the Atlantic Ocean at the extreme southern end of the island. The Canadian government had thousands of trees planted on the island to try and bind more solidly the sandy soil, which kept shifting. Fifty years ago, the island's length was listed as 20 miles; today the length is given as 25 miles. In addition to the ponies, the island had long since achieved fame for its wild cranberries.

The mortality rate as used in Canada was considered to be the average death rate per 1,000 persons. The rate in Nova Scotia during the year 1911 was 16.73, which was second highest in Canada (after Quebec). By 1913 it had dropped to 14.52, but it was still second highest.

GOVERNMENT:

Until the Representation Act of 1914 was passed, Nova Scotia had 10 members in the Senate and 12 in the House of Commons. After 1914, there were 16 members in the Dominion House of Commons.

The provincial government, prior to the first world war, was made up of an Upper House and a Lower House. The Lieutenant-Governor, who was appointed by the Governor-General, was assisted by a cabinet of 7 members. (The salary of the Lieutenant-Governor in Nova Scotia was the same as several other provinces, $9,000. The only province lower was Prince Edward Island at $7,000 and Ontario and Quebec were higher at $10,000.) The Legislature consisted of a Legislative Council of 21 members who were appointed for life by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, and a House or Assembly of 43 members elected by the voters of the province. The chief executive was the premier, who was at the head of the governor's cabinet. At that time, money could not be borrowed without the sanction of the people.

EDUCATION:

The provincial cabinet constituted the Education Council, which, with a Superintendent of Education, was at the head of the public school system. One-fifth of the support for education came from provincial funds, while the remainder was raised by means of local taxation. Each county had an Academy (high school) which was usually in the county seat.

Illiteracy in Canada was considered to include any person of the age of 5 or over who could not read. The national average for Canada in 1910 was 10.50%. Nova Scotia's rate was 10.34%.

Two institutions of higher learning were located in Truro, the provincial agricultural college (acknowledged even then as

one of Canada's finest) and the provincial normal college (for teacher training). The University of Saint Francis Xavier College was located at Antigonish, King's College at Windsor, and Acadia University at Wolfville (with a teaching staff of 30 and about 250 students). Halifax had the Nova Scotia Technical College (with night-school branches in all industrial centers in the province), the Halifax Ladies' College and Conservatory of Music, the Victoria School of Art and Design, the Presbyterian College and the leading Maritime university, Dalhousie (with about 80 professors and instructors and 400 students).

During the early part of the century, the American and British Philological Societies tried to encourage the use of reforms in spelling to simplify many words, such as "tro" for "though", "hed" for "head", "nife" for "knife" and "thru" for "through". Although some work was done towards this reform in spelling in "Upper Canada", Nova Scotia took the lead, so much so that it was described as having ". . . shown reactionary progress to the movement throughout the British Empire." In 1911 an official conference of all the educational officials of the British Empire was held in London, England, and adopted a resolution towards simplification of spelling within the English language. After this declaration of "Imperial Policy", the first steps toward sthe complete introduction of the system was started in Australia, New Zealand and Nova Scotia. The Nova Scotia Normal College began using the 3,000 simplified words recommended in publishing their annual Calendar. *The Truro Daily News* and the *Normal College Gazette* both adopted the words with complete success. And, perhaps most important, two of the greatest newspapers in Eastern Canada, *The Herald* and *The Mail,* adopted over 200 of the words, which started a reform in spelling as used by other newspapers in the province.

TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION:

There was about 1,400 miles of railway track in Nova Scotia during the first of the century. The main lines were the

Halifax and Southwestern (Halifax to Yarmouth), Dominion Atlantic (Yarmouth to Truro and Halifax), Halifax and Eastern (Dartmouth to Upper Musquodoboit), and the Intercolonial (from New Brunswick to Sydney and Halifax). Several of the smaller lines were the Sydney and Louisburg, the Inverness, and the Cumberland.

By 1907, the average price of a touring car (seated 5 to 7 persons: driver and 1 in front, 3 in rear, and one or two on separate seats in the tonneau) was $2,100. Ten years later, a touring car was priced at about $700. The touring car usually had a collapsible cloth top and sides (although some town cars were enclosed for winter driving). The roadster also proved to be a popular car, and up until 1916, it was made for only two persons. But by 1916, roadsters allowed for two more (in rather cramped quarters) by shortening the luggage area. The speed at this particular time was around 50 miles per hour.

The carriage- and coach-making industries suffered greatly when the low-priced, dependable (?) automobile was introduced. This was especially true in Halifax and the larger towns, where the auto was increasing at a great pace. Business also started to make use of the auto, and the days of the horse and carriage was slowly disappearing. Although the initial capital outlay for an auto was greater, the maintainance was usually lower for a truck or auto as compared to a team of horses. Also, while a team and wagon could average 16 to 20 miles a day, small delivery autos could do the same in an hour.

Steam ships were also important sources of transportation, and many regularly scheduled routes were in operation, with steamers stopping at many major Nova Scotian ports, as well as doing foreign trade. The most important harbours were Halifax Harbour, Chester Basin and Chedabucto Bay.

By the turn of the century, telegraph lines were well established in Nova Scotia, while telephones were maintained in some

areas by either small companies or local individuals. The rural postal system was begun in Canada in 1908, and was extended throughout the country in 1912-13. A registered letter cost 5 cents (or 10 cents if a receipt from the addressee was desired), and Canadian Money Orders cost 5 cents for up to a $10 order, and 25 cents if the order was between $60 and $100.

