

HISTORIC TERRITORIAL EVOLUTIONS WITHIN CANADA AND THEIR GENEALOGICAL ISSUES (1500-1914 A.D.)

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INTRODUCTION

Many of us around the world, Canadians included, have never really thought about the territorial changes that have affected us and its populace. Most of us have thought only of other countries, European ones in particular, which have seen sometimes numerous and bloody results to border disputes that have often led to major continental changes. However, Canada is not one that has readily come to mind when we think of territorial evolutions. If you have been like many looking from the outside in, Canada seems simply like that “large-sea-to-sea frozen wasteland where people eak out a living, are so clean, and are, oh so friendly!” Things have always been the same there - haven’t they?

Well, alas, I think most of us Canadians would agree in saying that we are more than this and our history has affected our lives. Canada has not always been as we see her today and nor has our people. Fortunately, we have not seen nearly as bloody a history as some countries, including our friend to the south, but the evolutions have been significant to change, reshape, and alter completely the political, social, geographical, and economic fabric of this nation over our five-hundred year old history.

Even today as we speak, this reshaping is taking place with the division of our Northwest Territories into a pared down version of itself and the new Territory of Nunavut. A change that will evolve into more significant impacts for these entities and the nation as a whole as it develops.

Today we will discuss the importance of these territorial evolutions that have affected the Canadian topography, why some of these issues occurred, and how these changes will alter your genealogical search strategies.



BOUNDARY EVOLUTION IN CANADA

A. PART I - FRENCH OCCUPATION (1500-1763): GROWTH & CONFLICT

This was a time of expansionism by many of the leading world empires of the day and new territory of any sort was seen as another gem in the crown of the monarch whose government was discovering these lands.

The evolution of Canada has seen a number of players in this game of territorial domination. First came the Vikings, then the French & Spanish, of course the British and Danes quickly arrived to plant flags, the American and Russians soon began arguing over our territory, the Portuguese played around on the Maritime coast for a while and their enemies the Germans, well, they thought about Canada however the last 250 years had been a bit busy for them with their little (& large) conflicts in Europe.

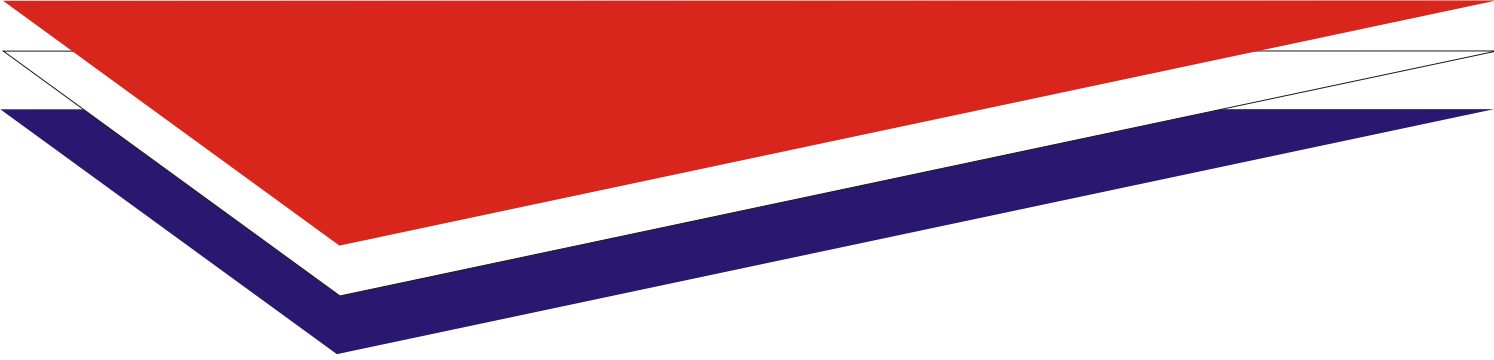
1. Exploration of the Northeast Coastline

The late 15th and 16th centuries were a grand period of exploration and a true age of discovery. Routes of exploration and trade were expanding immensely. But it was in 1492/1493 that finally brought Europe to North American shores with Christopher Columbus. The crusty Genoese, John Cabot, later sailed under the Crown of England and arrived on the shores of what is now Newfoundland and Cape Breton in 1497 and then little exploration again hit this area until the arrival of Jacques Cartier in 1534. When Columbus died in 1506, the significance of his discoveries were still obscure, though by 1607 the new continent had been already named 'America' by mapmaker, Martin Waldseemüller.

Records of how the coastline from the Bay of Fundy to Hudson Bay was explored are meagre at best and their interpretation has caused much controversy. Expeditions were officially authorized by no less than four governments of the day. Sailing under the English flag were the Genoese John Cabot, his son Sebastian, and the Englishman John Rut (1527). Gaspar Corte-Real (1500), his brother Miguel, and Alvarez Fagunda (1521) served their native Portugal. Giovanni da Verrazano (1524) was a Florentine employed by the King of France and Estevan Gomez (1524-1525), a Portuguese, was employed by the King of Spain. There were others as well, and some no doubt about whom no record remains. Though there was little but seasonal settlement on this coastline, the major discovery was the great fishing bank in this area and this began to immediately attract increasing numbers of fishermen from England, France, Portugal and Spain.

2. The First Major Exploration Into New France

The first explorer known to have penetrated much beyond the coastline into what is now Canada was Jacques Cartier. Supported by Francis I of France, Cartier spent the summer of 1534 exploring the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the following years ascended the St. Lawrence River as far as the Indian villages of Stadacona



(Quebec City) and Hochelaga (Montreal). Returning to France, by this time earlier hopes for a passage through to the Pacific seemed bleak, but Indian tales, especially of the Kingdom of Saguenay, convinced Cartier and Francis I that a rich territory, perhaps in northeastern Asia, was not much farther up river. By 1541, Sieur de Roberval as military commander and Cartier as the chief pilot, were sent to establish a colony in New France as a base for the conquest of Saguenay. Failure was, partly due to quarrelling and bad luck, but was inevitable because of the nature of the objective. This was followed by a long lull in official French interest in the region.

3. Results of Early Exploration

By 1569 when Dutchman Gerardus Mercator introduced his famous method of map projection there still remained much confusion on the layout of North America, its connection (or lack thereof) to Europe, the route to Asia, and more at home, the topography of the St. Lawrence.

From the standpoint of Canadian history, however, the main results of these explorations to date were: (1) quite full knowledge had been obtained of the Newfoundland-St. Lawrence coastal area with its great fishing banks but “lack of rich kingdoms” to conquer; (2) it had become almost certain that the Americas were separate from Asia, and that there was no seaway through them. The question was asked, short of a northern passage to Asia, was there much point to further exploration, let alone settlement, of this new land?

4. European Interest Expands

The 17th century became one of rapid development in North America, however, and in the course of which the Spaniards consolidated their control in the south and the English established flourishing settlements along the Atlantic coast, while the French colonized with greater difficulty and less success, Acadia and the St. Lawrence Valley.

The St. Lawrence, the most immediately useful, permitted the French to establish a potentially great inland fur-trading empire, linked just as the century ended with the Mississippi entry as well. The Hudson River, explored by Henry Hudson in 1609, enabled his employers, the Dutch, to create an important agricultural and trading colony which they lost, however, to the English in 1664. Hudson Bay, also explored by Hudson (1610-11) but on the behalf this time of his native England, became the centre of Hudson’s Bay Company fur-trading after 1670. However, the Company’s rights were vigorously disputed by the French who had reached the Bay earlier by land. As the century ended, French-English rivalry over the fur-trade of both Hudson Bay and the interior, and over the fisheries of Newfoundland, was becoming a dominant theme in North American history.

The St. Lawrence and the interior were also being investigated further by Samuel de Champlain for Henry IV of France. By 1603, he was exploring as far as Hochelaga and by 1609 ventured up the Richelieu to Lake Champlain and up the Ottawa River to Allumette Island in 1613. By 1632 he had successfully pieced together the puzzling inter-relationships of the St. Lawrence, Richelieu, Ottawa, and Great Lakes waterways.

By now we had our first successful settlements in New France and North America, both of which were by the French: Port Royal (1606) and Quebec City (1608). At the same time English settlement had begun in Virginia (1606-07).

Champlain had founded Quebec City in 1608 and had nurtured it through its infancy but by 1629 was obliged to surrender it to English forces until the restoration of peace in 1632 with the *Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye* which brought to an end what was known as the *King Charles's War*. Great Britain restored to France the territory bordering on the St. Lawrence known as Canada, as well as Acadia (Nova Scotia & New Brunswick) and Cape Breton. The Penobscot was claimed as the western boundary of Acadia, dividing the English from the French settlements. Meanwhile, in Acadia, the long conflict between English and French had begun even earlier with raids on French settlements in 1613 and England's James I's grant of "Nova Scotia" to Sir William Alexander in 1621.

The long standing hostility of France and Britain in Europe and other parts of the world was heightened in North America by rivalry over the Newfoundland fisheries and the fur-trade of the continental interior. With regard to the later, the French, following the example of Champlain and encouraged by missionary zeal and inviting waterways branching inward from Montreal, took an early lead. During the 17th century they not only explored the whole Great Lake region but reached out as well to the Hudson Bay and the mouth of the Mississippi.

The English were comparatively slow in pushing inland from Hudson Bay or the Atlantic seaboard, and what they did accomplish was sometimes with the assistance of renegade Frenchmen.

The principal change in New France during this subsequent period of 1632 to 1655 was in Acadia, where in 1654, the English, under Cromwell's orders, seized that country. For the next thirteen years, Acadia, including the mainland and the islands known today as Cape Breton and Prince Edward Island, was to remain under British rules with Sir Thomas Temple as Governor.

It was the *Treaty of Breda* in 1667 that officially again recognized Acadia as a French possession. But the English were not about to be out-manouvered and by Royal Charter of 1670, James I grants sole trading rights in Hudson Bay drainage basin to the Hudson's Bay Company.



Figure 1 - Territorial Boundaries (1667)

Between 1667 and 1697 considerable territorial and political changes took place. Since the former year New France had been nominally under the jurisdiction of the Governor of Quebec, but always with a local governor. With one siege after another, France had now established a claim by discovery or conquest too much of the vast interior of the continent.

In 1689, when William III became King of England, war broke out again with France and lasted for eight years. Count Louis de Frontenac was then Governor of Canada (1672). In 1690 Sir William Phipps led an expedition from New England, seized and plundered Port Royal (now Annapolis Royal), then sailed around into the St. Lawrence, but failed to take Quebec. The war finally ended in 1697 with the *Treaty of Ryswick*, by which Port Royal & Acadia were restored to the French and the posts on Hudson Bay restored to Great Britain.

5. Treaty of Utrecht (1713)

France's first permanent territorial losses in North American were acknowledged in the *Treaty of Utrecht* which ended the *War of the Spanish Succession (Queen Anne's War)* in 1713. By it France recognized British ownership of the Hudson Bay region (Rupert's Land), Newfoundland, and 'all Nova Scotia or Acadie, with its ancient boundaries, as also the city of Port Royal'. Specifically excluded by France, however, were the islands of the Gulf of St. Lawrence including Isle Royale (Cape Breton) and also certain fishing rights along the northward shores of Newfoundland between Cape Bonavista and Riche Point.

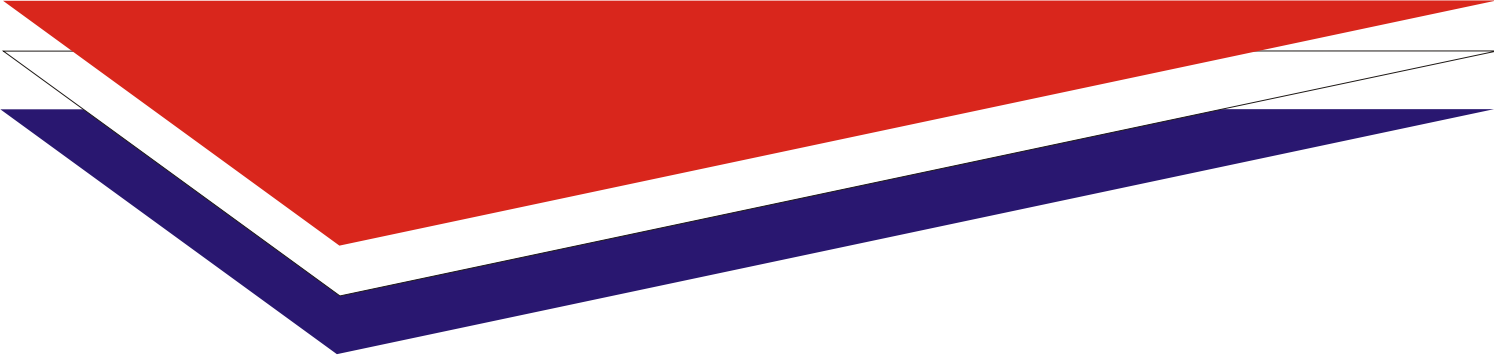


Figure 2 - Territorial Boundaries (1713)

The special interests of both countries in respect to the territories of their Indian allies were admitted, the Iroquois territories being definitely assigned to the British sphere. A provision that commissioners be appointed to determine the various boundaries more exactly proved ineffective, and when the next war began the limits of the Hudson's Bay Territories remained in dispute and French occupation of what is now New Brunswick still continued.

In 1710, Nicholson with an expedition from Boston, had already captured Port Royal, changed the name to Annapolis Royal, and taken possession of Acadia. Thus, regardless of another treaty, the boundaries

between New France and the British possessions remained very unsettled and became a matter of constant & bitter dispute. France contended that Acadia as ceded to Great Britain was only the peninsula of Nova Scotia,



while the latter claimed all the territory now included in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the Gaspé peninsula.

It must be remembered that 18th century wars between Britain and France were by no means confined to border clashes in North America. They were worldwide struggles for commercial and colonial supremacy, fought in eastern oceans and India as well as in Europe and the Atlantic region. In the latter, the furs and fish of Canada were among the principal prizes at stake, along with the sugar of the West Indies and the lucrative slave trade of Africa.

6. Settlement in New France

The major disadvantage of the French in North America was the extent to which they were outnumbered by the British to the south. The spectacular achievements of their fur-traders and explorers were not matched by their ‘habitant’ farmers who were adding only slowly to the area under cultivation in the St. Lawrence lowlands of Canada and in a few parts of Acadia, notably on the tidal marshland at the head of the Bay of Fundy, on Isle St. Jean (Prince Edward Island), and around Port Royal.

The land-holding system was seigneurial, based on that of France. Grants of some sixty seigneuries had been made before 1663; more than that number followed rapidly during the next nine years when Jean Talon was Intendant, and others were added during the remainder of the French régime and even in a few cases after the British conquest. The last grant was in 1788, and the system was abolished in 1854. Seigneurs were supposed to see to the clearing and settlement of their land, but few were able to satisfy fully these requirements, especially in the early days.

