TRANSACTIONS

of

THE CANADIAN NUMISMATIC RESEARCH SOCIETY

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IN MEMORIAM

PAUL SIGGERS, F.R.N.S., F.C.N.R.S.

Paul, who served as our President during 1973 and 1974, passed away the latter part of August, 1975, while visiting his parents in London, England. His lovable personality and his outstanding contributions to numismatics are so well known to all of us that there is little point in repeating them. Paul will be missed by all who had the pleasure of knowing him and especially in British Columbia where he devoted so much of his time and energy to further the study of numismatics.

Yes, Paul, we will miss uou and pray that your wife, Verda, will have the strength and the courage to carry on.

MAURICE M. GOULD, F.R.N.S., F.C.N.R.S.

Maurice was the first non-Canadian to be elected to Fellowship in the Canadian Numismatic Research Society. He loved Canadian numismatics and was a familiar figure at many of our C.N.A. Conventions. One could go on indefinitely mentioning the many numismatic organizations to which he belonged, and the many outstanding contributions he made during a lifetime devoted to the study of numismatics. Indeed, very few people have been so well known and respected throughout world numismatics.

Maurice joined his beloved Debbie Jane on November 29, 1975, and we pray that Jean, too, will be given the strength and courage to bear up under this second burden.

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SIR FREDERICK WILLIAMS-TAYLOR GOLD MEDAL

by Geoffrey Bell

Sir Frederick Williams-Taylor, a native of Moncton, New Brunswick, was the son of Ezekiel Taylor, a pioneer merchant of the city. He entered the service of the Bank of Montreal in 1878 at the age of 14. Sir Frederick advanced rapidly in the bank, being appointed Assistant Inspector at Head Office by 1897, Joint Manager in Chicago in 1903, Manager in London in 1905 and culminating his promotions with his appointment as Bank General Manager in 1913. He was to serve in this position until 1929. In England, Mr. Taylor gained an enviable reputation as a financier and was awarded the medal of the Royal Society of Arts for a paper on "Canada and Canadian Banking.". In January 1913, he was knighted by His Majesty the King and on his return to Canada, was honoured in his native province with the degree of Doctor of Laws by the University of New Brunswick. In April of 1927, the Government of France appointed him an officer of the Legion of Honor.

In his youth, Sir Frederick always took an active interest in sports. These included tennis, skating, snowshoeing, football and in 1886 he was a member of a four oared crew competing at Halifax.

It appears that the combination of his interest in athletics and the bestowing of the honourary degree in 1915 implanted the seed from which grew the idea of a medal. In May of 1915 correspondence between the university and Sir Frederick was initiated, presumably after preliminary discussion of the topic during graduation ceremonies. In a letter dated May 29, 1915, Taylor wrote to Dr. Cecil C. Jones, Chancellor of U.N.P. regarding the prize.

'ly dear Dr. Jones,

I have to acknowledge receipt of your letter of 27th, and shall be pleased to have any proposal from the Faculty in connection with the prize that I gladly agree herewith to donate.

Believe me, with kind regards.

Yours very truly,

Sir Frederick Williams-Taylor

In the Senate minutes of Nov. 23, 1915 the following comment was located.

"The Chancellor read a letter from Sir Frederick Williams-Taylor expressing a desire to give a prize for the benefit of the University and asking if a prize for athletic competition would be acceptable to the University. It was moved by Dr. Walker, seconded by Mr. McFarlane that said offer of a prize for athletics be accepted and that the Chancellor be requested to convey to Sir Frederick Williams-Taylor the thanks of the Senate for his kind offer.-Motion carried."

After official permission was granted by the University Taylor set about procuring a medal. He firstly though wished some advice regarding possible designs. On

Nov. 29, 1915 Taylor again wrote to Dr. Jones:

My dear Dr. Jones,

I have to acknowledge receipt of and thank you for your favour of 27th instant, and beg that you will express to the Senate my very keen appreciation of their courteous communication.

Regarding the prize which it is my pleasure and intention to present to the University, perhaps you would be good enough to let ne know now when the medal should be provided, and will you furnish me with a sketch or impression of Arms of the University with any other suggestions you may have.

With kindest regards and hoping you are quite well, believe me, my dear Dr. Jones.

Yours sincerely,

Sir Frederick Williams-Taylor

Taylor probably was at least considering having the medal engraved in Canada because he did visit Birks in December of 1915 and a letter to Dr. Jones indicates his interest in medals. This letter, private and confidential, is regarding the Douglas Medal. I include it here as it ties in with research on the Sir Frederick Williams-Taylor medal. Again at the end of the letter, Sir Frederick is again looking for suggestions as to design:

My dear Dr. Jones,

May I ask you to consider this inquiry as private and confidential? I happened to be in Birks, the well known jewellers, the other day when one of the firm showed me a University of New Brunswick Douglas gold medal which had been sent to him to be melted down and the proceeds used for patriotic purposes. I discovered on inquiry that the medal came from a certain Reverend W.O. Raymond, and it just occurred to me to ask you what the circumstances are, for what is the Bouglas medal given? A medal is such a curious thing to part with - I am the possessor of a few myself, and it is the last thing in the world I would give away or dispose of.

Is the Raymond in question- who I think comes from Sussex- badly off and therefore forced to part with a treasure, or may it be that he does not place a very high sentimental value on the medal? I may be conjuring up a little bit of sentiment myself in this connection, but is somehow struck a soft spot in my heart to think that here is a man, probably a college professor, so anxious to help his country that he parts with a household god.

By the way, I forgot to add that I bought the medal myself rather than have it go into the melting pot.

What is the literal interpretation of its Latin motto? Does the device appeal to you? If it does, I could have my medal made by the same people, one side at least from the same die, or would the arms of the University be more suitable?

With kind regards and apologies for bothering you, I am,

Yours very truly,

Sir Frederick Williams-Taylor

Finally, a letter dated Dec. 9, 1915 gives us a hint as to who engraved the medal.

My dear Dr. Jones,

Very many thanks for the information so kindly supplied in your letter of 6th instant. I will have the matter put in hand without delay.

I stupidly forgot to ask you when the medal will be required. I would like to known as I may order it to be made by the famous Dubois, of Paris.

Yours sincerely

Sir Frederick Williams-Taylor

The Dubois referred to is probably the French medallist, Henri Dubois, son of M. Alphee Dubois. He was known for his fine work and was awarded several medals for his work. He was a member of the Grand Jury of Sculpture for the years 1899, 1900, and 1901 in France. There is no signature on the medal, hence one can't be absolutely certain that Dubois designed and engraved the medal.

This medal was offered yearly from 1916 to 1940 to the best all-round athlete in the University. In later years, no person was permitted to win it two years in succession. This ruling was probably made after H.H.Trimble won it three years in succession, 1920,1921 and 1922. Dr. Trimble, by the way, was later Superintendent of Schools in Moncton for many years.

The Taylor medal is truly a beautiful medal, although bulky and rather stark in design. The obverse shows an athlete discus in hand, in preparation for delivery. The latin expression MENS SANA IN CORPORE SANO encircles the figure around the circumference of the medal. The reverse shows a representation of the Old Arts Building, strikingly similar to the reverse of the Douglas Medal (Breton 160). The lower half of the reverse has the inscription UNIVERSITY/OF/NEW ERUNSWICK/PRESENTED BY/SIR FREDERICK WILLIAMS-TAYLOR, L.L.D.

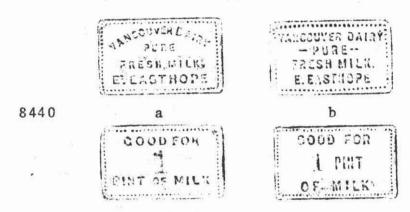
The medal is gold, 41mm and circular.

LIST OF MEDAL WINNERS

1916- C.E. Maimann	1931- Earl G. Oldham
1917- G.F. Gregory Bridges	1932- Donald A. Adams
1918- J. Campbell Carney	1933- John H. Fulton
1919- Gustav.F. Kuhring	1934- Ronald G. Burke
1920- H.H. Trimble	1935 - Sidney B. Thomas
1921- H.H. Trimble	1936- Garnet C. Copeland
1922- H.H. Trimble	1937- H. Kenneth Corbett
1923- H. Chipman Seely	1938- Robert H. Burgess
1924- Wm. W. Donhoe	1939- George W. Ritchie
1925- H. Chipman Seely	1940- Stuart M. Connacher
1926- William W. Donhoe	1941- Ralph A. Lockhart
1927- Edward B. Goodspeed	1942- Robert H.B. McLaughlin
1928- Jack A. Fowler	1943- Arnold L. McAllister
1929- Donald A. Adams	1944- Frank C. Dohaney
1930- Donald M. Burns	1946- T. Edward R. Mitton

THE VANCOUVER DAIRY by Leslie C. Hill

The Vancouver Dairy was among the first to begin door-to-door delivery of milk in Vancouver, having its beginning well before the turn of the century. Arthur Easthope, as a lid of fifteen in 1898, was hired as a teamster by Joseph Wolfen, the proprietor of the dairy, which had its stables situated at 965 Seymour Street. Mr. Easthope took over the operation of the dairy in 1904 and sol out to the Turners in 1908. It was during this brief era that metallic milk tokens were introduced.



The Vancouver Dairy was one of the first to use metal tokens in the city. The Valley and also the Modern Dairies used metal tokens at an early date, and may actually have preceded the Vancouver Dairy in this.

The tokens known to us are listed THE TOKENS OF BRITISH COLUMBIA AND THE YUKON as #8440a and #8440b, both being good for one pint of milk, differing only slightly in the die work.

During this period nearly all dairy herds supplying milk for the city were located on Sea or Lulu Islands, with the horse stables being situated in the city or suburbs. Fr h milk was drayed in during the early morning hours from the suppliers and then distributed by horse and milk-wagon from the city stables. The dairy farmers got from 10¢ to 13¢ per gallon for their milk at the farms, slightly more in the winter than in the summer. Most of the milk cam in by way of Steveston Road, as South Granville was known then.

Competition from the Fraser Vallev farmers did not begin until the B.C. Electric Railway, from New Westmin er to Chilliwack, was completed in 1910. Mr. Easthope, then farming near Langley, encouraged the farmers to get into the fluid milk business, and the B.C.E.R. put on a special early morning milk train from valley points to the city.

Arthur was one of six brothers; their father Ernest operated a cycle shop on Hastings Street. Percy and George produced the famous marine gasoline engine that bears the Easthope name, for many years on Georgia Street, not far from the entrance to canley Park.

On the tokens the name Easthope is preceded by the initial "E"; we do not have the answer for this, but it may be that, as Arthur was a minor when he took over the dairy, the business may have been transacted in his father's name, which was Emest, accounting for the "E." Easthope on the tokens.



THE CUMBERLAND BAKERY

By Ralph Burry, F.C.N.R.S.



In the year 1885, two brothers, John and Lewis Marocchi, together with Lewis' wife Elsie, left the Province of Lyrol in the country of Austria to emmigrate to Canada. The Marocchis were bakers. They journeyed across Canada, across Georgia Straits to Vancouver Island and settled in Cumberland.

Lewis' son John is still living in Royston, a small village near Cumberland. During a chat with him, he said he could never figure out why his mother and father and uncle had left far away Austria to travel all across the Atlantic Ocean, across Canada to Vancouver Island to finally settle in Cumberland, a thriving coal mining town. On arrival in Cumberland the Marocchi brothers began working as coal miners. However, not long after, they saw the need for a good bake shop and quit mining to open the first bake shop in Cumberland. It was a successful bakery for many years where Lewis and Elsie reared their family. Their son John stayed on with them in the bakery business.

The original old bakery burned down in the big fire of Cumberland but a new one was soon built. An identical bakery was built in Courtney, B.C. which was mainly to serve the Canadian Navy and fishermen in the area before 1914. The old Canadian Navy ships, H.M.C.S. "Algerine", H.M.C.S. "Rainbow", H.M.C.S. "Shearwater" sailing into Comox Navy base from 1910-1918, all bought their bread from the Cumberland Bakery in Courtney. It was no surprise in those days to get a telephone call from the Navy Base or the fishing fleet asking for an order of four or five hundred loaves of bread to be ready the next day. The bakery would have to work all night sometimes to fill the orders, and, as far as the writer knows, they were always filled.

The Marocchi brothers (Lewis' sons) branched out and included a grocery store in their Cumberland business. Not long after the grocery store opened, the City of Cumberland had a very disastrous fire which burned most of the City, but by luck, the Marocchi Bros. store was saved. A little note of interest as to why the fire was so devastating the threads on the fire hose did not match the threads on the fire hydrants and therefore the equipment was useless. This unfortunate situation happened more than once in early city fires in B.C.

The Cumberland Bakery was finally sold to a Mr. Brooker of Claresholm, Alberta in 1938. John Marocchi went on with the grocery business, finally retiring in 1965. His son, Ray, took over the business and in the summer of 1975 sold the store to an outsider. If you travel to Cumberland though, you will still see the large sign over the store door "Marocchi Bros. Store".

Lewis Marocchi, born in 1863, died in 1903 at the age of 40 years. His brother John, born in 1866, died in 1921 at the age of 55 years. Lewis's wife, Elsie, outlived them all-born in 1870 and died in 1938 at the age of 68. Lewis' son, Silvio, brother of John, was born in 1890 and died in 1927 at the age of 37 years.

The Cumberland bakery first used paper tickets before going to these aluminum tokens. They only had one variety and used them until the bakery was sold in 1938.

Note: Mr. and Mrs. John Marocchi, now retired, enjoy life in their beautiful home and garden in Royston, B.C. where I visited and had a wonderful talk with this lovely couple.

VERNON CITY BUS COMPANY

by Ralph R. Burry





Not long after World War II, a small bus company operated a bus service in Vernon, B.C. In the early 1960's the bus company went broke because the subsidy from the City was not large enough to make ends meet and eventually the Company was put up for auction.

Mr. H. Aarsen of Sidel Moving and Storage Company approached the City in 1966, advising that he would operate the bus again if the City of Vernon would give him a subsidy. The City agreed and in the first year the advertising on the bus paid for the operation of the bus.

The first few years the bus issued only paper tickets - five tickets for a dollar. The tickets were printed by the Vernon Advertiser. The bus was used mainly by older people who lived on the outskirts of town. They could come to town more readily.

In the second year and the years following, the bus company received \$150.00 a month. This was the only bus operating in the City and serving the outskirts of Vernon.

Mr. Aarsen kept the bus company until 1972 when he sold it to Mr. Ken Altena who has kept it running. Still subsidized by the City, it is still only a one-bus company, working out of a private residence in Vernon. On March 1, 1974, Mr. Altena approached the Gold Leaf Imprinters of Vernon to make a transportation token for the bus line. They manufactured a plastic token as depicted in this article. The token in round, white, and with a blue inscription on the obverse and a red inscription on the reverse.

THE SASKATOON COIN AND STAMP SHOW MOODEN NICKELS

by Frank Har 1g

The Saskatoon Coin Club held their first coin show in the fall of 1962. In 1965 the Saskatoon Stamp Club asked if they could join with the Saskatoon Coin Club to put on a combined Coin and Stamp Show. This was agreed to and both have combined for a Coin and Stamp Show every fall to the present day.

In 1965 they ordered an issue of 1,000 Wooden Mickels, which were used to advertise the show and given away at the door as follows:

SASKATOON/SASK.CANADA/FOURTH/ANNUAL COIN/& STAMP SHOW/SATURDAY/OCT 16,1965 SASKATCHEWAN DIAMOND JUBILEE/1905 - 1965

Wood:Round:Blue letters:38mm

In 1966 they issued 1,000 as follows:

GOOD FOR ADMISSION/TO/SASKATOON/FIFTH ANN L/COIN & STAMP/SHOW/OCT 15,1966/ SASKATOON,SASK.

DON'T TAKE WOODEN NICKELS/FOR REAL MONEY TURN OVER

Wood; Round; Black letters; 38mm

In 1967 they issued 1,000 as follows:

SASKATOON SASK./6th./ANNUAL/COIN & STAMP/SHOW/OCT.14 & 15,1967 CANADA/1867 1967/SASKATOON HUB CITY OF THE WEST

Wood: Round; Blue letters; 38mm

In 1968 they issued 2,500 as follows:

SASKATOON SASK/7th./ANNUAL/COIN & STAMP/SHOW/OCT.5 & 6, 1968
GILL'S COIN & STAMP CO. LTD/PH.242-1303/STAMPS & COINS/BOUGHT & SOLD/BOX 707/
SASKATOON SASK
Wood;Round;Black letters;38mm

The next issue was in 1971 when 2,000 were issued as follows:

SASKATOON, SASK./10th/ANNUAL/COIN & STA P/SHOW, CT.2 & 3, 1971
SASKATOON CO-OP ASSOC.LTD./SHOPPER/OWNED/CONSUMER/SERVICES/PH.244-6121
Wood;Round;Black letters;38mm

The next issue was in 1974 as follows:

SASKATOON, SASK./13th ANNUAL/COIN & STAMP/)W/OCT.19 & 20, 1974
SASKATOON CO-OP ASSOC.LTD./GOOD/FOR/ONE CUP/OF/COFFEE/PH.244-6121
Wood;Round;Black letters;38mm

There will be a Saskatoon Coin and Stamp Show on Oct. 11th & 12th, 1975 but there will not be a wooden nickel issued. A complete set of Saskatoon Coin and Stamp Show wooden nickels to date will comprise six pieces of which the 1967 issue seems to be the hardest to find.

Mention should be made of an aluminum 40mm medallion put out by the Saskatoon Coin Club for the 8th Annual Coin & Stamp Show Oct. 4 - 5, 1969.

REPRODUCTIONS OF THE H.B.C.MADE BEAVER TOKEN

by Donald M. Stewart

Historic Fort Edmonton, demolished in 1915, has now been reconstructed on the bank of the North Saskatchewan River, a few miles west of the original site. A project of the Fort Edmonton Historical Foundation, the new fort faithfully follows the design and construction techniques of the original fort and has been furnished in an authentic manner. Here at Fort Edmonton our fur trade heritage is presented so that each visitor may be able to experience life as it was in 1846.

Financing has been provided by business firms, service clubs and government.

Many individuals have also contributed. Based upon the size of their contribution those donating receive a memento reading:

	Voyageur	(\$	100.00	-	\$ 249.00)
	Trader	(\$	250.00	-	\$ 499.00)
(Factor)	Rowand Trader	(\$	500.00	-	\$ 999.00)
	Chief Trader	(\$1,	000.00	-	\$4,999.00)
	Wintering Partner	(\$5,	,000.00	-	and up)

The mementos for each category are oblong plastic discs of a distinctive colour, similar to a paperweight. Each disc contains two realistic replicas of the H.B.C. brass one Made Beaver token, with an obverse and a reverse showing.

Available at the site are commemorative medals illustrating the layout of the fort. These 37mm pieces are struck in white metal and have been blued to age them. Further information is available from the Historical Foundation at 10230 Jasper Avenue, Edmonton, Alberta, T5J 1Y4

TRANSACTIONS

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THE CANADIAN NUMISMATIC RESEARCH SOCIETY

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CANADA'S GOVERNMENT PAPER MONEY

IV. DOMINION NOTES 1879 - 1897

By Dr. J.A. Haxby, F.R.N.S., F.C.N.R.S., and Deputy Curator of the National Currency Collection,

Bank of Canada

At this point we take up the main story of the dominion notes, left off at the end of the second instalment (128,125). Perhaps because of counterfeiting of the 1870 issue, \$1 and \$2 notes of new designs were introduced late in 1879. Less than one year later the face design of the \$1 had to be modified due to some of the notes being altered to appear to be \$4s, and in 1887 the \$2 was replaced with a note of entirely new design - probably again due to difficulties with counterfeits. Meanwhile, \$4 notes were introduced in 1882 and saw limited circulation.

A new Assistant Receiver General's Office was established in Charlottetown; however, \$1 and \$2 notes payable there were never printed. During this period we also see the demise of the \$1 and \$2 notes specifically payable in Toronto, the Maritimes and Victoria, but only after some curious vacillations. As the number of government notes issued increased there appears to have been a centralization of the note signing in Ottawa and a change from male to female signers for the low denominations.

XVI. DOMINION NOTE LEGISLATION 1876 - 1895 (129 - 131)

THE EXTENTION OF THE DOMINION NOTE SYSTEM TO THE WEST AND P.E.I.

Although A.R.G. offices had already been established in Victoria and Minnipeg and dominion notes sent there (125), an act passed in 1876 (132) officially made government notes legal tender at Victoria, Winnipeg and Charlottetown and provided for the establishment of A.R.G. offices in those cities.

THE MODIFICATIONS OF 1880

We have already touched upon one effect the depression of 1875 - 1879 had upon the banks: a dramatic drop in their note circulation (125). Although this drop took place in the winter of 1874 - 1875; the year 1879 was worse yet for the banks. No fewer than six banks suspended payment. Three were soon able to resume; however, the three others (The Mechanics' Eank, the Consolidated Eank and the Eank of Liverpool) failed. In addition the Stadacona Bank went into voluntary liquidation.

The public was understandably shaken by the suspension and failures and by revelations of incompetence and even corruption in the management of some of the banks. This placed the banks at a distinct disadvantage in their perennial struggle with the government for the right to provide Canada's paper currency. The government's chance to strengthen its position came soon enough. It was in the Parliamentary session of 1880, when revisions to the Bank Act of 1870 were considered at the time of the first decennial renewal of the bank charters.

In April, 1880 Sir Samuel L. Tilley, who was then Finance Minister, introduced the government's resolutions, all of which became part of the final act and came into force on 1 July 1881. Five features of this legislation directly pertained to dominion notes (133):

1. The notes of a bank that are intended for general circulation are the first charge upon its assets.

- Banks may only issue and re-issue notes for sums of \$5 or multiples thereof.
- 3. Any bank, when making a payment, must do so with up to \$50 in \$1 or \$2 dominion notes if the receiver so desires.
- 4. A bank's cash reserve must consist of at least 40% in dominion notes.
- 5. The amount of dominion notes outstanding at any one time may be increased to \$20 million, provided the increase is not more then \$4 million in any one year. The Minister of Finance is to hold a 25% reserve for the redemption of the notes, consisting of at least 15% in gold and the remainder in Dominion of Canada securities guaranteed by the British government. The other 75% is to be held in unguaranteed debentures.

The first feature was proposed by the banks themselves. They realized that it was critical to restore the public's faith in the security of bank notes. It was reasoned that it would be highly unlikely that a bank's assets would be so low at the time it failed that there would not be at least enough money to pay off the outstanding notes.

The practical effects of the second and third features were to (a) increase the circulation of \$1 and \$2 dominion notes and force the banks to hold more of them and (b) increase the circulation of dominion notes relative to bank notes. It can be assumed that the banks routinely tended to pay out their notes in preference to \$1 and \$2 dominion notes whenever possible. Prior to 1831 most banks issued \$4s and could use them to partially avoid the use of government notes in making payments: $2 \times $4 = 8 , \$4 + \$5 = \$9, $3 \times $4 = 12 , etc. Some banks had \$6s and even \$7s; which further reduced the necessity for reliance on dominion notes \$4 + \$7 = \$11, etc. With the \$4s, \$6s, and \$7s outlawed the banks were no longer able to make many payments exclusively with their own notes. And to assure that the banks would use more government paper, as opposed to silver it was stipulated that they had to pay out dominion \$1s and \$2s (up to \$50) on demand.

At first the rule that the banks had to hold at least 40% of their cash reserves in dominion notes seems strange and unnecessary. After all, for some years the banks had held much more than the law (an average of 1/2 but never less than 1/3) required (56). By the beginning of 1880, for example, dominion notes constituted about 60% of the banks' cash reserves. The reason for raising the minimum quantity of dominion notes that the banks could hold was not primarily to encourage them to hold more government paper. It was to lessen the extent of any large demand for gold that the banks could place upon the government by calling for redemption of dominion notes they held in excess of what the law required. To illustrate this let us assume that the banks' cash reserves amounted to \$20 million of which \$12 million was in dominion notes. Under the old law the banks would be required to hold not less than \$6 2/3 million (33 1/3%) in dominion notes. Therefore, they could present \$5 1/3 million in notes to the government and demand gold and still hold enough notes to comply with the law. Under the new law, on the other hand, they would be required to hold \$8 million, so they could only present \$4 million for redemption.

while the banks disliked the second, third and fourth stipulations, they bitterly opposed the fifth one allowing both an increase in the government note circulation and a decreased specie reserve for it. One more step was being taken down the road toward a complete takeover by an irredeemable government paper currency. The opposition to the new measure was strong and it was not restricted to the banks. The ministerial opposition was led by Sir Richard Cartwright, former Finance Minister. The government had sufficient votes, however, and the bill became law.

THE EXPANSION OF THE CIRCULATION LIMIT 1894 - 1895

In the 1894 session of Parliament a bill was introduced to increase the upper limit of the dominion note circulation from \$20 to \$25 million. This bill was viewed with alarm by some who feared that the government planned to make an attempt to push small denomination notes into circulation. Such, however, was not the case (138,139). The government merely wished to issue more high value notes to accommodate the banks, who apparently required them to hold as part of their reserves. The government showed its good faith by including the stipulation that any circulation over \$20 million would be backed with gold dollar for dollar. The bill passed with no difficulty (134). Unfortunately, an error resulted in the omission of the requirement for full gold backing for the circulation in excess of \$20 million and the defect had to be corrected in the next session (135).

XVII. GENERAL ASPECTS OF THE SMALL DENOMINATION DOMINION NOTES 1878 - 1897

Three new issues of dominion notes were produced and put into circulation between 1878 and 1897: \$1s and \$2s dated 1878, \$4s dated 1882 and \$2s dated 1887.

PRINGING PLATE ARRANGEMENTS

The basic plate arrangements already encountered for the provincial and 1870 dominion notes (56, 125) were continued for the issues presently being examined. That is, they were printed 4 on (126) and the plate position letter/ sheet number system employed. On the \$2s and the plain or scalloped frame \$1s (see below) the plate position letter is the sclid black letter to the immediate left of each of the sheet numbers. On the lettered frame \$1s it has been shifted to just below each sheet number. The 1887 \$2s bear this letter at each end above the portraits and on the 1882 \$4s it occurs at the lower left and at the upper right near the last A in CANADA.

On the 1878 \$1s and \$2s the colour of the sheet numbers was distinct for each city where the notes were payable: blue for Montreal, red for Toronto, black for St. John and green for Halifax. The 1887 \$2s and 1882 \$4s have blue numbers.

When present, the tiny number for the face plate occurs only once on each note (on previous issues it was twice). Except for the lettered frame \$1s, plate number I does not appear on the notes. The plate number is in the following positions: 1278 \$2s and scalloped frame \$1s: to the immediate left of the left-hand plate position letter; lettered frame \$1s just above the D of DOMINION or the last A of CANADA; 1887 \$2s: just above the right-hand plate position letter; 1882 \$4s: just beneath the right-hand plate position letter.

During this period a new design feature, the <u>series letter</u>, was introduced. For any given denomination and city payable it was decided to limit the numbering so that it would be started over again after 1,000,000 sheets had been printed. This meant that it was necessary to use the 7 - digit sheet number 1000000 only once in each million sheets (series). But what this also necessitated was some feature to mark successive series so that the serial numbers would not duplicate those of notes printed before. The method adopted was to use a series letter. Routinely, the first series was "plain"; it was not given a letter. The second would receive an A, the third a B, and so on. Only three notes were printed in great enough quantities to require the use of series letters: the Montreal \$1s, the Toronto \$1s and the 1887 \$2s. The series letter on the Montreal \$1s (A,B or C) and the Toronto \$1s (A only) is the white faced letter just to the left of each sheet number and on the 1887 \$2s it is a solid black A below each sheet number. It should be clear for reasons

mentioned before (56) that when more than one series was used the serial number of a note must include the series designation ("plain" or A,B, etc.) to be complete.

THE ISSUING APPARATUS

The Assistant Receiver General (A.R.G.) system, as described previously (56), continued. In 1883 a seventh A.R.G. office was opened in Charlottetown, P.E.I. (137). The names and period of service of the A.R.G. s who entered office in 1879 - 1897 are given in Table XII.

In the early 1870s the shipment of the dominion notes from Ottawa came under the auspicious of the Receiver General's Department. Until his retirement in August, 1878 the man who bore the direct responsibility for these shipments was Thomas D. Harington, the Deputy Receiver General. After Harington's retirement, the Receiver General's Office was made part of the Finance Department and the note shipments were handled by the Deputy Minister of Finance, John M. Courtney. By 1881, however, it was deemed necessary to appoint a special officer to deal solely with the currency. The new post was called Comptroller of Dominion Currency. The first Comptroller (appointed in July, 1881) was Frederick Toller, who held the position until after the turn of the century (137).

COUNTERSIGNING THE NOTES

The persons who countersigned the low denomination notes were A.R.G.s or their clerks or were clerks in the Receiver General's and later the Finance Department in Ottawa, The signing frequently took place in both Ottawa and the A.R.G. offices. The men who signed the notes usually did so as a spare-time activity (140). At one point there was even a running discourse between Ottawa and The A.R.G. Toronto regarding who would sign the notes (141 - 145). This situation changed in about 1882 - 3 when the note signing was relegated to women, who, unlike most of their male predecessors, were given only temporary appointments. Some of these women held their "temporary" positions for 30 years! Those persons who signed or most likely signed notes of the 1878, 1882, 1887 issues are listed in Table XIII.

Each person signed the notes in blocks of 1000 sheets (146). Although there is no documentary information on this point, each note was probably signed individually during this period (as opposed to "gang" signing where only the bottom note in each group of four was directly signed (147).

ANALYSIS OF THE CIRCULATION BY DENOMINATION

Between mid-1879 and mid-1881 the circulation of \$1 amd \$2 notes gradually rose (see Figure 15). Presumably this rise was a reflection of the recovery of business in the country following the depression of the latter half of the 1870s. The Government was certainly not trying to increase the small note circulation. The circulation was above the \$12 million limit imposed by 38 Vic. cap. 5 and this excess had to be backed by gold dollar for dollar. The circulation at that time, therefore, was being worked by the government at a loss (146).