PROHIBITION

In 1910, a provincial law was passed which prohibited the sale of intoxicating liquors throughout Nova Scotia, except in the city of Halifax. The law was extended even to this city by 1916.

FASHION AND DANCE

The new modes of living were reflected in the "contemporary" costumes. The popularity of the automobile made the tourist bonnet and veil fashionable. The Balkan War in 1912 started a vogue of Bulgarian colours in men's neckties and women's hat trimmings. Soon after the outbreak of the War of Nations (1914), women began to wear tailor-made suits which were modeled after the military coat of the army. In 1915-16, the full "short" skirts, reaching to the shoe tops, became popular. It was said that this style was adapted from the nurse's uniform worn in the French army hospitals.

In 1911, there appeared in the American city of San Francisco, a "curiously-named and not altogether refined" dance called the Turkey-trot. Soon, modifications of it followed, such as the Grizzly Bear, the Bunny Hug, and the Texas Tommy. United States, Europe and all Canada went dance-mad. Naturally, many people objected to these new dances on "moral grounds". Soon, more refined forms replaced the early types, which were admitted, after some serious opposition, into the standard dancing schools of the day. They were then adopted generally by the dancing public. The most important variations

of these new forms were the One-step, the Fox-trot, and the Tango (based on walking steps). The Waltz Canter and the Hesitation were also developed, both being modifications of the regular waltz.

INDUSTRY AND TRADE:

As small as Nova Scotia is, its production and trade record was extremely good. Between 1910 and 1915, it ranked second in fish production (c. $10 million), third in mining (c. $17½ million), fifth in manufacturing (c. $52½ million) and sixth in agriculture (c. $24½ million), when compared to the rest of Canada. Most of the trade that Nova Scotia engaged in was with either the United States or Great Britain.

The principal exports were fish, coal, lumber, iron and steel, and agricultural goods.

The imports were mainly manufactured goods, especially textiles and clothing.

In fishing, Nova Scotia ranked next to British Columbia, the industry bringing in catches valued at $10 million and employing over 30,000 men. Nova Scotia's Cape Shore was the fifth most important deep-sea fishing bank around North American shores. In addition, several of the larger banks ran close to Nova Scotia. During the middle of May each year, fishing fleets would sail towards Nova Scotia on what was called the "Cape Shore Trip" in search of the mackerel, which followed the shore on their way to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The fleets usually stayed on the Cape Shore, with fishermen from Nova Scotia, for about a month before moving on to the Gulf of Maine or the St. Lawrence area. The average annual catch in Nova Scotia of lobster was 30 million pounds, which was the highest in North America. Second to Nova Scotia was the state of Maine at 10 million pounds. There were also 12 fish hatcheries maintained by the government and the industry received an annual subsidy of $400,000 from the Dominion government.

There were 11 coal mines in operation (5 of them in Cape Breton) which had a total output of 6 million tons a year, 4 million of which was exported to the United States and the rest went to other parts of Canada.

There were iron ore deposits found in every county except one, and iron and steel production was increasing, with large blast furnaces at Sydney, New Glasgow and Londonderry. Along the Atlantic coast (especially the Eastern Shore), the gold fields covered an area of 3,000 square miles and produced a yearly output of approximately $140,000. Gypsum and maganese were found in paying quantities, but were not yet extensively mined.

Although the pine forests were almost exhausted, there was still over 7,000 square miles of uncut spruce, hemlock, fir and hardwoods. Over 200 million board feet of lumber was exported annually to the United States, Great Britain, South America, and the West Indies.

Fox farming was becoming a paying industry, and over 1300 fur farms were located throughout the province. Because hemlock bark was so easily obtained, there were many tanneries in various parts of Nova Scotia.

Agricultural production was important to Nova Scotia, especially the apple industry, which exported over 600,000 barrels annually. There were few creameries in the province, as most of the butter and cheese was locally made on the farms. By 1915, the paying field crops produced were as follows: oats, 3,487,000 bushels; wheat, 247,000 bushels; barley, 128,400 bushels; rye, 4,500 bushels, and corn, 2,300 bushels.

COMMUNITIES:

The cities and main towns of Nova Scotia were located near water and/or railway connections. A brief description of several important communities follows:

AMHERST:

Located 138 miles by rail north of Halifax on the Intercolonial Railway, it was considered to be of some importance as a center of trade and manufacturing. The surrounding area provided coal, lumber, gypsum and agricultural products. Manufactured goods included boots, shoes, woolen goods, cars, malleable iron, engines and boilers, leather and wood products (including trunks, pianos, caskets and carriages). In 1911, the population was 8,973 and by 1916 it was about 10,200.

ANNAPOLIS ROYAL

Because ocean steamers could enter its harbour, Annapolis Royal was a major center for the exporting of apples, lumber, canned and preserved fish, and bricks. In 1911, its population was 1,019.

ANTIGONISH

This town was on the Intercolonial Railway line and was the seat of the Roman Catholic bishop, Saint Francis Xavier College (with about 250 students) and Saint Bernard's Convent. The surrounding area was a favourite fishing resort for bass, trout, and salmon. Also, nearby, was a number of mines, producing iron, oil shale, and a little gold. The industries of the town produced cheese, wood products and grist mill products. In 1911 the population was 1,787 and by 1916 was about 2,000.