Settlement clung to the coasts and river banks for ease of transportation. The market for farm products, however, was never great - the supply of a few towns and some fisherman and fur-traders - although in later years of mounting wars with the British it expanded in line with the needs of reinforced garrisons at Quebec, Louisbourg, Beauséjour, and other forts. Shipbuilding and the productive, but unprofitable, iron forges on the St. Maurice near Three Rivers were the only significant secondary industries, apart from home spinning and weaving and local milling. The fur trade itself, though enormously lucrative and however colourful, was always an uncertain source of wealth and employment. All of this contrasted alarmingly with the rapid and solid progress of the British colonies.

Population records you will find amazingly detailed for the French régime and show that growth was very slow before 1663. A period of more rapid expansion followed as the result of support and efforts both in New France and by masters in France. In the 18th century progress continued at a steady but by no means spectacular pace. The total French population (Canadian and Acadian) was still less than 80,000 by 1763 and seemed very small indeed when compared with the 1,500,000 in the British colonies to the south, which later became the American Colonies.

7. The Seven Years' War (1754-1763)

The finally decisive struggle between the French and British in North America was the *Seven Years' War*. In

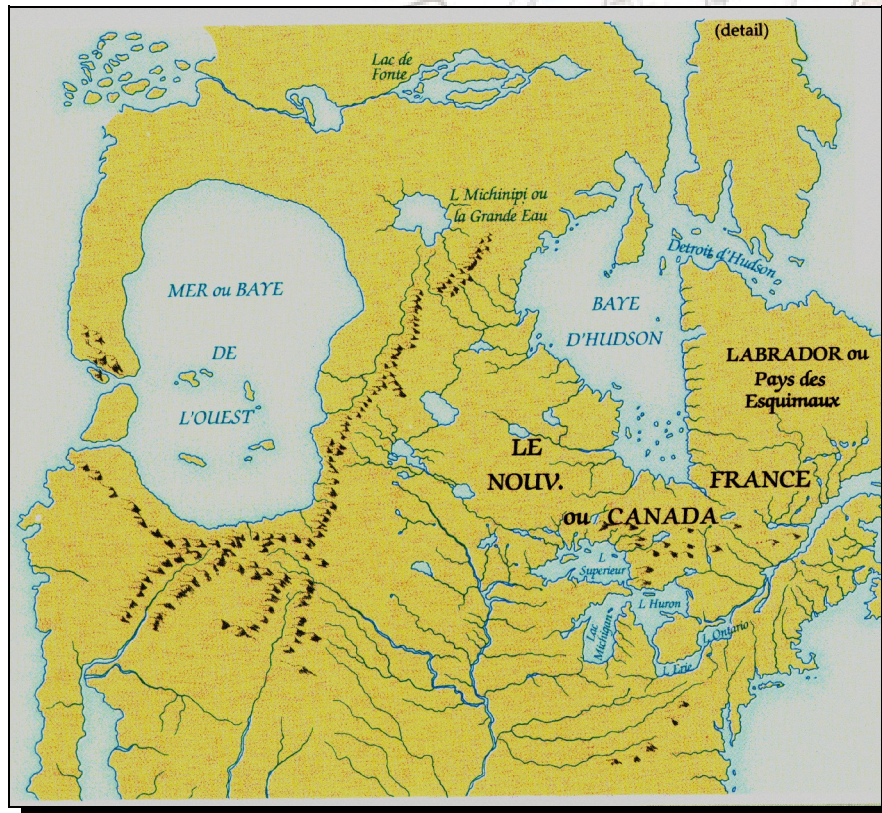


Figure 3 - Deslisle Map (1752)

1754, two years before the formal declaration of war in Europe, conflict began in North America when the French from Canada and the English from Virginia clashed in rival attempts to occupy the rich Ohio Valley. The French built Fort Duquesne at the strategic forks of the Ohio River, where the Allegheny and the Monongahela come together, and forced the surrender of a small English expedition under George Washington at nearby Fort Necessity. For the next five years, except when winter prevented all but minor skirmishes, fighting continued usually on all three fronts: (1) in the west, in the Ohio country and around Lake Erie and Lake Ontario; (2) in the centre, where the Hudson-Champlain-Richelieu

waterway constituted the great 'warpath of nations'; and (3) in the north-eastward approaches to Canada, the St. Lawrence gulf and river region.

Battles continued and further decisive events sided again for the British at Siege of Louisbourg in 1758 and the deciding Siege of Quebec on the Plains of Abraham by Wolfe and Montcalm in September 1759.

8. The Treaty of Paris (1763)

The first *Treaty of Paris*, signed by Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal on February 10, 1763, ended the West European and colonial phases of the *Seven Years' War*, and marked the withdrawal of France from

the mainland of North America. In the northeastern part of the continent, France ceded to Britain all territories that had remained to her after the *Treaty of Utrecht* (ie., Canada and what is now New Brunswick, together with adjacent islands, including Isle Royale and Isle St. Jean). She retained the fishing rights in Newfoundland guaranteed by the *Treaty of Utrecht*, and received as well the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon for use as unfortified fishing bases.

So, the general effect of the treaty was that for a time after 1763, Britain was in possession of the whole eastern half of the continent, France was virtually eliminated as a North American power, and the somewhat enlarged Spanish territories became concentrated in the southwest. The northwest remained as yet almost unknown, except for recent Russian advances down the now Alaskan, and British Columbian, coastlines.



Figure 4 - Territorial Boundaries (1763)

B. PART 2 - BRITISH COLONIAL ENTRENCHMENT (1763-1791)

As previously discussed, the first *Treaty of Paris*, signed in February 1763, virtually ended the West European and colonial phases of the Seven Years' War and marked the final withdrawal of France from mainland North America with its cessation of Louisiana to Spain. The boundaries of New France were now being quickly and firmly entrenched into the British dominion.

1. Changing Relationships & the Royal Proclamation (1763)

Eight months later, on October 7, 1763, the British Government of King George III issued a Royal Proclamation establishing the boundaries and governments of territories acquired in the *Treaty of Paris*. This proclamation formally stated several matters: (1) it created a new colony out of the old New France, named Quebec, whose boundary followed the St. John River, passed from its headwaters through Lake St. John to Lake Nipissing and to the St. Lawrence Seaway at the 45th parallel just above Montreal, then turned back eastward along that parallel and along the north shore of Chaleur Bay (as does the present boundary of the Province of Quebec) and then crossed west of Anticosti Island to the mouth of the St. John River; (2) it assumed that Nova Scotia included what is now New Brunswick (as Britain had claimed unsuccessfully since

1713) and added to it Cape Breton and St. Jean (or St. John - later to be named Prince Edward) Islands; (3) it annexed to Newfoundland the coast of Labrador from the St. John River to Hudson Strait and also Anticosti and the Magdalen Islands in order to assure unified control of the gulf and coastal fisheries, these being considered the most obvious advantages arising from the cessions'; (4) lastly, it set aside all lands west and north of rivers flowing into the Atlantic Ocean, except those already granted to the Hudson's Bay Company (who was administering Rupert's Land) or included in Quebec, to be Indian Territories from which settlement would be excluded and in which trade could be carried on only under licence. In the next few years several Indian treaties, notably that with the Iroquois at Fort Stanwix (1768), took the limits of settlement slightly westward.

2. Territorial Boundaries and The Quebec Act (1774)

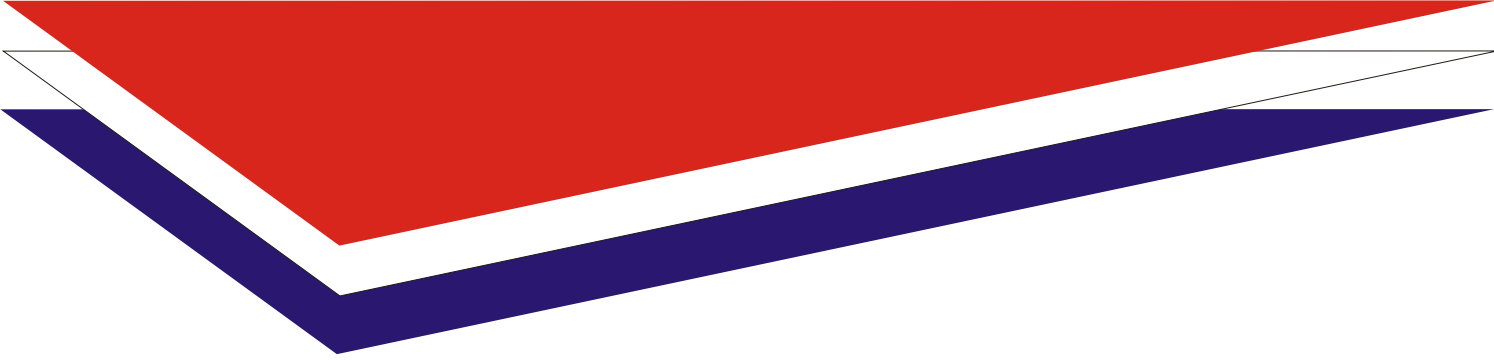
Eleven years later, on May 20th 1774, British North America further established territorial boundaries by implementing the *Quebec Act*. This brought both the fisheries of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the fur trade of the interior within the jurisdiction of the Quebec Government by annexing to that province: (1) Labrador, Anticosti, and the Magdalen Islands, all previously belonging to Newfoundland, and (2) the Indian Territories southwestward to the junction of the Ohio and Mississippi River basins and thence northward to the southern boundaries of the Hudson's Bay Company's lands (otherwise known as Rupert's Land).

This second provision, although followed by specific guidelines to safeguard existing boundaries and rights of the older British colonies, added nevertheless to their growing discontent by limiting their further westward expansion. Moreover, Guy Carleton's commission as Governor of Quebec some months later defined the boundary from the Ohio as running northward along the Mississippi River, and thus placed it even farther west than if it had run due northward. A century later this apparent discrepancy, clearly unintentional and due to careless wording of the final draft of the Act, led to a very vigorous boundary dispute between the later provinces of Manitoba and Ontario, finally decided in favour of the latter by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in 1884.

Meanwhile, on the Maritime coast, St. Jean Island (named Prince Edward Island after 1799) was given separate government from mainland Nova Scotia in 1769 at the petitioning of the "proprietors" (rich absentee land owners of the established 67 lots on the Island) among whom it had been divided earlier in 1767.



Figure 5 - Territorial Boundaries (1774)



3. The American Revolutionary War (1775-1783) & Expansion Attempts into British North America

The first shots of the American Revolutionary War at Lexington and Concord on April 19th 1775 near Boston were followed by an attempt to win over the traditional American enemy, British North America, first by an appeal from the Second Continental Congress and then finally by invasion. The invasion, a two-pronged attack by Richard Montgomery and Benedict Arnold, was the main event of the first year of war apart from the historical Battle of Bunker Hill.

After the heroic defence and final surrender of St. John (September 4- November 3), it culminated in an unsuccessful assault on Quebec City during which Montgomery was killed (December 31st 1775). When British ships appeared in the spring, the American retreat began, enabling Guy Carleton to recover all of British North America in the summer of 1776 and advance as far as Crown Point (south point of Lake Champlain) before returning to St. Johns, which was just south of Montreal and north of Lake Champlain, to winter.

Meanwhile, a feeble attempt by Americans and their sympathizers to capture Fort Cumberland (now known as Fort Beauséjour) in New Brunswick in November of 1776, was repulsed without difficulty. In 1777, Burgoyne's campaign down the Lake Champlain route ended in his disastrous surrender at Saratoga on October 17th of that year when Howe, instead of advancing to his support up the Hudson River from New York, turned southward to capture Philadelphia and when St. Leger and his Indian & militia allies were halted before Fort Schuyler (Fort Stanwix).

The following years (1778-1781) saw little action in the north except for privateering in the Atlantic coast and raids in the Mohawk Valley intended to interfere with the supply of food to Washington's army.

4. Formal Territorial Boundaries Established with The Treaties of Versailles and Paris (1783)

However, by 1783 several treaties, signed simultaneously on September 3rd 1783, ended the American Revolutionary War and the worldwide conflicts that had arisen from it. Two of these concerned the governing and boundaries in British North America.

The *Treaty of Versailles* between Britain and France altered the provisions of the earlier *Treaty of Paris* by making France's ownership of St. Pierre and Miquelon Islands unconditional and by adjusting French fishing rights on the northward and eastern shores of Newfoundland to make them lie between Cape St. John and Cape Ray, instead of Cape Bonavista and Riche Point. In a special 'declaration' that formed part of this agreement, the British Government undertook additionally to prevent its subjects from establishing fixed settlements along the 'French shore', thus virtually eliminating British use of almost half of the Island. The new *Treaty of Paris of 1783* between Britain and the United States, redefining the new relationship of each to the other, included

provision that the boundary between the U.S. and continuing British colonies to the north should run from the Bay of Fundy up the middle of the St. Croix River to its source, due north to the watershed between the St. Lawrence and the Atlantic, along the watershed to the northwester most head of the Connecticut River, down this to the 45th parallel, west along the parallel to the St. Lawrence, up the middle of that and other rivers and lakes to Lake Superior, Rainy Lake, and the Lake of the Woods, across the latter to its most northwestern point, and finally due west to the Mississippi River.

In general, this line was to constitute the permanent boundary settlement, but several sections of this provision became subjects of great controversy when the inadequacies of the Mitchell Map, which was used extensively in the treaty negotiations, were later discovered. This heavily relied upon map was prepared in 1755 for the British Government by John Mitchell and it was later determined, by added exploration, to contain some important inaccuracies pertaining to boundaries established in the new *Treaty of Paris of 1783* and the *Treaty of Versailles*.

In an attempt to remove these problems and other sources of discord, such as Britain's retention of important military and fur-trading posts on American territory, *Jay's Treaty* was signed November 19th 1794. Its results included British withdrawal from the posts during 1796 and a decision by a joint commission as to which was meant by the St. Croix River. Other boundary problems remained for later solution.

Also of importance during this period, colonial government under the constant petitioning of those involved was now (1784) established in New Brunswick and Cape Breton, both of which were separated from the earlier governing body of Nova Scotia. This action and others like it further entrenched British occupation into the region.