When the \$20 million limit for the government note circulation came into effect on 1 July 1881, the circulation of both the \$1s and \$2s doubled within a matter on months. In 1883 - 1886, as the first of the first dominion \$4s were being issued, the circulation of the \$1s and \$2s dropped slightly. It appears that the drop was due to the new \$4s displacing the lower denominations. After the \$4 circulation stabilized, the \$1 and \$2 circulations gradually rose for the rest of the period. Throughout this period the \$1 notes made up 60 - 65 % of the combined value of the \$1 and \$2 circulation. This is a \$1 : \$2 ratio of 3:2 based on value or 3:1 based on the number on notes.

XVIII. THE 1878 \$1s AND \$2s

The exact reason for the introduction of a new issue of \$1s and \$2s in the late 1870s is not known. One possibility is because of counterfeiting of the 1870 issue \$1s, although some of the bogus notes did not appear until after 1878 (114).

THE DESIGNS

Whatever the reason for their creation, the 1870 \$1s and \$2s in some ways represent a notable departure from their predecessors:

- (a) There is only a single vignette on the face and it is a portrait of a then living person rather than a long dead one or allegorical figure. The \$2 note bears the portrait of the Earl of Dufferin (Governor General of Canada from June, 1872 to November, 1878) and the \$1 bears that of his wife.
- (b) The frame of the face (on the initial designs) lacks any indication of the denomination. It is simply a repeating lathework pattern. On the \$1 it is scallop-like (hence the designation scalloped border in the catalogues (149). And on the \$2 it resembles maple leaves.
- (c) The left-hand signature space (FOR MINISTER OF FINANCE) has been left blank so that the manuscript countersignature could be applied horizontally instead of vertically.
- (d) The face is dated at the city where the note was payable, instead of Ottawa.
- (e) Within each denomination the back design is identiaal, except for the name of the city where the note was payable. There is a vignette of the Great Seal of Canada in the centre of the back designs for both denominations.

Other features included 1 1 and 2 2 patent green (150, 151) denominational tints on the face and a green back. The engraved signature at the right is that of Thomas D. Harington, the Deputy Receiver General. The notes are dated June 1st, 1878, but by the time any of them were actually issued, he had retired.

Very soon after the scalloped frame \$1s began circulating, the government was embarrassed to find that some of the Toronto notes were being raised to \$4s (152,153) byscratching off unwanted parts of the design and replacing them with pen and ink hand work. In January, 1880 Courtney wrote to the British American Bank Note Co. asking their opinion of changing the face design of the \$1 to make such raising more difficult (153).

We do not have copies of any subsequent correspondence on this subject; however, the notes themselves attest to the fact that the modification was indeed made. The frame of the altered design is thinner and contains a continuous bank of 1 ONE DOLLAR 1 ONE DOLLAR, etc. (hence the popular designation lettered border); there is a 1 counter in each of the four corners. The other way in which an attempt was made to make the notes more secure was to have ONE crossing each of the large 1s in the counters at each end. There were several other changes, but they do not appear to be related to increasing the security of the notes.

THE ISSUE AND CIRCULATION OF THE MONTREAL AND TORONTO \$1s AND \$2s (121, 127)

The initial order for the 1878 issue notes is thought to have included notes for Montreal, Toronto, Halifax and St. John. It was for 500,000 sheets of \$1s and 125,000 sheets of \$2s and was placed no later than May, 1878 (147). This order most likely included 200,000 sheets each of \$1s and 50,000 sheets each of \$2s for Montreal and Toronto.

The printing of the notes was delayed, probably because the Finance Department still had large stocks of the old issue notes on hand. These stocks were not depleted until July, 1879 (154). The first of the new issue notes were delivered to the government in June of that year; by July about half of the order was at hand (127). At that time the British American Bank Note Company was advised to cease printing any more notes, because the amount already delivered was enough for several months (155 - 6). The remainder of the order was delivered during the first six months of 1880. The \$1s in the first order are believed to have all been the scalloped frame variety. This belief is based upon the number of face plates prepared - five for each of the two cities (126) - and upon the sheet numbers on notes examined by us.

The issue of the new notes to the A.R.G.s and banks commenced in August, 1879. The entire issue pattern for the Montreal and Toronto \$1s is shown in the lower panel of Figure 16. In the upper panel of the same figure are the actual circulations which resulted. One is immediately struck by the sometimes drastic changes in the relative contributions of the Montreal and Toronto components. There is no suggestion of this in the plot of the overall \$1 circulation (Figure 15), because a change in either the Montreal or Toronto circulation was usually offset by a change in the opposite direction in the circulation of the other city's notes.

We are still searching for contemporary discussions of these changes and the policies that brought them about. Our searches have yet to be rewarded, so at this point we are reduced to some educated guesswork. It is convenient to divide the \$1 circulation into four periods: January 1879 to January 1885, February 1885 to August 1886, September 1886 to September 1890 and October 1890 to the end of 1897.

Up to the beginning of 1885 the Montreal and Toronto \$1s made up 80 - 90% of the total circulation of that denomination (compare Figures 16 and 18). On 31 June 1881, for example, the Montreal issue accounted for 48% and the Toronto issue for 40%. Within a year, however, the Toronto circulation became the greater one, so that by mid-1884 the contributions stood at 32% Montreals and 51% Torontos. This reversal stems from two causes. Examination of Figure 16 reveals that between 1879 and early 1883 both varieties were usually issued in each quarter. The Torontos were generally being issued faster, so the Toronto circulation at last became the greater of the two. Then between May, 1883 and May 1884 no Montreal \$1s were issued at all and the circulation dropped by 1/3. The simultaneous issue at Montreal and Toronto \$1s was resumed in June, 1884.

So by early 1885, the start of the second period, the two circulations were nearly equal. The significance behind the temporary cessation of the issue of the Montreals is not known. It certainly was not due to lack of demand for notes by the A.R.G. Montreal. Toronto notes were shipped there during this period.

There can be less doubt about policy during the second period. Data to be presented in later sections of this paper make it clear that beginning in early 1885 all non-Montreal \$1s and \$2s were to be gradually withdrawn. Thus, the Toronto circulation continued the downward trend begun early in 1884 and the Montreal circulation rose sharply.

The third period contains a curious reversal in policy. It was obviously decided to make the \$1 circulation consist of Toronto notes instead of Montreals. The Montreal \$1s fell from \$2.2 million in September 1886 to a mere 10% of that figure in March 1891 and the Torontos rose to over \$3.5 million.

The fourth and final phase represents a resumption of the policy to make the Montreals the pre-eminent species of \$1. The issue if \$1 notes payable at Montreal began in October, 1890 at which time the issue of Torontos ceased for the last time.

Figure 17 represents a more detailed examination of the issue profiles of the Montreal and Toronto \$1s. In it the two issues are divided into both basic face variety (scalloped vs. lettered frame) and into series.

The issue and circulation of the Montreal and Toronto \$2s can be seen in Figure 19. The first phase of their issue is roughly analogous to that already described for the \$1s. Notes payable at the two cities were initially issued simultaneously, followed by a period in 1883 - 4 when only Toronto notes were issued. Also, the cessation of the issue of the Toronto notes occurs in early 1885 with the predictable drop in circulation. But that is where the analogy ends. There was no policy reversal for this denomination and by 1889 the Toronto circulation had fallen to a very low level. The Montreal circulation was also soon to meet its demise, for a new issue \$2 was introduced in the fall of 1887 (see below).

THE ISSUE AND CIRCULATION OF HALIFAX AND ST. JOHN \$1s AND \$2s

The initial order (see above) for the 1878 issue notes probably contained notes for the Maritimes as follows: 50,000 sheets each of \$1s and 12,500 sheets each of \$2s for Halifax and St. John. All of these notes were sent direct from the printers to the respective A.R.G.s and were shipped between the fall of 1879 and the spring of 1880. The \$1 notes were, of course, the scalloped frame variety.

Additional small printings were later made of both \$1s (lettered frame variety) and the Halifax \$2. These notes, however, were issued to the A.R.G.s via the Finance Department and were undoubtedly all signed in Ottawa. The Halifax \$1s (50,000 sheets) were sent between July, 1882 and August 1884, the Halifax \$2s (20,000 sheets) between December, 1882 and July, 1886 and the St. John \$1s (25,000 sheets) between July, 1883 and December 1884.

THE CIRCULATION OF \$1 AND \$2 1870 ISSUE NOTES PAYABLE AT VICTORIA.

In the second paper of this series (125) we reported that 1870 issue \$1s and \$2s were printed and actually circulated. At that time the available information made it possible to present a graph of the combined circulation of both denominations. It was noted that the greatest circulation was in the mid-1880s; this raised the possibility that 1878 \$1s and \$2s were also printed for Victoria. We guessed not, however, based upon some note shipment data. Since that paper was written, new data have allowed the presentation of separate circulation profiles for the \$1s and \$2s (see Figure 19). Furthermore, it is now possible to state with considerable certainty that our previous supposition was correct: the Victoria \$1s and \$2s that circulated in the 1880s were 1870 issue notes that were being issued and re-issued from the A.R.G. office in Victoria.

It is interesting to note that the government did at least come close to having 1878 type \$1s printed for Victoria. In September 1883, just as the Victoria circulations were reaching their peaks, one of the back plates previously prepared for Halifax \$1s was altered to make it read PAYABLE AT VICTORIA (126). However, a corresponding face plate was not made and notes were never printed, presumably

because the circulation trend reversed shortly after the back plate was made. Later needs for \$1s and \$2s were filled with notes payable at either Montreal or Toronto.

NOTES ISSUED TO THE A.R.G. WINNIPEG

As noted previously (125) 1870 \$1 and \$2 notes made payable at Winnipeg were not printed, although a hand stamp reading MANITOBA was applied to at least some of the notes issued there. Beginning in 1880 there was a considerable demand for \$1 notes in Winnipeg in connection with payments to the Indians (157,158). Thus, from 1880 throughout the rest of the period covered by this paper \$100,000 or more in \$1s were shipped to the A.R.G. Winnipeg. Nevertheless, no 1878 issue notes payable at Winnipeg were printed, nor were any plates prepared. We have examined two of the 1378 \$1 notes known to have been issued to Winnipeg and they do not bear the MANITOBA stamp, so the hand stamping apparently was not extended to the new type notes. Whenever possible, notes payable at Toronto were sent to Winnipeg. The need for \$2s and \$4s in Manitoba was much more modest, although both denominations were sent there.

NOTES ISSUED TO THE A.R.G.CHARLOTTETOWN

The small note needs of the new A.R.G. in Charlottetown were very modest indeed during the 1883 - 1897 period. They were restricted mainly to \$1s and \$2s. No shipments of \$4s were made there; that denomination seems to have had a negotiable circulation on the island. The predominent city payable of the domiciled notes sent there was Montreal and the first shipment was in May, 1885.

XIX. THE 1882 GENERAL ISSUE \$4

The initial issue of dominion \$4s, first placed into circulation in late 1882, continued a precident begun with the 1878 issues: the vignette portrays the current Governor General. In this case it is the Marquis of Lorne, who served from November 1878 to October 1883. There is the usual green denominational face tint. The tint is at the left and consists of an ornate 4 flanked by two cherubs and partially hiding a view of Victoria Bridge at the bottom. But there are two new security devices. At the right is an orange Great Seal of Canada. It is the same as that already introduced on the backs of the 1878 \$1s and \$2s. And the notes were printed on watermarked paper; this was the only Canadian government issue printed on such paper. The watermark consists of two crossing hands on which appears DOMINION OF CANADA. Emblems are located at each of the intersections of the bands. At the top is a maple leaf, at the right a rose, at the bottom a shamrock and at the left a thistle.

The \$4 is dated at Ottawa and therefore represents the first break from the tendency of the government to domicile their notes - to make them payable at a particular A.R.G. office. Another new feature was the engraved signature of J.M. Courtney, who was the Deputy Minister of Finance, in the bottom right space labeled FOR RECEIVER GENERAL. Instead of FOR MINISTER OF FINANCE the signature space at the left was labeled COUNTERSIGNED.

Throughout the period of their issue the 1882 \$4s were a relatively minor part of the government note circulation. A peak of just over \$600,000 was reached in November, 1885 and the circulation gradually declined thereafter. The final issues of these notes came in April, 1900. The fact that the circulation profile lacks the "moving of the crops" (125) cyclic variations suggests that this denomination did not see significant use by the agriculture communities of Ontario.

XX. THE 1887 GENERAL ISSUE \$2

It is interesting that a new \$2 general (as opposed to domiciled) issue was introduced in 1887. After all, the 1878 issue \$1s were not replaced until the government changed printers in 1897. It is quite possible that a new \$2 note came into use "early" because of counterfeits. Many of the Montreal and Toronto 1878 \$2s surviving today are contemporary counterfeits. Some of them are quite deceptive. The fact that the 1887 \$2s have a bi-colour back - the only instance of this on a dominion note - strengthens the arguement. These notes must certainly have been more trouble and more expensive to print than the earlier issue.

The face features two portraits: the Marchioness of Lansdowne at the left and the Marguess, who was Governor General from October, 1883 to June, 1888. In the centre is a large green ornate 2 tint. The notes are dated July 2nd, 1887 at Ottawa and so were a general issue like the \$4. On this issue J.M. Courtney's engraved signature in the right-hand signature is labeled FOR MINISTER OF FINANCE. Most of the back design is green. In a second printing run with black ink two large 2 counters and a central vignette showing Jacques Cartier and his men were applied.

This first 1887 \$2s were issued in the fall of 1887 and the last of them in late 1897. By about August, 1896 the issue of the "plain" series was complete and the government began sending our A series notes.

XXI. CONCLUDING REMARKS ON THE 1879 - 1897 PERIOD

THE GOVERNMENT VS. BANK NOTE CIRCULATIONS

The period 1879 - 1882 was marked by a rise in the bank note circulation (see Figure 20) to the level enjoyed prior to the depression of the late 1870s. For most months between 1882 and 1897 some \$30 - \$35 million of their notes were outstanding. The government circulation also increased, rising from \$10.6 million in 1879 to \$24.6 million in 1897. As Figure 20 shows, the increase was primarily restricted to the 1879 - 1882 and the 1892 - 1895 periods. Most of the increase in the first period and virtually all of that in the second was due to high denomination notes and will be examined in more detail in a later paper (159).

Finally, during the 1879 - 1897 period we see a gradual increase in proportion of dominion notes (as opposed to specie) in the banks' cash holdings.

THE PRESENT SCARCITY OF THE 1878, 1882 AND 1887 ISSUE NOTES

Our estimates of the quantities of notes of the 1878, 1882 and 1887 issues placed into circulation are given in Table XIV. The scarcity of the 19 varieties in the table varies all—the way from common to extremely rare. We are still in the process of compiling quantitative rarity estimates of the various varieties; however, some general statements can be made now. All notes payable in the Maritimes are very rare. The Montreal and Toronto plain (scalloped") frame \$1s are very scarce in V.G. and rare in better condition. The corresponding lettered frame notes of the "plain" (no letter) series are also quite difficult to obtain. The Montreal and Toronto \$1s of the A.B, or C series are easily obtained in V.G. Genuine Montreal or Toronto 1878 \$2s are very scarce in V.G., rare in F. and very rare in V.F. or better. The 1882 \$4 and plain series 1887 \$2 are scarce in V.G. The \$4 is rare in better condition, while the \$2 is rare only in E.F. or better. The A series \$2 seems to be very scarce.

The next paper (160) in this series will deal with the 1900 and 1923 issues of the fractional notes ("shimplasters").

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We are pleased to acknowledge the assistance of the British American Bank Note Co. in providing much valuable information from their surviving records.

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- 142. Letter from J.M. Courtney to E.J. Barbeau, dated 28 July 1879.
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TABLE XII

NEW ASSISTANT RECEIVERS GENERAL DURING THE PERIOD 1879 - 1897

City	Person	Period of Service
Montreal	Henry J. Barbeau	1880 - 1901
Toronto	Charles J. Campbell D. Creighton	Mov. 1883 - May 1895 May 1895 - Jan. 1918
St. John	Howard D. McLeod	Feb. 1893 - Nov. 1907
Winnipeg	Henry M. Drummond	May 1879 - Feb. 1917
Victoria	Joseph H. MacLaughlin D.B. McConnan	Jan. 1890 - June 1893 June 1893 - 1918+
Charlottetown	Percy Pope	July 1883 - 1918+

This table was constructed from information in reference 137. The names of persons already in office at the beginning on 1879 are omitted. Their names already appear in Table IV (125).

TABLE XIII

POTENTIAL AND KNOWN COUNTERSIGNERS OF 1878, 1882 1887 ISSUE DOMINION NOTES

Assistant Receiver General Offices

Toronto

*Alexander Fraser (A.R.G.)

*Granville P. Eliot

St. John

Robert W. Crookshank (A.R.G.)

* William H. Shaw

Winnipeg

* Henry M. Drummond (A.R.G.)

* Albert C. McMicken

Halifax

* John R. Wallace (A.R.G.)

John R. Dillon John T. Lithgow

* Lewis Parker

Department of Finance, Ottawa

* Mary A. Barrie

* Caroline L. Bennett

* E.L. Burgus

* Gertrude Dorion

* ? Fitzgerald

* Charlotte E. Gallwey

* W. Hatch

* William H. Hayes

* Moore A. Higgins Margaret M. Hutchison

* I.F. Hyndman

* M. Macauley

* John R. Nash

* John B.H. Neeve

* Fairy E.J. Nettle

* E.V. Smith

Arabella Start

* Charles F. Street

* Lisbeth L. Sutton Charles J. Tasker

* J.P. Taylor

* Charles Webber

* R. Waddell

This table was constructed from data in references 137 and 148 and from examination of the notes themselves. Those names preceded by a * are persons known to have countersigned notes. A.R.G. stands for Assistant Receiver General. Although it is known that some notes were signed in the A.R.G. office in Montreal (161), the names of potential signers in that office are not included. The function of the A.R.G. Montreal was performed by the City and District Savings Bank, Montreal and the names of their employees during that period are not known to us.

TABLE XIV

SUMMARY OF THE QUANTITIES OF 1878, 1882 AND 1887 ISSUES
OF DOMINION NOTES PLACED IN CIRCULATION

Denomination	Payable at	Serial Numbers	No. of Notes
\$1 1878 (plain frame)	Montreal Toronto St. John Halifax	A,B,C,D/000001 - 200000 A,B,C,D/000001 - 200000 A,B,C,D/000001 - 050000 A,B,C,D/000001 - 050000	800,000 800,000 200,000 200,000
\$1 1878 (lettered frame)	Montreal	-:A,B,C,D/200001 - 1000000 A:A,B,C,D/000001 - 1000000 B:A,B,C,D/000001 - 1000000 C:A,B,C,D/000001 - 800000 *	3,200,000 4,000,000 4,000,000 3,200,000 *
	Toronto	-:A,B,C,D/200001 - 1000000 A:A,B,C,D/000001 - 1000000	3,200,000 4,000,000
9 = 2	St. John	A,B,C,D/050001 - 075000	100,000
	Halifax	A,B,C,D/050001 - 100000	200,000
\$2 1878	Montreal Toronto St. John Halifax	A,B,C,D/000001 - 350000 * A,B,C,D/000001 - 230000 * A,B,C,D/00001 - 12500 A,B,C,D/00001 - 32500	1,400,000 * 920,000 * 50,000 130,000
\$4 1832	(All Cities)	A,B,C,D/000001 - 300000	1,200,000
\$2 1887	(All Cities)	-:A,B,C,D/000001 - 1000000 A:A,B,C,D/000001 - 150000 *	4,000,000 600,000 *

This table was constructed from data in references 123 and 127. The figures marked with an * are estimates and in all cases are considered maxima, high by no more than a few %. The letter to the left of the : in the serial numbers is the series letter. A - indicates the "plain" or no letter series and is included only when a second series was produced.

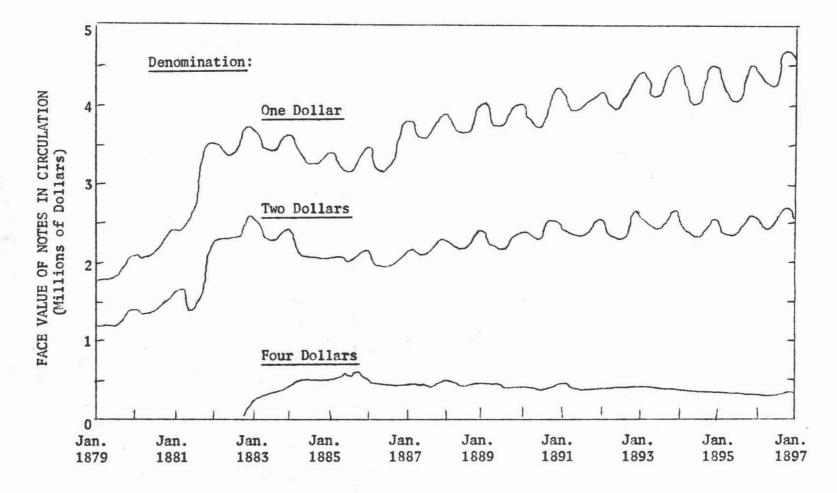


FIGURE 15. CIRCULATION OF \$1, \$2 AND \$4 GOVERNMENT NOTES BY DENOMINATION 1879-1897

The data are from references 78, 121 and 127 and were plotted as outlined in the legend to Figure 8. The circulations of the \$1 and \$2 notes from January, 1879 to June, 1881 are theoretical. They were calculated from published figures for the combined \$1 and \$2 circulation, assuming a 3:2 value ratio in favor of the \$1.

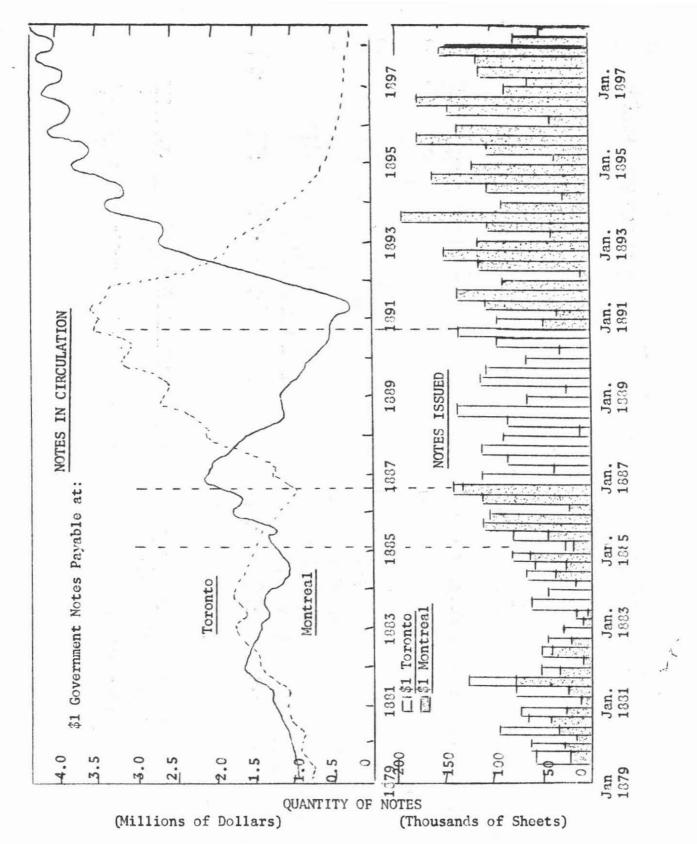


FIGURE 16. CIRCULATION AND ISSUE OF \$1 GOVERNMENT NOTES PAYABLE AT MONTREAL AND TORONTO BY CITY VARIETY 1879 - 1898

The data are from reference 127. In the upper panel the numbers were plotted as outlined in the legend to Figure 8. The relative circulations of the Toronto and Montreal issues are theoretical for the period January, 1879 to June 1881. They were estimated as outlined in the legend to Figure 15, taking into account the known general characteristics of the two circulations. Each of the bars in the lower panel represents three months. Issued refers to notes leaving the government vaults in Ottawa; a few weeks or even months could pass before issued notes reached circulation.

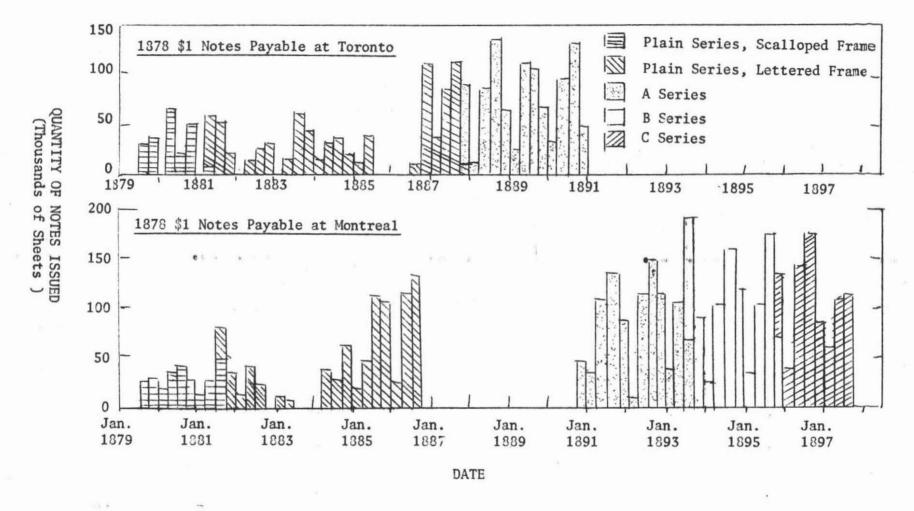


FIGURE 17. ISSUE OF 1878 \$1 GOVERNMENT NOTES PAYABLE AT MONTREAL AND TORONTO BY CITY PAYABLE, FRAME VARIETY AND SERIES.

The data are from reference 127 and were plotted as outlined for the lower panel in Figure 16

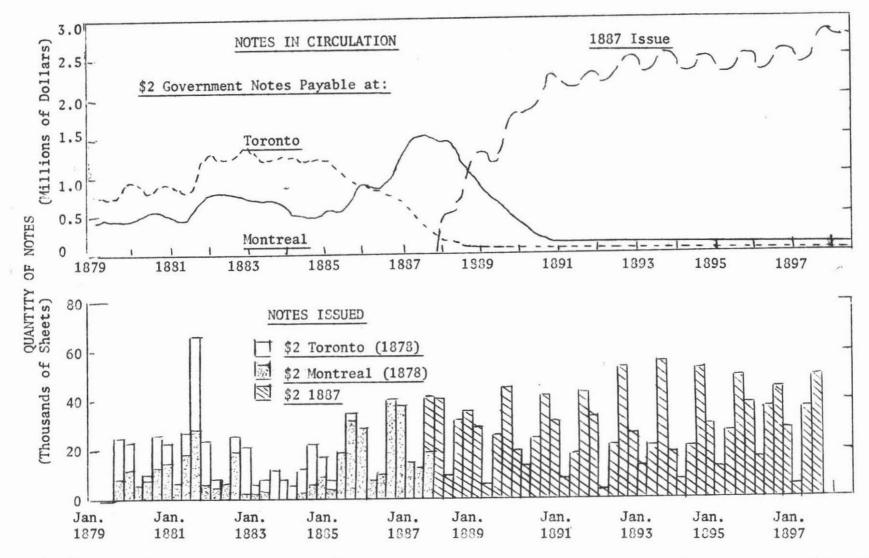


FIGURE 18. CIRCULATION AND ISSUE OF \$2 GOVERNMENT NOTES PAYABLE AT MONTREAL AND TORONTO AND THE 1887 GENERAL ISSUE 1879 - 1898.

The data are from reference 127. In the upper panel the numbers were plotted as outlined in the legend to Figure 8. The relative circulations of the Toronto and Montreal issues are theoretical between January, 1879 and June 1881 (see the legend to Figure 16). The circulations of the 1887 issue and Montreal notes after November, 1887 are also theoretical. The curves shown are based upon official figures for the issue of the 1887 notes and for the circulation and destruction of the two issues combined.