BRIDGEWATER

The main office and repair shops of the Halifax and Southwestern Railway was located here. The chief industries were connected to wood products, as 50 million board feet of lumber was produced in the area annually. The factories included large saw, planing and shingle mills, several wagon and wood-working shops and shipbuilding yards. A granite and marble works, foundaries and tanneries were also located in the town. The area

surrounding was very popular for sportsmen, who came for the trout, salmon, duck, woodcock and grouse. The 1911 population figure was 2,775 and five years later the figure had only increased by about 100.

DARTMOUTH

Other than the fact that many of Halifax's business men lived in this community, the only major factor concerning the town seems to have been that it was the terminus of the Halifax and Eastern Railway, as in 1911 its population was only 5,058. Its main industries produced refined sugar, lumber, chocolate, spice, corn meal, beer, soap, and bolts. By 1916 its population had increased by about 450.

DOMINION

Located 13 miles from the Sydney and Louisburg Railway, Dominion was connected by an electric tranway. The major industry of the area was the Dominion Coal Company, which had an annual output of $1 million and employed about 2,000 men from the surrounding area. The 1911 population was 2,589 and by 1916 it had only grown to about 3,000.

GLACE BAY

Glace Bay was connected to Sydney by the Sydney and Louisburg Railway. Its main point of interest was the Marconi Wireless Station, which was said to be the most powerful in the world (up to 1917). Its population in 1901 was 6,945, but by 1911 it had shot up to 16,562.

HALIFAX

In addition to being the capital of the province and the county seat of Halifax County, it was considered to be the largest city of the Maritime Provinces and the greatest port on the Atlantic seaboard of Canada.

As a railway city, it was the terminus of the Intercolonial, Canadian Pacific, Halifax and Southwestern, and the Dominion Atlantic railway systems. The railway connections gave Halifax something that no American port had, that being direct, main-line railway connection both for passengers and freight to the edge of the wharves. This meant that goods and passengers unloaded from the steamers could be put directly onto transcontinental trains. It was then possible to journey without a break from the Victoria Docks in London, England via Halifax and Vancouver to Hongkong. To do this, the Canadian government was determined to spend 30 million dollars in terminal and harbour improvements. Originally the railway terminal piers were on the north water front, but under the plan announced in 1912, they were to be moved to the south water front. Construction work began in 1914 to relocate the railway tracks within the city and to build new piers. The landing quay was to be 2,000 feet long, with six piers 1,250 long and 360 feet wide with 275 foot basins between (deep enough for large ships).

The main trade of Halifax was in apples, fish, lumber and manufactured goods. The main industries were machine shops, iron foundaries, a cotton mill, Canada's largest sugar refinery, and boot and shoe factories.

Halifax was an important banking centre, being the home of two of Canada's largest chartered banks and was the wealthiest *per capita* city in Canada. It had earned, by the turn of the century, the nickname of Canada's "Atlantic Gateway", being 2,187 miles from Cape Clear, making it the nearest North American city to Great Britain.

On 6 December 1917, the Belgian relief ship *Imo* was in collision with the French munition ship *Mont Blanc* in the Harbour. The resulting fire on the *Mont Blanc* caused the 3,000 tons of munitions to explode, resulting in the destruction of a large area of the city in what is now termed the "Halifax Explo-

sion". The list of injured was over 4,000 and the dead came to 1,226, most of whom died beneath the wreckage of fallen buildings. Immediately following the explosion, arrests of alien enemies failed to reveal any evidence of a plot.

The population of Halifax was 40,832 in 1901 and by 1911 it had risen to 46,619. When the explosion of 1917 occured, it was estimated that the population was 53,556.

As it is today, during the first two decades Halifax was regarded as the industrial, commercial, educational, political and social center of the province.

INVERNESS

The coal-mining center of Inverness was the northern terminus of the Inverness Railway and Coal Company's line which connected with the Intercolonial at Port Hawkesbury. In addition to coal, some copper, fire clay and gypsum was mined in the area. Before it became a mining center, the population of Inverness was 306 in 1901, but ten years later saw an increase to 2,719. By 1916, an additional 800 persons were added to the cenus list.

KENTVILLE

Kentville was on the Dominion Atlantic Railway line which ran from Yarmouth to Truro. It was well known for its Dominion government experimental farm and as home of the famous Nova Scotia Carriage Company (one of the largest in Canada). In addition, there was also located in the town a provincial satitorium, a militia camp, a gasoline engine plant, and a factory for milling machines. It was also the seat of the county academy, and had a population of 2,304 in 1911. This increased only about 200 during the next five years.

LIVERPOOL

Located on the Halifax and Southwestern Railway, Liverpool had an excellent harbour and its industries included fish plants, lumber mills, pulp mills (and allied industries) and tanneries. Its population was fairly steady, given as 2,109 in 1911 and increasing during the next five years by about 200.

LUNENBURG

By 1911, the 2,681 persons living in Lunenburg had still retained the town's distinctly German atmosphere. Apart from being on the Halifax and Southwestern line, its fine harbour provided foreign trade in fish and lumber, particularly with the United States and the West Indies. Its fishing fleets numbered 150 vessels and over 2,000 men were employed on them. In addition, the town had machine shops, foundries, ship yards, and related ship supply establishments.