Figure 6 - Territorial Boundaries (1784)

5. Post War Entrenchments and Loyalist/Pre-Loyalist Immigration

It must be remembered that Newfoundland was highly important during the mercantile period because of its rich fishery, and as a result the population increased to about 20,000 by the end of the eighteenth century despite earlier official attempts to prevent permanent settlement. Nova Scotia, British since 1713, attracted few new settlers before the founding of Halifax (named after the Earl of Halifax) in 1749 when several thousand immigrants were brought out from England. Germans and some French and Swiss followed shortly thereafter, moving down the coast to Lunenburg. The conquest of France's remaining territories in North America and their retention by the first *Treaty of Paris* of 1763 brought British merchants and garrisons to

Quebec and Montreal, and groups of farmers migrated from New England (aptly called the *Planters*) and directly from Britain to various places in the Maritime region.

However, it was the coming of the *Loyalists* (subjects chosen loyal to the British Crown rather than the American Government), the refugees of the American Revolutionary War, that first foreshadowed an eventual British majority over the French in British North America. It must be remembered as well, that not all of these were necessarily of British stock & origin. Incredibly, estimates are that almost 20,000 settled finally in Nova Scotia, 14,000 in New Brunswick, 600 in Isle St. John, 400 in Cape Breton Island, 1000 in Lower Canada, and 6000 in Upper Canada.

The Maritimes group came mainly by ship from New York in 1783, many landing at Port Roseway (renamed Shelburne) in Nova Scotia, temporarily the largest urban centre in British North America. Most soon went on to Halifax, the Annapolis Valley, the Isles of St. John and Cape Breton, or across the Bay of Fundy to the St. John River Valley and its tributaries. Among the latter were several disbanded Loyalist corps and two Scottish regiments.

With this collection of military loyalists, which for the Maritimes was predominately in New Brunswick, settlements were established along the St. John River system from its northern origins down to Fredericton in the following pattern: De Lancey's 1st Battalion, the Pennsylvania Loyalists, the King's American Regiment, the Queen's Rangers, the King's American Dragoons, the Guides & Pioneers, the 42nd Regiment, the New Jersey Volunteers, the New York Volunteers, the Prince of Wales Regiment, and the Maryland Loyalists. The Royal Fencible Americans were on the Bay of Fundy along the St. Croix River, while the Orange Rangers were also along the Bay of Fundy however, slightly north of Saint John.

The Quebec Loyalists, arriving more gradually by land, were forbidden by Lord Haldimand, the governor at the time in British North America, to settle in the vacant triangle beside the American border (later the Eastern Townships of Ontario) or in the old French seigneuries except in the immediate vicinity of the refugee camp at Fort William Henry (now known as Sorel, Quebec).



Figure 7 - Territorial Boundaries (1791)

Civilians and some military units spread out therefore along the waterfront from Lake St. Francis to beyond Cataraqui (later known as Kingston) to the Tyendinga Reserve. These were part of Jessup's Corp, King's Rangers Battalion and part of the King's Royal Regiment of New York. The other part of the King's Royal Regiment of New York and Jessup's Corp settled between Johnstown (Cornwall) and Oswegatchie along the Lake St. Francis waterfront. Farther west, Joseph Brant's Iroquois received land along the Grand River while Butler's Rangers stayed in the Niagara area where they had been based during the Revolutionary War. Other Loyalist arrivals came from Detroit after the abandonment of that fort in 1796 under the terms of *Jay's Treaty*. In Canada, these Loyalists were soon outnumbered, however, by other immigrants moving westward with the frontier heedless of political boundaries; in the Maritimes, the Loyalist numbers remained dominant in the population for several more generations.

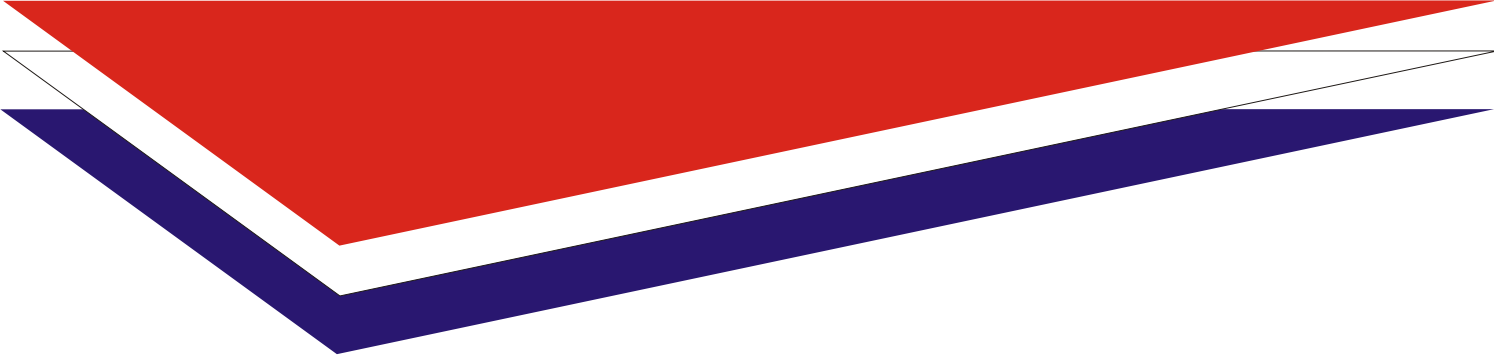
The coming of the Loyalists coincided with, and helped to cause, the separation of New Brunswick and Cape Breton from Nova Scotia in 1784 and the division of Upper and Lower Canada following the Constitutional Act of 1791. In addition to these changes, in the previous year of 1790 the *Nootka Convention* opened the northwest coast to occupation by any country and soon this was to be taken advantage of by the British, the Russians, the Spanish and the Americans.

By the close of 1791, Russia claimed what was later to be known as Alaska as well as much of the now known British Columbia coastline, Britain was claiming the entire North American west coastline as well as the Indian Territories, and the remainder, of Rupert's Land which they lied in. The British had entrenched themselves into the colonies of Upper Canada, Lower Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Isle of St. John, Isle of Cape Breton, and Newfoundland.

Spain was claiming Louisiana which stretched from the west coast and 49th parallel south to the Ohio Valley, while everything further east of this and south of the 49th parallel was now being claimed by the American colonies of the United States. The confrontations and boundaries were yet to see more changes and the disputes were to



Figure 8 - Territorial Boundaries (1791)



become more intense in the years ahead.

C. PART 3 - WESTERN EXPANSIONISM & NORTH/SOUTH CONFLICTS (1791-1867)

The Loyalist and other immigration from the American colonies, as well as Britain & Continental Europe, continued to migrate to North America after 1791 and this would persist strongly for another 25 years. The period till 1810 was one of calm. However, by 1810, tensions were mounting and being fuelled by the result of the earlier *Napoleonic Wars* and the *American War of Aggression*, or *Civil War*.

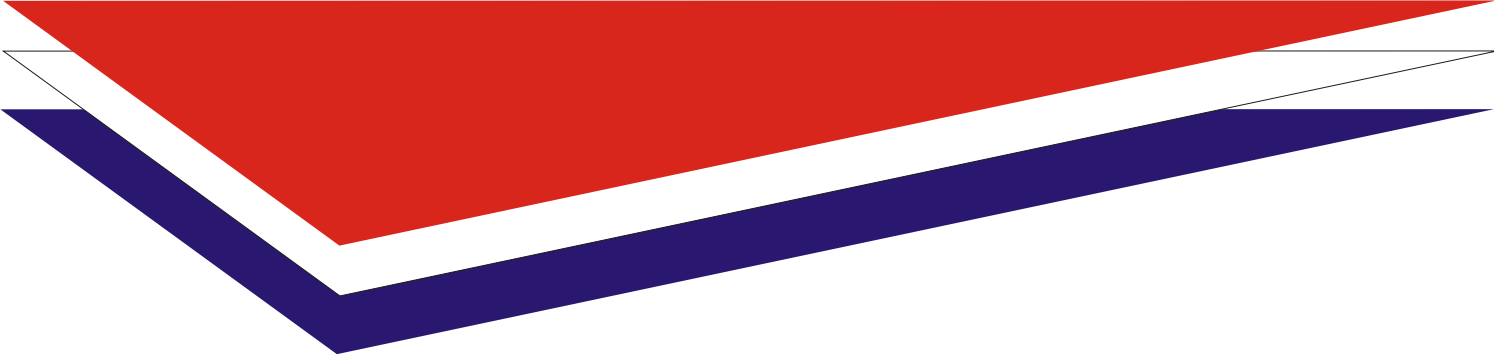
1. North-South Conflicts: The War of 1812

The *War of 1812*, although related to these earlier wars and conducted partly by naval forces along the American seaboard, was primarily an American attempt to annex at least the western peninsula of Upper Canada. The main fighting, therefore, was around Niagara or farther west. The Americans failed to concentrate on the traditional 'warpath of nations' along Lake Champlain where the capture of Montreal would have cut communications with Upper Canada and been a mortal blow. Their limited real objective also meant that the Americans fought half-heartedly at first, though with growing skill and determination as bloodshed increased, and it was possible to repel their invasion with what British troops were available aided by some militia units and Indians. Waterways being essential to communication, naval flotillas on the various lakes played a decisive role.

The War seesawed for two years between adversaries. In the beginning, declared in June of 1812, the Americans under the command of General Hull quickly crossed the Detroit frontier into Upper Canada. They soon retreated when British and Indian action at Michilimackinac (at the mouth of Lake Michigan & Lake Huron) and Fort Dearborn (at the base of Lake Michigan) gave the British control of important Indian & fur-trading territories in their rear, as well as when expected support from American settlers in Upper Canada was not forthcoming. The Americans soon returned, however, and captured back Detroit as well as Queenston Heights, a vital link in the Niagara region.

By 1813, in a second Niagara effort, the Americans captured Fort George but by year-end it had been abandoned and the American side of the Niagara River was being devastated by British raiders. Westward, however, a decisive naval engagement saw the Americans' win permanent command of Lake Erie and forced a British withdrawal toward Niagara. On the other hand, in the east, a two-pronged attack on Montreal from Lake Champlain and Lake Ontario was effectively parried at Chateaugay and Chrysler's Farm (north of Prescott) by the British.

In the final year of the war at Niagara, where the main fighting now centred, the Americans recaptured Fort Erie, and Chippawa however abandoning both before winter. Meanwhile, Napoleon's defeat and abdication (11 April 1814) had released some of Wellington's veterans for Canadian service, so the Governor-in-Chief



and Commander of the forces quickly led a powerful invading force across the Lake Champlain frontier. His ineptness along with a premature naval battle at Plattsburgh, which gave command of the Lake to the Americans, obliged him to retreat. The more successful Lieutenant Governor of Nova Scotia, John Sherbrooke, was at the same time annexing most of the districts of Maine while in the far west, Britain's hold on the Indian Territories had been strengthened by the capture of Prairie du Chien along the northern Mississippi River and the successful defence of Michilimackinac.

By the close of the year there was a type of peace by the two adversaries with the signing of the *Treaty of Ghent* in December 1814. This dealt with none of the problems alleged as cause of war in 1812, but simply restored peace and the 1783 boundary. Its most important provisions were for several commissions held between 1814 & 1822 to define that international boundary more accurately: (1) it divided the islands of Passamaquoddy Bay, (2) in the St. Croix & Connecticut River region, (3) from the St. Lawrence through to the waterways leading into Lake Superior, (4) through these and Lake Superior and to the northwestern point of the Lake of the Woods. A certain degree of naval disarmament was achieved by both parties on the Lakes in 1818 and Americans were granted certain fishing rights around the Magdalen Islands on the coast of Newfoundland. This extended from Ramea Island around Cape Ray to Quirpon Island and on Labrador (which was transferred back from Lower Canada to Newfoundland in 1809) from Mont Joli through the Strait of Belle Isle northward indefinitely to the Hudson's Bay Company's territories. This also provided that the British-American boundary west of the Lake of the Woods should follow the 49th parallel to the Stony Mountains and that west of the mountains the territories claimed by each should be open to both for ten years.

2. Expansion Into the Arctic, the Plains, and the Pacific

Urged on by fur-trading and national rivalries, the exploration of the Prairie, Arctic, and Pacific regions continued steadily in the century after the British conquest of Canada. The Montreal 'pedlars', a group of astute businessmen, banded together in forming the North West Company, which forced the pace into newer and richer fur-trading areas in competition with the established Hudson's Bay Company. The former was very successful, however, and produced such great explorers as Alexander Mackenzie, Simon Fraser, and David Thompson.

Hudson's Bay Company interests were furthered by people like Samuel Hearne and others. Governments also, well before the end of the 18th century, had begun to participate in exploration on grounds of national and scientific as well as commercial interest. A major role, for example, was played on the Pacific Coast by such official expeditions as those of the Russians Bering and Chirikoff, the Spaniards Pérez, Heceta, and Quadra, the Britons Cook and Vancouver, and the Americans Lewis and Clark.

Similarly knowledge of the western Arctic was rounded out mainly by government supported British expeditions including those of Parry, Franklin, Richardson, Beechey, and Rae. The Hudson's Bay Company sponsored Dease and Simpson. The many expeditions sent out in search of Franklin when he failed to return from his 1845 voyage were of special importance in adding to knowledge of the northern archipelago. Palliser

and others were engaged by the British or Canadian Governments to carry out the scientific examinations of the Prairies necessary to enable the homesteaders to take over from buffalo hunters & whiskey traders.

On the Pacific, the present Oregon & British Columbia regions began to change drastically when the national claims on the west coast began to be delimited with: (1) Spain's abandonment of all claim to the coast north of the 42nd parallel in the *Treaty of Florida Blanca* with the United States (22 February 1819); and (2) Russia's abandonment of all claim to the coast south of the 54° 40' parallel in treaties with the United States (17 April 1824) and Britain (22 February 1825). The treaty with Britain also provided that the inland boundary of Russian territory should be the first range of mountains and the 141st meridian.

Meanwhile, Britain and the United States had agreed in the already discussed 'Convention of Commerce' signed 20 October 1818 that territories west

of the mountains claimed by each should be open to the citizens of both for a ten-year period. Later renewed in 1827, this agreement broke down in the 1840's and faced with the possibility of war the two nations signed the *Oregon Treaty* (15 June 1846), extending their joint boundary westward along the 49th parallel to the coast and then through the main channel between the mainland and Vancouver Island. A later dispute as to which was the intended channel was referred to in the *Treaty of Washington* (8 May 1871) to the German Emperor for arbitration. His award the following year was in line with the American claim.