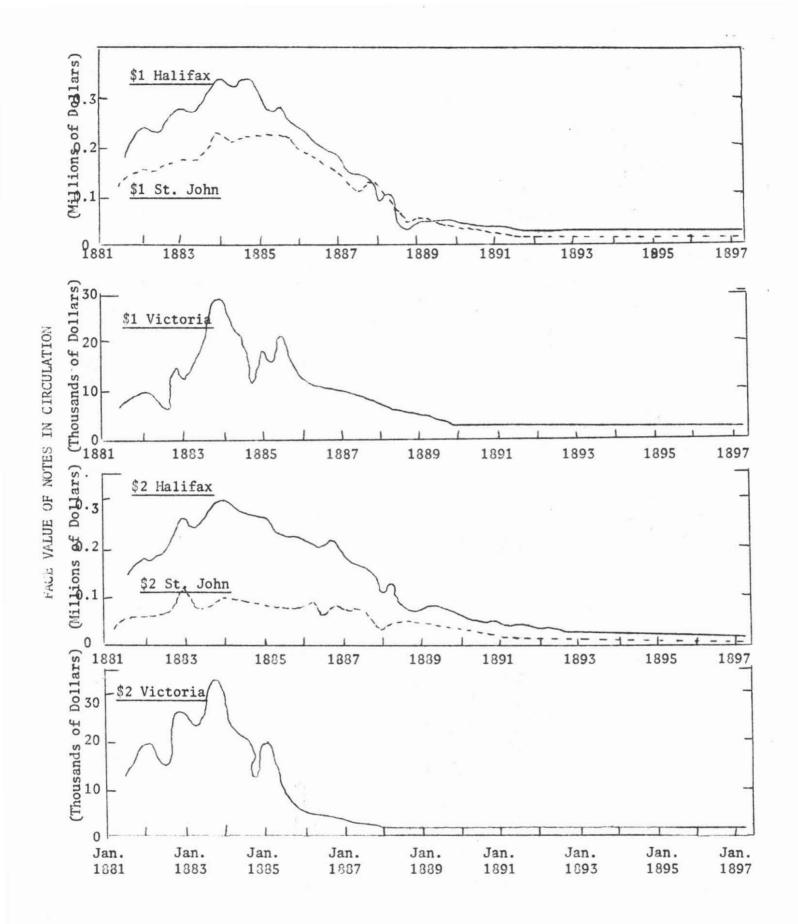


FIGURE 19. CIRCULATION OF \$1 AND \$2 GOVERNMENT NOTES PAYABLE AT HALIFAX, ST. JOHN AND VICTORIA 1881 - 1897

The data are from reference 127 and were plotted as outlined in the legend to Figure 8

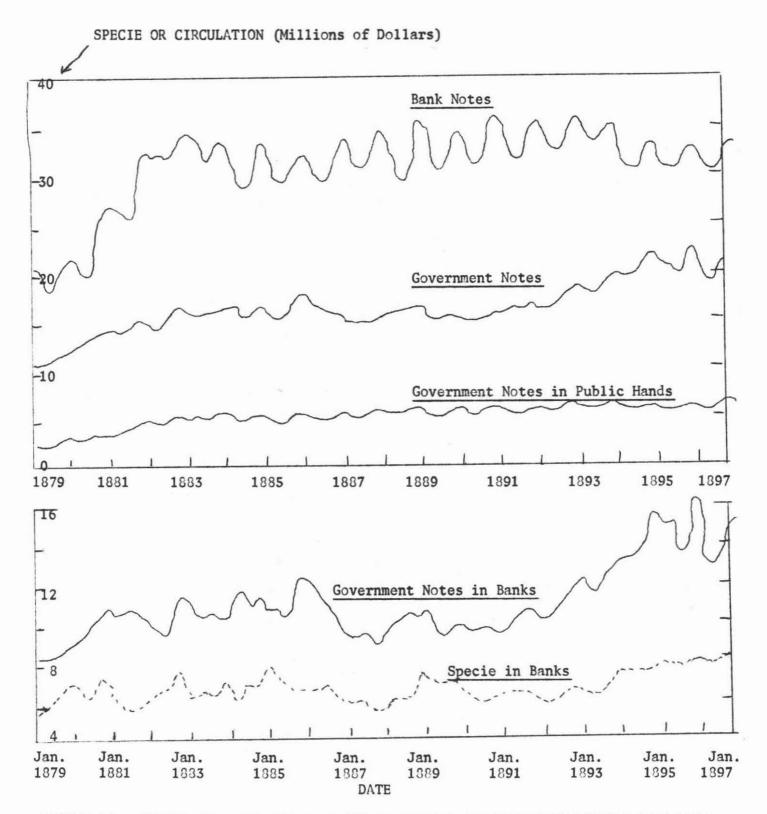


FIGURE 20. SPECIE IN BANKS AND CIRCULATION OF BANK AND GOVERNMENT NOTES 1879-1897

The data are from references 78 and 121 and were plotted as outlined in the legend to Figure 11. The total circulation and bank holdings of government notes do not include the "bank legal" notes first put into circulation in 1896.

THE USE OF FRENCH COINS IN CANADA

by R. C... Willey, F.R.N.S.

INTRODUCTION

It can be safely said that almost every French coin issued from about 1590 to 1758 was brought into New France sooner or later in the course of trade or by official importation. Many were sent to Canada in large numbers, such as various copper coins and the sous marqués of all types. The sous marqués were always acceptable, whereas the copper coins circulated with difficulty, especially after 1700. All coins underwent a bewildering number of changes in value after 1680. These changes, or "réformations", as they were called, usually involved the recalling of the coins to the mints for overstriking with a new design and re-issuing at an increased value. Thus was Louis XIV enabled to obtain money, at the expense of his subjects, to pay for his schemes of aggrandisement in Europe. In the early years of the reign of Louis XV the Regent carried on the same practice to try and discharge some or all of the national debt. The famous "Système" of John Law, which was developed for this worthy end, caused a frightening inflation which collapsed in a year and impoverished the kingdom.

The numerous changes in the valuation of all coins were carefully recorded in contemporary writings, In 1731 Mme. Jean Baptiste Morgan, widow of the King's Printer, published at Amiens a work intended for bankers and cambists rather than numismatists, listing all these changes in the coinage from 1689 to 1731. This book in entitled, "Extrait des Edits, Déclarations, et Arrêts du Conseil concernant les Monnoyes de France... depuis 1689 jusqu'an 1731" (An extract of the Edicts, declarations, and Orders-in-Council concerning the Coinage of France...from 1689 until 1731).

In 1764 an extremely useful two-volume work was published at Paris by François André abot de Bazinghen, Councillor and Commissioner of the Court of Coinages. Along with detailed information regarding the function of the court of Coinages (Cour des Monnaies), the book contains considerable information in dictionary form on all French coinages and many foreign coinages, as well as weights and measures, remedies, finenesses, and chemical and assaying data on the precious and other metals used in coinage. The work is entitled, "Traité des Monnoies et de la Jurisdiction de la Cour des Monnoies, en Forme de Dictionnaire." (A Treatise of the Coinages and of the Jurisdiction of the Court of Coinages, in the Form of a Dictionary). The "réformations' of the French coinage are treated in detail in this work as well.

After 1726 the French currency was stabilised, the louis d'or being rated at 24 livres and the écu at six. This relationship lasted till the metric system was adopted in France in 1795. An unstable currency was not one of the many grievances which brought on the French Revolution.

All the changes of the values of coins promulgated in France were also to occur in Canada, but the tardiness with which the news arrived in Quebec of each change made it impossible to keep up with the dizzy pace in France, and many regulations were indeed obsolete by the time they arrived at Quebec. On such occasions the governor and intendant would regulate matters as it seemed to them to be best. In a few cases, notably the sous marqués and liards, the local officials regulated their use without reference to France.

Before discussing individual coins, it may be interesting to note the variety of "espèces sonnantes", as the Quebecois called hard, cold cash, discovered in the

savings of a few deceased persons when their wills were read and the estates tallied. On October 13, 1732, the savings of Jacques Archambault of Longue Pointe included twenty-eight silver ecus of 6 livres, six half ecus of 3 livres, twenty-six ecus auc huit L of 1724-1725, valued at 4½ livres apiece, two louis d'or valued at twenty livres apiece, and four heavier louis d'or valued at twenty-five livres apiece, together with card money to the value of 358 livres.

The estate of the Montreal merchant Billeron ² was found in 1733 to comprise 23 livres 14 sols in coin, a Treasury Note for fifty livres, and 1359 livres 15 sols in card money. The estate of Jacques Leber de Senneville, a trader of Montreal ³ contained two silver ecus of six livres, four silver pieces rated at 26½ sols each, a silver piece rated at 14 sols 3 deniers, seventy-nine sous marques at two sols apiece, and card money to the value of 2825 livres 5 sols.

These inventories give some indication of the proportion of card money to "especes sonnantes" in New France during this period, and of the extent to which coin was hoarded. This extensive horading of gold, silver, and even of sous marques, is the principal reason for the scarcity of coined money in circulation. What did not return to France to pay taxes and duties or buy goods was simply hoarded by people of all classes.

PART I COPPER COINAGES

Copper was first coined in France in the sixteenth century. The first coins were deniers and doubles. Eventually, as depreciation of the currency continued, the liard, half sol, and sol were coined in copper.

The Denier

The denier was the basic small coin of France. It began in Carlovingian times as a respectable silver penny, but was rapidly debased throughout the Middle Ages, being coined in billon for some four hundred years. In the reign of Henri III it first appeared in copper, and coinage ceased altogether in 1648. In Quebec the denier passed for two deniers, resulting in excessive importation of the coin from France to reap the 100% profit, whereupon the Sovereign Council forbade its further use in New France in 1664.

The Double

The double was a piece of two deniers, first coined in billon in the Middle Ages. It was first coined in copper by Henri III, and was in circulation in New France at four deniers in the seventeenth century. In France it was no longer coined after 1644, and large quantities were sent to Quebec to reap the 100% profit before the Sovereign Council reduced it to one denier by the same Order as demonetised the denier.

The Liard

The liard of three deniers began as the mediaevel hardi, getting its later name somewhere during the fifteenth century. It was coined in billon till 1655. Coinage began in copper in 1644, but not till 1655 was the liard struck only in copper. In this year, and till 1657, the liard was struck in large quantities from special mints set up under private contract expressly to coin liards ⁵. Blanchet and Dieudonné ⁶ state that the contract to coin liards was given to two men named Mathieu and Blandin, whose activities brought public protests. By 1656 some two million copper liards were circulating in Normandy alone, and as late as 1680, long after coinage was stopped by the king, Mme. de Sévigné, the famous bluestocking of the day, complained in one of her letters of the enormous number of liards still circulating in Brittany.

The liard was coined in copper at 64 to the marc, or 59.05 grains, from 1654 to 1658, when the king ordered coinage to cease because of the public complaints and reduced their value to two deniers apiece 7. Liards remained at this value till 1693, when a new coinage was introduced at three deniers. In New France the liard passed for six deniers till 1664, when the Sovereign Council reduced its value to three deniers to end their excessive importation. Later that year the Council reduced it to its value in France, two deniers 8. The liards became doubles after 1658. It is for this reason that the Double de l'Amerique Francoise of 1670 was ordered to be struck at 64 to the marc, the weight of the old copper liard. As is well known, this famous Colonial coin was never struck, except for a single pattern specimen.

Liards were again coined in France in 1693 at three deniers, and the older liards were restored to this original value. By this time copper was becoming unpopular in Canada on account of its shrinking purchasing power, and fewer liards of the coinages after 1693 circulated here. After 1700 it was very difficult to circulate copper in New France. The last liard to circulate in Canada was the "John Law" type of 1719-1724, issued by Edict of July 1719. This coin was struck at 80 to the marc, or 47.238 grains. It was doubled in value in February 1720 and raised to 8 deniers in July the same year. In September it was lowered to 6 deniers. The end of John Law's "Système" and the inevitable deflation came at the end of the year. The liard was reduced in 1721 to 4½ deniers and to the original 3 deniers in 1724.

The Half Sol

The half sol was first coined in copper in 1710 at six deniers. This was the "Dardenne" type coined from 1710 to 1713 for use in France. The next half sol was the abortive Colonial coinage of 1717, struck at Perpignan. The "John Law" half sol was coined by Edict of May 1719 at 40 to the marc, or 94.475 grains. It was soon caught up in the insane inflation of the time, doubling in value in a year.

In March 1720 large shipments of copper pieces of 12 deniers were authorised to be sent to the colonies. New France was to receive 40,000 livres' worth and Isle Royale 10,000 livres 9. Thus the "John Law" half sol was to be sent to Canada and put into circulation at twelve deniers, or a full sol. Its value was further inflated to sixteen deniers in July 1720, but fell back to twelve in September. When the bubble burst, the coin was reduced to nine deniers in 1721.

The Colonial coppers of 1721 and 1722 were issued at nine deniers, and were of the same weight as the "John Law" coin, thereby being inflated in value by 50% when issued. Since copper has almost no buying power in Canada then, the coins were refused by the people, who seized upon the excuse that the Edict authorising their issue had not been registered at Quebec. This was quickly done, but in vain, for the coppers were never acceptable. When their value was reduced to six deniers in 1724 by the same regulation deflating all Franch copper coins, their circulation was effectively finished in spite of all the authorities could do.

The Sol or Sou

The sol or sou was first coined in copper for Colonial use at Perpignan in 1717. The coinage was abortive because of the poor quality of the copper at that mint, and only a few specimens are known. A precedent had been established for the coloning of copper sols, and by Edict of May 1719 a coinage of copper sols was authorised for use in France at 20 to the marc, or 188.975 grains, the weight of the lill-fated Colonial coinage of 1717.

The copper sol was not welcomed in New France when it began to appear, for the same reason that the other copper coins were unpopular. The wild gyrations of the

"John Law" period did nothing to enhance its popularity. Its value was doubled in February 1720, raised by a further third in July, and lowered again to 24 deniers in September. In 1721 it was deflated to eighteen deniers, and in 1724 it was lowered to its original value. Very few copper sols were in use at the time of the Conquest. Any that survived into the early nineteenth century would be accepted as halfpennies.

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PART II

THE BILLON COINAGE

Billon is base silver, an alloy long employed in Europe for coinage. In France it was usually 208 1/3 fine silver, the alloying metal being copper. The rapid depreciation of the French currency during the Middle Ages resulted in the use of billon from the eleventh century. Debasement began earlier, and gradually increased, the final fineness of 208 1/3 being reached in the seventeenth century.

The sol of twelve deniers was first coined in the thirteenth century in fine silver and called a gros tournois. It was later debased, and was by the sixteenth century in the form of a billon douzain. The douzain was coined at various times till 1640, when all douzains were called in and counterstamped with a fleur de lys to circulate at fifteen deniers. 1. Thus the first sol marqué was created. The second sol marqué is the piece of fifteen deniers of 1641 which, together with the countermarked douzain, was the coin named in the Order-in-Council of 1672 by which all coins were raised in value in New France by a third.

There evidently being a need for the douzain, a new douzain was coined in 1658. Shipments of this coin were sent to Quebec in the course of time. This is the third form of the sol marqué. The fourth sol marqué is the piece of fifteen deniers of 1692-1698, struck by Edict of October 1692 over the older billon coins. The fifth sol marqué is the 'mousquetaire' of 1709-1713, which was issued at 30 deniers. The sixth is the famous piece of 24 deniers of 1738-1764 2.

The word "sol" was applied in France to any billon coin during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries regardless of its value, in the sense in which we use the word "piece" to-day. The many regulations of the time apply this word to billon coins, the best example being the term "sol of fifteen deniers" used in the Edict of 1672 3.

The countermarked billon of 1640 circulated at 15 deniers till 1672, when its value was raised in New France to 20 deniers. This also applied to the 15 deniers of 1641. The douzain of 1658 appeared at Quebec in 1662, when it was rated at twenty deniers. It was raised to twice its original value in the same year, but was lowered again to twenty deniers in 1667 ⁴. It was reduced in 1679 to twelve deniers, its original value in France, but was raised to sixteen in 1680 ⁵.

By decree of the Intendant of New France, the douzain and earlier sol marqués were rated at fifteen deniers in 1705 6. This was the value of the fourth sol marqué, issued under Edict of October 1692. After 1705 all kinds of sols marqués issued before 1709 were treated alike. They were inflated to 24 deniers in 1719 and deflated to eighteen in 1724 7. Ther were again raised to 24 deniers in 1732 and finally reduced to 18 deniers in 1744 8.

The mousquetaire, issued at 30 deniers from 1709 to 1713, underwent a reduction in value to 27 deniers in 1714 9. and to 21 deniers in 1715 10. The "John Law" inflation affected this coin, and it was rated at 60 deniers, twice its original value, in 1720 11. It fell to 45 deniers later in 1720 12, and to 27 deniers in 1724 13. It never regained its original value, being lowered to 24 deniers in 1732 and to 18 deniers in 1744.

The final sol marqué, the 24 deniers of 1738-1764, was never altered in value. It was the only French coin after 1744 with a value of 24 deniers, the earlier sols narqués having all been reduced to 18 deniers. Large shipments of these coins were sent to Canada intermittently till after 1750 and they were plentiful at the time of the Conquest. In 1764 the British military government at Quebec, probably ignorant of the silver content of these coins, valued them at a farthing apiece.

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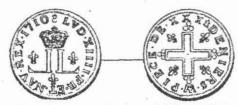
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The countermarked Douzain



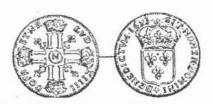
The douzain of 1658



The Mousquetaire 1709-1713



The 15 deniers of 1641



The 15 deniers of 1692-1698





The 24 deniers of 1738-1764

PART III

SUBSIDIARY SILVER

Subsidiary silver is silver coin in denominations smaller than a crown or dollar. This section will apply the term to the silver tokens issued variously from 1674 to 1711, the twelfth ecu aux palmes, the livre ascribed in error to the Compagnie des Indes, and the petit louis of 1720. The subdivisions of the many varieties of the ecu are equally subsidiary silver, but are not significant enough to be treated apart from the ecus of which they are subdivisions.

The Silver Tokens of 1674-1677

By Declaration of April 8, 1674, a coinage of silver tokens of two and four sols was authorised 1. These pieces were struck in 833 1/3 fine silver instead of the usual 916 2/3 fine silver of the ecu and its subdivisions, and were not intrinsically worth their face value. The 2 sols weighed 300 to the marc, or 12.6 grains, and the 4 sols 150 to the marc, or 25.2 grains. These pieces are known as the Contractors' Coinage or Pièces dites des Traitants because their production was farmed out to private contractors (traitants). These coins were struck at the instigation of Colbert, the famous finance minister of Louis XIV, to raise funds for the king's campaign in the Spanish Netherlands 2.

These tokens were struck at Paris and Vimy-en-Lyonnais from 1674 till 1677, when coinage was stopped because of excessive quantities in circulation. They had driven much of the finer silver out of circulation in France, and were sent to Quebec in such numbers that they became almost the only silver coins to be found in circulation. In 1679 it became necessary to stop their being tendered by the sack in payments, and an Order-in-Council of March 7, 1679 placed strict limits on the amount of these coins that could be legally tendered in a given payment 3.

In 1679 the coins were respectively reduced in value to 1 3/4 sols and 3½ sols. In Canada, where coins were rated at a third more, they went for 2 sols 8 deniers and 5 sols 4 deniers respectively. In 1705 the Intendant of New France lowered the value of these coins to their original value in France 4.

The Silver Tokens of 1691-1694

By Declaration of August 28, 1691 the tokens, circulating then at 1 3/4 and 3½ sols, were called in to be overstruck with a new design for re-issue at the original values or 2 and 4 sols 5. In Canada they circulated at one-third more. These coins were struck from 1691 to 1694, but the 2 sols is rare, inflation making it inconveniently small in silver. Original values prevailed till 1701, when the 4 sols was reduced to 3 sols 9 deniers 6. The 2 sols having all but disappeared, it is no longer mentioned in the later regulations. The 4 sols regained its full value later in 1701, but lost a denier in 1703 and another later the same year 7, losing proportionately in Canada, which received large shipments of the coin. Its value was fixed in Canada at 4 sols under the same order which gave the tokens of 1674-1677 their final value in Canada.

The Silver Tokens of 1702-1709

By Declaration of March 14, 1702 the pieces of 4 sols of 1691-1694 were called in to be overstruck with yet another design and, since the French government needed more money, issued for 5 sols instead of 4 sols 8. It did not hold this value for long. Within six months it was reduced to 4 sols 10 deniers and, the War of the Spanish Succession becoming expensive, it was lowered to 3½ sols in 1709, when coinage ceased 9. In 1711 they were taken out of circulation in France. During their period of circulation they were valued in Canada at a third above whatever value they had in France.

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Uniform in design with the piece of 5 sols, a piece of 10 sols was coined under Declaration of May 29, 1703, and a 20 sols by Declaration of August 9, 1707 10 . Both were in 833 1/3 fine silver, the 10 sols weighing 79 to the marc, or 47.83 grains, and the 20 sols $39\frac{1}{2}$ to the marc, or 95.66 grains. It is interesting to note that the 20 sols, equal to one livre, was never officially called a livre because it was not a full-bodied coin.

The 10 sols kept its original value till 1706, when it was reduced to $9\frac{1}{2}$ sols. It regained its full value in 1707 when the 20 sols was released 11. The two coins were proportionately reduced in stages, until in 1710 the 20 sols had fallen to 14 sols in value and the 10 sols to 7 sols 12. These values were increased by a third in Canada, as were the earlier coins.

The Piece of Six Sols

In 1700 the Governor and Intendant of New France issued, on September 26, an Ordinance setting forth the values of coins as fixed in France the previous April ¹³. Among these concerning which no changes had been made in France was a coin referred to as a piece of six sols. Since none of the silver tokens ever had this value, it was obviously one of the full-bodied subdivisoons of the écu.

At this time the écu was "aux palmes", the form which had been issued in 1693, and circulating at three livres twelve sols. Subdivisions of a half, a quarter, and a twelfth were issued as well, valued respectively at 36, 18, and 6 sols. There being no other French coin circulating at six sols in 1700, it can only be concluded that the piece of six sols named in the Ordinance was the twelfth écu aux palmes.

The Livre of 1720

By Edict of December 1719 a special coin was struck in pure silver weighing 65½ to the marc, or 57.645 grains and issued at the inflated value of one livre. The "John Law" period was starting. John Law was Farmer-Genrral of the mints, and at his instigation new coinages were issued and their values were changing with insane rapidity. His plans to control French finances and liquidate the national debt were known as "Le Système", which dominated the scene in France till he committed the unpardonable gaffe of announcing the complete replacement of coin with paper by the end of the year 1720. The bubble burst, deflation brought disaster, and Law quit the kingdon for his personal safety.

The livre was struck only at Paris, but it was ordered that it might be coined in whatever other mints the Compagnie des Indes might choose in order to get it into circulation quickly ¹⁴. For this reason the coin is erroneously called the livre of the Compagnie des Indes. The Company was asked to arrange for its production, but the coin was issued by royal authority for general circulation, not by the Company for its own convenience. As events developed, it was never necessary to strike the coin elsewhere than in Paris.

Under the Système the livre rose to 1½ livres in March 1720 and to two livres in July 15. It was afterward deflated by stages, falling to its original value in December. Eventually the coin was rated at 18 sols, at which value it was circulating in Canada at the time of the Conquest. This coin, the 20 sols or sixth écu de Navarre of 1719-1720, and the sixth écu de France of 1720-1724 were all circulating 1 at 18 sols when New France fell, and all three were meant by the term "French Ninepenny Piece" used in the Proclamation of 1764, under which they were to pass for a shilling 16.

The Petit Louis d'argent

This is another inflated product of the Système, struck by Edict of March 1720 in 916 2/3 fine silver at 30 to the marc, or 125.98 grains, and valued at three livres. Its size illustrates the extent of inflation in France from 1640, when the silver écu was introduced, to 1720, the year the Système was at its height. The écu of 1640 was on the same ineness and almost three and a half times the weight of this coin. Since the écu was first called a louis d'argent, this coin of 1720 was called a petit louis d'argent because it had the original value in livres of the écu of 1640.

The petit louis d'argent was further inflated in the mad whirl of financial jiggery-pokery that went on in France in 1720. Successive regulations reduced its value by 15 sols in the spring and summer of 1720 ¹⁷, but on July 30, 1720 its value was inflated to four livres ¹⁸. Within three months it was deflated to 2 livres 10 sols ¹⁹, and by 1721 it was rated at only two livres.

The coin circulated in New France to an extent, its value changing with the French regulations as soon as they could be registered in Quebec. It was considered by many collectors to be a Canadian coin because of its inclusion by Le Roux in his book in 1888 20. The listing by Le Roux is based probably on the discovery of specimens in hoards of coins found in Quebec, but the documents under the terms of which it circulated clearly show that it was primarily intended for use in France and not in the colonies.

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The petit Louis d'argent 1720



The livre of 1720

(Courtesy Bank of Canada)

PART IV

THE SILVER ECU AND ITS SUBDIVISIONS

The silver écu or louis d'argent was first coined by Edict of September 1641 in 916 2/3 fine silver weighing 8 11/12 to the marc, or 423.3 grains. The silver fineness was never changed, but the weight changed several times. The original weight was adhered to until 1709. The origanal value of the écu was three livres, which endured except for some augmentation between 1652 and 1666, until 1690. Between 1690 and 1709 four new types were issued, each one valued a little higher than the preceding, until a value of four livres was reached in 1704. The usual subdivisions were a half, a quarter, and a twelfth écu, respectively valued at thirty, fifteen, and five sols. The twelfth was called a louis de cinq sols, and was widely circulated in France and in her colonies. For some reason it became a popular coin in Italy, where Tuscany and other northern states issued silver "luigini" of similar design and of equivalent value. The coin was also plentiful in the Levant 1. Occasionally in the early part of the reign of Louis XIV a twenty-fourth and a forty-eighth écu were issued, but these are rather rare because they were so small.

The original écu bore on the obverse a bust of Louis XIII with Royal Titles. This was replaced by a bust of Louis XIV in 1643. New busts of the Sun King were introduced in 1646, 1660, 1679, 1683, and 1685. The reverse during this early period always bore the crowned shield of arms of France, with special issues for Béarn and Navarre which showed the arms of these provinces combined with the French arms.

In 1690 the famous "Réformations" of the silver coinage began, These were a means of raising funds for the king's military campaigns in Europe, and involved the calling in the coins to be overstruck with a new design and issued at an enhanced value. In the course of time the "reformed" coinage was cried down in value and then called in to be overstruck again and issued at a further enhanced value. This process was repeated many times, until it was impossible to overstrike the same flans any more. Then they were replaced by a new coinage based on an écu of increased weight and value.

The first "Réformation" was in 1690, when the coins were called in and overstruck "aux huit L" for release at 3 livres and 6 sols for the écu, the subdivisions in proportion 2. The second occurred in 1693, when the écu was re-issued "aux palmes" at three livres twelve sols 3. The third took place in 1701, with the écu being issued "aux insignes" at three livres sixteen sols 4. Then, in 1704, the coinage was re-issued "aux huit L" in a different design from that of 1690, with the écu valued at four livres 5. Subdivisions of a half, a quarter, an eighth, and a sixteenth were coined at this time.

By 1709, when it was felt that it was time for a fifth "Reformation". it had become physically impossible to overstrike the existing coinage any more, whereupon it was called in and melted down for recoinage into a new series based on an ecu weighing 8 to the marc, or 472.48 grains, valued at five livres 6. This is the ecu aux trois couronnes, coined till the end of the reign of Louis XIV, together with a half, a quarter, a tenth. and twentieth of an ecu. During this period the value was cried down by stages, until in 1715 the ecu aux trois couronnes of Louis XV appeared at five livres. This was quickly replaced by the ecu "vertugadin" of 1716-1718 at the same value, with the same subdivisions.

By 1718 things had become difficult, and the Regent of France needed money. Accordingly there was a radical change in the standard, The new écu, known as the écu de Navarre because the arms of Navarre were quartered with the French arms on the reverse, was coined at 10 to the marc, or 377.95 grains and valued at six livres 7. Subdivisions of a half, a quarter, and a tenth of an écu were issued. In 1719 a sixth and twelfth were added, with the value in Roman numerals, respectively 20 and 10 sols, flanking the shield.

John Law taking matters in hand in 1719 the celebrated inflation began, and by Edict of September 1720 the coinage of 1718-1719 was called in and overstruck with the crowned arms of France and issued with a value on nine livres for the écu ⁸. Subdivisions of a half, a third, a sixth, and twelfth were issued. These coins underwent an oxtensive series of deflationary changes after 1720, until in 1724 the écu stood at four livres ⁹. In 1724 a slightly lighter coinage was issued, based on an écu aux huit L weighing 10 3/8 to the marc, or 364.3 grains and valued at four livres. A half quarter, eighth, and sixteenth completed the series ¹⁰. The silver coins brought up from the site of the sunken "Le Chameau" were mostly écus of this type. ¹¹.

In 1726 the final standard was adopted, and the well-known ecu aux lauriers was introduced, This coin weighed 8 3/10 to the marc, or 451.3 grains and was issued at five livres but raised to six livres very shortly afterward ¹². Subdivisions of a half, a fifth, a tenth, and a twentieth were issued. By 1726 sanity had returned to the French economic scene, and there were no more changes in the values of coins

except the final regulation of the billon coinages. The value of money was therefore not one of the causes of the French Revolution.

After 1726 the earlier coins were rated at bullion values and slowly withdrawn from circulation. The écus weighing 8 11/12 to the marc were valued at five livres one sol, those weighing 8 to the marc were tariffed at five livres fifteen sols, those weighing 10 to the marc were rated at four livres eleven sols, and those weighing 10 3/8 to the marc were tariffed at four livres nine sols.

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Aux trois couronnes 1709-1715 5 livres Aux (Courtesy Bank of Canada)





Aux huit L 1724,1725 4 livres

PART V

THE LOUIS D'OR

By declaration of March 31, 1640, the striking of a new standard gold coin was authorised. It was equal to the Spanish pistole, which had been entering France in the course of trade. The new coin was first called a pistole but soon became known as a louis d'or. It was struck in 916 1/3 fine gold at 36½ to the marc, or 104.2 grains, and valued at ten livres 1. The fineness of the coin never varied, but the weight and the value were to change many times in later years. The louis d'or was rated at twelve livres from 1652 to 1654, when it was again fixed at ten livres. From 1661 to 1668 it was rated at 14 livres 13 sols 4 deniers 2, but was lowered to ten livres again in 1668.

Because of these alterations in value and because of the "Reformations" of later years, the coin was officially named as the louis d'or. The word "pistole" was reserved for the Spanish gold coin and also for the sum of ten livres of account. Large sums of money were often spoken of as being in pistoles, the amounts being really multiples of ten livres 3.

The first "Reformation" occurred by Edict of December 1689, when the louis d'or, rated at eleven livres ten sols since 1687, was called in and overstruck with a reverse showing a crowned shield of arms of France and issued in 1690 at a value of twelve livres ten sols ⁴. This issue was cried down in stages till 1693, when the second "Reformation" authorised the recall, overstriking, and re-issue "aux quatre L" of the coins to circulate at fourteen livres ⁵. After a series of cryings down, they were gathered up in 1701 for the third "Reformation" to be overstruck "aux insignes et huit L" for circulation again at fourteen livres ⁶. After being cried down again by stages the coins were gathered up for the fourth "Reformation", overstruck "aux insignes" and re-issued at fifteen livres, Louis XIV needing more money by 1704 ⁷.