NEW GLASGOW

Located 42½ miles northeast of Truro on the Intercolonial line was New Glasgow. The East River, upon which the town was established, was navigable for the small steamers which ran between Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia. The head office and main plant of the Nova Scotia Steel and Coal Company and the Eastern Car Company's plant (makers of all kinds of steel and wooden freight cars) were located in the town. Goods produced by the town's industries included boilers, bridge works, mining tools, machinery, steel and wire fencing, glass, bricks, and (starting in 1915) shells for the Canadian and Allied armies in Europe. The town's population in 1911 was 6,383 and was established at 9,500 by 1916.

NORTH SYDNEY

An hourly service was maintained on the Intercolonial between North Sydney and Sydney. From its harbour, steamers

visited Port aux Basques in Newfoundland, Montreal, Halifax, and other major Canadian ports. The main industries included fish plants, coal mines, granite works, a planing mill, a stove factory, and a coal briquettes plant. The 1911 population figure was 5,418 and in the next five years it only increased by about 500.

PARRSBORO

This Bay of Fundy town was considered an important shipping point for coal, both by rail and steamer. The Cumberland Railway and Coal Company provided rail connection to Springhill, which was 32 miles north on the Intercolonial. Steamers left the harbour for Kingsport, Wolfville and other major Nova Scotia ports. The local industries centered around wood products, the main exports including lumber, various wood products and larrigans. The pride of the town was its new Dominion Post Office. The town owned and operated its own waterworks and electric lighting system. The 1911 population figure was 2,856.

PICTOU

This favourite seaside resort town was located 54 miles northeast of Truro on the Intercolonial line. Steamers ran from its fine harbour to Charlottetown, Montreal and ports on Cape Breton Island. In addition to being the seat of Pictou Academy (famous for the many distinguished Canadians who attended it), the town's industries included flour-milling, wood-working, and manufacture of biscuits, candy, tobacco products, and motor boats. The population in 1911 was 3,179.

SPRINGHILL

Located on the Cumberland Railway and Coal Company's line, it was 5 miles from Springhill Junction, which was the distributing center of the whole coal-mining district. Several of the mines were located at Springhill whose population in 1911 numbered 5,713.

STELLARTON

Stellarton, located on the Intercolonial, was famous for its seam of coal, 37 feet thick, which was said to be the thickest in the world (at that time). Apart from coal, it was the distributing point for farm machinery, vehicles and packed meats. Its factories included a carriage shop, railway repair shops, cigar factory, woodworking shops and a bakery. The 1911 population was 3,910 and increased about 600 over the next five years.

SYDNEY

The terminus of the Sydney and Louisburg Railway and of the eastern line of the Intercolonial was located in Sydney. An electric line ran to Glace Bay and Dominion. Steamer connections could be made to all major Canadian Atlantic ports. The main industries were coal, and iron and steel. The plant of the Dominion Iron and Steel Company, which cost $35 million to build, employed 4,000 men. Other industries produced tar, roofing materials, pressed brick, iron castings, sheet metal, structural steel, boats and cigars. The population figure was 17,723 for 1911, and by 1916 it was estimated at about 23,000. The city owned its own water and sewage systems, but the electric lights were provided by a private company.

SYDNEY MINES

Sydney Mines was located on the Intercolonial line, and the Nova Scotia Steel and Coal Company operated a line to North Sydney. The annual production of coal was one million tons, and up to 4,000 men were employed in the collieries. Also located at Sydney Mines were several large, open-hearth furnaces, foundries, machine shops, a blast furnace, and a steel compression plant. The total manufacturing of the town amounted to about $3 million a year. The population in 1911 was 7,470.

TRURO

The "hub" town had both the Intercolonial and the Canadian Pacific (Dominion Atlantic) railways. The manufacturing factories included knitting mills (output of knitted underwear was worth about one million dollars annually), a hat and cap factory (output of about half a million dollars a year), foundries, wood-working plants, condensed milk plant, and factories for making shells and mattresses. The Truro, or Colchester, Academy was the town's high school, but it was free to all children in the county, provided they could pass the entrance examinations. The Civic Building was erected in 1913 at a cost of $55,000 and the Government railway terminal building (Intercolonial) was constructed in 1914 at a cost of $200,000. The population in 1911 was 6,107 and increased by over 900 during the next five years.

WESTVILLE

Located on the Intercolonial, the main industries of Westville included coal mines, saw mills and brick yards. The population in 1911 was 4,417.

WINDSOR

Windsor was located on the Dominion Atlantic railway line, and ranked third in the province as an exporter of lumber. It also shipped out hard and soft gypsum. The main industries included a plaster mill, saw mills, furniture and chair factories, foundry, apple evaporating factory, and a glue and fertilizer factory. The total town population in 1911 was 3,452.

YARMOUTH

Regular steamship connections were maintained between Yarmouth and Boston, Halifax and Saint John. Yarmouth was the second largest exporter of lumber and the terminus of the Dominion Atlantic and the Halifax and Southwestern railways.

The greatest part of the trade of Yarmouth was done with Boston. The goods produced in the town included fresh fish, lumber, canned lobster, boned fish, liniment (Minard's) and fish products. There was also a large woodworking factory, steel ship building and boiler plant, shoe factory, several foundries and machine shops, and largest of all, a cotton mill which manufactured duck and sail cloth. The population was 6,600 in 1911 and increased by about 400 over the next five years. The hawthorn hedges were considered the pride of the town, and the roads in the area were the delight of automobile tourists.

Contributors

CHARLES BRUCE FERGUSSON was born in Port Morien, Nova Scotia, and received his early education there and in Glace Bay.