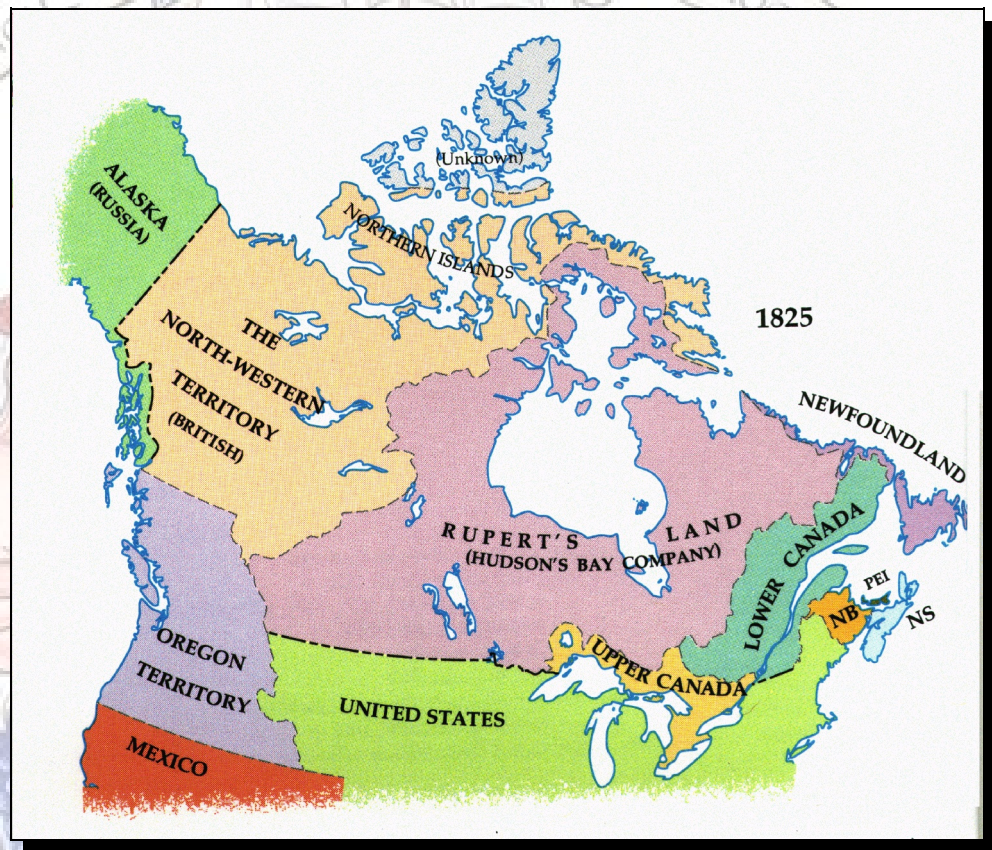
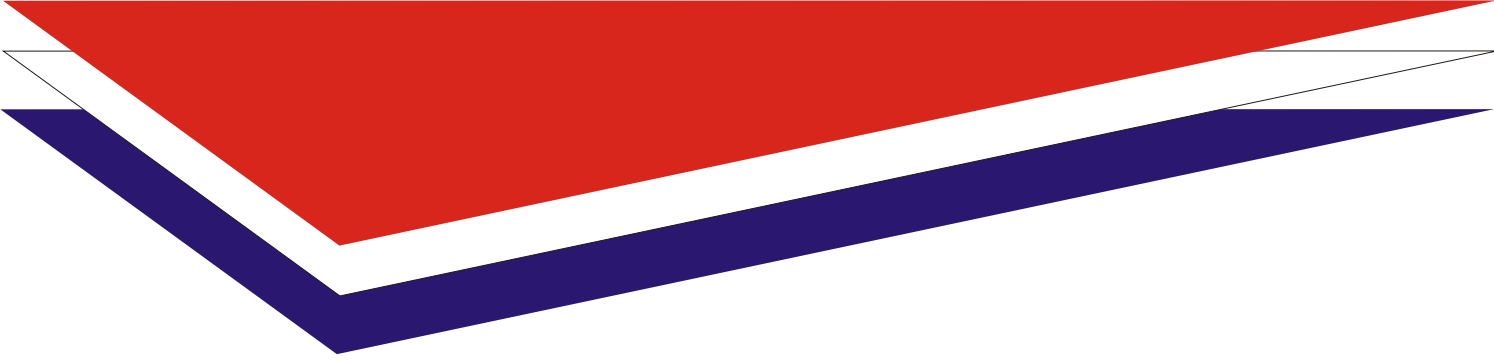


Figure 9 - Territorial Boundaries (1825)



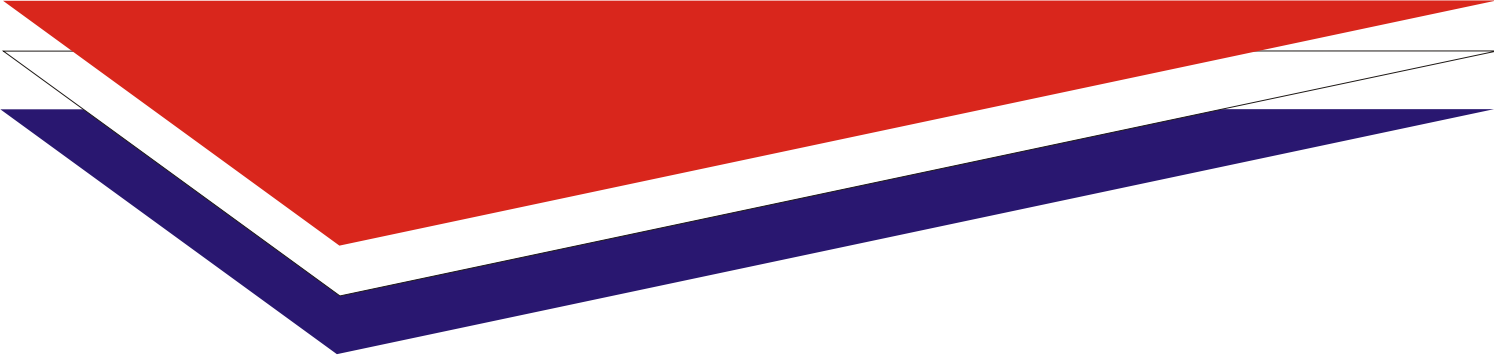
British governmental organization took shape as follows in British Columbia:

- (1) Vancouver Island was granted to the Hudson's Bay Company (13 January 1849) on condition of establishing a colony. Its Lieutenant-Governor was given authority to administer the Queen Charlotte Island (9 July 1852) after the discovery of gold there. The colony reverted to the Crown when Hudson's Bay Company rights were revoked (30 May 1858).
- (2) The gold Rush to the Fraser Valley led to the creation of a separate crown colony now named British Columbia (20 August 1858) to which the Queen Charlotte Islands were now attached. Prior to this, the region had been known as (part of) Oregon Country (1825-1849) and lastly as New Caledonia (1849-1858).
- (3). Discovery of gold in the Stikine Valley was followed by the organization of the Stikine Territory (1862) under the administration of the governor of British Columbia. Its incorporation into British Columbia followed the next year but with, somewhat, altered boundaries.
- (4). The colonies of British Columbia and Vancouver Island were united (17 November 1866). Meanwhile, road building, largely by a party of Royal Engineers, had opened the way to the main mining centres in the region.

Of course as already alluded to, the drive for expansion and settlement was really related to commerce more than political ideals of dominance. To the west and north of Upper Canada was a massive fur-trade interest and this caused, needless to say, much rivalry between various parties. Basic in the great fur trade of the northwest were two factors. First, the forest belt from Lake Winnipeg to the Rockies and from the North Saskatchewan to the Arctic barrens. This was the western and widest section of the huge transcontinental northern or boreal forest, the home of the beaver and other fur-bearing animals with pelts made even finer by cold winters. Second, was the complex network of interlocking waterways suitable for canoe transportation. The three main river systems were the Saskatchewan, draining into Lake Winnipeg and thence to Hudson Bay, the Churchill flowing directly into the Bay, and the Mackenzie into the Arctic. Two portages linking these were Frog Portage (Portage de Traite) on the most used route between the Saskatchewan and Churchill basins, and Methye Portage (Portage La Loche) between the Churchill and the Mackenzie.

Access to the region for the Montrealers of the North West Company, after they had completed their long passage to the western end of Lake Superior, was by Grand Portage until 1803. Then, because this route lay in American territory, it was abandoned in favour of one up the Kaministiquia River, at the mouth of which Fort William was built as the Nor'Westers' inland headquarters. The Hudson's Bay Company was more fortunate in having direct entry through York Fort or alternatively Fort Churchill (Fort Prince of Wales) or even Fort Albany. Rival posts at strategic places in the interior were rapidly established by both companies and some agriculture was encouraged to supply the trappers and traders.

Increasingly, violent competition led to bloodshed after 1811 when the Hudson's Bay Company granted Lord



Selkirk the district of Assiniboia (Selkirk Grant) with its agricultural possibilities and its threat to the Nor'Westers' main communication line. Only with the amalgamation of the two companies ten years later was peace finally restored. The enlarged Hudson's Bay Company kept its ancient charter territory of Rupert's Land and received under terms of a twenty-one-year licence from the British Government other lands to the west known as the "North-Western Territory", a lease which eventually expired in 1858. These lands included, in addition to the Mackenzie River basin, the Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast regions. In the latter, important for its rich trade with Canton in sea otter and other furs, the Americans had equal rights prior to the *Oregon Treaty* and the Hudson's Bay Company had to compete with both American and Russian fur traders.

3. The Impact of Commerce and Settlement

The British North American colonies (including Newfoundland) grew in population from not quite a half a million early in the 19th century to about three and a half million in 1861, the time of the last census in most of them before Confederation. Economic changes were correspondingly great. Early dependence on the fur trade and the fisheries was replaced by greater emphasis on the export of timber and grain and by the gradual development of secondary industries such as lumber, flour milling and shipbuilding. As fish, foodstuffs, timber and secondary products moved to Britain & elsewhere, manufactured goods arrived to support this economic trade.

The construction of roads, canals, and railways soon became essential to all this and proceeded apace, although less rapidly than in the United States. The relationship of the St. Lawrence to its old commercial rivals, Hudson Bay and the Hudson River, changed too. It lost to Hudson Bay the whole fur trade of the northwest after the amalgamation of the North West and the Hudson's Bay Companies in 1821. Although its total trade continued to grow, with the growing exports of timber and grain, the St. Lawrence fell gradually further behind the Hudson River of which the natural advantages were enhanced by the opening of the Erie Canal in 1825 and by rapidly extending railways into the interior.

Upper Canada soon attracted increasingly greater immigration after it became a separate province in 1791 and newcomers soon greatly outnumbered the original Loyalist settlers. Before the War of 1812 most were Americans, but the influx afterwards, which included some disbanded troops, was mainly from the British Isles. Lower Canada with its outdated seigneuries, not abolished until 1854, progressed more slowly except in the freehold Eastern Townships.

Settlement was assisted to some extent by governments but also by land companies, emigration societies, and private individuals such as Thomas Talbot. It was impeded at first by the 'chequer board' clergy and crown reserves policy of the British Government and by corruption and inefficiency in land administration. Here, the township was the unit of settlement during the British period as the seignery had been during the French. The typical township was 16 kilometres square or, if on navigable water, 19 km in depth with a 14 km water frontage. Modifications due to local circumstances were very frequent, however.

The *Constitutional Act* of 1791 provided that lands 'equal in value to the Seventh Part' of grants made since

the beginning of British rule, and subsequently of all future grants, should be reserved in both Upper and Lower Canada for use of the Protestant clergy, and the Colonial Office instructions reserved another seventh for the Crown. The 'chequer board' pattern of these reserves was intended to scatter them evenly throughout each township but it was often departed from. Being held for later and more profitable sale, the reserves began to impede settlement by about 1820. The Crown reserves in Upper Canada (560,244 ha) together with the Huron Tract (404,680 ha) were eventually disposed of to the Canada Company in 1825. A similar arrangement regarding the Crown reserves in Lower Canada (101,711 ha) and other unsurveyed land (241,321 ha) was made in 1834 with the British American Land Company. Both land companies were in the business of reselling these lands to settlers. Gradual sale of the clergy reserves was authorized in 1827 and the final secularization of those remaining took place in 1854.

Further and vital to settlement, early improvements in communications took the form of road & canal building and, after 1809, the rapid growth of steamship services. In the 1830's railroads began to be projected but prior to the Act of Union of 1840 only the 25-km Champlain and St. Lawrence Railway line had actually come into operation. The next decades saw the completion and improvement of the canal systems, and in particular, quite extensive railway building totalling almost 3200 km by 1860. Some of the major railways were:

Northern Railway Co. of New York (connecting Boston).....	Completed 1850
St. Lawrence & Atlantic Railway.....	Completed 1853
St. Lawrence & Ottawa Railway.....	Completed 1854
Great Western Railway	
Niagara - London route.....	Completed 1853
London - Windsor route.....	Completed 1854
Northern Railway.....	Completed 1855
Grand Trunk Railway	
Richmond - Lévis route.....	Completed 1854
Montreal - Stratford route.....	Completed 1856
Stratford - Sarnia route.....	Completed 1859
Lévis - Rivière-du-Loup route.....	Completed 1860
Buffalo & Lake Huron Railway.....	Completed 1858
Brockville & Ottawa Railway.....	Completed 1867

With these changes the old fur trade except at the various King's Posts (leased by the Hudson's Bay Company, 1842-1859), gave way to agriculture, lumbering, shipbuilding and secondary industry.





4. Political Grievances and Rebellion

After 1827, unrest was evident in southern Upper Canada and Lower Canada. Political and other grievances, made more bitter in Lower Canada by ethnic division, led to armed violence, known as the *Canadian Rebellions of '37*, beginning with rioting in Montreal in November of 1837 and ending a full year later. During the next month or so there were serious clashes with the most affected being in the parishes of Richelieu and the Lake of Two Mountains areas. Further confrontations were played out in St. Charles, St. Denis and the bloodiest at St. Eustache.

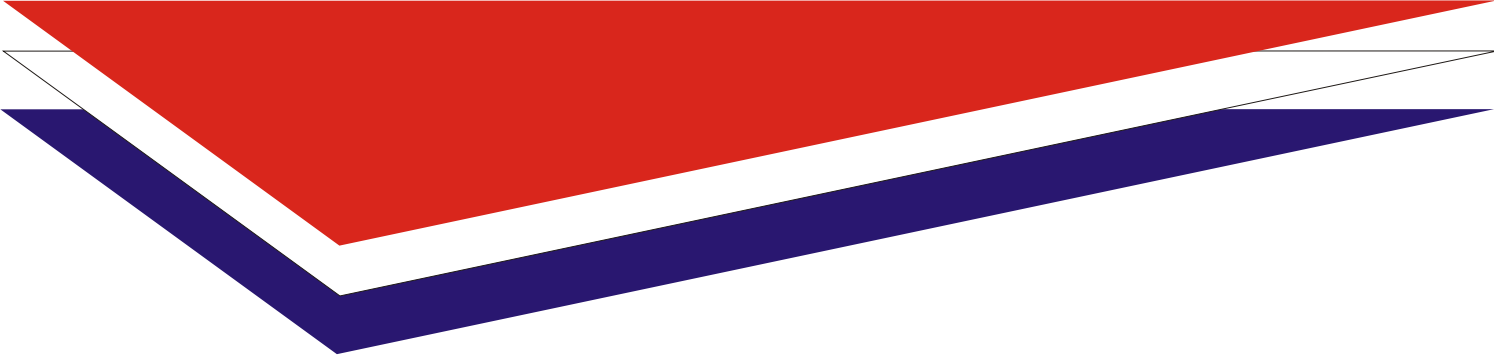
In Upper Canada a mild encounter was seen on Toronto's Yonge Street between government supporters and rebels with a similar force being dispelled the following day at Montgomery's Tavern. Troubles were prolonged for a few months by rebels who escaped to the United States and with the aid of quite numerous American sympathizers undertook a variety of futile skirmishes across the border including a serious raid at Prescott (Ontario) which coincided with a brief second rebellion in Lower Canada.