In 1709, the War of the Spanish Succession proving costly, a fifth "Reformation" was ordered, at which time it was decided to alter not only the value but the weight as well 8. A louis d'or "aux huit L au soleil" was struck, weighing 30 to the marc, or 125.983 grains, and valued at twenty livres. This coin was cried down by stages to fourteen livres, when in December 1715 the same type was issued with a bust of the child king Louis XV at sixteen livres. The following year the coinage of 1709-1715 was gathered up and overstruck "aux insignes" and re-issued at twenty livres 9. These products of the fifth "Reformation" were cried down to eighteen livres in 1718.

The policy of the Regency was an inflationary one, and a new louis d'or was ordered by Edict of November 1716 10 . This coin weighed 20 to the marc, or 188.975 grains, and was issued at thirty livres in 1717. The next year it was raised to thirty-six livres. This coin was called the louis de Noailles in honour of the Duc de Noailles, the president of the Council of Finance.

By Edict of May 1718 the louis d'or was coined in a new design, with the arms of France in a circle at the centre of a Maltese cross, weighing 25 to the marc, or 149.6 grains. Its career began at thirty-six livres, but became a merry one as John Law's "Systeme" took over the financial life of France. It was inflated in stages to a high value of seventy-two livres by July 1720, but was deflated to fifty-four in September 11. By Edict of September 1720 these coins were deflated to thirty-six livres in order to be recalled and overstruck "aux deux L."and re-issued at fifty-four

livres ¹². The "Système" had begun to crumble by this time, and deflation affected the new coinage. By the end of the year 1720 the coins were reduced to forty-five livres, and by 1724 they had been lowered to thirty-six livres.

The famous louis "dit des mirlitons" was introduced in 1723. It was coined at $37\frac{1}{2}$ to the marc, or 100.7 grains, and issued at twenty-seven livres. It was this coin which was brought up in such splendid condition and incredible quantity from the wreck of "Le Chameau" in 1965 13. This coin was quickly reduced in value, falling to twenty-four livres in February 1724, to twenty in March, and to sixteen in September. During the summer of 1725 when the ship was making her ill-fated crossing to Louisbourg and Quebec, the coin was rated at fourteen livres. In 1726 it was lowered to twelve 14.

The return of sanity in 1726 was marked by the issue of a new louis d'or weighing 30 to the marc, or 125.983 grains, valued first at twenty livres but quickly raised to twenty-four 15. The value of the louis d'or remained at twenty-four livres till the Franch Revolutionary period. The older louis d'or were rated at bullion values and gradually withdrawn from circulation. The louis d'or weighing 36½ to the marc were valued at eighteen livres seven sols, those weighing 30 to the marc at twenty-two livres six sols, the louis de Noailles at thirty-three livres nine sols, and the louis of 1718-1723 at twenty-six livres fifteen sols. The "mirlitons" were rated at seventeen livres eighteen sols 16.

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Louis d'or a la meche courte 1644





Louis d'or aux huit L 1712





Louis d'or a la croix de Malte 1718





Louis d'or "John Law" 1721





Louis d'or "Mirliton" 1723 (Bank of Canada coll.)





Louis d'or "aux lunettes" 1726

PART VI

FRENCH COINS AFTER THE CONQUEST

No French coins were officially brought to Canada after 1759. Since 1756 the expenses of New France had not been paid by the French government, payment having been stopped by Royal Decree. In view of this, it is unlikely that any additional coins came to Quebec or Louisbourg except in the personal funds of military forces sent over to defend the colonies. The state of the currency was one of the earliest concerns of the British military authorities at Quebec after Canada was ceded to Great Britain in 1763 by the Treaty of Paris.

Merchants and traders, who followed the troops to Quebec brought the local standards of currency of their home colonies with them. At Montreal York Currency, whereby the Spanish dollar was rated at 8/- currency, was in use. In Quebec they favoured Halifax Currency, whereby the dollar went for 5/- currency. To bring some order into a very confused situation, an Ordinance was issued in 1764 to set the value of coins in Canada. Under the terms of this regualtion the value of the dollar as fixed in 1707 by Proclamation of Queen Anne was adopted. This "Proclamation Money", as it was called, rated the dollar at 6/- currency, which was the prevailing rate at Boston at the time.

The French coins in the hands of the populace were all regulated under this Ordinance. The louis d'or coined since 1726 was rated at 1,8/- currency. The Spanish and French pistoles were rated at 21/-currency. The French pistole has been shown to be the louis d'or "dit des Mirlitons" of 1723-1725 1. The silver écu coined since 1726 was fixed at 6/8 currency and that of 1724-1725 at 5/6 currency. This latter écu is termed in the Proclamation"The French piece, passing at present for 4s6d Halifax" 2.

The "French Nine Penny Piece" was rated at a shilling. The three coins called by this strange term are the sixth écu de Navarre of 1719-1720, the sixth écu de France of 1720-1724, and the livre of 1720 erroneously ascribed to the Compagnie des Indes ³. A French livre of account was rated also at a shilling. The sol marqué was evidently not recognised by the British authorities as a billon coin, for it was valued under this Ordinance at only a farthing.

The standard of 1764 having been found unsuitable, the government adopted Halifax Currency in 1777. Under this enactment the louis d'or coined since 1726 was rated at £ 1,2/6 currency and the pistole at 18/- currency. The écu coined since 1726 was valued at 5/6 and the lighter écu of 1724-1725 at 4/2 currency. This latter piece is termed in this Ordinance "The French piece of four livres ten sols tournois". The French piece of 24 sols was rated at 13d currency, and all forms of the "French Nine Penny Piece" at 9d currency, Another coin mentioned in 1777 was the "French piece of thirty-six sols tournois". No such silver coin was being regularly issued in France at this time, the subdivisions of the écu being pieces of 60, 24, 12, and 6 sols. It is obviously an earlier piece, probably the petit louis d'argent of 1720, but this has yet to be established.

In 1796 both Upper and Lower Canada enacted currency regulations, but no changes were made in the ratings of French coins. By 1808 it had become necessary to revalue gold coins, which had been undervalued before. The louis d'or was accordingly increased to 1,2/8 currency and the pistole at 18/3 currency. Silver was unchanged, but by this time the lightweight French crown, as Chalmers 4 called the écu of 1724-1725, was no longer to be seen in Upper Canada.

French metric coins were made legal tender in Canada for the first time in 1819. The gold 20 francs or napoleon was rated at 18/1 currency and the silver 5 francs at 4/8 currency. The old ecu of 6 livres still remained at 5/6 currency. The reunion of Upper and Lower Canada in 1841 did not alter the values of coins in circulation. By this time French coins were rapidly disappearing, and after Confederation they were no longer legal tender. Foreign gold, including French, was exchanged at the banks for British and American, and foreign silver and copper disappeared. No foreign coins have been permitted to circulate in the Dominion since Confederation.

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PART VII

FRENCH COINS IN THE ATLANTIC PROVINCES

Acadia and the French settlements in Newfoundland were considered subordinate to New France, and any regulations of the coinage and currency of New France applied equally to Acadia and Newfoundland. Thus the "Gloriam Regni" coinage of 1670 was authorised for use in these colonies. The Order-in-Council of 1672, by which the value of all coins was raised by a third, was also intended to be observed in Newfoundland and Acadia 1.

Newfoundland became wholly British in 1713, as did the Acadian mainland, which was renamed Nova Scotia. What little French coin there was in Newfoundland left with the deported French colonists, and not till the nineteenth century was very much in the way of French coinage seen in circulation. After 1713 only Isle Royale and Isle St. Jean remained to France of her former colony of Acadia. These islands were subordinate to Quebec, and the local currency was on the same standard. By Ordinance of Jume 20, 1743 all older types of sous marques were rated at 18 deniers 2. The last type of sou marque, first coined in 1738, was not changed in value. The same Ordinance forbade the use of any other billon coins.

The only coined money in Nova Scotia after its cession to the British was French money, which was hoarded jealously by the Acadians, The British government, dealing with Boston for supplies, adopted Boston Currency, and suffered because of the enormous amounts of Massachusetts paper emanating from that colony. In 1727, when certain local merchants were endeavouring to lower the value of French coins for their own advantage, the French écu aux huit L of 1724-1725 was in use at 12/6 New England currency ³. and this rating was fixed by Proclamation of May 19, 1727. In 1730 all French and foreign coins were valued in Boston currency by Proclamation ⁴. The Boston currency continued to depreciate, and by 1740 a French livre was rated at 4/- New England currency

In 1743 the inventory of the estate of Samuel Douglass of Annapolis Royal revealed 130 "French pennies" valued at 3d each in New England Old Tenor currency 6. There were also 26 English halfpennies valued at 3d each in the same currency. This would seem to indicate that the "French penny" was in reality the copper sou of 1719-1724.

After 1749, when Halifax was founded, the governor was obliged to buy Spanish dollars at 5/- sterling apiece instead of the legal 4/6 apiece, and this gave rise to the well-known Halifax Currency, which was firmly entrenched by 1753 and replaced Boston currency as the standard of Nova Scotia. The French livre was rated at 9d Halifax Currency, and its coined forms for this reason came to be called "French ninepenny pieces" by the British military authorities at Quebec in 1764. After the founding of Halifax, French coins diminished in importance, and after the capture of Quebec and the cession of Canada to the British, they ceased to be mentioned in Nova Scotian enactments regarding the currency.

New Brunswick's currency regulations were generally modelled after those of Lower Canada. In 1786 the écu was tariffed at 5/6 currency. The louis d'or and the pistole were rated in 1805 at \(\) 1,2/6 and 18/- respectively. These values were never changed during New Brunswick's remaining years as a separate colony. As time progressed, French coins diminished in importance in New Brunswick, and were not in evidence after 1860.

Prince Edward Island, in its French period as Isle St. Jean, was governed from Louisbourg on Isle Royale, and had very little coined money in circulation. The inhabitants hoarded their French coins as did their compatriots on the mainland of Nova Scotia. After 1800 there was a limited use of French metric coins, the silver 5 francs being valued at 5/6 local currency. This value was unchanged for the rest of the time foreign coins were used on the island. In 1870 it was demonetised.

In 1871 the colony adopted the decimal system, and any remaining French coins were valued at \$3.80 for the gold 20 francs and 90¢ for the silver 5 francs.

In Newfoundland some French coins appeared in circulation in the early nineteenth century, but not in large enough quantities to warrant legislative attention before 1856. In that year the silver 5 francs was valued at 4/7 currency. According to Chalmers, French coins appeared among the mass of objectionable copper in circulation, with which the government attempted to deal in 1851 and again in 1860. Any French copper circulating in 1851 would likely be battered specimens of the old decime and 5 centimes of the First Republic, coined from 1795 to 1800, or the colonial pieces of 5 and 10 centimes issued for general use abroad by Charles X and Louis Philippe. By 1860 any further importation of French minor coin would include the bronze 5 and 10 centimes of Napoleon III of the bare-headed type. The nearest and most likely source from which such pieces might have come is the French colony of St. Pierre and Miquelon, the last remnants of France's American colonial empire. On the adoption of the decimal system in Newfoundland, foreign coins diminished in importance, and no subsequent Currency Acts enumerate any French coins.

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EDITOR'S NOTE: This series will be continued in the July 1976 issue

ROYAL TRUST 75th ANNIVERSARY MEDAL

by Freeman Clowery





In 1974 the Royal Trust Company celebrated its 75th Anniversary, in commemoration of which was struck a very impressive medal, a large 64 mm unit, in pure nickel, weighing 2000 grains. This medal gives the immediate impression of massiveness, with the numismatic beauty which results from technical excellence.

A cursory look at the history of the Company shows that there was much to celebrate. Its beginnings in 1899 were rather austere, one employee working in a corner of the Savings Department in the Bank of Montreal's famed domed building on Montreal's historic Place d'Armes. The inaugural president was Lord Strathcona who then also held the same high position with Bank of Montreal, an organization with whom there has always been close association. As early as 1901 Royal Trust agencies were established in Toronto and St. Johns, Newfoundland. In 1903 a full service branch was opened in Winnipeg and within the next decade or so a Royal Trust branch could be found in most of Canada's principal centres. They went international in 1914 with an agency in London, England.

In 1908 Royal Trust acquired The Alliance Assurance Company Building in Montreal, the site of the old City Bank, immediately east of the Bank of Montreal and in 1913 erected a new edifice on the same location. This served as Head Office for nearly 50 years, followed by a move to Montreal's C.I.L House.

Today Royal Trust has over 130 offices from coast to coast in Canada, the U.S.A. and Europe. With Company assets of over \$3,000,000,000.00 , it is Canada's largest trust company.

This phenomenal success is reflected in the relatively simple bilingual medal struck from dies that Harry Markwardt of Toronto engraved to celebrate the Company's three quarters of a century of progress. The obverse shows the figures 75 over the institution's well-known R T logo, all within the company name and dates, i.e. 1899 - Royal Trust - Trust Royal - 1974. The reverse has the company's coat-of-arms over the number 75 in a shield, within the words 'anniversary' - 'anniversaire'. The dies were intricately engraved, highly polished to produce a mirror field, with the raised portions and rim in matte finish.

There were some 5,500 struck in nickel and presented to all the company's personnel, pensioners and members of the various advisory boards. Special medals were produced in solid silver, 25 inall, and awarded to such dignitaries as Prime Minister Pierre Elliott Trudeau, the Premiers of Canada's ten provinces, Royal Trust's executive Committee and others. Each medal is in a distinctive presentation case, the dark blue velvet background complimenting the brilliant non-tarnish medal.

This fine example of medallic art was struck by the Sherritt Mint, a subsidiary of Sherritt Gordon Mines Limited. Associated in the original design concept was Jerry Parker of Abbotsford, B.C., well-known in numismatic circles.

A NOTE RE INDIAN MEDAL

by Ross W. Irwin

Editor's note: Ross has come up with another short item from the distant past. So far he has been unable to locate the Indian medal to which it refers, but nevertheless we should have a record of this.

Headquarters, Quebec 16th December, 1814

To W.H. Robinson, Esq.

Sir

I have had the honor to lay before the Commander of the Forces your letter of the 1st instant conveying the Copy of one you have received from the Commissary in Chief of the 16th Sept last accompanied with a Cast of a die with Two Figures proposed to be used in making the Medals for the Indians which die has been rendered useless by being cracked, requesting Sir Geo Prevosts opinion thereon, previous to having another die cut and an opinion on the subject having been had to the Superintendant General of the Indian Department. His Excellency has directed me to suggest for the consideration of the Commissary in Chief, that it would be an improvement to the Indian Figure to add a Bow and quiver with arrow appearing over his left shoulder, and as an Indian Warrior never entered the field but with suit small plated Mackinaw and most commonly with leggins. It is proposed that the Indian should be executed with leggins and Mackinaw - in other respects Sir George Prevost highly approves of the Model concluding however that on the reverse of it there will appear the portrait of the King.

I have, etc. (Signed) Noah Freer Military Secretary

THE ROYAL ARCH MASONIC PENNY

by Frank Harding

Everybody who has collected medals and tokens for any length of time has come across a copper coin about the size of a Canadian Nickel Dollar which he cannot find listed in any catalog that he has in his possession.

There is a good possibility it could be a Royal Arch Penny if it has the letters R.A.M. on it, which stands for Royal Arch Mason. The Royal Arch Chapter is a higher order of the Masonic fraternity and every member receives one of these when he is admitted into the order.

It is engraved with his own mark and is made use of in identifing him to other members of the order. Members of the fraternity cherish them highly, and do not ordinarily part with them in their lifetime.

Most are made of copper although they can be found in silver, brass and aluminum. In a circle arould the edge is usually found the name of the chapter, its number, the letters R.A.M. and then another set of letters such as G.R.C. which stands for Grand Register of Canada; or it could be G.R.A. or G.R.S. which would be Alberta or Saskatchewan respectively. Other provinces would have the ap propriate letter or letters after G.R.

On the majority, the center design is the Seal of Solomon or Star of David, which is two triangles combined to form a six-pointed star. There is no hard and fast rule regarding this as on some the center is plain while on others it could be an arch, a keystone or some other design.

The center of the reverse would likely be a keystone unless the keystone in on the obverse. A keystone is the central, topmost stone in an arch which holds the other stones in place. The letters KSHTWSST in a circle are usually on the keystone. In a circle near the edge is usually found the words "They reveived every man a penny" or on some just "one penny". Hence is derived the name "Masonic Penny".

A few of the older pennies have an irregular shape and are made to imitate a Jewish half shekel as was used in the building of King Solomon's Temple in Jerusalem; the symbolism of which forms the basis of the Royal Arch Degree.

In the early years there was only one Grand Register in Canada which covered Ontario and all provinces to the west. When there were sufficient Chapters in one of the western provinces. a Grand Register for that province was set up. All Chapters in that province that were registered under the Grand Register of Canada withdrew and registered with their own province.

The oldest formed Chapters taking the first numbers so that it is possible to find pennies listing two different numbers and yet are the same chapter. For instance, Wascana Chapter, Regina, Sask. was formed about 1899 and registered as Chapter #121 G.R.C. . When the Grand Register of Saskatchewan was formed in 1923 it became Wascana Chapter #1 G.R.S. Therefore it is possible to find pennies for Wascana Chapter #121 G.R.C. and Wascana Chapter #1 G.R.S.

Many people regard Masonry as a secret society but that is not true for if you go to any large library you can find many books regarding Masonry. It is rather a society that has a few secret signs and words restricted to its members but who's aims and objects are well publicised.

I must warn you regarding one aspect of collecting pennies. I have seen them listed in auction catalogs at fantastic prices. This is usually because a lot of pennies show the date that the Chapter was first instituted. This is not the date when the penny was struck as they are usually ordered in small batches and every few years another batch is ordered. Thus a penny with the date 1900 or 1909 could have been struck just last year.

Another fraternity that uses pennies that are very similar to the Royal Arch Penny is the Black Knights of Ireland. This order is connected to the Orange Lodge and often has a square and compass on it similar to the Masonic emblem as well as other symbols. All I have seen have the words "A Piece of Money" and a triangle on them also. These are often listed as Masonic Pennies by mistake.

If you have any Canadian Masonic Pennies and want to know more about them please write and send me a rubbing, especially if they are from Saskatchewan. I am always pleased to hear about them.

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Masonic Chapter Pennies - E.A. King.

L' ORDRE AU MERITE DU DEFRICHEUR

by Ross W. Irwin



The Order of Pioneering Merit was instituted June 21, 1950 by Ministerial Order 734. It established comparable rules to that of the Order of Agricultural Merit but only comprised three regions.

The decoration of Commander is a gold medal bearing ears of wheat between the rays of an eight pointed star; surmounted on the medal is an eight pointed star in Royal blue enamel with gold edges. In the centre is the Coat of Arms of the Province with the motto JE ME SOUVIENS below and four fleur-de-lis at the quarter points in silver. The reverse bears the inscription AU MERITE DU DEFRICHEUR and the letters A.D. Ornamented with ears of wheat. The decoration is suspended from a ring by a blue moire riband with two white stripes.

The decoration for Officer is the same pattern as Commander but is of silver. That of a Knight is similiar but of bronze. Up to 1967 there were about thirty awards made.

L' ORDRE DU MERITE AGRICOLE

by Ross W. Irwin

The Order of "Merite Agricole" was instituted in France July 7, 1883 by Jules Meline, Minister of Agriculture, "pour recompenser les service rendus a 1' agriculture"

Agriculture in the Province of Quebec had declined in quality from 1830 and many residents who had visited France saw the effects of the Order and suggested it be instituted in Quebec. In 1889 Hon. Honore Mercier, Minister of Agriculture visited Europe to study methods for the stimulation of agriculture and saw the advantages of the Order of Merit. On his return to Canada he discussed it with his colleagues and presented a bill to the Legislative Assembly on February 4, 1889 establishing the Order. The bill was passed February 19, 1889.

A Commission was established to formulate rules for the Order. Edward Barnard, the first agronome in Quebec, was chairman. Many of the rules he established in 1878 for a proposed Order were used. The rules were published March 24, 1890.

The Order has three classes: - Commander, Officer and Knight. It does honour to the recipient and to the agricultural community through a fine example they set of successful and prosperous farming. The Order was later extended to include public servants and teachers of agriculture who made significant contributions in some area.

The Province is divided into five regions. Each region is eligible once every five years for competition is sequence. The first region was that of Montreal in 1890. The panel of judges selected 82 year old M. Charles Champagne of St. Eustache as the gold medal Commander. The presentation was in the Legislative Library December 23, 1890.

Any farmer who operates over 60 acres on a full time basis may register for the competition in his region. A panel of four judges chosen from Commanders or Officers of the Order use a score sheet to judge the entire farm and home operation. Winners were presented at a banquet at the Quebec Provincial Exhibition each fall. In addition to the decoration they also receive a Diploma and a cash award.

A Knight must score 750 points out of 1000, an Officer must score 850 points and a Commander must score 900 points. An individual must be promoted in the Order, that is, the Commander must previously have been awarded the silver medal of an Officer.

The current decoration of Commandrr consists of a double star 41mm in diameter with six points, white enamelled and edged in gold, fastened to a garland of gold in the form of a wreath bordered by ears of wheat and adorned with maple leaves; the whole bearing the Coat of Arms of the Province of Quebec on a field of gold. The devices of the escutcheon are enamelled in their official colours. Surrounding the disc is an annulus in blue enamel bearing the words MERITE AGRICOLE in gold letters. In the centre of the reverse is a medal bearing, in letters and figures in relief, without enamel, on a golden field, the inscription FONDE EN 1890; the golden field is surrounded by a circular scroll in blue enamel without inscription.

The decoration is worn from a 38 mm moire neck riband, amaranth in colour with two green stripes.

The decoration of Officer of the Order is the same as that for Commander except it is not enamelled and is entirely of silver. The riband is the same as for Commander.

The decoration of Knight of the Order is the same as that for Commander except it is not enamelled and is entirely of bronze. The riband is the same as for Commander.

There have been 175 Commander gold medals awarded from 1890. The number of silver and bronze medals awarded is not available but they average thirty to thirty-five for each annually. The present awards are made by C. Lamond et Fils, Montreal.

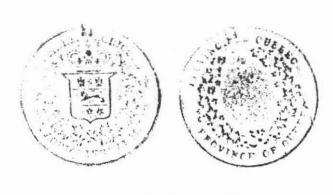
It is not known when the current decorations were designed. The series prior to it was similiar in style but bore a shield type Coat of Arms rather than the current rectangular type. The motto on the obverse reads PROVINCE DE QUEBEC. Between the rays of the star are two maple leaves. The reverse bears a disc bearing the words MERITE AGRICOLE.

In the late 1920s the neck ribbon was introduced, prior to this the award was in the form of a breast medal. The medal is 38 mm is diameter and bears on the obverse the Coat of Arms of Quebec surmounted by a Royal Crown all within a wreath of maple leaves. The legend reads AU MERITE AGRICOLE FOR AGRICULTURAL MERIT. The reverse bears the legend PROVINCE DE QUEBEC PROVINCE OF QUEBEC and a wreath of maple leaves. The recipients name is engraved within the wreath. The edge bears the Caron silver mark, the word STERLING, and the words CYR DUQUET. The suspender is of the scroll type. The ribbon is moire with two green stripes and is suspended from a brooch bearing a beaver to left and engraved with the date of the award.

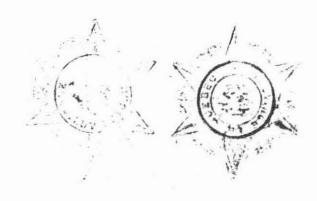
A division of Junior Agricultural Merit was founded in 1909 to encourage sone of farmers to follow in the footsteps of their father. A medal was awarded but it conveyed no title. The obverse design shows the goddess of plenty seated beside the Coat of Arms of Quebec amid a field of agricultural crops. She is holding a laurel wreath over the head of a boy. The Legislative Buildings appear in the background. It is suspended from a ring. The ribbon brooch is rectangular and bears the words MERITE AGRICOLE/JUVENILE. This award appears to have been suspended in the 1940s.



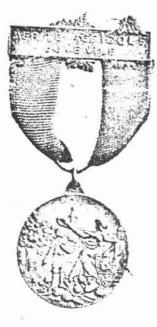
Current Order



Medal used about 1918



Old Style Order (Bronze)



Juvenile Order

Médaille des lauréats du mérite agricole juvénile.





(Some of the illustrations were only available in the form of rubbings, and we appologise for the poor reproduction)

Addendum to the Complete Supplement of Trade and Advertising Tokens of Manitoba

by Donald M. Stewart

	by Donald M. Stewart		
0010A	GENERAL Clean/Car Uniface	A D 24	R1
1045A	CHARLESWOOD Charleswood-in-motion/(Ox and Red River cart)/1870-1970/ Celebrating Manitoba's Centennial/(Airplane) Good for/ \$1.00 in trade/during the year 1970/at any/ participating business/or redeemable for/\$1.00 by the/ Municipality of/Charleswood/until 12 noon/Dec. 31, 1970Antiqued Bz:R:37		
3210d	PORTAGE LA PRAIRIE Brown's Limited/10¢/Portage La Prairie/Man. Good for/ 10¢/in/merchandise	A;0; 20:	R9
3770 A	SELKIRK A.G. McLeod/Baker/(Circle)/Selkirk, Man. Good for/1/loaf/of/bread	A:Sc8:29	R10
3985A	STEINBACH Livingstone/coin-wash/systems Uniface	B:Ow1:24:p(2)	R1
39 87A	Good for/one/super cone at/Grow Sir Uniface	P1w:R:35½	R1
4845A	WINNIPEG Canadian Parking/Equipment/Limited Food for/parking/only	B:R:25	R1
4870A	Chochinov/Dairy/-/made in USA Good for/1 quart/milk	P1g:R:38	R8
5470A	H. Greenberg/Winnipeg,/Man. Good for/5¢/ in trade	A:R:18½	R10
5020c	Same as 6020A but plated in Wm		R6
6295a	(Roof of Carousel with flag flying to left) Uniface (in use at Polo Park Cleaning Carousel)	Z star 6 pts:21(inc)R1
6330a	Red River Ex. 1975.October Fest/(Manisphere Logo)/ Winnipeg Canada Red River Cartwheel/value \$1.00 in/Winnipeg/(convention centre logo)/expires Oct. 15,/1975/Canada's convention city N:R:33		
С	Same but rev. has Oktoberfest symbol Same but rev. has Manitoba Crocus symbol Same but rev. has Upper Fort Garry Gate symbol	R2 R2 R2	

6440i	WINNIPEG cont Royal/Dairy/Wpg./-/made in USA Good for/1 pint/milk	P1k:R:23	R7
j	Royal/Dairy/Wpg/-/made in USA Good for/1 pint/cereal	P1r:R:23	R8
	This coin/worth/\$1.00/on slacks at the/Slack Shop/ 555 Main Street/927-882/made in USA		
6595a	Round & round/she goes/you pay/(arrow)/where she/ stops/nobody knows (a spinner)	A:R:32	R7
665 0 b	Sutherland/Hotel/F. Curry,/Propr. Good for/1/drink	A:R:20	R10
	ADVERTISING		
7800a	BOISSEVAIN Jack Gilling/Jeweller/Boissevain, Man./We buy and/ collect/old firearms/made in USA Round & round/she goes/you pay/)arrow)/ where she/ stops/nobody knows (a spinner)	A:R:32	R 7
7950a	BRANDON C.P.R./Barber Shop/G. Irwin/Prop./ 12-10th St./Brandon,Man. Membership emblem of the don't worry club/ (swastica)/good luck	B:R:32	R10

The writer wishes to acknowledge the considerable contribution of J. Douglas Ferguson and C.E. Parker to the new information contained in this listing.

ADVERTISING COINS

by Donald M. Stewart

A neglected field of study in Canadian Numismatics is that of advertising coins. These are Canadian coins to which have been affixed printed messages. A listing of a few examples may serve to create some interest in this series.

Montreal, Que.

Ichi Ban Montreal Toronto

1¢ 1888

Listed in 1892 Montreal Directory as wholesale and retail showrooms, representing the arts of the Japanese Empire.

Assiniboia, Sask.

Assiniboia Black Top "Hop" Sept. 26, '59

\$1.00 1959

A dance was held to commemorate the completion of paving of the main street.

Cardston, Alta.

Cardston's Collossal Dollar Days Feb. 26-7-8

\$1.00 1959

Lacombe, Alta.

Silver Dollar Rentals Phone 782-3209 Lacombe

\$1.00 1966

Cranbrook .. B.C.

Cranbrook B.C. Chamber of Commerce Armond Theatre Gateway to the Scenic Kootenays

\$1.00 1963

One unidentified but cheerful piece is the familiar "Smile" symbol of two eyes and a curved mouth attached to a 1974 cent.

The writer is much obliged to Warren Baker for the information about the Ichi Ban piece.

Third Addenda to

THE DAIRY TOKENS OF ONTARIO (A tentative listing)

by Ken Palmer

The first listings in this series were contained in issues 2, 3, 4 of Vol. 6, 1970. The first addenda appeared in issue 4 of Vol. 9, 1973, and the second addenda appeared in issue 3 of Vol. 10, 1974.

CHAPLEAU

Algoma/Dairy/Chapleau

600d for/1 quart/homo/milk

P1b:R:313

COLLINGWOOD

Potts'/Bros./Dairy

Good for/1/quart milk

A:MC:413X42 T.H. red

Potts'/Dairy/Collingwood/Ontario

Skimmed/milk/one quart/Phone 589

P1r:R:38

FORT WILLIAM

Klomp's/Dairy/Fort/William

Good for/1 pint/milk

Plg:R:28 C.H.

Wakefield's/Dairy/Phone/47 McIntyre

Good/for/1 pint/milk

Plr:R:28 C.H.