He attended the Provincial Normal College in Truro, Nova Scotia, where he won the Governor General's Medal. He continued his education at Dalhousie University, receiving the degree of Bachelor of Arts with Great Distinction, and was designated Nova Scotia Rhodes Scholar.

After further study at Oxford University, he was granted the degree of Bachelor of Arts with Honors, Master of Arts, and Doctor of Philosophy.

Dr. Fergusson is the recipient of the Centennial Medal.

As Archivist of Nova Scotia and Assistant Professor of History, Dr. Fergusson has a vast knowledge of our province and wide writing experience; being the author of books, articles, pamphlets, papers, reviews, etc., too numerous to mention here. His most recently published work is "The Mantle of Howe."

He is actively involved in several historical associations and committees including past President of the Nova Scotia Historical Society and a member of the Nova Scotia Historic Sites Advisory Council. Dr. Fergusson is also a member of the Editorial Board of the Nova Scotia Historical Quarterly.

MORTIMER VILLIERS MARSHALL was born in Central Chebogue, Yarmouth County, Nova Scotia and received his early education at Yarmouth Academy.

Dr. Marshall served with the Canadian Signal Corps in the First World War in England, France and Germany. On his return from duty, he attended Acadia University where he received the degree of Bachelor of Science in 1921, and Bachelor of Arts the following year. He continued his studies at Harvard University and was granted a Master of Education in 1927 and Doctorate in 1930. He is the recipient of several scholarships and fellowships, as well as a D. Litt. which was conferred upon him at Acadia University in 1966.

He is an experienced writer, especially in the field of education, with five books, over seventy articles, numerous pamphlets, standardized tests and surveys to his credit. He is the author of "A Short History of Acacia Villa School" as well as a newspaper column "Professor on the Loose" which appeared in The Wolfville Acadian and Yarmouth Vanguard.

He is a member of the Wolfville Historical Association and a Life Member of the Nova Scotia Teachers' Union.

Dr. Marshall is the former Head of the Department of Education at Acadia University. He is presently retired and resides in Wolfville.

JAMES FRANCIS SMITH was born in Amherst, Nova Scotia, and attended school in both Truro and New Glasgow.

He graduated from Nova Scotia Teachers' College, Truro, in 1965, having won several scholarships and earning the Richard Gordon Memorial Award for literature.

He has done extensive research on the history of Cumberland County and has written several newspaper articles on this subject.

He is a member of the New England Historic and Geneological Society, the North Cumberland Historical Society, and Editor for the Association of Teachers of English of Nova Scotia.

Mr. Smith lives in New Glasgow and teaches Junior High School English.

ROLAND HAROLD SHERWOOD was born and educated in Amherst, Nova Scotia. He later attended Nova Scotia Technical College.

He has enjoyed a long and varied career in both journalism and broadcasting. He was feature writer for the Halifax Chronicle-Herald for a number of years and author and narrator of radio stories of the Atlantic Provinces on Canadian and overseas networks. He has also had stories and articles published in major Canadian magazines and weeklies.

He has done much research into the history of Nova Scotia, resulting in three published works: "Pictou Parade", "Maritime Story Parade", and "Out of the Past". "Atlantic Harbours" is to be published in the near future.

He has been cited by the Red Cross for community youth work and elected to the Nova Scotia Sports Hall of Fame in recognition for his prowess in long distance running.

He has retired after many years service from the Maritime Telegraph and Telephone Company and is living in Pictou, where he is a free lance photo-journalist and writes a column for the Pictou Advocate.

DAVID ERNEST STEPHENS was born in Truro in 1946 and received his education there at the Colchester County Academy. He studied Industrial Arts Education at the Nova Scotia Teacher's College and received several scholarships during that time. Following graduation he received five scholarships for further study from the State University of New York and the Nova Scotia Teacher's College.

Mr. Stephens collects Nova Scotia relics and publications as a hobby and does extensive historical research and writing.

He has written numerous educational and historical articles for such publications as Canadian High News (Toronto), The Teacher (Halifax) Bookworm (Rockport, Me.), Relics Magazine (Texas), The Nova Scotia Journal of Education, The Nova Scotia Museum, several newspapers and previously contributed to the Nova Scotia Historical Quarterly.

Mr. Stephens is presently instructor in Graphic Communications at the Eastern Shore District High School. He is married with two children and resides in Musquodoboit Harbour.

Book Reviews

LORNA INNESS

It's "something old, something new" in the line of Nova Scotia books this quarter, with one cook book crammed with historical information and one collection of reminiscences of a girlhood spent in a small Nova Scotian community.

Out of Old Nova Scotia Kitchens, Marie Nightingale
212 pages, hard-cover, $6.95,
Burns & MacEachern Limited

This cook book was first published in October, 1970, in a spiral-bound paperback edition, and was included among the books reviewed in Vol. 1, No. 1, of this quarterly. It has now been published in hard-cover form.

This new issue contains an introduction by Mme. Jehane Benoit who comments that Mrs. Nightingale "has shown throughout her book how exceedingly vigorous local traditions are and how they have persisted throughout the centuries."

The point about this delightful book is that its place is not restricted to the kitchen. It is good armchair reading, even if you don't cook!

Pasture Spruce, by Sarah Fraser
132 pages, paperback, $2.95, published September, 1971
Petheric Press

An older lady who lives several villages away from my family's home in the country called up on the party line the other day to ask who Sarah Fraser is and where the events chronicled in Pasture Spruce took place. My caller was sure that she could identify the community about which Mrs. Fraser was writing.