Further civil disruption was raised with the familiar Fenian Raids from 1866-1871. The Fenian Brotherhood, organized in Ireland and among Irish American to win Ireland's independence from Britain, took advantage of the general restlessness in the United States and hostility toward Britain following the American Civil War to make several raids on Canada. A half-hearted attempt on New Brunswick's Campobello Island was followed by a much more serious effort under John O'Neill who led fifteen hundred Fenians across the Niagara River on 31st May 1866, and won a victory over a Canadian force at Ridgeway (Ontario) before withdrawing. Simultaneously there was some plundering on the border east of Lake Champlain and a minor raid was repulsed near Huntington. Despite many alarms, the only other major raid was in May 1870 when a force raised by O'Neill was met by resolute Canadians at Eccles Hill (Ontario) and driven back across the border. A further attempt on Manitoba in 1871 was quickly broken-up by American troops.

5. The Atlantic Region and Maritime Economy

The sea was fundamental to the economy of the Atlantic colonies: Newfoundland had the cod fisheries, Nova Scotia had in addition, a substantial shipbuilding & shipping industry, New Brunswick as well as shipbuilding & shipping industry exported large amounts of squared timber to Britain and miscellaneous lumber to the West Indies as well as carrying on some fishing and agriculture. Prince Edward Island's main resource was agriculture.

Thus, settlement throughout the region was along the coast or up main river valleys. It was encouraged by the cheap, though extremely hazardous and uncomfortable, passages available to immigrants in returning timber ships. Even so it took place more slowly than in the Canadas' of Upper & Lower.



Roads and stage coaches soon supplemented river and coastal shipping. The latter was greatly improved when steamships began to be introduced in the 1820's. The first regular trans-Atlantic steamship service was inaugurated by Samuel Cunard of Halifax in 1840. Railway construction was also significant here by Confederation in 1867 with the St. Andrew & Quebec Railway and the European & North American Railway.

For Newfoundland, the fisheries constituted the key to its evolution in the century before 1867. They account for the fact that when France was obliged to give up all other Newfoundland claims in the *Treaty of Utrecht* (1713) she insisted on keeping fishing rights along what came to be known as the 'French Shore'. These rights were modified slightly in the *Treaty of Versailles* (1783), were lost during the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars, and were renewed in the third *Treaty of Paris* (1815). They denied British subjects effective use of a large part of Newfoundland's coastline until finally abrogated in 1904. The United States managed to obtain similar, but less extensive, rights along part of the coast in the *Convention of Commerce* (1818) and returned all of it in the *Reciprocity Treaty* (1854-1865).

Meanwhile, Labrador and some adjacent islands passed back and forth several times between Newfoundland and Canada (Lower Canada) in response to pressure from rival fishing and other interests. Anticosti, the Magdalen Islands, and Labrador from the St. John River to Hudson Strait were first transferred from the newly acquired Canada by the Quebec Act (1774). Newfoundland got back all but the Magdalen Islands in the first *Labrador Act* (1809) but again lost Anticosti and the coast of Labrador as far east as Anse Sablon in the second *Labrador Act* (1825). Not until a decision by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in 1927 was the Labrador-Quebec boundary finally determined. Though, even to this day many in Quebec contest this decision.

6. The Webster-Ashburton Boundary Settlement (1842)

However, though internal boundaries were being expanded & established, settlement, communication, & commerce were improving at an increasing rate, one of the main stumbling blocks to the founding of this nation continued to loom on the horizon. That of course was the international boundary with the Americans.

Badly defined in the second *Treaty of Paris of 1783* and despite further efforts under the terms of *Jay's Treaty* (1794) and the *Treaty of Ghent* (1814), the American border with New Brunswick and Canada remained undetermined when lumbermen from both sides began to enter the region in the 1820's. An American threat in 1828, firmly resisted by the New Brunswick authorities, led to a request for arbitration by the King of the Netherlands, but his award in 1831 was rejected by the United States. More serious local disturbances in 1839 followed by warlike threats and preparations by the government concerned - the so-called *Aroostook* or '*Pork and Beans' War* - made clear the need for a final settlement. This was achieved in the *Webster-Ashburton Treaty* of 1842 which, although it left a wedge of Maine projecting between New Brunswick and Canada, keeping intact the vital communication route from Fredericton to Quebec via Lake Temiscouata and was more favourable to Britain than the earlier Netherlands award of 1831.

Upon the eve of the historic *Canadian Confederation* (1867), the territorial boundaries were now more defined and even more entrenched.

Alaska and the northern west Pacific coastline had been purchased by the Americans from Russia (1867), British Columbia and the coastal islands had become a defined colony with established boundaries. The 49th parallel with the division of the Upper Canada Lakes system as defined by earlier treaties and the *Webster-Ashburton Settlement*, now defined the entire boundary more clearly between Canada and the United States. Too, Upper Canada, Lower Canada and the Maritime provinces were on the verge of union while the North-Western Territories of the Arctic continued to be claimed and were well entrenched on the side of Britain. Lastly, the Hudson's Bay Company continued to administer Rupert's Land for Britain (including the Red River Settlement). The scene was now set for a final settlement of Canada's international boundaries.



Figure 10 - Territorial Boundaries (1849)

D. PART 4 - FOUNDING OF A NATION (1867-1914)

The proviso was made for the confederation of the colonies of Canada (simultaneously dividing into Ontario and Quebec), New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia with the *BNA Act* of March 20, 1867. They were to be linked by an inter-colonial railway which formally opened on July 1, 1876, nine years after the Dominion of Canada came into existence (July 1, 1867).

Meanwhile, after lengthy negotiations with the Hudson's Bay Company and the British Government, and after further delays due to the Red River Insurrection, the Hudson's Bay and Northwest Territories were transferred



to Canada on July 15, 1870 - part becoming the Province of Manitoba and the rest being placed under Territorial government.

A year later, on July 20, 1871, the colony of British Columbia entered the Confederation on terms that included, among other things, the building of a transcontinental railway line. The Canadian Pacific Railway built to meet this undertaking was completed on November 7, 1885.

On the opposite coastline, Prince Edward Island, too, was eager to become connected and joined Confederation on July 1, 1873, after being promised the maintenance of continuous communications with the mainland, the taking over and completion of her railway, and aid in buying out the “Proprietors.” The latter, many of them absentees in Britain, were the owners of the original 67 lots into which the Island had been divided in 1767.

1. Red River Insurrection: 1869-1870

The opening of the West, with its repercussion on the rest of Canada, as well, was among the most important features of Canadian history between the time of Confederation and the First World War. The beginning here was very unfortunate.

The Red River Insurrection occurred at the onset when negotiations for the transfer to Canada of the Hudson’s Bay and Northwest Territories were at their height, as these failed to take into sufficient account the interests and anxieties of their inhabitants. The great majority of these inhabitants, apart from the scattered Indian tribes, lived in the Red River Settlement, most were semi-nomadic people of part Indian descent, mainly French-speaking, and of Roman Catholic religion.

Until this time, and apart from the settlers who came overland as part of the fur trade industry, most unconnected settlement was arising from treks of Red River Carts up from the south through Breckenridge, and Fargo in the American frontier along the Red River, as well as from St. Paul, Minnesota through Fort Snelling on the northern Mississippi River, and finally up parallel to the Red River into Pembina at the 49° N. latitude into Manitoba. Many settlers had arrived at these departure points from the American rail systems that fed into these regions from Chicago and Duluth via the Northern Pacific Railway network. It must be remembered that the colony of Manitoba till now was small and comprised basically the Red River Settlement with boundaries stemming from Lake Manitoba and Lake Winnipeg on the north, extending south to the American border, and then laterally from Portage La Prairie on the west side to a few hundred miles east of Ste. Anne as the eastern boundary.

Concerning the anxieties of the inhabitants, the Métis feared that an influx of settlers from Canada (probably English and Protestant) would follow the transfer and their fears were strengthened by two preliminary Canadian actions. Firstly, as recommended to the government in 1858, the commencement in 1868 of a road (known as the *Snow Road*) forming the most westerly portion of the combined road and river route between Port Arthur (now part of Thunder Bay, Ontario) and Fort Garry (now incorporated into the City of Winnipeg, Manitoba), which was known as the *Dawson Route*.

The second factor of local discontent was the general survey, known as the Colonel Dennis Land Survey, undertaken in the summer of 1869. Although based on the American system of square townships, which was contradictory to the already established land ownership in the Red River Settlement, it was accompanied by a careful promise to respect claims to existing strip farms running back from the Red and Assiniboine Rivers. Rightfully or otherwise, the Métis by now feared that this was all 'smoke and mirrors.' All of this provoked the Métis to physical resistance because it seemed as an assertion of Canadian authority overriding any rights of the inhabitants, even to consultation. Full scale insurrection soon followed with Louis Riel assuming the leadership.

Eventually, after Canadian negotiations with Riel's provisional government, matters had resulted in the passage of the *Manitoba Act* of May 12, 1870 with the 37,141 km² province of Manitoba and the Northwest Territories finally becoming a part of Canada on July 15, 1870. To ensure against further disorders and to satisfy angry public opinion in Ontario aroused by Riel's execution of Thomas Scott, a military expedition under Colonel G. J. Wolseley was sent to Fort Garry along the Dawson Route, arriving on August 24, 1870. This only had moderate impact and neither Eastern public opinion nor those of the Red River Settlers were to be easily quelled.

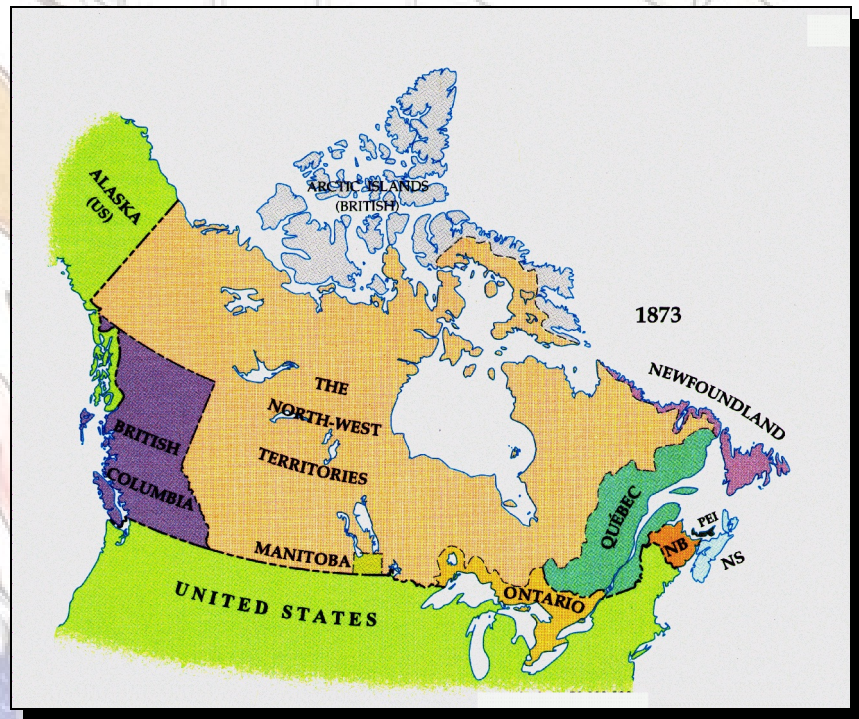



Figure 11 - Territorial Boundaries (1873)

2. Indian Treaties: 1871-1921

The advance of settlement into the Canadian plains, and later the northwest, led to the negotiation of several treaties in which the Indians agreed to surrender their general claims to their land in return for reserves as well as certain gifts and annuities. The bloodshed common along the American frontier was, thus, almost entirely avoided by means of this policy and as a result also of certain other factors. Most notably the tradition of law and order established by the Hudson's Bay Company & maintained by the Northwest Mounted Police and the existence in Canada of a considerable Métis population to serve as intermediaries between white & Indian

inhabitants.