HAILEYBURY

Ideal Dairy/Haileybury

Good for/1/quart/skim milk Good for/3/gallon/homo milk Good for/1/gallon 2% homo

A: CH:415X42 blue A:BH:32½X33 H. brown A:BH:32½X33 H. green

IROQUOIS FALLS

Hillcrest Dairy/Iroquois/Falls

Good for/2/quarts/2% homo (gal)

A:BH:41½X42 BH green

Hillcrest Dairy/CRC/Iroquois/Falls

Good for/3/qts./homo milk

A:BH:412X42 BH gold Good for/3/qts./2%/milk A:BH:4112X42 BH

KIRKLAND LAKE

Archers Dairy Limited/Kirkland/Lake, Ont.

Good for/1/quart/of 2% milk

A:TR:32X34 H green

LITTLE BRITAIN

Cedar Dell/Dairy/W.E. Wickett/Little Britain

Good I for/pint/tuberculin tested/milk

A:Re:32X19

NORTH BAY

Eplett/Dairies Co./Limited/North Bay/Ont.

Good for/1/homo/pitcher pac Good for/1/2%/pitcher pac

A:BH:32½X33 mauve A:BH:325X33 gold

North Bay/Dairy/Phone 238/North Bay Ont.

Good for/1/quart milk(c/s- "J")

A:CH:34X36 red

SAULT STE. MARIE

Soo Dairies Ltd./Tel./Al.6-9321/Sault/Ste Marie

Good for/1/quart (tall "I")

A:TR:34X311/2 BH RS gold

Soo Dairies Ltd./Tel./256-9321/Sault/Ste. Marie

Good for/1/gallon/homo milk

A:TR:34X311/2 TH RS blue

TORONTO

A. Anderson/Telephone/Main 1777/209 McCaul St./-/Toronto

Good for/1/pint milk (star before & after "good for")

B:R:25

Wm. Henry/1/pint/milk (c/s "void")

Pritchard & Andrews - Ottawa

A:R:25

Wm.Henry/1/quart/milk (c/s "void")

Pritchard & Andrews - Ottawa

A:R:28

WALLACEBURG

Jersey Dairy/Wallaceburg/Ont./Tel. 1057

Good for/1/quart (tall "I")

A:Tr:41X37 TH

The following collectors assisted substantially in providing the information contained in this addenda : J.D. Ferguson, G. Holt, D.Smith and A. Weighell.

Second Addenda to

THE BAKERY TOKENS OF ONTARIO (A tentative listing)

by Ken Palmer

This listing started in Vol. 7 issue 2 for April, 1971. The first addenda appeared in Vol. 8, issue 2, April, 1972.

BOWMANVILLE

D. Luttrell,/Baker/Bowmanville

Good for/one/half/loaf of bread

A:Sc8:29

CAMPBELLFORD

H. Shaw./Baker/and/Confectioner/Campbellford,Ont.

Good for/one/loaf of bread

A:Re:32X19

H. Shaw/Baker/and/Confectioner/Campbellford/Ont.

Good for/one/half/loafof bread

A:S:23

COLDWATER

E.Leece/Baker &/Confectioner/Coldwater...Ont.

Good for/one/loaf

A:Re: 32X19

COLLINGWOOD

Brown Bros./Leading/Bakers/&/Confectioners/Collingwood,Ont.

Good for/1/loaf of bread

A:Sc4:333

DUNNVILLE

J.E. Griffin/General/and/Fancy/Grocery/Dunnville,Ont.

Good for/1/loaf of bread

A:0v:30X22

FOREST

E.Rumford/Baker &/Confectioner/Forest,Ont.

Good for/one/loaf of bread

A:Re:32X19

GERALDTON

Geraldton/Bakery

Good for/1/loaf of bread

A:Re:32X19

GUELPH

A.Burbridge- - one half loaf

(A:Re)

Not seen

KEMPTVILLE

J.A. Eager/Baker/Kemptville (two stars)

Good for/1/loaf of braad Good for/1/loaf of bread A:R:25

A:Sc8:29

J.A. Eager/Baker/Kemptville, Ont.

Good for/1/loaf of bread (two stars)

A:Re:32X191/2

B.J. Frisby/Baker/Kemptville (two dots)

Good for/1/loaf of bread

A:Sc9:27

A. Robinson/Baker

Good for/1/loaf of bread

A:Sc4:28

KEMPTVILLE cont. A.Robinson/Baker/Kemptville,Ont. Good for/1/loaf of bread (two stars) A:Re:33X20 KENORA City/Bakery/Kenoro. Good for/one/loaf A:R:29 KINGSTON H. Lougher/baker/Kingston Good for/1/loaf of bread A:0c:29 LONDON F.E. Leavens/Baker Good for/1/loaf of bread A:R:25 LUCAN Strassers/Bakery/Lucan. Good for/1/loaf of bread A:Re:32X19 LYNDEN Robbins/Babery/Lynden/Phone No. 6. (error) Good for/1/loaf of bread A:S:23 MERRITTON Richardson's/Bakery/Merritton Good for/1/loaf of bread A:0c:27 NAPANEE Caton's/Bakery good for/one/half/loaf bread A:R:25 W.A. Steacy./Baker &/Confectioner/Napanee. Good for/one/half/loaf bread A:0c:24 NORWOOD Norwood Bakery - - - - 1 loaf (A:0c) not seen B.Slinn/1/loaf/Pritchard & Andrews Ottawa Victoria Bakery/and Confectionery/549 Bank St./ & New/Edinboro A:R:28 PETERBORO Lane's Bakery - - - 1/2 loaf B: not seen ST. CATHARINES W.J. Foley/Baker/St. Catharines. Good for/12/loaf of bread A:Sc6"23X19 (This token has a scallop removed from both top and bottom to indicate a change in price)

Good for/one loaf bread

A:R:25

J.W. Horton Good for/1/loaf

Wright's/Bread

B:0c:28

SIOUX LOOKOUT

Sioux Lookout/Bakery/A. Belluz prop.

Good for/1/loaf of bread

SOUTH PORCUPINE

Dominion/Bakery/So. Porcupine

Good for/1/loaf of bread A:Re:32X19

Good for/1/loaf of bread (no serif on bottom of "I")

A:Re:32X19

A:Re:32X19

Golden/North/Bakery

Good for/1/loaf of bread A: Re:32X19

Good for/one/loaf of bread A:Re:32X19

Northland/Baking Co.

Good for/1/loaf of bread A:S:23

TIMMINS

Schumacher/Bakery/Timmins,Ont.

Good for/1/loaf of bread A:Re:33X19

Timmins Bakery/81/Sixth/Ave. Timmins, Ont.

Good for/1/loaf of bread A:Oc:26

The assistance of the fo llowing collectors is gratefully acknowledged: J.D. Ferguson, W.D. Ham, J.E. Roberts, R.Stewart, D.Smith, B. Uman, A.Weighell and N. Wells.

ODDS AND ENDS

- 1. Our Annual Breakfast Meeting will be held on Thursday morning, July 8th at 08:30 hours at the Chateau Laurier Hotel.
- 2. Volume 11 of the Transactions is still available from your Editor.
- 3. Due to our Annual Meeting being held early in July this year it is very important that your manuscripts for the July Transactions be submitted at the earliest possible. We would like the Transactions to be in your hands before leaving for the convention.
- 4. After cutting close to sixty (60) stencils for this issue of the Transactions, all I have left on both hands are a few stubbs. Since most of you send in typewritten manuscripts, why not send in a cut stencil? This might help the stubbs to grow back in. It's worth thinking about.

TRANSACTIONS

of

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Leslie C. Hill

Ralph R. Burry

Ralph R. Burry

Donald M. Stewart

15 St. 4

j. .

THE USE OF SPANISH COINS IN CANADA

by R.C. Willey, F.R.N.S.

INTRODUCTION

Spain, early in the sixteenth century, found herself in possession of the then known world's largest deposits of silver and gold. Mexico and Peru yielded the precious metals in hitherto unheard-of quantities. Rather than ship the metal in the raw state to Spain, it was decided to coin it in America and send the coins to Spain. The impact of such enormous quantities of raw wealth on the life of Europe is well known. Western Europe grew rich at the expense of Spain, and it took a century or more for the European currencies to stabilise again.

The mint at Mexico City was established by Real Cédula of 1535, and silver coinage began in 1536 ¹. Silver coinage began at Lima in 1568 ² and Potosi in 1574 ³. A mint was opened at Santa Fé de Bogotá in 1627 ⁴, silver being coined the same year. Gold was coined at Santa Fé de Bogotá in 1633, but its coinage was not permitted elsewhere till 1675 ⁵, when it began to be coined in Mexico. Lima began coining gold in 1696 ⁶. Gold was coined from newly opened mints at Guatemala in 1751 ⁷, Santiage de Chile in 1749, and Popayán in 1749. Potosi did not coin gold before 1778 ⁸.

The production from these mints eventually appeared all over the world. Spanish money was known in Newfoundland from the late sixteenth century, and entered the other British colonies early in the seventeenth. New France became acquainted with Spanish money in the course of clandestine trade with the Dutch and British colonies, and eventually had to fix its value in terms of French money once it was realised that Spanish coins had come to New France to stay. By 1650 Spanish coins dominated the currencies of all European colonies in America.

References

- 1...Burzio: Humberto F.: Diccionario de la Moneda Hispanoamericana. 1958. Vol. II p. 47
- 2...Ibid. Vol. I p. 288
- Ibid. Vol. II p.221
- 4...Ibid. Vol II pp. 312,313
- 5...Ibid.Vol. II p.88
- 6...Ibid. Vol.I p.312
- 7...Ibid. Vol.I p. 246
- 8...Ibid. Vol. II pp. 211,267,338

PART I THE COINS

The Spanish monetary system was based on the silver real, which was divided into 8½ copper cuartos or 34 maravedis. In the reign of Charles I and Juana the system was organised to provide for the coinage of multiple pieces in silver and gold. The silver peso was created equal to 8 reales, and the gold escudo was coined at two pesos or sixteen reales. Multiples of the escudo were also coined, the largest being the doubloon or onza of 8 escudos, 16 pesos, or 128 reales.

The Doubloon

This coin was authorised to be coined in the New World by Real Cédula of February 25, 1675, coinage beginning in Mexico about 1678 ¹. Lima began coining it in 1696 ², Bogotá in 1744, Santiago de Chile in 1749, Guatemala in 1751, Popayán in 1758, and Potosi in 1778 ³. The weight of the doubloon was alwaus 417.6 grains. Its initial fineness was 916 2/3, which it retained till 1772. In that year the fineness was lowered to 901.04, which it retained till 1786. The final fineness was 875, which it retained from 1786 till the end of Spanish rule on the American mainland ⁴. The doubloon was known by this name in the British North American colonies. In Spain and Spanish America it was called a doblón de a ocho or onza.

The first doubloon were cobs, called Macuquinos by the Spaniards. They were produced by slicing pieces of nearly the prescribed weight from a nearly round bar of gold, clipping or filing the pieces to the proper weight, and stamping them with the design. This hasty technique endured till 1756, Bogotá being the last mint to coin gold in this crude fashion.

The cob doubloons of Mexico and Bogotá bear the Spanish arms with the Royal Titles on the obverse, with a cross of Jerusalem in a circle on the reverse. The cobs of Lima show on the obverse a cross of Jerusalem cantoned with lions and castles, in a circle, with the Royal Titles. Their reverse shows the Pillars of Hercules rising from the waves, within a circle, with the value, date, and mint marks.

The Real Cédula of June 9, 1728 ⁵, the bust type was ordered. Mexico began to coin it in 1732, Lima following in 1751 and Bogotá in 1756. The newer mints of Guatemala, Popayán, and Santiago de Chile coined only the bust type. Potosi began to coin it in 1778. These coins bear on the obverse a bust of the king to right, with the Royal Titles. The reverse has a crowned shield of arms of Spain with a collar of the Order of the Golden Fleece, surrounded by a motto. Under Philip V and early in the reign of Ferdinand VI the motto is TIMOR DOMINI INITIUM SAPIENTIAE (The fear of the Lord in the beginning of wisdom). Ferdinand VI later adopted MAGNA NOMINA SEQUOR (I follow great names), and this motto was continued by Carlos III. CarlosIII later changed it to IN URTOQUE FELIX AUSPICE DEO (Happy in both worlds under the protection of God), this motto being retained by Carlos IV and Ferdinand VII. After the independence of Mexico and Central and South America was won, the doubloons of the republics, called patriot doubloons, found their way into British North America, and became acceptable when it was found that their quality was not diminished.

The Pistole

The quarter doubloon, or pistole, was a very useful gold coin in Colonial North America. The Spaniards called it a dobla, a doblón de a dos, a doblón sencillo, or a pistola. The French called it a pistole, and passed the word on in this form to the English. It was worth two escudos, four pesos, or thirty-two reales plata, and was the first gold coin of the New World.

Bogotá was the first mint to coin the pistole, in 1633 6. Mexico did not begin coining it till about 1679, and Lima not till 1698 7. These early pistoles are cobs, of the same design as their corresponding doubloons. Bust types corresponding to the doubloons appeared from Mexico and Popayán in 1732, Lima in 1751, Santiago de Chile in 1758, and Potosi in 1778. The pistole weighed 104.4 grains, and was of the fineness of the doubloon.

The Piece of Eight

The most important Spanish silver coin came to be the piece of eight. In the British colonies it was known by many names: the piece of eight, the cob (before 1732), the hard dollar, the Spanish dollar, the pillar dollar, or simply a dollar. New France knew it as the piastre espagnol. The Spaniards gave it nore names than the English, officially as well as otherwise. It was known as a peso, a peso fuerte, a peso grueso, a duro, a piastra, and occasionally as a patagon.

The first pieces of eight were coined in Mexico in 1556 ⁸, with Lima following in 1568 ⁹ and Potosi in 1574 and Bogotá in 1627 ¹⁰. These early coins are cobs, called in Spanish Macuquinos. The process of minting was evidently invented by one Miguel de la cerda ¹¹. The metal was formed into bars of roughly circular cross-section and the bars sliced into discs of nearly the proper weight. The discs were then reduced to the proper weight and stamped with the design. It was a rapid, crude process, resulting in the production of enormous quantities of coins of irregular shape and seldom showing a complete design.

The earliest cobs show a crowned shield of the Spanish arms in a circle on the obverse, with the Royal titles and mint marks and value. A Greek cross, cantoned with the lions and castles, within a tressure of eight lobes. After 1652 a pillar design appeared from the South American mints, in consequence of the famous Rocha scandal at the mint of Potosi, where adulteration of the coinage had been in progress for several years on a staggering scale 12. An investigation was held in 1647 into As a result the mayor of Potosi was garroted, the chief the affairs of the mint. assayer of the mint was hanged, and many others imprisoned and heavily fined. By Real Cédula of 1651 a change in design was ordered to restore confidence in the products of the South American mints. The earlier Potosi coins were recalled and melted down, those escaping the melting pot being reduced to six reales or five according to their date, the more recent containing more alloy 13. This second design bears on the obverse a cross potent, cantoned with the lions and castles, in a tressure of eight lobes, with the Royal Titles. The reverse shows the Pillars of Hercules rising from the waves, in a circle, with the legend PLUS ULTRA (usually abbreviated), the value, date, and mint marks. This design was used by Lima and Potosi. The Bogotá mint combined the original obverse with a pillar design very closely resembling that used on the earliest Mexican silver before Mexico coined pieces of eight.

During this early period the peso weighed 423.9 grains and was struck in 930.5 fine silver. By Real Cedula of 1728 the standard was reduced to 417.6 grains 916 2/3 fine ¹⁴. This being the weight and fineness of a gold doubloon at this time, the famous ratio of gold to silver of sixteen to one was established. The beautiful "dos mundos" design was authorised at this time, but it did not appear before 1732, when Mexico introduced it to the world. Guatemala began to coin cobs in the "dos mundos" design in 1733, and not until 1754 did this mint coin them on round flans, as the design called for. The South American mints coined cobs of the old design but according to the new standard for many years afterward. Santiago de Chile adopted the new design in 1751, Lima in 1752, Bogota in 1759, and Potosi finally in 1767.

In 1772 the "dos mundos" design was replaced by the bust types so well known in the Canadian colonies. At the same time the fineness of the coinage was reduced to 902.7 and remained at this proportion of silver until 1786. In 1786 the fineness was lowered to 895.832 and remained thus to the end of Spanish rule in the American mainland ¹⁵. The bust type was coined under Carlos III, Carlos IV, and Ferdinand VII, the first mints to adopt it being Mexico City, Guatemala, Lima, and Potosi in 1772. Santiago de Chile began to coin the bust type in 1773 and Popayan in 1808. A number of mints, created because of the struggle in Mexico for independence, also coined this type. These mints are Chihuahua, which opened in 1810; Zacatecas, which opened in 1811; and Guadalajara, Durango, and Guanaxuato, which opened in 1812. The last bust type coinage was from Potosi in 1825.

The Pistareen

This name was given in the British colonies in America to what was to become a very troublesome coin, the quarter peso New Plate. The quarter peso was called by the Spaniards a real de a dos, from its tariff of two reales plata. New Plate, as the English called it, was a reduced standard adopted in Spain in 1642 and not intended for the New World, where the original standard (Old Plate) remained in use. It began in 1642, when Philip IV, who needed money, reduced the standard of the Spanish peninsular silver coinage ¹⁶. Carlos II, by Pragmatica of October 14, 1686, further lowered the standard so that it was 25% lower than the original standard still in use in America ¹⁷. The new peninsular standard was called plata nueva or plata provincial. The original standard was called plata vieja, plata antigua, or plata nacional. A peso or duro was worth eight reales plata wieja or ten reales plata nueva.

The War of the Spanish Succession brought changes in the fineness of the quarter peso in Spain ¹⁸. In 1706 it was 833 1/3 fine, but from 1709 it was 916 1/3 fine, falling again to 833 1/3 by 1716. The weight was also reduced. The results of contemporary assays reported in Chalmers ¹⁹ show values of 84 grains 908 fine for a pistareen of the Archduke Charles of Austria, whose claims to the Spanish throne were eventually given up by him if favour of Philip V, while assays for coins of Philip V show values 94.6 to 96 grains 833 1/3 to 842 fine, with one of 1721 assaying at 88.5 grains 812.5 fine.

When this lowered standard became known in the New World, it was not long before its "commercial possibilities" were appreciated by those who interested themselves in ways to make money without earning it. Thus the pistareen, worth a fifth of a dollar in America, was passed into circulation in enormous quantities as an "unpillared" quarter dollar. In truth it was unpillared, and in truth a quarter dollar, but of plata nueva of Spain, not of Spanish-American plata vieja. Vainly did Colonial governments legislate against its use. It turned up in all the Canadian colonies, and unwise currency enactments often made it the cheapest tender in silver, which drove all other silver coins almost completely out of circulation whenever this happened. Not till after 1830 was the pistareen eliminated from circulation in North'America.

Copper Coinage

Copper was coined in large quantities in Spain, but its role in the New World under Spanish rule was insignificant. Mexico coined copper in 1542 and till 1552, but it was of too little purchasing power, and the Indians simply threw the coins into the lake. Santo Domingo coined it at the same time, and the course fabric of the coins made them unpopular, and they were demonetised in 1573. After this time it played no part in the economic life of Spanish America. In later times some Spanish copper pieces of 2 cuartos passed for halfpennies in Lower Canada.

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A Mexican cob of Philip II





A Potosi cob of Philip V



A "dos mundos" dollar 1741





A portrait dollar of Carlos III 1774





A cob doubloon of Philip V, Lima





A Pistole of Carlos III, 1762





A doubloon of Ferdinand VI, 1751





A doubloon of Ferdinand VII 1800





A pistole of Carlos IV, 1793

PART II THE FRENCH REGIME

The earliest reference to Spanish coins in Canada is in an Order of the Sovereign Council of Quebec, proclained on March 20, 1662 ¹. Under its terms the gold pistole was to pass current for fourteen livres thirteen sols four deniers and the escudo for seven livres six sols eight deniers. The peso duro was to circulate at three livres seventeen sols, its subdivisions in proportion, and the patagon at three livres twelve sols, its subdivisions in proportion. The patagon, called a petacoon in the English colonies at that time, is probably the piece of eight minted in Potosi before 1652.

In 1681 the Superior Concil at Quebec ordered ² that Spanish dollars of full weight should circulate at three livres nineteen sols one denier. If deficient in weight, their value was to be reduced by eleven sols for each dram of deficiency in weight. Spanish silver was becoming rather plentiful in New France, evidently, and much of it light in weight, for in 1683 it was ordered by the Superior Council ³ that all Spanish coins of silver were to be brought in to be countermarked with a fleur de lys to pass for four livres per dollar, the subdivisions in proportion. Any coins light in weight were to receive an additional counterstamp of a Roman numeral I, II, III, or IIII, according as they might be deficient by a sixteenth, an eighth, sixteenths, or a quarter of their proper weight. Any coins having lost more than a quarter of their weight were to be withdrawn from circulation.

It would seem according to the surviving documents of the period that there was little or no trouble in circulating the countermarked dollars ⁴, for no evidence appears of any significant resistance to their circulation. These countermarked coins are, however, one of the great mysteries of Canadian numismatics, for no specimens have survived. If it were ordered by the king that they were to be withdrawn at once because of a violation of the law or a breach of the Royal Prerogative, no documentary evidence has turned up to prove it. They may have been undervalued and consequently melted down privately, and yet we have no proof that this happened either. No evidence has turned up to show that they were exported to the British colonies or to France.

Countermarked or not, Spanish coins continued to trickle into France and her colonies, and in 1726 the disposal of Spanish coins was provided for in the Edict which authorised the recoinage of that year in France 5. Both gold and silver were to be purchased by the mints by weight, gold to be bought at 492 livres per marc from January, 485 livres per marc from May, 478 livres per marc from August, and 464 livres per marc from September 1726. Spanish silver was to be bought at 33 livres 10 sols per marc from May 1726, 33 livres from August, and 32 livres from September. The "new Mexican dollars" were to be bought at 33 livres 6 sols per marc from May 1726, 32 livres 16 sols from August, and 31 livres 15 sols 8 deniers from September. This was a means by which the French government was able to obtain bullion, and the colonies all received copies of this and earlier Edicts such as that of 1723 6, which ordered the sale of foreign coin to the mints.

In a report written in 1758, it is stated ⁷ that illicit trade with the English colonies brought in a certain quantity of Spanish dollars which were sought after for trade with the West Indies. Merchants were prepared to buy them at five livres five sols apiece because they were preferable to the paper ordinances which were flooding New France in its last days. At the time of the fall of Quebec, Spanish dollars must have been worth this amount or more, for in November 1859 Gen. Murray decreed the dollar to be worth six livres ⁸, thus paving the way for the Ordinance which established Proclamation Money to be the standard at Quebec five years later.

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PART III OUEEN ANNE'S PROCLAMATIONS

In the British colonies of America, the Spanish dollar circulated ar various rates, to the great inconvenience of intercolonial and overseas trade. At the beginning of the eighteenth century it was valued at 6/- currency in Massachusetts, 6/9 in New York, 7/8 in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, 4/6 in Maryland, and 5/- in Virginia and the Carolinas. Sir Isaac Newton, then Master of the Royal Mint, established the value of the Spanish dollar to be 4/6 sterling 2. By Proclamation of Queen Anne of June 18, 1704 3, the Spanish dollar of 4/6 sterling was fixed at 6/- local currency, which was considered a fair value, and rated other silver coins as well according to the following schedule:

		Sterling	Local
Sevill Pieces of Eight, Old Plate	420 grains	4/6	6/-
Sevill Pieces of Eight, New Plate	336 grains	3/74	4/8
Mexico Pieces of Eight	420 grains	4/6	6/-
Pillar Pieces of Eight	420 grains	4/6 3/4	6/-
Peru Pieces of Eight, Old Plate	420 grains	4/5	6/-
Cross Dollars	432 grains	4/4 3/4	6/-
Ducatoons of Flanders	501 grains	5/6	7/4
French Ecus or Silver Lewis	420 grains	4/6	6/-
Three Guilder Pieces of Holland	487 grains	5/21/4	6/11
Old Rix Dollars of the Empire	442 grains	4/6	6/-
Crusadoes of Portugal	268 grains	2/10号	3/9 3/4

"Sevill pieces of eight" are Spanish dollars from the peninsular mints of Spain, "Old Plate" meaning the original standard or plata vieja. "New Plate" means plata nueva, the depreciated peninsular standard introduced by Philip IV. "Mexico pieces of eight" are dollars minted in Mexico, always treated separately from South American dollars after the famous Potosi Mint scandal. "Pillar pieces of eight" are all round dollars of South America, showing the Pillars of Hercules. "Peru pieces of eight, Old Plate" are south American dollars with a cross "Like the arms of a windmill". These pieces are cobs. "Cross Dollars" are South American cobs showing a plain Greek cross, coined before the Potosi fraud was exposed. Ducatoons of Flanders are silver crowns struck for use in the Spanish Netherlands, current there at thirty stuivers. French ecus or "Silver Lewis" are the ecus of the period of 1642 to 1704.

"Three Guilder pieces of Holland" are the coins of this denomination struck by the mints of the United Netherlands. Old Rix Dollars of the Empire are the German reichsthalers struck before the disastrous inflation of the Thirty Years' War. Crusadoes of Portugal are silver pieces of 400 reis, introduced by John IV. They were countermarked to pass at 500 reis later in the reign. Pedro II issued a new crusado of 480 reis in 1688, and John V returned to the original value in 1706.

Under the terms of the Proclamation of 1704, the rating of the dollar was not to exceed six shillings local currency in any of the mainland colonies. The Proclamation was generally ignored, since its terms would alter the bases of most of the colonial currencies if observed. The attitudes in North America were reported in the course of time, and an Act of Parliement in 1707 forbade the use of dollars and foreign silver at any rate other than that laid down in 1704, regardless of any colonial laws or customs or usage to the contrary. Penalties were prescribed for violation of the Act, but all was futile, the Act becoming to all intents and purposes a dead letter within a few years. Neverthe less the Act and Proclamation was on the books during the remainder of the American colonial period. In Nova Scotia the Proclamation was repealed when Halifax Currency was established as the local currency 5. In Canada it was abolished in 1777 6.

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PART IV SPANISH COINS IN CANADA, 1759-1867

After the fall of Quebec, the Spanish dollar was rated equivalent to the French ecu of six livres ¹. Spanish dollars had been brought into Quebec by merchants and traders who followed the British troops to Canada, where the ecu had been the principal silver coin. When the Conquest was confirmed in 1763 by the Treaty of Paris, there was a rather influential mercantile community in both Quebec and Montreal, composed in both cities of English and American immigrants come to seek their fortune. Those of Quebec had come from Nova Scotia for the most part, and were familiar with Halifax Currency. Those of Montreal had come mostly from New York, and had introduced York Currency into their dealings, whereby the Spanish dollar was rated at 8/- ². As a further complication, the cutting of dollars into aliquot parts to provide change had begun in a small way in Montreal ³. It was clearly necessary for some regulation of the currency to be instituted, and the military government was quick to act.

The legal standard, and the only legal one in the eyes of the Imperial authorities, was that of Queen Anne's Proclamation of 1704. This, over the protests of the merchants, was adopted by the government, and an Ordinance was issued on Sept. 14, 1764 fixing the dollar at 6/- currency in the colony of Quebec and all territories dependent thereon, which meant all the Canadian colonies. The cutting or mutilation in any way of coins was forbidden by the Ordinance.

Proclamation Money, as this standard was called, rated the dollar at 6/- currency, the pistareen at 14d, the pistole at 1,1/-, and the doubloon at 4,4/- currency. Under this unpopular Ordinance, gold was underrated and soon became scarce. The merchants preferred to ignore the Ordinance, and a further Ordinance 5 was issued on May 15, 1765 requiring all transactions to be on the basis of 6/- to the dollar. It further provided that all transactions on any other bases would be null and void "to all intents and purposes whatsoever". which meant that none such would be admissible in or enforceable by any court of law or equity. This angered the mercantile community, who began to petition for the recall of Governor Murray, which took place in 1766. Nevertheless these objectionable clauses remained in effect till 1768, when it was repealed because it failed to do what was intended, impeding the course of trade instead.

In 1767 the Quebec merchants began to petition for the adoption of Halifax Currency, which rated the dollar at 5/-. Differences of opinion between Montreal and Quebec merchants prevented any action being taken till after the Quebec Act was passed in 1774. By this time the American Revolution, had begun, New York was in rebellion ultimately to become a part of the United States, and most of the merchants of Montreal were in sympathy with the colonies in rebellion. Accordingly the wishes of the Quebec merchants carried the day , and in 1777 an Ordinance was issued lowering the dollar to 5/-, thus introducing Halifax Currency to Canada. Under the terms of this Ordinance the dollar was at 5/-, the pistole at 18/-, and the doubloon at 3,12/- currency. Penalties for impairment of coins in any way were greatly increased, which effectively ended all attempts to introduce cut or counterstamped coins in Canada. Gold was still underrated and remained scarce. Spanish dollars and other silver soon displaced British silver, which was underrated also. The pistareen, which ras rated at 1/- in 1777, failed to displace French silver despite its lower fineness because of the preference of the French of Quebec for the old French coinage.

In 1791 the colony of Quebec was divided into the colonies of Upper and Lower Canada. Both colonies regulated the currency in the same manner in 1796, seeking to correct the undervaluation of gold. By these Acts the Spanish doubloon was tariffed at 3,14/- and the pistole at 18/3. Silver was untouched, the dollar remaining at 5/-

and the pistareen at 1/-. The Acts of 1796 provided for the handling of Spanish gold in bulk, i.e., by weight. In payments of £50 or more, it could be tendered at £4,7/- per ounce, with a deduction of 2½d per grain loss of weight of each coin.

The ratings of gold were still not accurately fixed, and it therefore remained scarce. Lower Canada revised its tariffs in 1808 and Upper Canada the following year. The doubloon was raised in both colonies to \$3,14/6 and the pistole to 18/9. By weight, Spanish gold tendered in payments of \$50 or more was worth \$4,7/8½ per ounce, deducting 2 1/5d per grain loss of weight per coin. Silver was again untouched.