Well, in the first place, I couldn't tell her who Mrs. Fraser is; Sarah Fraser is a pen name and the whole point in using a pen

name is to keep the author anonymous. Further, no particular community has been singled out as the setting for Pasture Spruce. Rather the characters could find themselves at home in one of a number of Nova Scotian rural communities at the turn-of-the-century. Similar events have probably happened to many people from various parts of the province.

Mainly the purpose of the book is to describe life as it was in a rural community in that comparatively gentle time when life may have seemed hard but was at least free from so many of the stresses, strains and perils which beset it today.

The book was submitted to William McCurdy, publisher of Petheric Press, as an article for possible use in this Quarterly. Its length ruled this out, but it did have interest, vigor and charm and has been published instead as a delightful book.

Mrs. Fraser states that she has "dug into the dower chest of memory." Many will find that her book will stir memories of their own; younger readers will have a warm-hearted, first-hand account of the conditions and times when their grandparents were young.

Heritage, A Romantic Look at Early Canadian Furniture, by Scott Symons
Photographs by John de Visser
hard-cover, $22.50, Published October, 1971
McClelland and Stewart Limited

In his preface to this book, George Grant states that "What is so satisfactory about Symons' descriptions is that he never uses the furniture as an excuse for a pedantic lecture, but rather by making us look at the furniture leads us out into complexities of lived traditions. The man of intellect without sensibility does not bother to look at furniture; the man of sensibility without intellect cannot know fully what is given to him in his looking. In the 'educated imagination' of this book we can be helped both to look and to know."

Each item of furniture is shown in a full-page color photograph and then in a series of smaller black and white detailed photos. One can call the photographs imaginative, superb, sensitive, but that hardly seems to do much for them. They stand on their own merits without benefit of flowery adjectives; they will have something different for each reader, strike some different part of memory.

The commentary is not the run-of-the-mill "This is a such-and such-, from so-and-so, dated . . ." type of thing. A special understanding and imagination shine through it. Whether the item is a Tulles Grandfather Clock or a portal from Twelve Mile House, near Pictou, and now in the Nova Scotia Museum; a Habitant Armoire from a private home in Quebec; a sewing table from the Royal Ontario Museum or a Teapoy from Upper Canada Village, there is the same bubbling, almost urgent shar ing of knowledge. One is reminded of those rare teachers and professors whose knowledge of their subject was so vast and

whose enthusiasm was so great that to listen to them was to be similarly enthused, so contagious was their interest.

Symons describes his journey as "a personal Odyssey into the heart of early Canadian belief . . . with furniture as central evidence of an entire culture . . ."

Symons is a third-generation Canadian who has worked as a journalist, curator, worked at the Canadiana Gallery at the Royal Ontario Museum and occasionally writes books.

Speaking of the end of his travels "in the realms of gold", Symons writes: "And when I left Saint John's a few weeks later my body and my mind and soul were at one. I wanted to sing . . . I had followed the forms of our past clean across Eastern Canada—living close to them, living in them—for over a year." And I knew for certain that the furniture of the old homes was equally the furniture of the heart and mind and soul of these people . . . Yes, I had tracked the ancient forms of our faith, from the heart of a great continent, to where they began, at the bitten edge of land and ocean. And at the very moment when it was clear that my people had to make their ultimate choice, between faith and cynicism . . . I had renewed my faith—and rejoiced . . ."

The Discoverers, By Leslie F. Hannon, An illustrated history. 256 pages, hard-cover, $16.95 (until Dec. 31, 1971) McClelland and Stewart Limited

This is one of two superbly illustrated books about the discovery of this continent. This one deals with "the seafaring men who first touched the coasts of Canada" from "great captain" to "humble hero".

"The word "discovery', " says Hannon could be redefined. He points out that with the exception of Antarctica, every continent "discovered" was already inhabited by somebody. ". . . in Canada, fifty tribes of a brave and infinitely resourceful people had adapted to this demanding environment during 25,000 testing years . . . "

"The intruders," he says, "everywhere put forward a putative friendship, but it was quickly backed with ready cannon . . ."

"Discovery," he adds, means as well "to disclose to knowledge, to make known . . ." and "that, finally, is what the heroes of these pages did. In an era when men still believed in Isles of Demons, in great sea monsters that could pull a ship into the depths, in ocean whirlpools from which there was no escape, they slowly brought into focus a new world; first, a brooding cape or two; then a span of coastline offering wood and water (and a bounty of cod); sheltering harbours; and soon a thousand coves, islands, inlets, bays, gulfs, river mouths, shoals, and beaches which later hands would tame to charts that captains-to-come could follow with ease . . ."

Most of the seafaring men and adventurers who came to these shores sought riches or a way west to the fabled lands of the Orient. But in spite of the struggles (both with privation and with arms) and the scheming and intrigues in foreign courts, great wealth lay in the bounty of the seas. Hannon points out

that "the Portuguese earned more from their catch on the Grand Banks than the Spanish gained from their South American treasure ships, and they earned it without the benefit of slavery..."

Hannon takes us along the trail of the Vikings who "knew the Nova Scotian shore and the striped sails of their ships probably caused wonderment to the Micmac Indians along the fijord where Halifax was to rise—the Norse seldom failing to penetrate inlets on all their discovery voyages..."

Cartier, Cabot, Champlain and others on the seas, Henry the Navigator, Cardinal Richelieu, King Henri IV, and others playing for high stakes in the courts of Europe; the whole cast of characters is here.