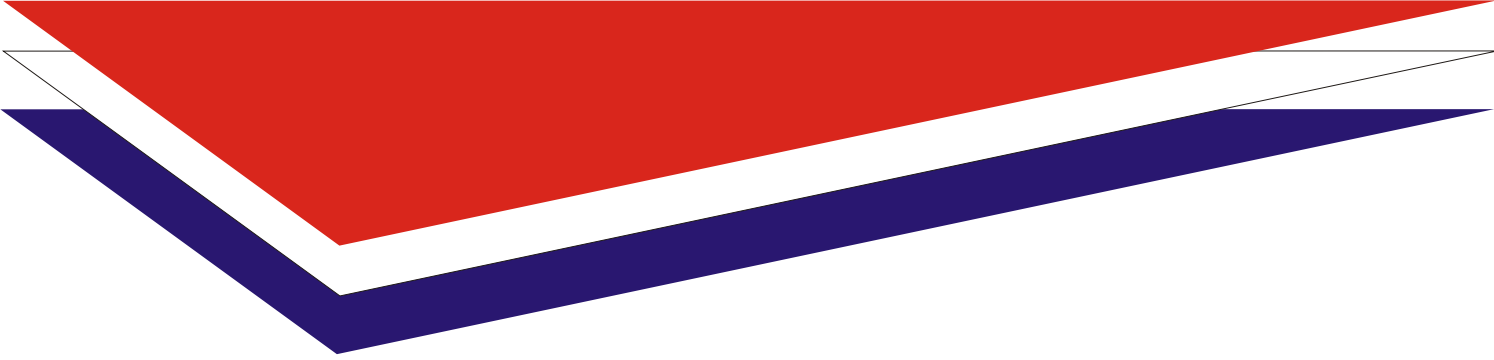
The treaties created a number of Indian reserves, and of course internal boundaries with various implications (then & now), throughout the prairies of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and the Northwest Territories:



Treaty 1:	Signed 3 Aug 1871	Bands: Swampy Cree & Chippewa
	- Comprised Southern Manitoba	
Treaty 2:	Signed 21 Aug 1871	Bands: Chippewa
	- Comprised Southern Manitoba, & SE corner of Saskatchewan	
Treaty 3:	Signed 3 Oct 1873	Bands: Saulteaux & Ojibway
	- Comprised Western Ontario, south corner	
Treaty 4:	Signed 15 Sep 1874	Bands: Cree, Saulteaux & Others
	- Comprised Southern Saskatchewan	
Treaty 5:	Signed 20-24 Sep 1875	Bands: Saulteaux, Swampy Cree & Others
	& July-Aug 1909	
	- Comprised remainder of Manitoba	
Treaty 6:	Signed Aug-Sep 1876-1899	Bands: Plain Cree & Wood Cree
	- Comprised Central Alberta & Central Saskatchewan	
Treaty 7:	Signed 22 Sep 1877	Bands: Blackfoot, Blood, Peigan, Sarcee, and Stoney
	- Comprised Southern Alberta	
Treaty 8:	Signed 21 Jun 1899	Bands: Cree, Beaver, Chipewyan & Slave
	- Comprised North Alberta above Athabasca River & North Eastern British Columbia, Northwest Saskatchewan and south fo Great Slave Lake	
Treaty 9:	Signed 12 Jul 1905	Bands: Ojibway & Cree
	- Comprised western Ontario (north of Treaty 3)	
Treaty 10:	Signed 1906-1907	Bands: Chipewyan, Cree & Others
	- Comprised Northeast Saskatchewan	
Treaty 11:	Signed 27 June 1921	Bands: Slave, Dogrib, Locheux, Hare & Others
	- Comprised Yukon, and west part of later Northwest Territories	

3. Northwest Insurrection: 1885

For a variety of reasons, some resulting from errors or indifference on the part of the Government at Ottawa, the white settlers, part-Indians, and Indians of Canada's Northwest Territories were all becoming increasingly restless and discontented in the early 1880's. In 1884, at the invitation of his followers, Louis Riel returned from exile in the United States and on March 19, 1885, in spite of strong opposition from the Roman Catholic clergy, he proclaimed a provisional government at Batoche, the centre of Métis settlement in the Saskatchewan



District. Not prepared to go to such an extreme, the settlers and people of part-Indian, part-English ancestry remained aloof as did the Indians of the great Blackfoot Confederacy and most of the Crees, except for bands led by Chiefs' Poundmaker and Big Bear. Nevertheless, when fighting broke out near Duck Lake on March 26th, a mounted police and militia force was defeated and soon the whole area was in Métis or Indian hands except for weakly held positions at Prince Albert, Battleford, and Fort Saskatchewan.

Rapid suppression of the uprising before it could become widespread or well-organized was made possible by the use of the telegraph to send immediate word to Ottawa and use of the Canadian Pacific Railway, completed except for a few gaps north of Lake Superior, to send troops (militia and some units of the new Permanent Force) to the scene. Two Gatling machine-guns and two small steamers on the South Saskatchewan River were now innovations to prairie warfare.

The advance against the rebels was made by three columns beginning on April 24th of that year and concluding on July 2nd with the surrender of Chief Big Bear. Louis Riel had been captured some months earlier (May 15th) along with Chief Poundmaker (May 26th) though the other Indian contingents continued to fight on for another six weeks. The territory's government and boundaries were again intact.

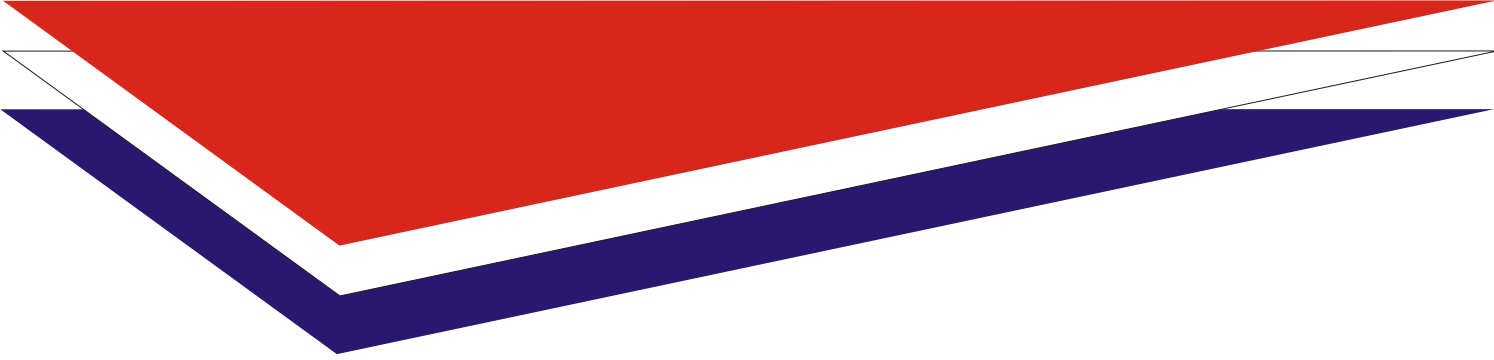
4. Other Factors Affecting Settlement, & Internal Boundaries

Suitability of the Prairie region for agricultural settlement had long been denied by Hudson's Bay Company officials. These early adverse judgements had not been simply the result of the fur trader's natural prejudice against settlement. They proved indeed to be the sounder in many respects during the 19th century than Canadian optimism, with the actual progress of settlement being very slow.

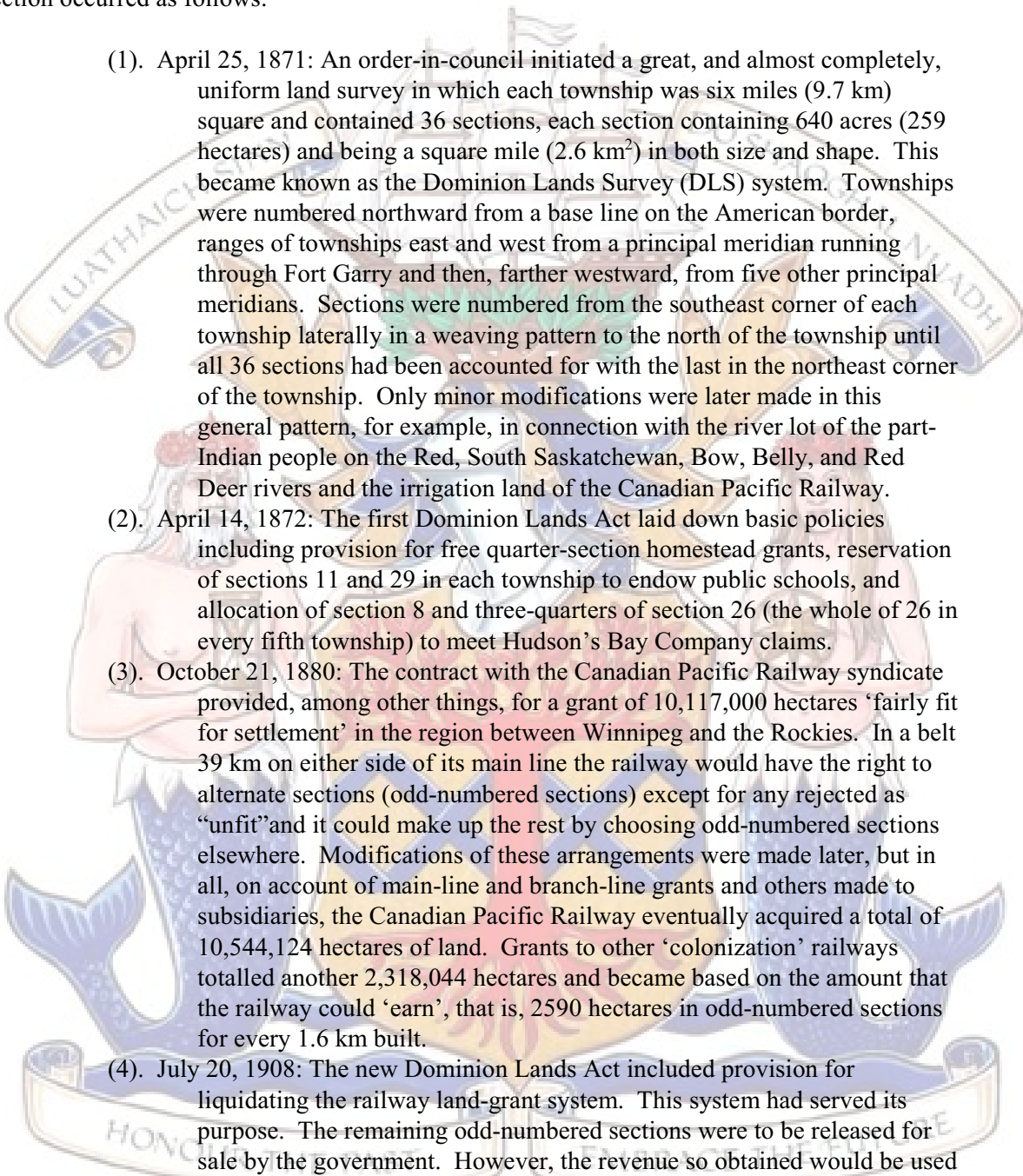
Settlement would only be accelerated after railway and other transportation facilities had been labouriously provided, implementation of dry farming, improved agricultural machinery had been developed, and quick-maturing strains of wheat had been introduced. All of these finally occurred but the results meant a very lengthy delay in quality long-term settlement by immigrants, with ongoing problems related to undefined internal boundaries due to the lack of necessity.

The transfer of Rupert's Land and the Northwest Territories to Canada in 1870 vested in the federal government ownership of a vast public domain five times the previous area of the whole Dominion. By terms of the transfer the Hudson's Bay Company retained blocks around the trading posts not exceeding a total of 20,234 hectares and also one-twentieth of the land in a fertile belt defined as bounded by the United States, the Rocky Mountains, the North Saskatchewan, Lake Winnipeg, Lake of the Woods, and the waters linking them. The Company's twentieth ownership eventually amounted to 2,686,694 hectares of land. A small quantity of land had already passed into private hands during the Hudson's Bay regime, more was set aside from time to time for Indian reserves, and generous grants were made to people of part-Indian descent, to settlers of the Selkirk period, to members of Wolseley's expedition, and to various others.

There remained nevertheless, enormous 'dominion lands' used by the federal government for the next sixty



years for the interlocking purposes of promoting settlement and railway building. Major events in this connection occurred as follows:

- 
- (1). April 25, 1871: An order-in-council initiated a great, and almost completely, uniform land survey in which each township was six miles (9.7 km) square and contained 36 sections, each section containing 640 acres (259 hectares) and being a square mile (2.6 km²) in both size and shape. This became known as the Dominion Lands Survey (DLS) system. Townships were numbered northward from a base line on the American border, ranges of townships east and west from a principal meridian running through Fort Garry and then, farther westward, from five other principal meridians. Sections were numbered from the southeast corner of each township laterally in a weaving pattern to the north of the township until all 36 sections had been accounted for with the last in the northeast corner of the township. Only minor modifications were later made in this general pattern, for example, in connection with the river lot of the part-Indian people on the Red, South Saskatchewan, Bow, Belly, and Red Deer rivers and the irrigation land of the Canadian Pacific Railway.
 - (2). April 14, 1872: The first Dominion Lands Act laid down basic policies including provision for free quarter-section homestead grants, reservation of sections 11 and 29 in each township to endow public schools, and allocation of section 8 and three-quarters of section 26 (the whole of 26 in every fifth township) to meet Hudson's Bay Company claims.
 - (3). October 21, 1880: The contract with the Canadian Pacific Railway syndicate provided, among other things, for a grant of 10,117,000 hectares 'fairly fit for settlement' in the region between Winnipeg and the Rockies. In a belt 39 km on either side of its main line the railway would have the right to alternate sections (odd-numbered sections) except for any rejected as "unfit" and it could make up the rest by choosing odd-numbered sections elsewhere. Modifications of these arrangements were made later, but in all, on account of main-line and branch-line grants and others made to subsidiaries, the Canadian Pacific Railway eventually acquired a total of 10,544,124 hectares of land. Grants to other 'colonization' railways totalled another 2,318,044 hectares and became based on the amount that the railway could 'earn', that is, 2590 hectares in odd-numbered sections for every 1.6 km built.
 - (4). July 20, 1908: The new Dominion Lands Act included provision for liquidating the railway land-grant system. This system had served its purpose. The remaining odd-numbered sections were to be released for sale by the government. However, the revenue so obtained would be used to build the Hudson Bay Railway as a public enterprise. By 1929 when



that line was completed receipts, reportedly, amounted to \$21,992,174.

Land grants and other aid from all levels of government were largely responsible for the rapid progress in railway building after Confederation. The main-line of the first transcontinental, the Canadian Pacific Railway, was completed in November 1885. Encouraged by the flood-tide of migration to the West in the 1890's and 1900's, a railway boom took place which covered the prairies with a network of feeder lines and resulted in the emergence of two more transcontinental systems.

The first, the Grand Trunk Pacific between Prince Rupert and Winnipeg, a subsidiary of the Grand Trunk, which was intended to be operated in conjunction with the National Transcontinental built by the federal government from Winnipeg to Moncton, NB. The second, the Canadian Northern Railway from Vancouver to Montreal, was built and pieced together by William Mackenzie and Donald Mann. Both lines were in serious difficulty by 1917 due partly to overbuilding and partly to the outbreak of the First World War which occurred as they were being completed and which further delayed immigration and western development.