The legal currency standard of each colony was Halifax Currency, whereby the dollar was valued at 5/-, but in Upper Canada York Currency was used as an alternate standard. This standard, with the dollar at 8/-, was that of New York before 1792, and was brought by United Empire Loyalists who came from New York to Upper Canada. The silver real, which was an eighth of a dollar, went for a shilling by this standard and therefore was called a York shilling. A pound York Currency was 12/6 Halifax currency. The double standard remained in Upper Canada till 1821, when York Currency was abolished. After 1821 no debts or obligations contracted in York Currency were permitted to bear interest ⁸.

In 1819 Lower Canada permitted the use of French metric gold and silver coins, and Spanish dollars and gold were soon replaced by 5 franc pieces and gold napoleons. Upper Canada continued to use Spanish coins till reunion in 1841. In 1825 an Imperial Order-in-Council was passed to introduce sterling currency throughout the British Empire, the Spanish dollar being valued at 4/4 sterling. It was a failure in Canada because the Spanish dollar was rated at 5/- currency, which meant that British silver was rated too high to remain in circulation. By Imperial Order-in-Council of 1838, the Order of 1825 was revoked as regards the Canadian and West Indian colonie.

After 1815 the colonies were being flooded with pistareens, which became the cheapest tender in silver because of their lower standard. A report of 1827 by the United States Mint on their intrinsic value showed that the pistareen was really worth only 17¢ instead of 20¢. Lower Canada reduced its value in circulation to 10d, while Upper Canada demonetised the coin altogether. The Halifax shilling, as the pistareen was often called, began to disappear from circulation, and within ten years the long career of the "unpillared quarter" was ended.

In 1841 Upper and L ower Canada were reunited into the Province of Canada, and all currency Acts of both colonies were repealed and replaced by a new Act of 1841 which valued the Spanish, American, and all kinds of Mexican and South American dollars at 5/1 Halifax Currency. Spanish gold was acceptable by weight at £4,9/7 per ounce in payments of £50 or more. The American dollar being lighter than the Spanish and Mexican dollars, it gradually displaced all other dollars from circulation, so that by 1850 the United States silver dollar became the standard of value. The extra penny added to the value of all kinds of dollars in 1841 became a nuisance, and hampered dealings with the other colonies. Consequently the dollar was reduced to 5/- in 1850. By this time the Spanish dollar had practically disappeared from circulation in Canada.

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PART V
THE USE OF SPANISH COINS IN NEW BRUNSWICK

New Brunswick separated from Nova Scotia in 1784, and inherited Halifax Currency, which was formally adopted in the Currency Act of 1786. Chalmers, in his "History of Currency in the British Colonies", provides an excellent summary on pages 192-194 of the development of the New Brunswick currency from its beginning to the union with Canada.

Under the terms of the Act of 1786, the Spanish dollar was rated at 5/- and the pistareen became New Brunswick's shilling, excluding everything else of similar size on account of its lower standard. Gold was scarce as it was undervalued in terms of silver. In 1805 amother Act sought to rectify this by rating the doubloon at $\int 3,14/-$ and the pistole at 18/6, and outlawing the use of plugged gold coins. Spanish gold, if tendered by weight, was to be worth $\int 4,7/-$ an ounce, with a deduction of $2\frac{1}{4}$ a grain loss of weight of each coin tendered. These regulations were not accurate enough, and gold remained scarce.

In 1821 a new Act rated all kings of dollars at 5/-, which had the effect of making the lighter American dollar the standard, About this time it was realised that other dollars were undervalued, for, according to J.S. Martell in his "Documentary Study of Provincial Finance and Currency 1812-36", New Brunswick raised the Spanish dollar to 5/3 but "were glad to retrace their steps" (p. 19 note 67). A Judgement of the Supreme Court of Newfoundland in 1823 alludes to New Brunswick's having rated the dollar at 5/4.

Whatever the rating , the Assembly evidently lowered it to 5/- by 1828, when pistareens were being accepted in trade at 10d each, or six to the dollar, and acceptable tender only to 5/- or one dollar. Within a few years the pistareen was out of circulation. In 1843 all kinds of dollars were rated at 5/-, definitely making the American dollar the standard. Spanish and other dollars were rare after 1850, and eagles replaced doubloons.

PART VI THE USE OF SPANISH COINS IN NOVA SCOTIA

Spanish coins did not enter Nova Scotia until after Acadia was ceded by France to Great Britain in 1713. In the early period before the founding of Halifax, the standard of Boston was adopted, whereby the Spanish dollar was rated at 6/- currency. This was also the value fixed by Queen Anne's Proclamation of 1704 for general colonial use. As time progressed, merchants were attempting to lower the value of coins in circulation in order to reap a profit in sending them to Boston. It became necessary in 1730 1 to issue a Proclamation fixing the Boston rating as the official standard in order to bring this practice to an end.

During this period the Massachusetts currency was being depreciated because of the over-issue of paper, and in 1746 the Council at Annapolis Royal ordered that the Spanish pistole be rated at £2 Boston Currency 2, which meant that the Spanish dollar was worth 10/- in the depreciated paper of the time. Depreciation continued until the local currency, tied as it was to Boston Currency, fell to 91% below sterling. This was the depth to which matters had sunk by 1748, when Massachusetts was urged by the British government to redeem its paper. This was begun with British help in 1749.

In 1749, the year of the foundation of Halifax, the local currency was once again on the Boston or Proclamation standard whereby the Spanish dollar was worth 6/-currency or 4/6 sterling 3. Governor Cornwallis, however, could not obtain Spanish dollars at less than 5/- sterling apiece, and his willingness to pay 5/- for a 4/6 coin shows the desperate need of the government for hard money 4. More Spanish dollars entered Nova Scotia because of trade with the West Indies, but still they could be got for ho less than 5/- apiece. The merchants and the public began accepting dollar as this value, and it was very soon established that a dollar in Halifax meant 5/- and not a farthing less.

This "Halifax Currency" came into being without legal authority, but with such strong authority of custom and usage that it could not be altered by law. In 1758 Nova Scotia was granted a Legislative Assembly, the first in Canada. The same year an Act was passed to regulate the currency, whereby "all Spanish dollars (that is to say) Seville, Pillar, and Mexico Pieces of Eight, weighing seventeen Penny halfpenny Weight, shall be a tender of Five Shillings..." The Statutes of the province give the title of this Act without the text, with a marginal not to the effect that it was repealed by His Majesty in Council 5. Nevertheless, by this time (1761) the Spanish dollar was firmly established at the value of 5/- Currency.

With the Spanish dollar and its subdivisions came, inevitably, the pistareen, which was rated at a shilling and thus came to be called the Halifax shilling in the other Canadian colonies. In 1750 Captain Thomas Barnes, master of the sloop "Huzza" came up to Halifax from New York with three thousand pistareens aboard 5, which he promptly sold in Halifax for a shilling and twopence apiece to an individual who in all probability was willing to pay the 2d premium in order to get a supply of pistareens that could be cut up into aliquot parts slightly underweight to pass off in circulation. Captain Barnes was summoned to appear before Governor Cornwallis and sternly admonished never to import pistareens again.

The Council then turmed its attention to the evil practice of cutting eoins into aliquop parts, a practice imported from the West Indies, where it had done considerable harm. In 1750 the Council outlawed the cutting of pistareens, invoking the penalites of the British Criminal Law against the mutilation, debasement, and falsification of coin. It was also ordered 7 that cut pistareens, of the full size only, should go for 6d apiece for a half one an 3d apiece for a quarter one, and were to be legal tender to 5/-. In 1752 an omission of the Order of 1750 was

corrected to provide for the tendering of cut pistareens by weight. Under this amendment cut pistareens were authorised to be tendered at 4/6 per ounce 8.

At this early period nearly all denominations of Spanish gold and silver coins were circulating in Halifax, the silver proportionate to the 5/- rating of the dollar and the doubloon at 3,12/- currency. Inevitably, counterfeiting reared its ugly head, and in 1753 several persons were prosecuted for the forgery of Spanish doubloons and silver and for uttering the same 9.

The doubloon, quaintly called a Double Loon 10 in that age of grammatical innocence in the transcripts of the cited prosecutions for forgery and uttering, was valued at f 3,12/-, holding this value till 1807. In that year it was raised to f 3,12/6. The value rose to f 3,17/6 by Order-in-Council of November 4, 1811 f 11. At this time the doubloon stood to the dollar at fifteen to one. The rise in value of the doubloon caused a rise in the value of the dollar, and people began to hoard Spanish silver. The only substitutes were Treasury Notes and private paper, which depreciated in consequence of the rise in the value of silver coins. In 1819 the merchants of Halifax began to accept doubloons at f 4, and the dollars vanished f 12.

The famous letter of Peter Davidson to the Acadian Recorder in 1820 is a tale of the consequences of the enhancement of the doubloon to £ 4. It is fully quoted in "The Story of Canada's Currency", published by the Bank of Canada in 1955 and 1966. Davidson, having nothing but a pound note with which to buy vegetables worth 3d, had to pay 6d because of his lack of small change, and received a motley 19/6 in change, comprising 15/4½ in assorted private paper, a single Spanish real rated at 7½d, and eighty-four coppers representing the 3/6 remaining. "For G od's sake, gentlemen," he expostulates, "let us get back our DOLLARS and send these plaguy doubloons to the Yankees..." saying that it would be worth the loss on exchange to get rid of the overabundant doubloons. Dollars, he went on to say, were legally worth 5/- but were actually being acquired by merchants at 5/4 to 5/6 apiece. Thus they were not circulated for 5/- when they were worth 6 or 7% more to any merchant.

The scarcity of silver continued. The Imperial Order-in-Council of 1825, designed to introduce sterling throughout the British Empire, was a failure in North America, and British silver did not circulate in spite of attempts to value it according to the terms of the Order. When in 1834 the Americans altered their standard for gold coins, gold began to leave the colony. To check this drain of ready money, an Act was passed in 1834 13 fixing the dollar at 5/- and the doubloon at £ 4. Spanish dollars being no longer coined owing to the loss of the Spanish colonies to the Spanish crown, Mexican dollars were brought into Nova Scotia. Speculators began to buy them at 5/3 apiece to export to the United States, but this plan soon collapsed, and in a short time the Mexican dollar fell to 5/-.

In 1842 an attempt was made to correct the ratings of Spanish coin as well as other coin in use 14. The doubloon was fixed at 4, and Spanish, Mexican, and South American dollars were rated at $5/2\frac{1}{2}$ provided they weighed no less than 416 grains and contained no less than 373 grains of pure silver. This was evidently successful, for in 1860, when Nova Scotia adopted the decimal system, these ratings were simply converted to dollars and cents. Thus the doubloon went for \$16, and dollars at \$1.04 if of the prescribed weight and fineness. This was the currency Nova Scotia took into Confederation.

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PART VII THE USE OF SPANISH COINS IN PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

Not till after the acquisition of the island by the British were any Spanish coins in circulation. What little coined money there was during the French period was all French. Halifax Currency was established as the local standard when the island was separated from Nova Scotia in 1770. In 1785 a Revenue Act ¹ established Halifax Currency as "lawful money of this island". The Spanish dollar continued at 5/- until the term of office of Charles Douglas Smith as Lieutenant-Governor.

In 1812, when Smith arrived to assume his duties, the merchants of the island were taking extortionate advantage of the lack of change by demanding payment in coin for whatever goods they sold, but steadfastly refused to give change in coin. Instead they gave it in goods which they valued as they pleased. Governor Smith was a man who would share power with nobody, and early resolved to break the power of the local merchants. "Suffice it at once to say", reported Smith to the British government on island affairs 2, "that a more ingenious devise to stunt the growth and retard the advancement of our Infant Colony cannot be imagined".

After having dissolved what he considered a uselessly obstructive Legislative Assembly, he governed personally in the manner of Charles I for the duration of his term of office. The currency was one of his early concerns, and in 1813 he ordered in Council that a thousand Spanish dollars were to be perforated in the centre, the resulting rings and plugs to be stamped with the Treasury mark to pass at 5/- the ring and 1/- the plug. These pieces were duly issued, and circulated for a year, when they were all withdrawn and redeemed on account of the prevalence of forgeries. Now the merchants, grown accustomed to an adequate supply of coin, agreed among themselves to accept the forgeries at the value of the originals, thus making them into tokens.

Because of their early withdrawal from circulation, these "Holey Dollars" are rare to-day. The dumps or plugs are even more so, a single specimen of the original The rarity of the dumps had for years been explained by issue being known now. a tale that they had been discovered to be 3d overweight by George Birnie, who, it was alleged, cannily gathered them all up and shipped them abroad to be melted down and sold, only to be frustrated in his avaricious designs by the loss of the ship at sea. This story was accepted without argument by all until Pridmore A thousand plugs at 1/- apiece meant \$50, and if exploded it forever in 1960. they were 3d overweight it meant a profit of £12, 10/-, which would have been more than offset by the loss on exchange with sterling and the cost of insurance and transportation abroad. Nobody as canny as Birnie was reputed to be would be so foolish as this. Also, Pridmore reveals, Birnie was in England on government business during the entire year of circulation of these pieces, and therefore probably Birnie being o ne of the few local people whom Smith never saw a Holey Dollar. liked, Pridmore discounts the story as a fabrication invented to discredit a government supporter.

The original Holey Dollars were withdrawn in 1814 and redeemed at their face value of 5/- a ring and 1/- a plug in whole Spanish dollars at 5/- currency 4. The merchants, in accepting the forged rings at 5/- tokens, depreciated the local currency by 20%, for knowing that a perforated dollar was worth 5/- to any merchant, nobody would spend an uncut dollar for less then 6/- after 1814. In all probability this is why the Imperial Order-in-Council of 1825 had no effect in Prince Edward Island. In the course of time the over-issue of irredeemable Treasury Notes depreciated the currency another 5% below Halifax Currency.

By 1839 the Spanish dollar was worth 6/3 on the Island. This rating was established by Act of the legislature in 1849 5, which rated the doubloon at £4,16/-, the pistole at £1,4/-, the pistareen at 1/3, and the single Spanish real at 9d. Under the same Act all kings of dollars, including that of the United States. The American dollar being lighter, it became the local standard after 1849. For some years before 1849, it is said that coins were officially counterstamped with the letters P.E.I. in order to keep them in local circulation. A Spanish dollar is known with these letters stamped on the reverse, with an additional small VR in a circle. It was illustrated in the catalogue of Le Roux 6, but with no information as to its background. A number of other dollars have turned up with the letters P.E.I. counter marked on them, but with an additional mark of value of five shillings, which proves the countermarks to be spurious, since the coins are all dated after 1830.

The values of Spanish coins as laid down in 1849 were continued to the time of Conferentian, by which time the decimal system was in use. In 1870 dollars were demonetised, but were made legal tender again the following year, when decimal currency was established. Spanish doubloons were now rated at \$16, Mexican republican doubloons at \$15.40, pistoles at \$4, and all kinds of dollars as one dollar.

References

1...Chalmers, Robert: History of Currency in the British Colonies. 1893

Reprinted 1972. p. 195

2...Pridmore, F: Notes on Colonial Coins. The Holey Dollar and Plug of

Prince Edward Island. Spink's Numismatic Circular 1960. p.264

3...Pridmore, F.: Op. cit. pp. 234,235

4...Pridmore, F.: Cp. cit. p. 264

5...Chalmers, Robert: Op. cit. p. 196

6...Le Roux, Joseph: Medaillier du Canada. 1888, #350.

7...Chalmers, Robert: Op. cit. p. 197.









A Holey Dollar

A Dump or Plug



A reputedly official countermark



Le Roux's drawing #350

PART VIII THE USE OF SPANISH COINS IN NEWFOUNDLAND

Newfoundland was colonised from England very shortly after 1500, a thriving settlement at St. John's being in existence from at least 1527, when the first letter sent to England from America was written. Spanish fishing vessels were present in large numbers on the Grand Banks, and would have introduced Spanish silver into the settlements ashore whenever they found it nesessary to obtain supplies. In 1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert came to St. John's to reinforce English authority in Newfoundland, and thought it expedient to regulate the currency of the Island, rating the Spanish dollar at 5/-. At this early date the Spanish dollar was in the form of cobs from the Spanish home or Mexican mints, of the reign of Philip II. South American cobs may not have appeared in Newfoundland this early.

Throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there was very little coined money in use, conditions on the Island favouring the use of barter. Nevertheless, it was always understood in Newfoundland that the Spanish dollar went for 5/-. Certain merchants and traders having argued that the dollar was worth 5/- sterling in Newfoundland, a historic judgement was handed down in the Supreme Court in 1823 that in no circumstances could the dollar be considered the equivalent of 5/- sterling when its true worth was 4/2 sterling, being one-ninth less intrinsically than the English crown piece.

The Imperial Order-in-Council of 1825 failed to introduce sterling into Newfoundland as a single standard, but created three currencies instead of two: Sterling, Newfoundland or local sterling, and Newfoundland Currency 2, whereby the dollar was respectively rated at 4/2, 4/4, and 5/-. This triple standard was inherited by the Legislative Assembly when it was established in 1832, and survived till 1888, the revocation in 1838 of the Order as it applied to North America having no effect on this situation.

In 1845 an Act of the Assembly rated the Spanish dollar at 5/- and the doubloon somewhat inconveniently rated at $\pm 3,16/9.6$ currency 3. By Act of 1856 Spanish, Mexican, Columbian, and Peruvian dollars were all rated at 5/- each if of full weight and proper fineness. Doubloons of the full weight and proper fineness were tariffed at $\pm 3,16/9$ apiece. This value for the doubloon was allowed in 1858 for doubloons of one grain less of pure gold than the amount stated in the Act of 1856.

The Spanish dollar, though it had disappeared from circulation by 1860, became the basis of the decimal system adopted in 1863. Under the terms of the Act of 1863 the doubloon was rated at \$15.35 and all kinds of dollars at one dollar 4. The gold two-dollar piece coined under this Act is, because the Spanish dollar was rated still at 5/-, or four to the pound currency, a direct descendent of the spanish dollar and an equivalent of the Spanish gold escudo of 16 reales or two pesos. Foreign gold and silver began to diminish in quantity after 1865, and dollars were passing by convention at 80¢ apiece in spite of the legal tariff. The Currency Act of 1887, which came into force in 1888, abolished the legal tender of foreign coins, and the doubloons and dollare disappeared, dollars passing at only 60¢ apiece by Chalmer's time 5. "The song was ended, but the melody lingered on", to quote in the past tense the title of an old and popular air, until 1895, when, in consequence of the collapse of the local banks and the intervention of Canadian banks to guarantee the currency, the Newfoundland dollar was rated as equal to the Canadian and American and disasociated forever from the old relationship with the Spanish piece of eight.

References

- 1...Supreme Court of Newfoundland. John Hanny vs. George and William Gade. Assumfit for f 2,8,0d for Freight. June 30, 1823.
- Chalmers, Robert: History of Currency in the British Colonies, 1893.
 Reprinted 1972. p. 170
- 3...Ibid. p. 171
- 4...Ibid. p. 172
- 5...Ibid. p. 173

PART IX JIGGERY-POKERY

Counterfeiting of dollars, doubloons and other Spanish coins went on in all the colonies, every colony recording prosecutions for forgery and for uttering counterfeit Spanish coin. The law viewed the forgery of foreign coin as seriously as the forgery of British coin, yet there were times when counterfeit coin was a menace to the community. Brass doubloons, leaden dollars, and copper quarter dollars have turned up rather often in old collections.

There have also been fakes made to deceive collectors. As is well known, the cut and counterstamped coinages of the West Indies have been extensively faked, beginning about 1890. In 1890 a series of countermarked Spanish dollars appeared in England, with a mark purporting to have been applied under the terms of the Ordinance of 1765, which made compulsory the rating of the dollar at 6/- in Quebec. The series was expanded over the years to comprise six variations. The first variation was published in the British Numismatic Society Journal of 1890 in J.B. Caldecott's article, "Countermarked Spanish Dollar for Old Canada 1765," and was said to have rated the dollar at 6/- under the authority of the Ordinance of 1765. The second was said to have been produced in or after 1768 to show that the Ordinance of 1765 was revoked and that the dollar was now free to find its own level in the marketplace. The third and later variations are said to show that after 1777 it was valued at 5/-.

The entire series, however, is spurious, for several reasons. First, mutilation of British or foreign coins in any way was forbidden under the Ordinance of 1764 which first rated the dollar at 6/-, and countermarking was definitely considered a form of mutilation. Secondly, there is no record in England of any permission given to apply the Royal Cypher on any coins to be circulated in Canada. Thirdly, if authority were given to countermark dollars, why were the subdivisions of the dollar not similarly stamped? Fourthly, in the light of the explanations offered for the existence of the various marks, it seems unnecessary to have introduced the variation on which the numeral 5 is cancelled with a vertical stroke. Fifthly and finally, these countermarks were unknown before 1890, and none was ever discovered in Canada and none in private collections.

Fakes have been made of the Holey Dollars and dumps of Prince Edward Island. These were produced by perforating genuine dollars and applying a false mark, as were the contemporary merchants' forgeries. The fakers were a trifle careless, however. The perforation was not always carefully made, the cut edge looking somewhat new for the age of the coin. A few were created from dollars dated after 1814, which should deceive no one.

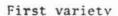
Imitations made of German silver were first offered for sale as such in 1961. These are much lighter in weight, and the countermark was deliberately misapplied in the hope that they would never be offered for sale as originals. The rings bear the mark directly in front of the Spanish king's nose instead of partly on the forehead, and the dumps show it on the cheek instead of partly on the throat. The precaution was in vain, for both rings and plugs have been offered as the real thing more than once.

In recent years a dollar of Carlos IV turned up with a so-called mark of value on the obverse purporting to have been applied officially in Prince Edward Island to rate the dollar at 5/-. The mark has turned up on dollars of Carlos III and Ferdinand VII, and also on dollars countermarked for use in the Philippine Islands and on dollars countermarked privately for use in Scotland. It is spurious, if only because the dollar was officially rated at and generally accepted at 5/-. Thus it was hardly necessary to countermark it to circulate at that value anywhere in Canada. Also, why should Prince Edward Island countermarl dollars for 5/- if the other colonies did not? The appearance of this mark on a dollar of King Ferdinand VIII dated 1817 destroys the theory that it was applied in Prince Edward Island because by 1817 the dollar was circulating at 6/- locally. The merchants had brought on this depreciation by accepting at 5/- apiece the forged holey dollars after the originals had been withdrawn.

Various South American republican dollars have turned up countermarked with the letters P.E.I. and the value 5/-, and sometimes additional initials. These marks cannot be accepted as genuine since the value of the dollar was firmly established at 6/- by the time the South American republics won their independence from Spain. Most specimens bear dates after 1830.

THE G R 5 ORD COUNTERMARKS







the second



the third



the fifth



This is the mark supposed to have been applied in Prince Edward Island to tariff the dollar at 5/-. The mark is drawn on a photograph of an unmutilated dollar to show how it looks.

NOTE: This series to be concluded in October.

THE SETH WITTON STORY

by Leslie C. Hill, F.R.N.S.

An enterprizing man, Seth Witton bought, operated and sold stores in nearly twenty five localities in Sashatchewan, Alberta, and in British Columbia. In 1921 the Canadian Merchant, a trade magazine, contained an article extolling him as a leading Canadian merchant. Two of Seth Witton's early stores made use of trade tokens, others may have done so; his sons and daughter do not recall the tokens, however this is understandable as they were of pre-school age at the time the known tokens were in use.

A brief chronology of Seth Witton and his vertures follows;

- 1880..Born on April 17th at Blackburn, England
- 1905..Arrived in Vancouver, working briefly for Woodwards Stores before leaving for San Francisco.
- 1906. Worked in San Francisco as a sign painter and window dresser, leaving after the earthquake that year.
- 1907.. Started a General Store in Wawota, Sask., married March 14th that year.
- 1908. With brother Tom, took out homesteads near Bethune, Sask., later buying out the Donaldson store there.
- 1912. Fired buckshot at Halloween pranksters causing strained relations.
- 1913.. Sold out store and homestead at Bethune and moved to B.C. Bought a number of small stores in B.C. using employees to manage them except for the Murrayville store which he operated himself and lived there with his family. The General Store and P.O. are still operating in Murrayville (1976) although in P.Y. Porter who operates the store together with his son altered premises. recalls working for Seth Witton as a boy before taking over the business. While only the 5¢ token is known to us today, Mr. Porter feels certain there must have been larger denominations as these tokens were given to local farmers in return for their produce. The use of tokens had the beneficial effect of providing the storekeeper with a captive customer as the farmer had to return to the store to spend the tokens. Mr. Porter purchased the business in June of 1917. Murrayville is a small community situated on the Old Yale Road at the intersection of 216th (Johnsons Townline) about two miles east of the City of Langley; it is the administrative centre of the Rural Municipality of Langley which was incorporated on April 26th, 1873.
- 1916. Began liquidating his business in B.C. and moved back to Saskatchewan where he bought a General Store in Vanguard; placing this in the hands of a Manager he bought another department store in Moosimin.
- 1919..Sold out the stock of the Moosimin store and closed it down; moved his family to Calgary. Stores acquired in Acme, Hanna, Rumsey and Three Hills, all in Alberta.
- 1921.. Started a store in Rocky Mountain House where he stayed until 1931. During this period he also had stores at Munson and Stettler.
- 1931.. Sold out at Rocky Mountain House and bought another store at Islay.
- 1932.. Sold store at Islay and bought another at Rimbey.
- 1935.. Sold store at Rimbey and acquired another at Kinsella.
- 1937.. Bought additional store at New Norway.
- 1938..Sold New Norway Store; sons Robert & Lloyd buy Kinsella store shares .

 Seth Witton moves to Vancouver and takes over a small store at 54th Avenue and Victoria Drive.
- 1939.. Sold out the Vancouver store and purchased Nelson Bros. store in Zebellos.
- 1945..Sons, Robert & Don assume shares in Zebellos store.
- 1948.. Seth Witton retires, the company becoming a Limited Company.

1960..Seth Witton dies. 1972..Robert Witton continues to operate the Zebellos store. 1976..Robert Witton sells store; still known as Seth Witton Co.

Tokens in the denominations of 5¢, 10¢, 25¢ and \$1.00 were used by the Seth Witton co. between 1908 and 1913 in their Bethune, Sask. store; these are described and numbered by Cecil C. Tannahill in his book on the Trade Tokens, Paper and Wooden Money of Saskatchewan, 1972. At least one token is known to have been used in the Murrayville, B.C. store between 1913 and 1917; this token is listed as #2775a in the Tokens of British Columbia and the Yukon, by the VNS Research Committee.

Seth Witton was a firm believer in cash business, and he was a pioneer for cash and carry. In the early days on the prairies, the stores gave long credit and were lucky to get payment when the crops were sold. He gave short term credit, and as an incentive to pay cash made use of the tokens which were given for a certain value or amount of the cash sale.

We are indebted to the following gentlemen for their generous assistance; Don Witton, Cec. Tannahill and Don Stewart.

A detailed description of the tokens:

SASK-0500h,	The Seth Witton Co./best/eredit/system/in	the/west/Bethune	
	Good for/5¢/in merchandise	A:R:22	R10
g,	As h but 10¢ and	A:R:25	R10
f,	As h but 25¢ and	A:R:28	R10
d,	As h but \$1.00 and	A:R:35	R10

BC-2775a The Seth Witton Co./best/credit/system/in the/west/Murrayville
Good for/5/cents/in trade A:R:19.5 R10

VANCOUVER LAWN TENNIS AND BADMINTON CLUB

by Ralph R. Burry

In the year 1897, the Vancouver Lawn Tennis Club came into existence. A meeting of those interested in forming a tennis club with grounds of its own was held in the Hotel Vancouver with D.G. Macdonell in the chair and A.P. Horne as Honorary Secretary Pro tem.

Property was acquired in the West End on Barclay Street, between Denman and Bidwell Streets, with grass courts, cinder courts and a croquet lawn. Here ladies in ankle length skirts and high necked blouses played decorous croquet and tennis. Here, too, the great American player, Bill Johnston, won the Mainland Championship, and the late E.J.H. Cardinall, our local "Mr. Tennis" won five successive City Singles titles (1908, 1909, 1910, 1911, 1912), and D.S. Montgomery and B.P.Schwengers won titles in the Canadian Championships in 1913.

Club members of this period read like a list of Vancouver's leading families in the business and social life of the time: Springer, Boultbee, Crickmay, Heathcote, C. Gardener Johnson, Harvey, Cambie, Tallow Townsend, Cave-Brown-Cave, Senkler, Marani, Marpole, Malkin, Bell-Irving, Beecher, Jukes.

After negotiations for purchase of land from the Canadian Pacific Railway, the Club moved to its present premises on the corner of Fir and Sixteenth Avenues in 1914. Turf for the first grass courts came from the garden of Col. Victor Spencer. The Club had nine grass courts, four clay courts and two croquet lawns. These croquet lawns were changed later into grass and clay tennis courts. In 1928 an addition was made to the club building for badminton courts and the name of the club was changed to the Vancouver Lawn Tennis Club and Badminton Club, the Badminton Hall being the first one specially designed in the world.

The tokens described below were used from 1909 to about 1935. They were used for the pre-payment at the club store for the purchase of shuttle cocks, used in the game of badminton. Prior to 1928 paper scrip was used.

V.L.T.B.C./Shuttle/token (Star design)

B:Sn:25.5

Vancouver/Lawn Tennis Club/5¢ Aane as abive

P(o):Re:17X31 P(g):Re:17X31

THE NATIONAL BAKERY OF VANCOUVER

by Ralph Burry

In the year 1928 Mr. Ivon Grdina left his native country of Jugo-Slavia and immigrated to Canada, settling in Vancouver. He apprenticed in the bakery trade at the old Delicious Bakery at 1500 East Hastings Street. He worked there for over one year. In the meantime, a Mr. Santola came from Montreal and started the Montreal Bakery. He purchased the Delicious Bakery establishment and Mr. Grdina then worked for him. After app roximately one year the Montreal Bakery moved to a new establishment at 625 Hawks Ave. in Vancouver. Mr. Grdina worked for the Montreal Bakery until 1935. During this period the Montreal Bakery was sold to a Mr. Louis Janan in 1931 and in 1935 Mr. Grdina leased the Montreal Bakery building, and with his brother-in-law, Mr. John Zitko, started his own bakery. He called the bakery the National Bakery because it sounded quite professional to a young man in a new country. The Montreal Bakery then moved to the 800 block Keefer Street.