This is an imaginatively written book, with striking lay-out work.

Hannon is also the author of Canada At War and Forts of Canada. He is a former managing editor of MacLean's and editor of the Canadian Illustrated Library.

The Discovery of North America, by W. P. Cumming, R. A. Skelton, D. B. Quinn
394 pages, hard-cover, $25., published October, 1971
McClelland and Stewart Limited

You might think that one publishing company would think twice before issuing two books—expensive, major color printing jobs, both of them—within a few weeks of each other. However, this is a field which is certainly broad and complex enough for an endless variety of views and the two tend to complement rather than conflict with each other. Obviously there are similarities, but the differences stand out, as well.

For one thing, and probably the least important in the historical sense but perhaps one which might weigh most with many readers, this book relies more on extensive use of old maps and charts, and reproductions (in color and black and white) of old drawings from books. It lacks the breathtaking color photographs of contemporary views of the same landfalls which the early explorers saw in Labrador, Nova Scotia, along the St. Lawrence, for example, that abound in The Discoverers.

This book covers a wider area, taking in explorations along the West Coast and the interior, and devotes space to the efforts of Spanish and French explorers in Florida and Chesapeake Bay. The colony of Roanoke is included, as well as the voyages of Captain John Smith, and the landing of the Pilgrims and the founding of Plymouth.

In this book, it is the variety and quality of the old maps which command detailed study by those fascinated by this particular phase of the recording of history and geography. Much time can be spent studying the subtle variations in detail, the different approach used by each mapmaker.

Professor W. P. Cumming is an authority on colonial American cartography and spent a year on a Guggenheim Fellowship studying maps and charts in libraries and archives in Europe

before contributing to this book. The late Dr. R. A. Skelton was a former superintendent of the Map Room of the British Museum, and the author of several books on maps. He died suddenly when the book was still in the final proof stage. Professor D. B. Quinn is the author of Sir Humphrey Gilbert, The Roanoke Voyages, and is professor of modern history at Liverpool University.

With this book, the approach is to the discovery of this continent "as seen, experienced, and recorded by Europeans from the earliest vaguely reported transatlantic voyages to the establishment of permanent settlements in the first third of the seventeenth century..." To this end, "wherever possible, the writings of the discoverers themselves have been used..."

Changes have been made in spelling and punctuation in some instances to conform to modern practice or for clarification. However, "the use of modern translations has been limited to cases where these are more accurate than those published earlier."

In the sense of scholarly versus light reading, this book is the more scholarly of the two; this is in no sense any comparison of the quality of the work which has gone into both volumes. While both books would be valuable additions to any library, it is The Discoverers which is likely to appeal most to the armchair historian.

The Battle For James Bay, 1686, by W. A. Kenyon and J. R. Turnbull
132 pages, hard-cover, $7.95, Published October, 1971
The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited

This book is built around the Journal of the Chevalier de Troyes, who, in the winter of 1686, set off from Quebec City with 100 men on a "neat and effective guerilla operation". His party travelled some 1,590 miles to James Bay where they captured three Hudson's Bay Company forts. The whole operation took about six months from start to finish.

What is significant about this book, however, is that it combines the two fields of history and archaeology. As stated in its preface: "The historian is trained primarily to study the written records of the past, to analyse and interpret what men have said about their activities and those of others..." To this end, the book contains not only de Troyes' account, but other French accounts of the expedition and accounts by the defeated English.

However, as is pointed out in the preface, "The archaeologist is trained to analyse and interpret the record of man's occupation, the 'mute' artifacts he left behind. When both sites and records exist, the skills of each overlap and can prove mutually helpful as they have in this instance."

So it is, then, that the book also contains a section by W. A. Kenyon, assistant curator in the office of the Chief Archaeologist at the Royal Ontario Museum, and director of the excavations at Fort Albany. His story is fascinating, in itself, and illustrates how new scientific methods help to throw historical events into sharper perspective.

As a side note: how many "finds" and "digs" of incomparable value have developed from remarks made by local people about a site: "There you could pick up old things"! Such are the statements, rumors, legends which send scientists on yet another quest for some archaeological "grail".

The book is illustrated, mainly with photographs of artifacts taken from the site.

It's an exhaustive study of another of the strands which make up the fabric of our history.

Joseph Banks in Newfoundland & Labrador, 1766: His diary, manuscripts and collections, ed. by A. M. Lysaght
416 pages, hard-cover, $40, Published September, 1971
University of California Press

Premier Smallwood, who contributed the foreword to this volume, writes that "Dr. Lysaght's book opens a rich vein in our Newfoundland and Labrador story... and "The book is quite evidently a work of love as well as scholarship on the author's part..."

Joseph Banks was a young naturalist who when he sailed with Captain Cook on his first voyage around the world had already visited the island of Newfoundland in 1766. The book contains his diary of that voyage and a trip to southern Labrador. It includes his writings about birds and plants. Dr. Lysaght has included as background material biographical sketches not only of Banks and Cook, but of others—naturalists, scientists, painters of nature—who were his contemporaries and friends.

There is a section on the fate of Banks' specimens. His plant catalogue and zoological manuscripts, his botanical notes, lists of bird skins and animals collected or recorded by him are set out in detail.

Dr. Lysahgt has included the diaries of the Moravians in Newfoundland and Labrador, 1764, 1765; three short diaries included because of the "profound influence" the Moravians exerted on Banks. There are also notes from the logs of the Niger, the Hope, the Guernsey and the Grenville.