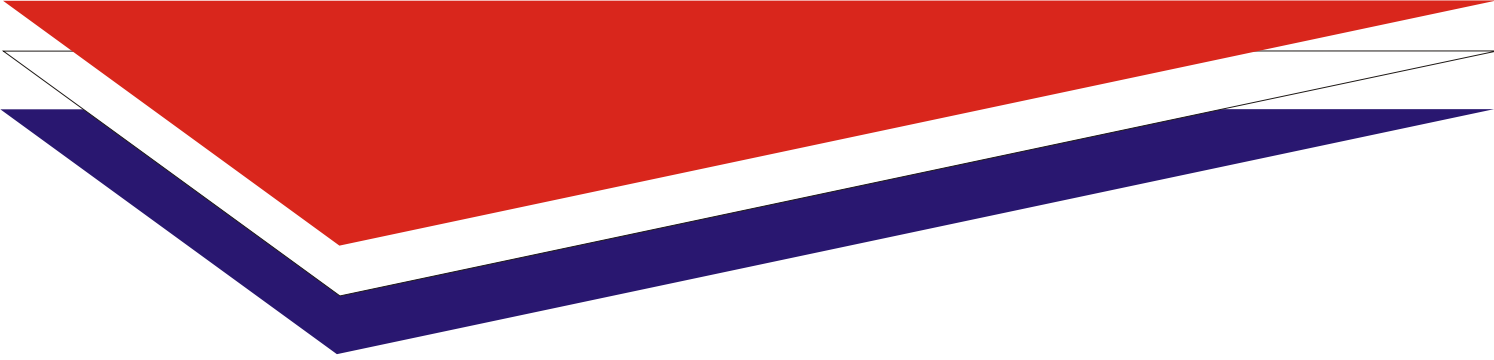
Accordingly, in the period 1917-1923 it became necessary for the federal government to take over the Canadian Northern, the Grand Trunk Pacific, and the Grand Trunk and consolidate them along with the government built National Transcontinental, Inter-colonial, and Prince Edward Island Railways to form the Canadian National Railways system. The Hudson Bay Railway, completed in 1929, was later added to this. The Canadian Pacific Railway and some smaller companies remained independent.

Meanwhile, to handle the large volume of grain beginning to flow from the Prairies, improvements had to be made as well in the vital St. Lawrence-Great Lakes waterway. This involved enlarging or replacing canals built before 1850. In addition, the ocean shipping channel down river from Montreal was dredged deeper and extensive elevator and other harbour facilities were provided at a number of ports, east & west.

The gradual completion of the railways, increasing scarcity of new land in the United States, and the encouragement afforded immigration by agencies of the government and the railway companies were major factors causing an accelerated growth of population in the Canadian West in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. A high proportion of the immigrants were from various European countries and many settled in separate national groups. Differing from the majority in language, traditions, and frequently in religion, these new Canadians tended to be slow in assimilation and to give the prairie population a distinctive character. In British Columbia, Asiatic immigration as well was significant.

5. Administration of the West and North

Following the transfer of Rupert's Land and the Northwest Territories to Canada, the Province of Manitoba was created and provided for in the *Manitoba Act* (May 12, 1870) and the administration of the remaining unorganized Northwest Territories was undertaken by a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by the federal government. Part of this region became the separate District of Keewatin in 1876. A further transfer from Britain to Canada of the Arctic Islands took place on September 1, 1880.



From the days of Henry Hudson, initial discoveries had been British (Sverdrup's Norwegian expedition, 1898-1902, would constitute the sole major exception) and Britain's claim to sovereignty in the North American Arctic west of Greenland had therefore long been recognized. After September 1, 1880, when Britain transferred her rights to Canada, the latter's interest in this region became paramount. Canadian Government expeditions under such men as Tyrrell, Low, Bernier, and Stefansson then began collecting the detailed navigational and scientific information on which future Arctic advances could be based. Finally, the Canadian government would establish its own territoriality & boundaries in the Arctic Islands as consequence.

On July 1, 1881, the boundaries of Manitoba were enlarged somewhat and on the east they became common with the western border of Ontario. This led to a renewal of Ontario's long-standing claim to western and northern territories far beyond the limits the Canadian government was willing to acknowledge - a claim previously noted and based on earlier disputes going back to French Canada and the Hudson's Bay Company and to the *Quebec Act* and Guy Carleton's commission as Governor. The question had been submitted to arbitrators in 1878 but their award had not been accepted by the federal government. In 1884, it was taken before the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council which upheld the 1878 award.

Eventually, in 1889, the Committee's decision was embodied in an Imperial act adding considerably to the previously recognized area of Ontario. A Canadian act of 1898 made a corresponding addition to the size of Quebec extending its boundary northward to the Eastmain River. Meanwhile, in 1882 a Canadian order-in-council had created the provisional districts of Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Athabaska, and Alberta and provided for their government by a Lieutenant-Governor with his capital at Regina in Saskatchewan.

A further order-in-council in 1895 created similar districts of Ungava, Franklin, Mackenzie, and Yukon, while one in 1897 made alterations in their boundaries and in those of the District of Keewatin as well. Following the discovery of gold on the Klondike (August 1896), the District of Yukon was more fully organized as the separate Yukon Territory on June 13, 1898.

By 1905, growth of population in the prairie region was such that two new provinces, Saskatchewan and Alberta, were created. The District of Keewatin, governed to that time by the Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba, was incorporated into the Northwest Territories. In 1912, the boundaries of Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec were enlarged to their present limits. Further changes in the boundaries of the Mackenzie, Keewatin, and Franklin Districts came into effect in 1920, the Quebec-Labrador boundary was defined by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in 1927, and by 1931 Canada's territorial claims extended to the North Pole.





Figure 12 - Territorial Boundaries (1900)

The only other remaining important territorial conflict and resulting boundary changes during this period came over as a result of the Klondike Gold Rush on the British Columbia-Alaska coastline in 1903. The last great gold rush followed reports in August 1896 of discoveries in Bonanza Creek, a tributary of the Klondike near Dawson City. In the next few years, miners poured in, mainly by ship up the Lynn Canal to Dyea or Skagway and thence through the Chilkoot and White Passes and down 800 km of the Lewes and Yukon Rivers to the Dawson. Other still made their way up the Stikine River or even by way of the Mackenzie and Porcupine Rivers. Dawson rapidly acquired a population of 25,000 and annual gold production rose to a maximum in 1900 of over 35,000,000 grams.

Rival claims of Canada and the United States to the ports at the head of the Lynn Canal, based on differing interpretations of the *Anglo-Russian Treaty* of 1825 became of immediate importance. They were finally settled in favour of the United States by a joint Anglo-American tribunal appointed in 1903 to define the whole

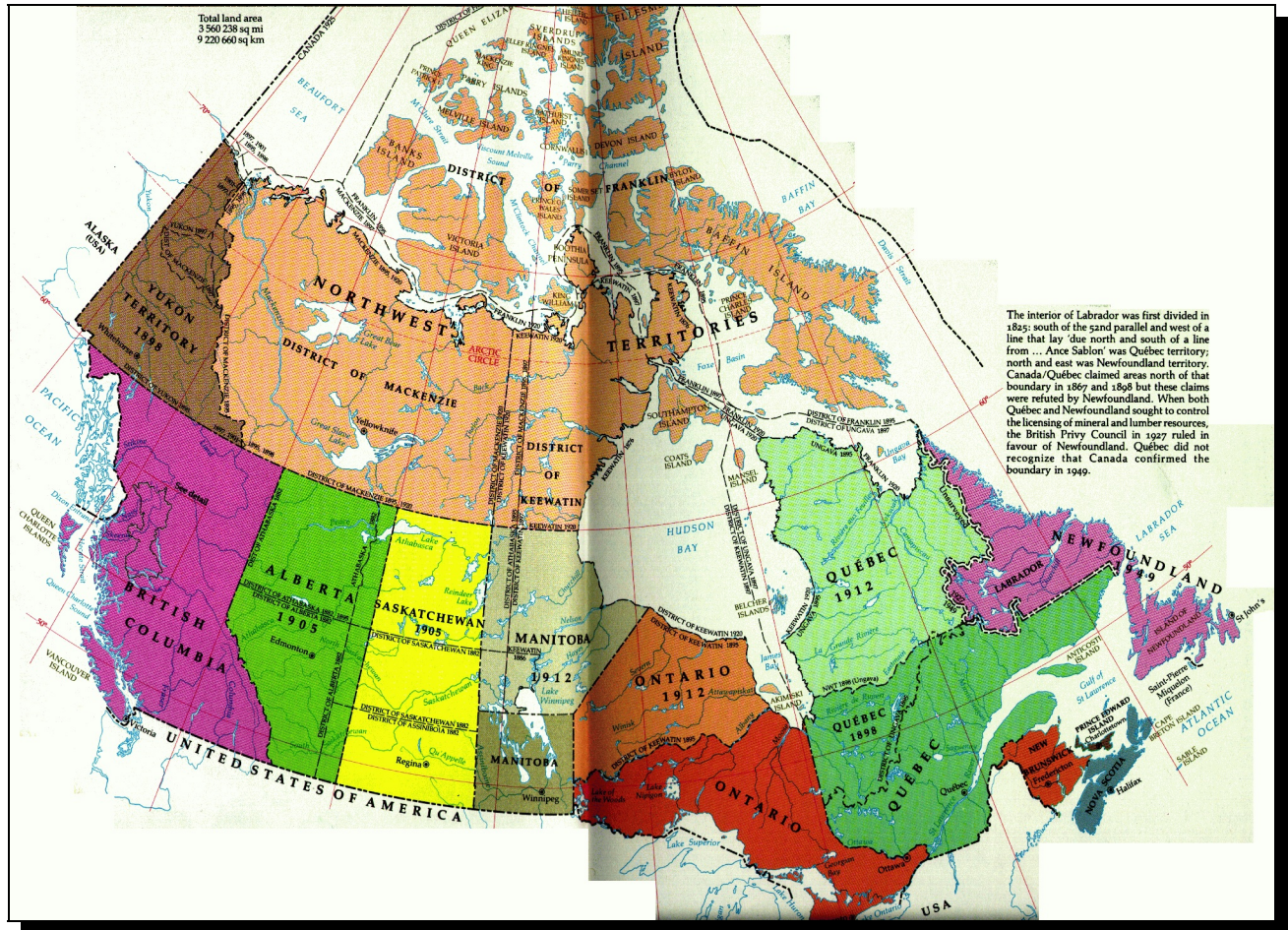
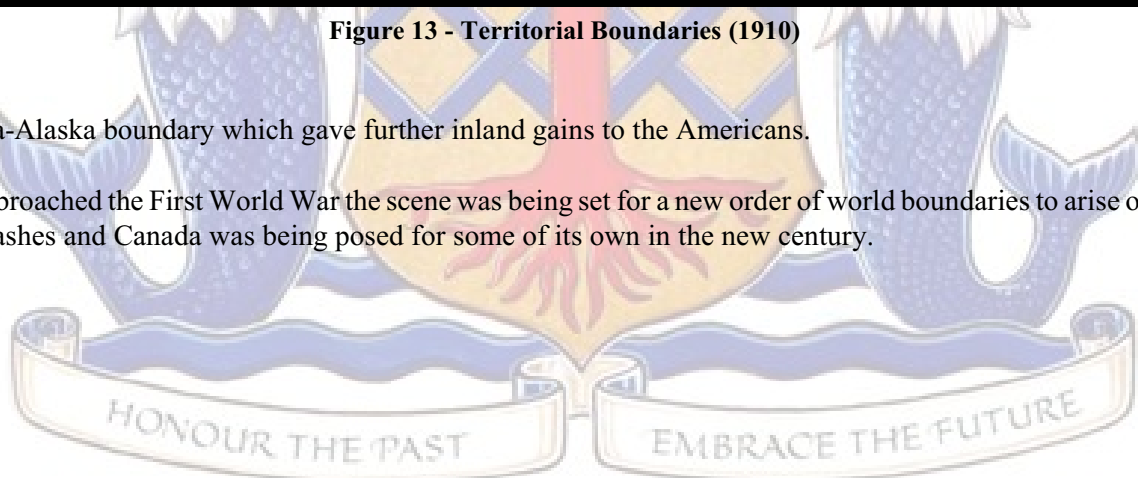


Figure 13 - Territorial Boundaries (1910)

Canada-Alaska boundary which gave further inland gains to the Americans.

As we broached the First World War the scene was being set for a new order of world boundaries to arise out of the ashes and Canada was being posed for some of its own in the new century.





E. INHERENT GENEALOGICAL ISSUES

1. Part 1 - French Occupation (1500-1763): Growth & Conflict

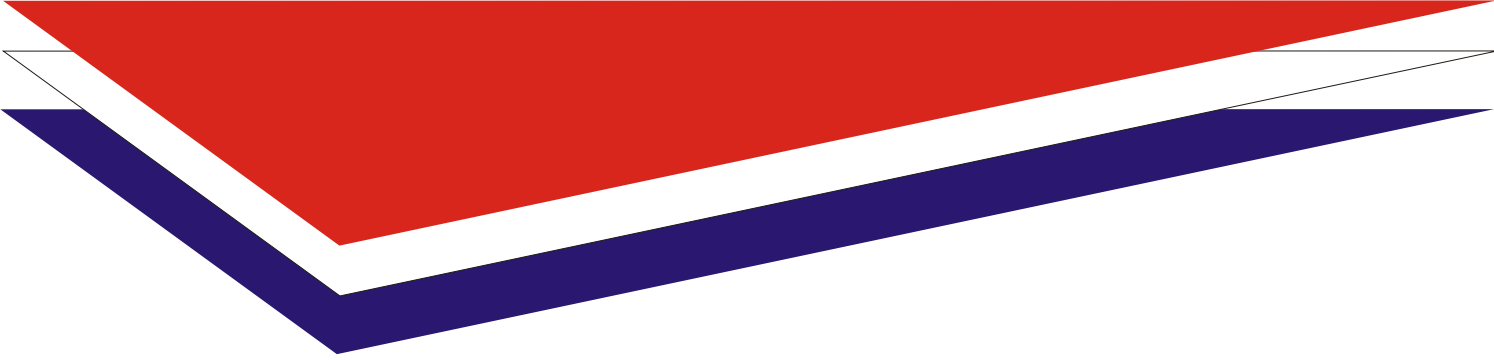
There are several factors you need to keep in mind when researching this period for your ancestral connections. Firstly, remember that the records are not complete nor comprehensive for this population and this period. Some, like those of the French régime, are better than others. Second, for the most part the relative documents are widely available for your inspection, and are centralized in a couple major repositories throughout the country, however you will still need to become familiar with both the English and French systems of record-keeping. I suggest that you consult my earlier articles in the now defunct magazine *Family History News* titled “How To Begin Your Research in Canada”, for a brief explanation of some of the record-keeping differences.

Prior to 1713 most of the records you will be using will be from the French régime and you will need to develop a working knowledge of the French language. From 1713 to 1763, your information may be found in both French and English documents, so remember to check both. Even pre-1752 English record sources will probably be in Latin or early modern English. So, develop a familiar working knowledge of the basics here. Also, not everyone was of Roman Catholic faith, the predominant religion during this period in New France, so be prepared to check sources involving other religions. One good example is on the early census returns for New France which were often compiled by the Catholic Church and who often enumerated only those of their own flocks.

Lastly, consider the period and the political map at the time of your investigations. Some records you may be seeking may only be found in the repositories in Britain or in France. It would be good to consult both of them for further information on their collections. With territorial changes there is always the problem of boundaries and locating documents for an area where the boundaries have changed over time. Working with this period will be no different.