Mr. Grdina bought a 1932 Ford truck the same year and began selling bread from door to door. The first bread tokens he used were made of paper. They were such a dirty form of token he decided to change to aluminum. A bakery supply house in Eastern Canada made the tokens. One thousand tokens were struck using one design. Bread sold at that time (1934) at \$1.00 for twenty-two loaves.

Mr. Grdina bought out his partner Mr. Zitko in the early 1940's. During the war (1939-45) gas rationing was quite severe so Mr. Grdina took his trucks off the road and opened retail stores. It was in this period he stopped using tokens.

He opened his first store at 1812 Commercial Drive in 1946. Later he opened a store at 3980 East Hastings Street in 1956 which closed in 1973 due to expropriation of the property. He re-opened again at 2558 East Hastings. Mr. Grdina also owned a store at 4100 East Hastings which closed during the war. He also opened another store at 2580 East Hastings in 1945 closing again in 1972 due to sale of the building.

Mr. Grdina retired in 1962 and his son took over the business.

The National Bakery is still operating, having numerous retail stores. In 1963 the company opened a main plant on Canada Way in Burnaby. The main item manufactured is frozen dough which enables families to bake their own bread.

This in only one of many success stories of immigrant families who came to this country seeking only a living in the beginning and becoming very successful in whatever line of business they undertook.

Token descriptions:

National/Bakery Good for/one/loaf

A:S:24

Montreal Bakery/625/Hawkes Avenue/Vancouver Good for/1/loaf of bread A:Re:32X19

2nd Addendum to the Complete Supplement of Trade and Advertising Tokens of Manitoba

by Donald M. Stewart

	BRANDON		
0540c	Horner's/Busy/Corners/Brandon Good for/25¢/in merchandise	B:R:25	R10
	KIRKELLA		
2110d	G.B. Owens,/General/Store/Kirkella, Man. Good for/10¢/in trade	A:R:25	R10
	LOWE FARM		
2180e f	Abrams & Reimer/General/Merchants/Lowe Farm, Man. Good for/10¢/in trade 5¢	A:R:25 A:R:22	R10 R10
	NEEPAWA		
2950a	D.S. Wood/Neepawa/Man. Good for/1/pint	A:S:20	R10
	TEULON		
4150a	Cecil Hotel/Teulon,/Manitoba Good for/10¢/in trade/at the bar	A:Sc8:29	R10
	WINNIPEG		
6060a	Occidental/Hotel/D. Ripstein/Winnipeg. Good for/one/lunch	A:C1:28	R10
6990a b	Vemco/Products/Inc. Token (in large fancy letters) Same (in small plain letters) (Used for employee parking at the Victoria General Hospital)	B:R:23 B:R:23	R 1 R 1
F	Advertising		
	KETTLE RAPIDS		
8209a b	Kettle Generating Station/official/opening/June 16,197 (Dam)/(Hydro Logo)/Manitoba Hydro Atomic Energy of Canada Limited/(Power line above fore Nelson River Transmission Facilities Same 500 struck in	st)/ A:R:32	R3
	Samo 10 struck i		D 7

10 struck in S:R:32 R7

Same

WINNIPEG

8350a

1540 Portage Ave., Winnipeg/The/Paddock/(Horseshoe)/ Manitoba, Canada 20th Anniversary May 31, 1972/The/Paddock/ Always/good/food/Golden Dividen

Bz:R:32 R3

The Assistance of J.W. Astwood, J.D. Ferguson, C.E. Parker, and Jerry Parker is gratefully acknowledged.

ADVERTISING COINS

by Donald M. Stewart

We are indebted to Major Sheldon S. Carroll for a report of two additional pieces which are held in the Bank of Canada Collection.

TORONTO, ONT.

Co-operation with/the Toronto News/is remunerative/ and will advantageously/ consummate any sale/you desiderate/to make 1¢ Queen Victoria

UNKNOWN

Drink/Tetley's/Tea

1¢ Queen Victoria

Report of the Committee for

STANDARDIZATION OF TRADE TOKEN LISTING

July 1976

At our 1974 Annual General Meeting, a Committee under the Chairmanship of J Douglas Ferguson and assisted by Cecil C. Tannahill and Larry Gingras, was formed to consider what items should form a part of, and what items should not form a part of a Provincial Trade Token Listing, and to come up with recommendations to assist those compiling future listings and catalogues dealing with trade tokens.

The original recommendations presented to the 1975 Annual General Meeting were referred back to the Committee for further study.

Correspondence was exchanged between members of the Committee while taking into consideration the views expressed by other Fellows of the Society. After considering all the views expressed the Committee now recommends:

- 1..THAT ONLY THOSE PIECES WHICH ARE GOOD FOR A PRODUCT OR SERVICE ETC. SHOULD BE LISTED IN A PROVINCIAL TRADE TOKEN LISTING. (In cases where a province may have an extra large number of trade tokens, it may be more practical to list a series such as bread or dairy tokens in a separate work.)
- 2..THAT THERE SHOULD BE NO DISCRIMINATION BETWEEN METALLIC, FIBRE, CELLULOID OR PLASTIC TRADE TOKENS.

The Committee also suggests:

- a..that what has at times been listed as tokens, such as advertising pieces, spinners, metallic personal cards, etc. (which are not good for a product or service) are not trade tokens in the true sense,
- b..that Fraternal Membership pieces, such as the Masonic Pennies, were never used nor intended to be used in trade,
- c..that numismatic items made of paper or cardboard are a form of token,
- d..that Communion Tokens are usually collected on a national rather than on a local scale,
- e..that many wooden pieces collected today may not be true numismatic items but nevertheless there were some used as trade tokens and medals, and are usually collected on a national rather than on a local scale.
- f. that the listing of any or all of the above items in a trade token listing or a catalogue should be left to the discretion of the person doing the listing, BUT if they are to be listed THEY SHOULD BE LISTED IN A SEPARATE SECTION.

Respectfully submitted by

J.D. Ferguson, Chairman C.C. Tannahill Larry Gingras

ODDS AND ENDS

We received a note the other day with the following information from Ross W. Irwin.

Addendum to Note on Indian Medal, p 47 of Transactions

The medal discussed by Freer is illustrated as Fig. 23 in Jamieson, M.A. Medals Awarded to North American Indian Chiefs. His text on p. 30 points out the die cracked and the old Royal Arms was substituted. My notes indicates that at least some consideration had been given to a new die but it did not proceed.

Another note was received from our Secretary-Treasurer, Ken Palmer to inform us that MICHAEL R. CURRY has been accepted as a Fellow of the Society. Michael's address is :269 Avondale Avenue, Ottawa, Ontario, K1Z 7G7

Nice to have you aboard, Michael.

We still have on hand a few copies of Volume 11 of the Transactions. These are bound copies and are available to any Fellow at \$3.00 per copy.

On the previous page (page 88) you will see the report of the Committee for STANDARDIZATION OF TRADE TOKEN LISTING. The Committee requests that you give serious consideration to this report because we will have to come to a decision on it at our Annual General Meeting.

See you at Ottawa, we hope.

-VOL. 12 NO. 4 October 1976

TRANSACTIONS

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Donald M. Stewart

Michael R. Curry

Ralph R. Burry

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THE PROVINCIAL BANK OF STANSTEAD

by J. Douglas Ferguson, F.R.N.S.

The Provincial Bank of Stanstead was established under the Free Banking Act of Canada with office in Stanstead, Quebec in 1856. Its office was moved to Montreal in 1859. In 1862 they began the withdrawal of their paper money and the infinitesimal amount not turned in for redemption as requested in advertising, by December 15th 1865 became worthless.

It is about the early history of Banking in the Eastern Townships, and this bank in particular, that I will be speaking.

In 1830 an effort was made to secure a charter for the Stanstead County Bank by James Baxter, Ichabob Smith, Wilder Pierce, Wm. Grannis, Wright Chamberlin, Erastus Lee and Timothy Rose, all prominemt residents of the County, which was then one of the most populous in the Eastern Townships. This was vigorously opposed by Montreal Banking interests and was turned down by the Government. Transportation to Montreal and Quebec City was difficult at this period before railroads, and with the available roads little more than trails. Most commercial transactions were with the adjoining American States.

The Phoenix Bank, Phillipsburgh, Lower Canada, had been established in 1837 and functioned, it is believed, until late 1841 with the sole purpose of circulating its paper money, largely in the United States. These notes were finally not redeemed. The notes were inscribed "adjoining The State of Vermont".

Since Canada had no paper money or coins of her own at this period, British, Spanish, and American coins of silver and gold, and copper and brass tokens (as issued or purchased by banks and merchants) and paper money as issued by banks were the media of exchange. Barter continued to be in practice but had its substantial limitations. To meet the need for circulating media and to provide other banking services, the Government passed the Free Banking Law which allowed an individual or partnership to purchase Municipal Debentures, deposit then and register with the Receiver General of Canada as a Bank, establish a head office and issue paper money to the face value of deventures deposited. Debentures at the time could be purchased at from $87\frac{1}{2}$ ¢ to 90¢ on the dollar, and as a result a profit would result as their paper money was placed in circulation. Further profit would be received from the interest of the debentures.

It was in this atmosphere that an American, George W. McCallom, purchased \$100,000 in municipal debentures and had them deposited with the Receiver General of Canada. The notes, of the regular large size, were printed by Danforth, Wright & Co., New York and Philadelphia and were printed in sheets of four, 1,2,1,5 with check letters A.A.B.A. They were first shipped to the Bank in the spring of 1856 and shipments continued until the fall of 1860, when approximately 18,500 sheets had been sent. Their total face value was \$166,500. The largest total circulation at any one time as reported by the Registrar of Free Banks was in July 1858 and amounted to \$158,661. The face value of the debentures held for the Bank at that time was \$160,000. Before issuance the notes had to be countersigned by the Registrar of Free Banks, or some other officer in the Audit Office. All known surviving examples were signed by the Registrar himself, Mr. Charles Cambie.

A further point of interest is that both signatures of the bank officers on the notes, Wm. Stevens, President and J.W. Peterson, Cashier, were engraved, which was very unusual for that period. The single owner of the Bank was McCollom, but his name only appears on the records of the Receiver General, and as the purchaser of the property to be used as head office in Stanstead.

The reverse of the no tes are plain except for a reverse impression of the colored protector on the face of the notes. All notes bear the engraved date of April 1, 1856.

The first local mention of the Bank appears in the Stanstead Journal of May 15,1856. "Provincial Bank of Canada - a new institution with this name under the General Banking Law of the Province will go into operation in this village about the first of June. The capital of the Company will be \$100,000 secured by a deposit of Canada 6% debentures. The capital, we understand, is furnished by a New York Company, William Stevens, President and J.W. Peterson, Cashier".

"The gentlemen here representing the Company have purchased the property formerly occupied by Marcus Child, Esq., as a store, for a banking house. The people of the Eastern Townships h ave long felt the need of further banking facilities and have obtained charters for two institutions, one at Sherbrooke and one here, but requiring a larger capital than could be profitably employed. A well-managed bank under the gereral law, which provides for the ample security of bill holders, with a capital of \$1000,000,000, will be amptly sufficient for the present wants of the country and will be remunerative property to the proprietors".

The two banks referred to as having been given charters, but who had not been able to raise the capital required by the Charters to operate, were the Eastern Townships Bank, Sherbrooke (1855) and the St. Francis Bank, Stanstead (1854-5). "There had been strong opposition by City Banks and local rivalries".

In Parliament the new Provincial Bank of Stanstead was under attack in late May, within a week of the announcement of its creation in the Stanstead Journal. The Member from Sherbrooke, Mr. Galt, drew attention that notes of the Bank were placed in circulation in Toronto, Montreal, points in between and in the Eastern Townships, before any office had been opened in Stanstead, and before people in Stanstead were aware such a bank had been established. Mr. Terrill, the member for Stanstead, reported he had recently visited his home in Stanstead, and that people there had been astonished by the arrival of some people who had brought a large number of notes in their pockets and announced their intention of establishing a bank, but up to his departure no office had been established for their redemption, although some were placed in circulation. They were strangers from the United States, who had not previously been heard of in that area. He drew attention to the losses that would be incurred if such a concern were to issue all their notes, then suspend cash payments, its affairs placed in the hands of the Government Receiver. Those holding the paper money might only receive 75% of their face value. Exchange brokers might fraudulently pocket 121/2% and the other 121/2% must be wasted in expense. He expressed regret that the Free Banking Law had not been repealed prior to these circumstances, although be admitted there would not be the same objections to its provisions being taken advantage of by parties well known in the country, having a provincial reputation, and a credit on which reliance could be placed.

The Inspector General explained that the notes had been legally issued. He had advised a broker in Toronto who was concerned to send some of them to Stanstead to see if they would be redeemed.

Another Member, a Mr. Holton, felt the government was not entirely free of censure since they had taken no measure to prevent the deposit of depreciated securities. He called on the government to bring in a bill to amend the law, to prevent any future "frauds" of this kind.

A few weeks following this debate a "run" was made on the Bank and they redeemed \$67,000 of their then circulation of \$100,000. Confidence was restored in this way, and the Bank carried on. The bills were accepted in Montreal at par, while at the same time some bills of Toronto banks were discounted.

On March 12, 1857 a notice of a bill was placed before Parliament by the Hon. Mr. Cayley to discontinue the incorporation of Joint Stock Banks and of registered bank notes under the Free Banking Act.

Also at this time the Molson, Zimmerman and the Niagara District Banks received charters, converting their operations from Free Banks.

During the sessions of Parliament of 1854 and 1855 debate had been held on the Charters for the St. Francis Bank (Stanstead) and the Eastern Townships Bank (Sherbrooke). Charters were granted but with provisions, such as a million dollars of capital to be "paid in" within five years, making it impossible for these banks which were intended by local citizens to provide financial services within the Eastern Townships to complete their organization. The charters were granted in 1855. Agitation continued for the reduction of the required "pain in" catital and for this requirement to be reduced to \$100,000.

The Stanstead Journal of March 26, 1857 mentions that the notes of the Provincial Bank are gradually replacing those of Montreal Banks throughout the Eastern Townships, and that the Peoples Bank of Derby Line (established in 1851) - now the Community National Bank), which recently increased its capitalization "and dispenses its favors impartially on both sides of the line". It is interesting to remember that the combined population of Stanstead (including Rock Island) Quebec and Derby Line, Vermont at this time was 1,800 to 2,000.

In 1857 there were many bank failures in the U.S.A., some in Canada, and this was spreading to Britain. In reviewing all issues of the Stanstead Journal from 1854 to 18 1862, it was noticeable that in almost every issue warnings were printed of bank notes being raised by counterfeiters from \$1 to \$10, and of counterfeit notes (the bank and issue being given). It was a natural opportunity for counterfeiters as most banks were issuing notes and many were being circulated far from their point of issue. The Journal of March 25th, 1858 mentions a \$1 Provincial Bank bill being raised to \$10 and passed by a Holland, Vermont man, who had been arrested in Barton, Vermont. Many such notes were believed to be in circulation.

An advertisement appeared in the September 30, 1858 issue of the Stanstead Journal calling for the first general meeting of shareholders of the St. Francis Bank to be held at T. Winn's Hotel, Stanstead to elect Presideng and five directors for the ensuing year, and for such other business as may be deemed necessary. It was signed L.K.Benton, Acting Secretary, and dated Stanstead, Sept. 27, 1858. At this meeting G.W. McCollom (the owner of the Provincial Bank) offered to provide \$50,000 of the capital required by the charter. He promised that \$50,000 would be made available for loans within the County but his other requirements, which would give him actual control, were unacceptable to the majority of shareholders, who wished to keep control in local hands. McCollom was so sure his offer would be accepted that he had notes for that Bank already printed. If he had gained control he could have issued notes of substantialy greater value in relation to paid up catital, and with stockholders being liable to double indemnity in event of a failure, since it was a chartered bank.

Following this set-back, McCollom had the Hon. Mr. Terrill, the local Member of Parliament, introduce a bill in Parliament in March 1859 to incorporate the Provincial Bank of Canada, to change its status from under the Free Banking Act to a Chartered bank, to move its principal place of business to Montreal, with power to establish branches, and to have a capital of \$250,000.00.

It will be remembered that Mr. Terrill had originally questioned the character of the Bank, when he first learned of it. When he spoke forcefully in Parliament of the desirability of granting a charter to the bank he stated he was now satisfied of the bank's stability, how its notes had always been accepted and usually without a discount, as in Montreal, and he felt that this move would give the bank greater stability and opportunity for growth.

A number of members raised objections against the fact Mr. McCollom was not a Canadian although now resident in Montreal. The other petitioners for the charter were from Montreal but it was believed McCollom, who was not known to have any other business connections, would own all but the 20 qualifying shares.

While prominent members spoke in favor of granting the charter others were vehement in opposing it, one claiming McCollom had been associated with two banks in the western United States which had failed.

To counteract this opposition Mr. Terrill offered an amendment that all Directors must reside in Canada, and that the majority must be British subjects by birth or naturalization, which Mr. McCollom would accept. Mr. J.S. MacDonald felt there should be no departure from the usual rule that no one but a British subject ought to have a voice in control of the banks of the Province.

A letter then appeared in the Montreal Gazette signed by Geo. W. McCollom, which referred to the derogatory statements made against him in Parliament. Denying the statements he concluded "Now I have to state thay I have no interest nor ever have had in any bank except the Provincial Bank of Canada". The editor of the paper also wrote an editorial in favor of the granting of the charter and of the creation of chartered banks in the eastern Townships.

While the bill was still before Parliemant, it was generally agreed it would be passed.

To the amazement of the sponsor of the Bill and to most members who were about to give their approval, the following letter was read to the House, having been received by the Receiver General, who was personally investigating McCollom -

Autitors Office, Springfield, 29 Mar. Auditor's Office, Springfield, 29 March 1859

Hon. J. O. Bureau -

Dear Sir,

Your favor of the 24th instant to the Hon. the Secretary of State, has been handed to me for answer.

G.W. McCollom established under our Free Banking Law, the Stock Security Bank of Danville on 26th July 1852. It was organized by George W. McCollom and Enoch Kingsbury and on November 24th 1854 the People's Bank of Carmi was organized by George W. McCollom. Previous to 25th of July 1854, he (McCollom) sold the Stock Security Bank of Danville to one Daniel Clapp which bank was protested and put into liquidation on 20th May 1857 and is now being would up at $88\frac{1}{4}$ ¢ to the dollar. He (McCollom) sold the People's Bank of Carmi on the 30th July 1856, to one Wheelock which bank was protested on 4thJuly 1857 and put into liquidation and is now being wound up by the State authorities at 94¢ to the dollar. This is the history as appears in this office.

Yours truly,

Jesse K. Dubois, auditor.

The Stanstead Journal of April 14, 1859 contained an editorial which reads in part—" It is proper to say also that the people of Stanstead had no more opportunity and were no better acquainted with his operations elsewhere than with those of any stranger. Under these circumstances it was not strange that his application, backed up by very respectable merchants in Montreal, should have been presented by this Member from this County, and that it created no surprise here. The opposition at Sherbrooke was looked upon as not entirely disinterested and the statements made in regard to his connection with Western Banks which had wound up paying 6 or 10 cents on the dollar as canards. It appears, however, from the following (above) telegraphic communication that although McCollom is not quite as bad as represented, he is not entitled to confidence and has used gross deception to say the least towards those who were aiding him in obtaining a charter. It is proper to add that when this information reached Toronto, the application for a charter for the Provincial Bank was withdrawn".

The Stanstead Journal announced in their issue of Jan. 20th.1860 that the Provincial Bank was about to be removed to Montreal. It was moved there, an agency being appointed to redeem any bank notes presented.

In the paper of March 29, 1860 it was announced that the Provincial Bank building in Stanstead had been purchased by Aaron Hall, and that the latter had sold 1/3 of the land on the West Road to Mr. S.C. Burns who purposes to put up a large two-story building for a tin and blacksmith shop. This property occupied the south-west corner of Dufferin Road and Maple St. The bank building was subsequently replaced by the stone Stanstead post office.

The following advertisement appeared on March 14, 1863 in an issue of the Canada Gazette, page 804, 1863:

Provincial Bank of Canada

Notice is hereby given in accordance with the Act 22nd Vic. Cap 55, Sec. 77 Consolidated Statutes of Canada, that the Provincial Bank of Canada being about to close and wind up its affairs in the manner prescribed by the 77th Section of the said Act, that all persons holding notes of the Bank aforesaid which purport of the face of them to be secured by a Deposit of Prov. Securities and are countersigned by the Registrar of Free Banks, may present them for payment at the office of the Eastern Townships Banks at Stanstead on or before the First day of October next 1863, after which date they will cease to be secured by the Deposit of Prov. Securities..

D. Nutter, Proprietor

Montreal, 6th March, 1863

With the Provincial Bank moved to Montreal and in some disrepute, it became more difficult to circulate its paper money. It had performed but limited other banking business.

On the 15th of December 1863 the Receiver General accepted a bond jointly given by John D. Nutter, Robert Millard and George Warner of Montreal, for the Provincial Bank of Canada, jointly for \$12,000 to guarantee the redemption during the time required by law. The following paragraphs from the bond deposited with the Government tell the final story -

"Whereas by the fifty-fifth chapter of the Consolidated Statutes of Canada entitled

'An Act respecting Banks and freedom of Banking' it is amongst other things enacted that whenever it is intended to close the bank by lapse of time by the voluntary act of the individual banker, or by agreement among the partners, or associates or shareholders in accorcance with the articles of agreement, the following proceedings shall be taken - 1st the Bank shall after nine-tenths of all its bank notes have been redeemed and returned to the Minister of Finance, give public notice in such manner and during such time as the Minister of Finance appoints calling in its bank notes and requiring them to be presented at the office of the bank for payment on or before a day to be named in the notice, not m ore than one year nor less than six months from the date thereof, and stating that all such notes as are not so presented, will, after the said day cease to be secured by the deposit of Provincial Securities."

"2nd And after the expiration of such day and upon the delivery to the Minister of Finance of all the notes that have been so presented and upon security being given by recognizance in his name and to his satisfaction that all the notes then outstanding and which may within two years from the giving of such security, be presented for payment at some certain place to be named in the recognizance within the limits of the City, Town or Village where the business of the bank has been conducted, will be then and there redeemed in current money, the Minister of Finance shall issue his certificat to the Receiver General for the delivery to the bank of the remaining one-tenth of the Provincial Securities deposited in his hands, and the bank may then by closed- and that the holder on any bank notes presented as provided in such recognizance, and not Paid, may recover the amount thereof with interest from the date of presentation and costs, from the cognizers by action on such recognizance."

"And whereas the proprietor of the bank known as the Provincial Bank of Canada, established under the provisions of the said Act had, by a notice bearing date the sixth day of March last part, published in the Canada Gazette signified his intention of closing it and winding up its affairs; And whereas nine-tenths of all the bank notes of the said bank have been redeemed and returned to the Minister of Finance of the said province, and the remainder of the notes of the said bank, were by the said notice called in and required to be presented for payment at the office of the Eastern Townships Bank, at Stanstead, or at the Agency of the said Provincial Bank at Montreal. on or before the first day of October, now last past, after which date they would cease to be secured by the doposit of Provincial Securities:"

"Now the condition of the above written obligation is such that if all notes of the said Provincial Bank issued under the provisions of the said Act, that shall within two years from the date hereof be presented at the office of John D. Nutter, Esquire in the City of Montreal, for payment, shall be then and there redeemed in current money of the said province, than the said obligation shall be void, otherwise it shall be and remain in full force and virtue and shall be available as well to the holder of any bank note so presented and not paid, as to Her Said Majesty the Queen."

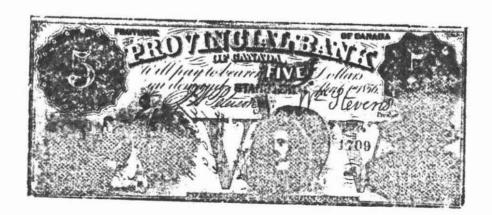
With the Provincial Bank moved to Montreal citizens of the Counties of Stanstead (1,300 shares) Sherbrooke (4,388 shares), Waterloo (1,560 shares), joined together to rais the capital required for the activation of the Charter of the Eastern Townships Bank in 1860, with Head Office in Sherbrooke and with branches opened in Waterloo and Stanstead almost simultaneously. The first dividend of 4% (semi-annual) was declared in June 1861.

And so we end the story of this little known bank, The Provincial Bank established in a village on the American Border, in a somewhat remote (at that time) part of Canada, by an American, the notes of which had a substantial circulation for six years over a considerable portion of Canada and the United States, without final loss to anyone, although the proprietor may have been of somewhat questionable character. The Banking History of the Eastern Townships had had its practical beginning.

Mr. Ferguson would like to mention that he is greatly indebted to Mr. Lloyd Bliss, proprietor of the Stanstead Journal, for making available to him all copies of that newspaper for the years under study, to Miss Cournoyer, Registrar for Stanstead County, for making a complete search of records to establish the location of the office of the bank, and associated information, and to Sheldon Carroll, Curator of the Numismatic Collection, and Dr. James Haxby, Deputy Curator, who took the pictures of







the actual notes in the National Collection, and who greatly assisted him in research in our National Archives in Ottawa.

F.R.E. CAMPEAU

by Michael R. Curry

As a brief addenda to Fred Bowman's biographical note on Mr. Campeau I thought that the following "local" achievements of this 19th century numismatist might by of interest.

Mr. Campeau was a member of the Collegiate Institute Board of the City of Ottawa from 1900 to 1902. He was also the author of three guides to the Federal Houses of Parliament. Though out-dated these works are well known to students of Ottawa history - they are:

ILLUSTRATED GUIDE TO THE SENATE AND HOUSE OF COMMONS OF CANADA Ottawa, Bureau Freres, 1875 186 p.

ILLUSTRATED GUIDE TO THE SENATE AND HOUSE OF COMMONS OF CANADA Ottawa, Queen's Printer, 1879, 180p

ILLUSTRATED GUIDE TO THE SENATE AND HOUSE OF COMMONS OF CANADA Ottawa, Queen's Printed, 1885, 186p and 20p ads.

I think it is of interest that the last two editions of his work should have been published by the Dominion Government; which was, perhaps, a measure of their worth to Campeau's contempories.

THE CIRCULATION OF OTHER FOREIGN COINS IN COLONIAL CANADA

by R. C. Willey, F.R.N.S.

PART I PORTUGUESE COINS

Most Portuguese coins circulating in Colonial Canada were gold. The earliest to appear was the moidore of 4000 reis. This word comes from the Portuguese phrase moeda d'ouro, which simply means a gold coin, and was applied to the 4000 reis in British colonies rather than to the 2000 reis, which actually bore the name in Portugal. The moidore of 4000 reis was struck in 916 2/3 fine gold and weighed 164 grains 1. It was coined in Portugal from 1677 to 1722 and in Brazil from 1703 to 1727. Both issues feature a Cross of Jerusalem on the reverse. Other pieces of 4000 reis, struck in Brazil, are lighter in weight, struck thus for exclusive circulation there, and feature on the reverse a plain cross 2.

In 1717 the onça or dobra was first coined in Portugal, together with a peça or half, a quarter, an escudo or eighth (sometimes called an oitavo), a sixteenth, and a thirty-second. The Portuguese onça contained a Portuguese ounce of gold, and was coined from 1717 to 1732 in Portugal and from 1727 to 1733 in Brazil. The onça was worth 12800 reis, and was coined in 916 2/3 fine gold weighing 442.6 grains 3. In the British Empire it was called a Johannes or Joannese, though this name was applied to the peca or half in Portugal and Brazil. The peça or 6400 reis was coined in Portugal from 1722 to 1835, and in Brazil from 1727 to 1822.

The Ordinance of 1764 at Quebec established the moidore at £1,16/- currency and the onca at £4,16/- currency. In 1777, when Halifax Currency became the standard in Canada, the moidore was rated at £1,10/- and the onca at an even £4. These ratings were confirmed in Upper and in Lower Canada in 1796 and 1808. New Brunswick adopted these ratings in 1805 4 . New Brunswick enacted in 1805, and Lower and Upper Canada in 1808, that Portuguese gold tendered by weight in sums of £50 or more was to be rated at £4,9/- an ounce, with a deduction of $2\frac{1}{4}$ d per grain loss of weight of individual coins. The Colony of Canada raised this value to £4,16/- per ounce in 1841. By this time, however, Portuguese gold was disappearing from circulation in Canada.

Portuguese silver was rarely seen. Queen Anne's Proclamation of 1707 fixed the value of the Portuguese crusado at 3/9 3/4 currency in all British colonies in North America 5. The terms of this Proclamation were honoured in the breach rather than the observance, and the crusado was accepted at its value in terms of the local rating of the Spanish dollar, whatever that was at the time. The crusado was originally issued in Portugal at 400 reis, but early in the eighteenth century it was raised to 480 reis. It was coined from 1688 to 1837 in Portugal, in 899.305 fine silver weighing 268 grains 6. So few were in use by 1764 that the coins were never named in any of the colonial currency laws.

Another silver piece occasionally seen was the Brazilian pistare of 960 reis coined at Bahia and Rio de Janeiro from 1808 to 1822. This coin was struck over Spanish dollars, often rather poorly. It was treated in the currency laws in the same manner as the Spanish and other dollars.

Portuguese and Brazilian copper had a limited, unofficial circulation in Lower Canada. During the period between 1820 and 1840, when there was a very keen demand for small change, which was difficult to satisfy, it seemed that anything approximately the size of a halfpenny would pass for one. Among the many foreign coppers occasionally seen were Portuguese and Brazilian poeces of ten reis, usually of the types struck after 1777.