The book is profusely illustrated with photographs of family paintings, bird paintings by Sydney Parkinson and Peter Paillou, and Ehret's paintings of Banks' plants, as well as charts, sketches and other material.

This is a book which those particularly interested in Newfoundland and Labrador will find readable. It is a treasure trove indeed for the serious student of the natural history of these two parts of Canada. The bibliography will prove an invaluable guide to the scholar in this field.

Dr. Lysaght has produced a volume which, Premier Smallwood says, "is a delightful book in many different ways." "It is not," he points out, "every small island that has . . . an Averil Lysaght."

Dr. Lysaght is on the staff of the botany department of the British Museum.

Parsons On The Plains, By John McDougall, edited by Thomas Bredin
193 pages, hard-cover, $8.95, Published October, 1971
Longman Canada Limited

This book has been compiled by careful editing from three books or journals written by the Reverend John McDougall describing life in the Canadian West and Northwest in the 1840s-1860s.

As a young lad, John McDougall accompanied his father, the Reverend George M. McDougall, and recounted what they saw and the adventures they encountered in the wilderness.

The young boy learned to tend dogs at Norway House, and to run with the teams and handle the sleds. He learned how to survive in the wilderness. Trying to keep up with his companions and the dogs on a frozen lake, he found qualities of endurance and "learned to be a man."

His accounts of life with the Indians, the missionairies and Gospel riders, of the traders, soldiers and settlers make stimulating reading and one is left with admiration for the seeming ease with which these early builders of Canada endured what seem to be unbelievable hardships.

Teenagers with a sense of adventure will enjoy this book, too.

Joseph Brant, A Man For His People, By Helen Caister Robinson
178 pages, hard-cover, $6.50, Published October, 1971
Longman Canada Limited

It was research on a book about Laura Secord that led Mrs. Robinson to write about the Mohawk chief Thayendanegea, more widely known by his English name of Joseph Brant.

As a lad, the Mohawk was given his English name by Colonel William Johnson, with whose family he lived for a time. It was here that he began learning the white man's ways. When he was 13, Brant followed Colonel Johnson into the French and Indian wars; later he served the British during the Revolution.

"It was frequently said of Joseph Brant," writes Mrs. Robinson, "that during the Revolution he fought with a tomahawk in one hand, a copy of the New Testament in the other..."

Following the Revolution, Brant took his people from their old lands in New York State to new territory in what is now Ontario.

This book comes along at a time when there is increasing interest in and recognition of Indian leaders of the past and the status of the Indian today. This book will appeal to young readers in their teens.

COLES CANADIANA COLLECTION, Coles Publishing Company Limited.

The following are new additions to this interesting assortment of paperback reprints of early books and journals about various aspects of Canadian and North American life.

Letters From Canada, by Hugh Gray, first published in 1809.

Gray lived in Canada from 1806 to 1808 and was primarily interested in law and commerce, and, to this end, travelled widely through the country. He noted his observations about everything from the ways and customs and manners of the people to the condition of the land and the nature of a Canadian winter.

He drew this conclusion: "If it is not a land abounding in all the luxuries and elegancies of life, it undeniably is a land of peace and plenty."

Gray also makes some interesting comments on the lot of the French Canadians, the Canadiens: "Regarding their dissatisfaction," he wrote: "I am afraid I must look for it only in their own tempers and dispositions, influenced by the peculiarity of their situation, as descendants of those who formerly had entire possession of the country, and of its government, civil and military; and who feel sore at being deprived of any part of the inheritance of their fathers..."

(496 pages, not illustrated, $3.95)

The Canadian Naturalist, By P. H. Gosse

"Every kingdom, every province, should have its own monographer," wrote English naturalist Gilbert White, and Gosse set out to do just that in what he called "a series of conversations on the natural history of Lower Canada."

This volume was originally published in 1840. It is divided into 12 months of the year and "C" and "F" discuss at length their impressions of the seasonal changes and behavior of the fields and woods and the creatures and plants they encounter.

(372 pages, a few sketches, $3.50)

The Backwoods of Canada, 1836

This book is a collection of letters written by the wife of an "emigrant officer" who followed her husband to the settlements of rural Ontario, somewhat in the manner of Ruth. In her letters she describes the customs, the manner of living and the hardships of making a new life in a sometimes harsh land.

(351 pages, $3.50)

Notes on Nova Scotia

Pubnico, (Yarmouth County) area is said to be the only French barony in the early Acadia.

* * *

In 1844 Charles Fenerty of Sackville, Halifax County, made public the invention of paper from spruce wood pulp—and is supposed to have made the development in 1838. Knowing nothing of patents he let the matter slide and the official recognition for the development went to a Germann named Keller.

* * *

A record size tuna fish was caught in Jordan Bay, Shelburne County, by the famous novelist Zane Gray.

* * *

Daily wine allowance to workmen at Port Royal in 1606 was 3 qts. per person.

* * *

One of the first agricultural societies of Nova Scotia was formed at West River, Pictou County in 1817. The first plowing match was held here in 1818.

* * *

The diary of loyalist settler Simeon Perkins of Liverpool, Queens County is one of the most informative single documents in Canada recording early colonial life.

* * *

The first stationary steam engine operated in Canada was in Stellarton 1827. Also the first iron rails in North America were cast in Stellarton in 1828.