2. Part 2 - British Colonial Entrenchment (1763-1791)

It is important to remember that there are several factors you need to keep in mind when researching this period for your ancestral connections. Firstly, as with any research of Canadian records prior to 1850, remember that the records are not complete nor comprehensive for this population and this period. Some, like those of the French régime, are better than others. Second, for the most part the relative documents are widely available for your inspection, and are somewhat scattered in numerous major & minor repositories throughout the country. You will still need to become familiar with both the English and French systems of record keeping as well as the different content of those records. I suggest that you consult my earlier series of articles titled “How To Begin Your Research in Canada” for a brief explanation of some of the record keeping differences. Also, remember that many small repositories around the country hold unique resource materials specific only to their collections and possibly unique for their region. These must be investigated thoroughly, especially if you are dealing with Loyalist, Acadian, or Planter research.



For records concerning aspects of the French in British North America you will still need to develop a working knowledge of the French language but subsequent to 1763 most records will have been compiled by the British. Remember that some of these record sources will be written in Latin or early modern English so become familiar with both of these recordings. Also, not everyone was of the same religious faith, so be prepared to check sources involving other religions. Immigration was becoming very strong into the British North American colonies during this period and not all were of British stock.

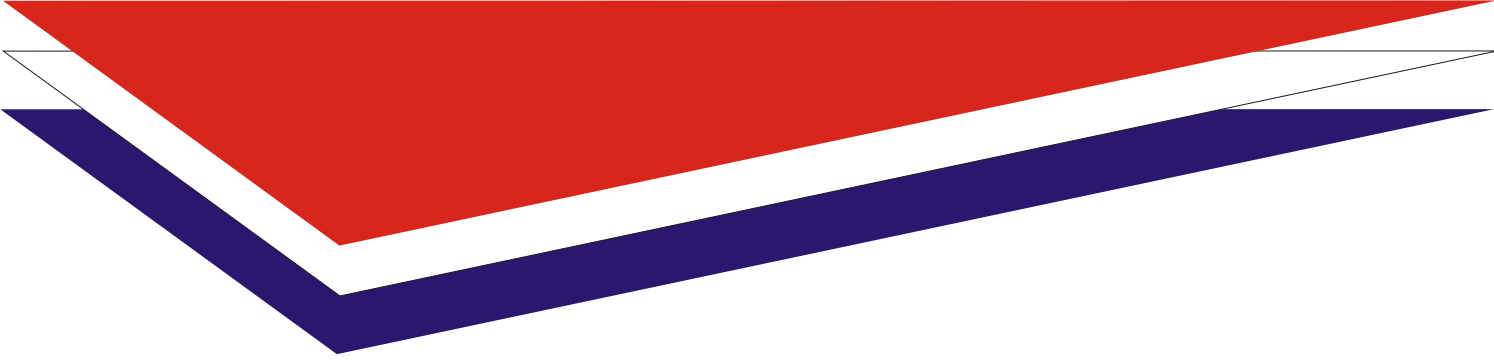
Lastly, consider the period and the political map at the time of your investigations. Some records you may be seeking may only be found in the repositories in Britain, America, France, Russia, or Spain. It would be good to consult each of them for further information on their collections. With territorial changes there is always the problem of boundaries and locating documents for an area where the boundaries have changed over time. Working with this period will be no different. As there were a lot of territorial boundary changes during this 28-year period of 1763-1791, you must develop some familiarity with the governing bodies of the day. Some records you seek may be held in private or provincially held repositories while others may be held in the British Colonial Office in London or by Canadian Federal Government at the National Archives in Ottawa or in France's Archives Nationales. Yet others may be held by other foreign regional, state, and national governments' depending upon who occupied the territory at the time. Most Canadian regional, provincial, and federal governmental archives have made significant effort to collect material pertaining to their region of scope from inside & outside Canada but a few resources continue to be held strictly outside of this country elsewhere.

I have avoided discussing in more detail the various sources, and repositories that hold them, in this talk so as to avoid duplication of work already written in my earlier twelve-part series on "*How to Begin Your Research in Canada.*" Should you have concerns this way, please refer to those articles written for that magazine dealing with the areas in which you are interested further. In particular you should consult the material dealing with Loyalists, Acadians, and early Maritime history. In addition, be sure to consult the Hudson's Bay Company (HBC) records for information on early settlers and traders that may have been involved with the Hudson's Bay Company. The HBC had an active hiring program in Britain to employ men who would come to the New World. This continued well into the 20th century. These records and much more are available at the HBC Archives in Winnipeg and because of the immensity of this collection for this early Canadian historical period, these records definitely need to be consulted. This collection is a vast resource of a major part of Canadian history that chronicles many commonplace men, has well as historical periods & events, that may be found nowhere else in such detail.

3. Part 3 - Western Expansionism & North/South Conflicts (1791-1867)

In addition to those comments made for previous periods, be sure to comprehend the various military and associated records for Canada that will help you with your research and overall understanding of the conflicts that resulted in this period and other periods of Canadian history.

Until the 19th century, the main line of defence in Canada was provided by the British Army troops. One

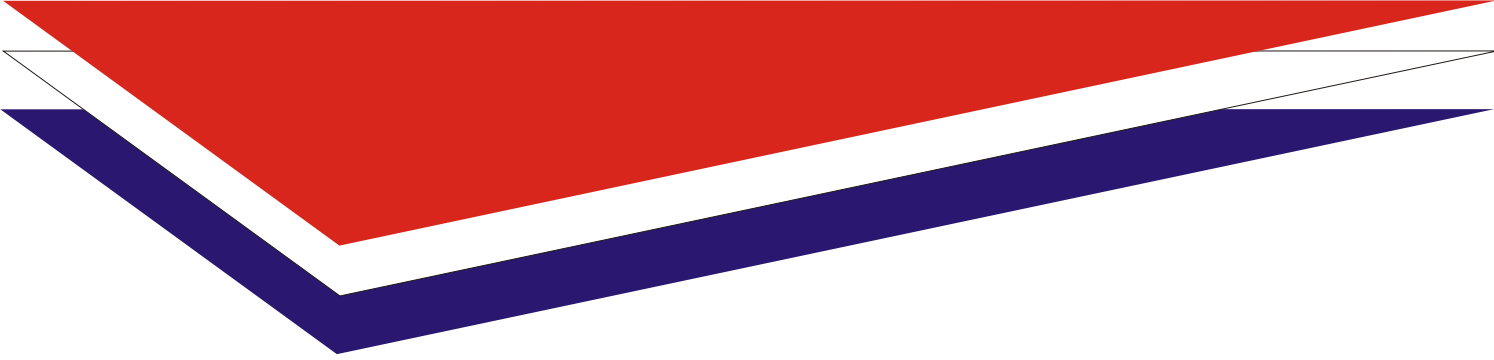


should look toward the British National Archives and the National Archives of Canada for these records for the most part, though some will be in scattered region and major provincial archives as well. We must remember that a “regular” soldier ancestor was usually someone born in the British Isles; only a few native-born Canadians were ever signed up in colonial posts. Thus, much of this material is interspersed with British government records of the day. Many of the soldiers at the end of their service terms made the decision to take their discharges here and stay as settlers.

In search of records on military matters, you should look for militia records, War of 1812 records, Rebellion of 1837 records, Loss Claim records for Wars of 1812 & 1837, 1855 Active Militia Reorganization records, American Civil War records, Fenian Raid records, Red River & Northwest Rebellion records, South African War records, Medal Registers, World War I & II records, Korean War records, Pension records, 1940 War Mobilization Census, War Rationing documents, War Graves Commission records, British War & Service records, Provincial Marine records, Hessian records, and Loyalist records. The detail by which these records were kept will provide many specifics on events, boundary conflicts & changes, as well as fantastic details on individuals by which to extend your pedigrees.

French Canadians or Scots were usually the men involved in the fur trade, which predated official settlement in the western part of Quebec. Their business centre was Montreal, with various posts along their routes throughout the country. Some of them eventually settled down in small clusters by these posts, but by and large theirs was an itinerant life. Some knowledge of the routes they used and the location of military or trading posts along the way is necessary for tracing potential records made by military chaplains or travelling missionaries. Records created in a military post, even involving civilians, would return to England with the commanding officer’s missionary records would likely devolve to superiors in the priest or minister’s home base. Some of these records will be those of the North West Company, the American Fur Company, or the Hudson’s Bay Company. Both the Canadian and British National Archives have excellent collections of papers involving the fur trade and government licenses for trade with the Indians (after 1763). There are also some excellent articles written on Voyageur & Fur-Trade research that you should seek out and read before undertaking this most difficult aspect of genealogical research. Also remember the excellent Hudson’s Bay Company Archives in Winnipeg.

As with any research of Canadian records prior to 1850, the records are not complete nor comprehensive for this population and this period. Some, like those of the French régime, are better than others. Second, for the most part the relative documents are widely available for your inspection, and are somewhat scattered in numerous major & minor repositories throughout the country. You will still need to become familiar with both the English and French systems of record keeping as well as the different content of those records. I suggest that you consult my earlier articles in this magazine titled “*How To Begin Your Research in Canada*” for a brief explanation of some of the record keeping differences. Also, remember that many small repositories around the country hold unique resource materials specific only to their collections and possibly unique for their region. These must be investigated thoroughly, especially if you are dealing with Loyalist, Acadian, or Planter research.



I would suggest that anytime that you are dealing with research in these early periods you have access to a good map collection with the boundary changes and community name changes well-displayed that have affected your search period. From these you should get a good view of possible migration patterns and routes for subjects involved in those affected areas. This will allow you to trace better the potential records and places of their retention for your search subjects in question.

4. Part 4 - Founding of a Nation (1867-1914)

I've discussed several major issues and source records in this talk that should be investigated further in understanding the conflicts and boundary changes in Canada from the beginning. The major concerns that need to be considered with this final period are those of the internal boundary changes for the most part.

After the various entry dates into Confederation, you will find a large collection of records available to you. For British Columbia, remember, that if any of your people lived in the disputed areas of the Stikine River, Skagway and Telegraph Creek, you may need to look in both Canadian, and American records for the subjects prior to 1903. As well, any resource searches prior to 1867 should equally involve British, French, American and Canadian records, especially if they concern disputed territories.

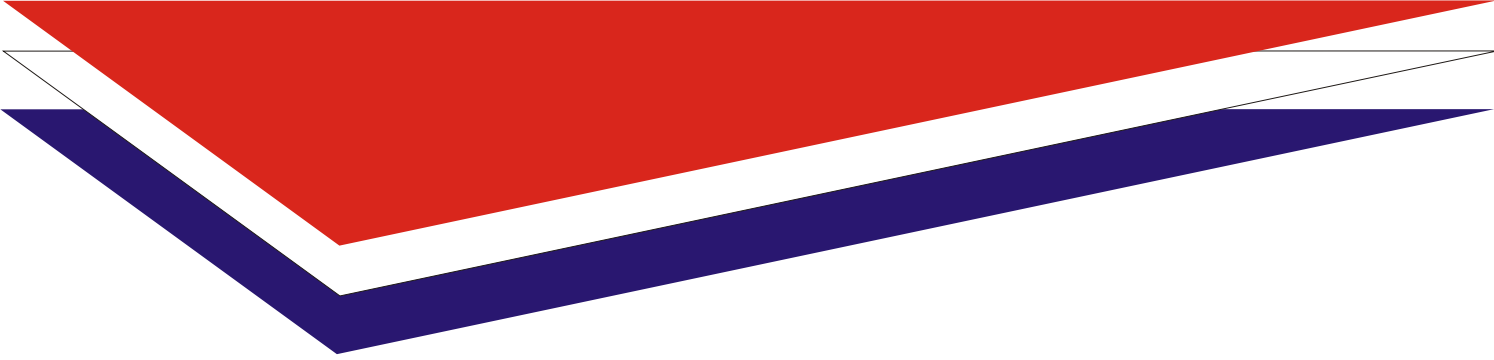
By this period, the available census returns are becoming more comprehensive and by 1881 are nearly complete for the nation's inhabitants, though it must be remembered that many individuals in outlying not-easily-accessible regions did not get enumerated for this census any many other enumerations to follow.

It is important to also remember the migration routes and settlement patterns that developed here. There was a great deal of migration into Canada and through to the West laterally. However, early migration into the Prairies (ie., before the Canadian rail network) was often via river, cart, and portage through the American frontier where the travelling was often easier due to more established migration routes. The Canadian Dawson Route was still heavily used, however, and increased in importance with the completion of the NWT Snow Road and the rail systems. If your families came West via any of these routes, you will need to track their movements and the location & availability of records for those regions & periods.

Should your family have been of Indian, Métis or Half-Breed ancestry you should seek major collection of treaties, band makeups, scrip and other native & half-breed records held by both federal & provincial governments.

Also here, homestead application & grants and other land records may assist you in determining more about family structures and periods of ownership on a specific location. All of these have been well documented, maintained on a provincial basis, though the districts may have changed over the years. Remember, that by 1869, civil vital statistical records were also starting to be kept in various parts of the country at local, county, district and provincial levels.

Depending upon the period and boundary layout at the time of your search will influence the existence, location



and classification of records you are seeking. Always work out in larger & larger concentric circles when searching for your records of interest. Start locally, if not found, seek township, county, & district resources, then move to regional, provincial, federal & foreign sources for the material. Keep this in mind as well when searching within the specific collections as well.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Garner a bit of understanding of the major historical events that affected this period as well as the different types of documents each of the governments compiled, and you will then develop a better appreciation of the impact these factors will have on your own genealogical research as well as the strategies for extending your search further.

Remember, that when you are researching Canadian genealogical issues, be prepared to accept the search for several different sources composed by different cultures and with different contents. Not all the material for this period is centralized in Canada and neither is it extant for much of this time period. Some sources are better than others but you will have obstacles as there is not a comprehensive collection of genealogical source material over the span of contemporary Canadian history. Some of these territorial changes may influence how and where records are kept while others may have little effect on your research. If nothing else, to understand the conflicts and the resulting boundary changes will define for you better how issues were affected as well as why the impact occurred and what effect it had on settlers involved in these conflicts - directly or indirectly.

The birth of a nation - Canada - that had been gestating for several hundred years finally arrived unto its own in 1867 after much cajoling and promise. The long and often bitter struggles for territory and dominance had finally defined the Canadian boundaries. There was much internal change to come, however, and climate, settlement, geography, politics, and economics would all be factors into how the Canadian landscape & territorial boundaries would shape. Transportation helped open the Canadian frontier for increasing settlement & communication and helped forge a new administration for all parts of the country, but primarily the Canadian West and North. War would soon inflict further territorial changes and ideological divisions to all on a world stage while Canada would soon face further internal boundary changes of its own - including the addition of a tenth province and a new territory!



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