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PART II AMERICAN COINS

American coins came to the notice of the colonial authorities very soon after their issue began. The gold eagle was first issued in 1795 in 916 2/3 fine gold weighing 270 grains. In and after 1838 it was coined in 900 fine gold weighing 258 grains 7. The eagle was valued at £2,10/- by Upper and Lower Canada in 1796 and by New Brunswick in 1805. In 1808 the colonies of Upper and Lower Canada permitted eagles and other American gold coins to be tendered by weight in payments of £50 or more, rating them at £4,9/- per ounce, with a deduction of $2\frac{1}{4}$ d a grain for loss of weight of individual pieces.

The new eagle was introduced in consequence of legislation passed in the United States to adopt a gold standard. The effect in Canada was to make the new eagle the equivalent of £2,10/- Halifax Currency, and the old eagle was raised in value to £2,13/4 Currency. These values for the old and new eagle were maintained for the united Colony of Canada by Act of 1841. These values were also adopted for New Brunswick 8 .

No specific rating of the eagle, old or new, was ever adopted in Nova Scotia, the currency system being closely tied to the Spanish dollar and doubloon and the British sovereign. After 1834 what few American gold coins in circulation were returned to the United States on account of the monetary legislation of the American government in 1834. In Prince Edward Island the eagle was rated officially at \pm 3 local currency in 1849, but probably went at this value from 1839, at which time the British sovereign was being accepted at \pm 1,10/- local currency 9. In Newfoundland the eagle was accepted at \pm 2,9/3 currency in 1860. On the adoption of the decimal system most colonies rated the eagle at \$10, but in Nova Scotia it had a rating of \$10.40 local currency, and in Newfoundland it went for \$9.85 in Newfoundland currency These ratings were altered to \$10 respectively in 1871 and 1895.

The American silver dollar was first coined in 1794, in 892.4 fine silver weighing 416 grains. After 1837 it was coined in 900 fine silver weighing 412.5 grains. 11 In 1796 the governments of Upper and Lower Canada equated it to the Spanish dollar and accordingly rated in at 5/- Currency. New Brunswick likewise equated it to the Consequently the American dollar became the standard in these colonies. The Colony of Canada in rating it at 5/1 Currency in 1841, continued to equate it with the old Spanish dollar. It was reduced again to 5/- in 1850, and in 1858 it became the basis of the Canadian decimal system, which created a Canadian dollar equal in value to the gold dollar. New Brunswick's decimal system accomplished the same thing. In Nova Scotia the American dollar was not named in any currency laws because it was so seldom seen. Prince Edward Island treated all kinds of dollars alike, which meant that the American dollar went for 6/3 local currency under the Act of 1849 until it was demonetised in 1870. The adoption of the decimal system remonetised the coin, and the local dollar was established as equal to the American dollar. Newfoundland made little use of the American dollar, which was valued at \$1 in local currency when the decimal system was adopted. Soon afterward its value fell to 93¢, and eventually to 80¢ by 1893, dollars no longer being legal tender in Newfoundland after 1887 12.

The American half dollar was fairly commonly found in use in Canada after 1815. The labourers employed in building the Lachine and Rideau Canals were paid in American half dollars of the bust type of 1807-1836. Liberty seated half dollars entered Canada after this period, the discovery of a pair of moulds for casting counterfeits in the Ottawa valley region testifying to their circulation in Canada. In the course of time quarter dollars, dimes, and half dimes entered Canada, influencing the government to adopt the decimal system in 1858. New Brunswick was dominated by American subsidiary silver during this period. Enormous quantities of American silver came into Canada during the troubled times of the American Civil War, and

after Confederation the government of the Dominion began to carry out plans for its removal and replacement with a domestic silver coinage. Domestic silver coinage was first issued in 1870, and by 1875 there was considerably less American silver in circulation.

American cents were first coined in 1793. These early cents were heavy coppers weighing 208 grains. In 1796 the weight was reduced to 168 grains. Coinage of these large cents was discontinued in 1857. In Lower Canada, where the market place had a voracious appetits for small change, American cents were occasionally found in circulation. Though they were familiar to everyone, they did not dominate the copper currency in any of the Canadian colonies.

PART V MISCELLANEOUS FOREIGN COINS

In Colonial times a few coins of other European countries were seen in circulation in small quantities. Queen Anne's Proclamation of 1707 alludes to reichsthalers of the Holy Roman Empire, ducatoons of Flanders, and Dutch three-guilder pieces, respectively rated at 6/-, 7/4, and 6/11 currency, based on the 6/- rating of the Spanish dollar ¹³. None of these coins was present in very large numbers in Colonial Canada.

The Ordinance of 1764 regulating the currency at Quebec gave a specific value to a gold coin called "The Caroline of Germany." This coin was recorded as weighing 137 grains and tariffed at £1,10/- currency 14 . In 1777 the coin was not named in the Ordinance of that year, which would indicate that it was rarely found in Canada. Under this Ordinance, any specimens in circulation would pass for £1,5/- currency.

The German carolin or caroline is a ten-gulden piece first issued in Bavaria in 1726. It was issued within a few years by other south German states such as Wurttemberg and Baden, the Palatinate, Hesse-Darmstadt, and Waldeck and Julich and Berg. The last carolin was coined in 1736. These coins were struck in 770 fine gold weighing 149.7 grains. If these be the coins called "The Caroline of Germany" in 1764, it would seem that specimens brought to the attention of the government were deficient in weight, either by clipping or honest wear and tear, by some twelve grains.

In Lower Canada from about 1815 to 1840, there was a seemingly insatiable demand for small change. Anything in copper or brass the size of a halfpenny would go for one in the market place. As a result the odd foreign copper coin was encountered. The Austrian Kreuzer on 1816, the Danish skilling of 1771, Norwegian and Swedish coppers of the same size, the Sardinian 5 centesimi of 1826, and old French sous and French republican pieces of 5 centimes were all found in circulation, along with Spanish pieces of 8 maravedis and pieces of 10 reis of Portugal. A few Mexican pieces of a quarter of a real and South American coppers completed the spicing of this mixed copper currency. Dutch and German coppers were smaller coins and therefore did not circulate. Even Russion copper was sometimes found. T.V.Buttrey 15, in his article on cut coins in Canada, mentions a Russion 2 kopecks of 1757 found among the ruins of the town of Fairfield, Ontario, in 1941.

This "international" circulating medium lasted till 1835, when the banks took matters into their own hands and refused to accept copper other than English and Irish regal issues except by weight. The Bank of Montreal substituted its own tokens, and in 1837 the four largest banks jointly issued the Habitant coinage, and foreigh coppers disappeared.

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A Dobra of 12800 reis of Joao V 1706 - 1750





A peca of 6400 reis of Pedro III and Maria I, 1777-1786





A Moidore of 4000 reis of Pedro II





An American Eagle of the old standard, coined before 1837





The new Eagle, coined after 1837

LEESON & SCOTT

by Donald M. Stewart

In the opening of the West, courage and hardship were commonplace. History records the many privations endured by the fur traders and explorers, who made first contact with the Indians. The stories of the Metis, the missionaries, the surveyors, the North- West Mounted Police and the early settlers have demonstrated their industry and fortitude. Among these pioneers and virtually unknown today, are Leeson & Scott, Indian traders, mail and beef contractors, stage line operators and ranchers, but they, too, contributed much to the early development of the West.

George Kidd Leeson was born in Ontario in 1843 of a Scottish mother and an Irish father. In 1880, Leeson moved to Manitoba. James Scott left Edinburgh, Scotland to come to Canada with his parents in 1851, when he was four years old. The family farmed at Blenheim, Ontario and later moved to Palmerston, where Scott learned the trade of teamster. He first came West in 1879 but returned to Ontario until 1881, when he settled in Rapid City , Manitoba. Later he moved to Carberry, where he engaged in the grain business. In 1883, Leeson and Scott became partners to obtain some of the mail contracts which were then becoming available. In this region, from earliest historic times, any mail service had been a part of the communication system of the two fur trade companies, the Northwest Company and the Hudson's Bay Company, with personal mail carried only as a courtesy. Originally such mail was carried by the voyageurs when the brigades of freight canoes transported the furs to the East each spring and again on their return with supplies in the Fall. Sometime before 1800, the Northwest Company initiated a winter mail service by dog-team from Fort Chipewyan on Lake Athabasca to their headquarters at Fort William. Not long afterwards the Hudson's Bay Company adopted a similar plan. Only in 1870, when the railway reached Moorhead, Minnesota, was mail able to reach Winnipeg with any frequency, but distribution further west was still very uncertain. Even in 1876, when James McKay was awarded a contract to carry the mails between Winnipeg and Edmonton, delivery took from six to eight weeks and often longer.

In 1883, the Canadian Pacific Railway was spanning the prairies to Calgary and the Rocky Mountains, bringing a reorganization of the mail distr bution system. On April 1, 1883, J.W. "flat Boat" McLane began a once in three weeks mail service between Troy (Qu'Appelle Station) and Edmonton. Two months later this contract was extended to include mail for Stobart (Duck Lake) and Prince Albert on a fortnightly and then weekly basis. In November, this contract, but with fortnightly service to Edmonton, was assumed by R. Elliott, who in turn relinquished it to Scott, Leeson and Stewart on December 31, 1883. On May 1, 1884, a fortnightly service was commenced between Calgary, Edmonton, Fort Saskatchewan, Battleford, Fort Pitt and Stobart, which, with the Prince Albert to Troy service, gave them a run of 683 miles. This contract was written in the name of Leeson & Scott. The former partner, Stewart, remains unidentified, but he may have been the well-known businessman Col. J. Stewart of the Stewart Ranching Co. of Fort MacLeod, who held the mail contract between Calgary and that centre for many years. In 1888, the Calgary to Fort Saskatchewan run became weekly, but it was discontinued on August 15, 1891 with completion of the railway line to Strathcona (South Edmonton). The other original contract had continued until November 10, 1890, when the railway line to Prince Albert made the mail stage obsolete, The changing patterns of rail service and settlement required frequent changes in the mail contract routes, as the following list indicates :

Date of Service	Between	Miles Frequency
	887 Battleford-Swift Current 1897 Battleford-Onion Lake	198 Fortnightly 102 Fortnightly

Nov. 11,1890	-	Sept.30,1897	Battleford-Saskatoon	90	2 per week
Dec.31, 1820			Qu'Appelle-Qu'Appelle Station	18	6 per week
Nov.11, 1890	-	July 8, 1897	Saskatchewan Landing-Swift Current	30	Weekly
Nov.11, 1890	-	Mar.31, 1896	Saskatoon-Railway Station	1	4 per week
Nov.11, 1890	-	Feb.13, 1891	Kutawa-Qu'Appelle Station	72	Fortnightly
Feb.13, 1891	-	July 31,1893	Kutawa-Qu'Appelle	54	Weekly
Aug. 1, 1893	-	Oct.31, 1897	Qu'Appelle-Wishart	66	Weekly

These runs served the larger settlements in the Northwest Territories and were important not only for the reliable mail delivery which Leeson & Scott provided but also because the partners offered a regular stage coach service as well. These mail stages were not the fancy Concord stage coaches shown in movies of the Old West but rather the aptly named'Mud-wagons". At first they were open coaches, with two passengers located in the centre of the wagon surrounded by the freight and mail and drawn by th two-horse team. By 1889 some heavier four-horse wagons were being used which carried the mail and freight in the front area and left space at the rear for two passengers who sat on padded seats under a buggy-top shelter. The advantage of the "mud-wagons" lay in their low centre of gravity, which kept them from overturning easily on the bumpy trails and because they were easily dismantled when stuck in the mud and quickly re-assembled on drier land. In winter, when the snows piled up, a sleigh would be used.

Usually the early stage coach drivers were farm boys from Ontario who were hired for their ability to handle horses under difficult conditions and for their own adventurous spirits. Many tales are told of their exploits in facing the hazards of the trail and the weather to carry the mails through safely. One driver, who survived a three-day blizzard, is said to have been given a public dinner in recognition of his feat. The most publicized event in Leeson & Scott's history occurred in July, 1886, when the Prince Albert mail stage with two passengers was robbed at gumpoint some 25 miles south of Humboldt. An expected money box was not aboard, so the bandit opened some mail and took a drink of "permit" whiskey. The driver, John Art, commented that he felt a bit cheap "to have one man hold up three". The robber comforted him by saying he'd held up a bigger crowd that morning. About a year later, the driver spotted the holdup man in Prince Albert, where he was arrested and later sentenced to fourteen years in prison.

A period of special interest is that of the Northwest Relellion of 1885, when the Metis led by Louis Riel and Gabriel Dumont were joined in revolt by the Cree under Indian chiefs Poundmaker and Big Bear in an effort to correct their many grievances. A canadian Army was hurriedly assembled under the command of General Middleton. Leeson & Scott were awarded a special mail service contract to carry the mail from Qu'Appelle Station and later from Swift Current to the frequently moving Army Headquarters. With no one really certain where the Metis and Indian forces might be and whether other Indian tribes would join in the struggle, it was an exciting time for the mail stage drivers.

While Leeson & Scott were only one of many mail contractors in the Territories, they were by far the largest. At a time when cash was scarce in the west and a dollar was truly valuable, they held mail contracts which often brought them annual payments in excess of \$25,000. This was supplemented by the fares of the stage coach passengers, who might pay \$25.00 for a 200 mile journey. The mail contract rates usually ran from \$1.25 to \$1.50 per mile each trip. It is no wonder the Regina 'Leader' said in 1896 "Leeson & Scott probably made and spent more money in the North-West than any private firm has done or will do for twenty years hence". It was only natural that these lucrative mail contracts were under frequent attack, but the Post Office seems to have favoured Leeson & Scott, as in the letter written on the 15th of April, 1893 by W.W.McLeod, a Post Office Inspector, who stated "they have given a most excellent service over long routes and often under great difficulties". Despite this support and letters of recommendation from others, the pressures grew and finally

the contracts were thrown open to tender. Leeson & Scott were underbid and on October 31, 1897, they completed their last mail stage runs.

The firm's mail carrying contracts were running smoothly and producing substantial revenues, which enabled the partners to devote time to other pursuits. It was one of these which led to the opening of the trading post at Morley, from which the following trade tokens were issued.

Leeson & Scott/General/Merchants/Morley, Alta.

Good	for/1¢/in/merchandise	A:R:17
Good	for/5¢/in/merchandise	A:R:20
	for/10¢/in/merchandise	A:R:22
	for/25¢/in/medchandise	A:R:24
	for/50¢/in/merchandise	A:R:30
	for/\$1.00/in/merchandise	A:R:34

When Canada concluded treaties with the Plains Indians in 1876 and 1877, the terms included the provision of rations in the event of famine. By 1879 the last buffalo had been slaughtered and the Indians were facing starvation. In accordance with the treaties, beef cattle were purchased to provide food for them. This became a continuing practice and in the Fall of 1886 Leeson § Scott won their first contract to supply cattle for rationing the Indians on the Stoney Reserve at Morley. They had brought in from the United States by trail 150 head of big steers. 72,620 pounds of beef valued at \$6,533.37 were slaughtered and dressed at a newly constructed slaughter and ration house on the south bank of the Bow River. It is interesting to note that Leeson § Scott retained 79 hides and allowed a reduction of \$2.00 per hide from their account with the Department of Indian Affairs. The price of this beef was 9¢ per pound, a little below the 10 1/3 which had been paid to the previous supplier, David McDougall.

For the two years 1886-87 and 1887-88, Leeson & Scott also held the beef contract for the Sarcee Indian Reserve, adjacent to the City of Calgary, but then lost it to a lower tender. It is not known whether they sought to regain this contract, but if not, it may have been because they had now establised a ranch adjacent to the southeast area of the Stoney Indian Reserve. Here, the S L Ranch had access to large open grazing areas and was located close to the delivery point for their Stoney Indian beef contract and to the railway for shipment to population centres. By 1890, the S L Ranch had 615 head of cattle, indicating the large size of their operation 1. In this period, the records show the Stoney Indians required about 100 head a year, with the dressed weight averaging in excess of 660 pounds per animal. Over the next few years, the Stoney Indians began to build their own herd and were able to supply 39 head themselves in 1892 and reported a herd of 719 head in 1895.

Some of the excitement of the distribution of rations was captured by Fred M.Graham in a a letter written in 1941, when he recalled having witnessed it for the first time in the summer of 1885. "I see," he writes, "a picture of about 800 Stonies with horses, dogs and papooses waiting for rations at the old McDougall Store,---squaws, men and papooses wrapped in Hudson Bay blankets, covering loin cloths, no shirts or trousers, and each buck with his rifle and H.B. knife and a belt full of cartridges. 44 - 40 carbines were almost universally used there, the more modern ones came later. Flint-locks, except for shotguns, had passed out. Mr. David McDougall (who then held the contract) butchered the cattle in a corral just below the hill---immediately west of the McDougall store. There was a log building on the north side of the (present) highway near the old bridge, in which the meat was cut up and weigned out to the Indians".

The Stoney Indian Reserve straddles the Bow River valley about forty miles west of

Calgary, lying in the rolling foothill country at the eastern edge of the majestic Rocky Mountains. The Stoneys are a branch of the Assiniboine Nation and speak a dialect of the Yanktonnais, one of the divisions of the Sioux tongue 2. They were a mountain and foothill people, who relied upon the game animals of the woods and the buffalo of the plains but did not adopt the horse as it was not suitable for life in the country they usually travelled. There are three main bands, the Wesleys, they Chiniquis and the Bearspaws and each signed Treaty No. Seven separately, although they were allotted a common reserve at Morley. The Stoney Indians are regarded as a friendly, honest people of high principles.

Leeson & Scott obtained the Stoney Indian beef contract soon after the Canadian Pacific Railway had been constructed along the Bow River Valley and through the reserve. David McDougall's post was located to the north of the river and railway and it occurred to the partners that the ideal location for a trading post would be adjacent to the new railway station in the centre of the reserve. In the fall of 1886, they built a new post, with Robert Scott as trader. Little is known of Robert, who is believed to have been a younger brother of James Scott, but he was a junior partner in Leeson & Scott and managed the Morley trading post until 1892. The new building was quite small, roughly 16 feet by 12 feet, constructed of rough lumber with a wood shingle roof. Three additions over the years resulted in an L-shaped structure about 25 feet wide by 75 feet deep, having a 25 foot square shed attached Immediately to the east of the post a dwelling of rough to the northeast corner. lumber was built for the trader. These buildings remained in service until a new store was constructed which opened on March 12, 1962. On April 4, 1964, the dwelling inwhich the owner was living caught fire and spread to the historic old trading post building, which was totally destroyed.

The Calgary Trib une of October 23, 1889 reported a strange incident involving Robert Scott under the heading "A Hellish Plot". The newspaper story begins - "Last night one of the most hellish plots ever concocted in Canada was discovered and frustrated at Morley". It proceeds to describe a woman formerly called Mrs. Tough, but claiming to be the wife of Robert Scott. Sometime ago Mr. Scott received information, that this woman had planned a scheme by which he was to be mutilated for life. Constable Watson of the Northwest Mounted Police was alerted to the plot and after careful watching at the railway station, his attention was attracted by a figure in male attire, not large enough for a man and yet not like a boy. Constable Watson shadowed carefully and just when an assault was about to be made on Mr. Scott, he seized the figure from behind, pinning the arms tightly. When a search was made the figure was found to be Mrs. Tough; and on her person was found a bottle of ether, a bottle of carbolic acid, a gag, two razors and a couple of loaded self-cocking revolvers. Who says the "Wild West" wasn't wild?

Calgary buzzed with the story, and over the following weeks more detail became public. The Tribune report of the court sittings commencing November 25, 1889 dealt at length with the relationship of Robert and Margaret Scott. It was revealed that Mrs. Scott claimed to have married him at Donald, B.C. in June, 1887 only to learn that it was a mock marriage. Robert denied any such marriage had taken place, but both did agree that a binding marriage took place at Medicine Hat on March 14, 1888. Mrs. Scott had then departed for Winnipeg, where a child was born. There was serious disagreement on the question of whether or not she had been paid not to return to Calgary. Mrs. Scott did complain that the room she slept in during one visit to Morley contained a barrel of gunpowder three feet from the stove. Robert explained this was kept in the room on account of the insurance on the store. Scott had been charged with non-support of his wife, but was discharged when the jury failed to agree on a verdict after a ruling by Justice Rouleau that Scott would not be guilty if Mrs. Scott wss able to provide for herself. Evidence had shown she ran a boarding house and was supporting herself. On the following day, Margaret Scott faced trial on a charge of having attempted to administer chloroform to Robert Scott with intent to

wound, main and disfigure him. After a two day trial, the all-male jury brought in a verdict of "not guilty", which was greeted with applause by those in court. A new jury was then empanelled to hear a further charge of assault with intent to rob. His lordship, Justice Rouleau, instructed the jury that the law assumed husband and wife were o ne and that a wife could not be guilty of larceny from her husband. He directed that their verdict could only be one of acquittal. The jury at once returned a verdict of "not guilty". Mrs Scott was then cautioned by the judge, whose remarks included the statement "the scheme was unworthy of a Christian woman".

In 1892, William Graham assumed the management of the Morley trading post and responsibility for the S L Ranch, which was now well established with breeding stock and thriving under the direct supervision of Howard Sibbald. Leeson & Scott had registered and were using the S L brand for cattle and the lazy S L brand for horses.

John Alfred (Fred) Kidd, became manager of the trading post in April 1902. Fred Kidd, a cousin of George K. Leeson, was born near Carleton Place, Ontario on December 27, 1872. While a young man, he moved to Fort Qu'Appelle where he remained for two years, teaching school and studying engineering. In 1893, at the age of 21, Kidd moved to Calgary, Alberta, where he lived with the Leeson family, while working for the Smith & Sibbald creamery. Fred Kidd moved to Okotoks, near Calgary, a few years later in order to install the machinery in a new creamery. Unfortunately a flash flood destroyed the building and the project was abandoned. Kidd spent the summer helping on the farm of Fred Allen, who had conceived the plan for the creamery. While there he met his future wife, Margaret Smith. After working for a time at Wetaskiwin, in 1898 Kidd returned to Calgary to manage the Smith & Sibbald creamery which had now been taken over vy the Territorial government, after having experienced financial problems. He remained there until moving to Morley. Fred Kidd found the work at the trading post interesting and applied himself to learning the language of the Stoney Indians.

Kidd was popular with the Stoneys, especially the Chief of the Chiniquis, and was consulted by them when a power company wanted to purchase Indian land for a dam. In order that he could attend their council, open only to Chiefs, the Stoneys honoured him by making him a full chief and Chief Chiniqui gave Kidd his own name, "Playing Buffalo". At his urging, the chiefs decided not to sell the land, but to lease it to the power company. In May, 1907, Fred Kidd faced a broblem in educating his children, so he left the store in the care of his younger brother and moved to Vancouver, with his wife and three children, where he passed away on March 21, 1943. Stuart Kidd managed the store for two years, at which time it was sold. He than moved to Nordegg, to take charge of a big store there. Stuart Kidd retired in 1940 and passed away in 1958.

At Morley, the duties of the post manager included trading with the Indians and local ranchers and occasionally outfitting survey or other parties travelling in the Foothills and Rocky Mountains. It is believed that the trade tokens were introduced by Fred Kidd in the period 1906-07. The use of tokens would allow immediate payment to be made for furs, produce or other services, without the need to carry large sums of money at the store. Any credit allowed could also be paid out in tokens with only one bookkeeping entry required. Unlike money, these tokens could only be spent at the Leeson & Scott post, ensuring that the trade came to them. While no early records of the post have been located, a recent owner, Ivan Lougheed, does recall purchasing more than 10,000 furs in the year 1967. These were primarily beaver, muskrat, weasel, coyote and squirrel. Assuming a similar volume of trade at the time the tokens were issued, it can be seen that they would be a great convenience to the employees of the post. Although Leeson & Scott sold the Morley post to David H. McDougall and Fred M. Graham in 1909, the tokens were in use for many years, with a few still to be found in the back of the cash drawer thirty years later.

In expanding their business, both principals of Leeson & Scott managed to gain and hold the high regard of their contemporaries. James Scott had settled at Qu'Appelle in order to look after the eastern operations of the mail stage line. He was described as "a modest man; a person conversing with him and looking into his clear blue eyes felt instinctively that here was a man who made no rash statements -----who was sound and true to the core. Those who did business with him know that he was not only fair but generous". Scott was an enthusiastic horseman and owned several well known race horses including "Dick French", which set a Territorial record at Regina in 1893. A man of medium height and robust health, James Scott came down with congestion of the lungs and passed away suddenly on March 6, 1896 at the age of 48. He left a wife, three sons and six daughters, and a great many friends. It was a measure of his regard for his partner that he named his youngest dauthter Leeson.

Meanwhile, George Leeson had settled at Calgary to supervise their Alberta business. He was appointed the Postmaster at Morley for some years, which was a natural adjunct to the trading post located beside the railway station. Later, Leeson is described in directories as a rancher and contractor. He maintained large property holdings and with a local business partner had just completed a new office building at the time of his death on June 23, 1910. A charter member of the Calgary curling Club and a member of the Masonic Order, George Leeson received an impressive funeral, with eight prominent pioneers and friends acting as pallbearers.

The faith of these two pioneer businessmen in the future of Western Canada was fully justified. They could take satisfaction from their own contributions to this development.

FOOTNOTES

1..Kelly, L.V.

The Range Men William Briggs, 1913, Toronto p 251

2.. Swanton, John R.

"Indian Tribes of North America". Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology, Bulletin 145; p 387

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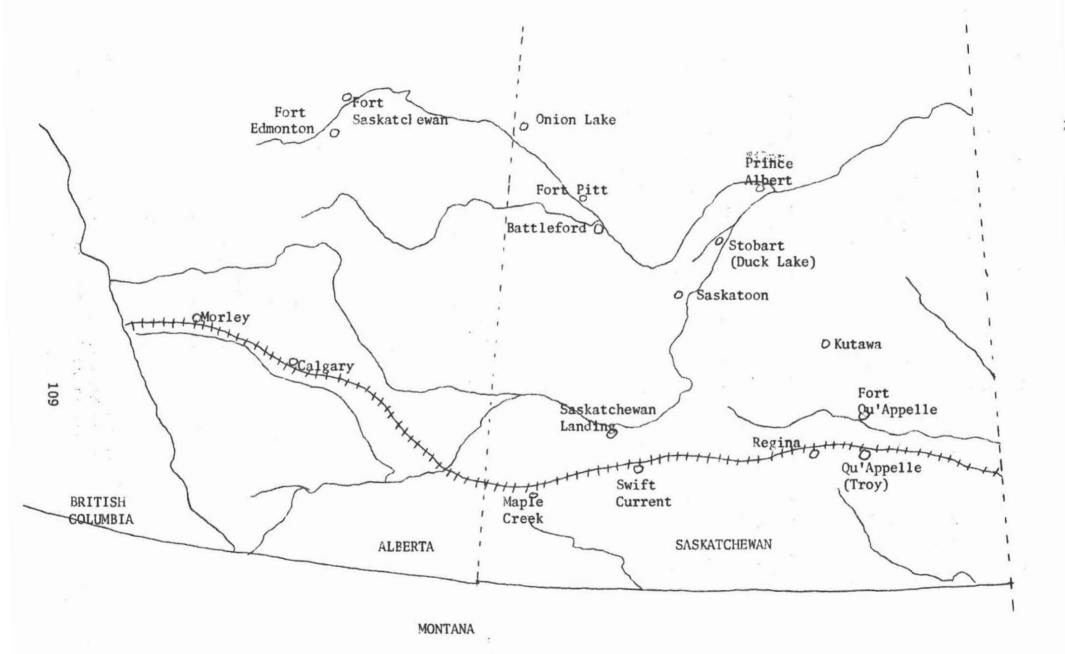
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SANDHAM'S 1896 CATALOGUE

by Michael R. Curry

Recently, while browsing through the numismatic section of the Ottawa Public Library, I came across an original edition of Alfred Sandham's "Coins, Tokens and Medals of the Dominion of Canada".

The binding was not the original but appeared quite old. Bound in with the front cover was a page of typing which appears to be a history of this early Canadian numismatic work. A transcript of this page follows:

"Of this work there were 300 copies printed but only 250 were bound. It was anything but a financial success. While it was offered at the absurdly low price of 75 cts. only about 100 copies were disposed of by sale. The remaining copies were given away to friends, societies and the press. The sheets remained in the hands of Mr. Rose, printer, for nearly 3 years when they were thrown out as waste paper, by my orders.

All the full page illustrations were drawn by myself (not much to boast of?) and were lithographed by Bishop & Co. of Montreal. The medals pp 51 - 66 (excepting pp 55 to 59) were also prepared from my pen drawings. They are of interest from the fact that they are among the first if not the first blocks prepared by what is now known as photo-engraving, which appeared in a printed book. They were popularly known as Leggotypes after Mr. W.A. Leggo the inventor of the process who was then experimenting on his new discovery. Ere he supplied even these somewhat rough plates he had made several scores of blocks which were useless.

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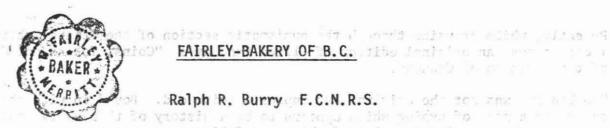
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Al. Sandham"

Unfortunately this note is not dated nor does the library have any indication as to the provenence of their copy of this book.

The Canadian Numismatic Publishing Institute reprinted this work in 1962 but even these are becoming hard to get.

Sandham's works are still of interest to present day numismatists who can only be even more appreciative that he left us this record of his work.



FAIRLEY-BAKERY OF B.C. the Jean to the

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Ralph R. Burry F.C.N.R.S. to Borytodain in of our erropping that perspect of interest in the second of the secon

In the Spring of 1911, Mr. and Mrs. Wm. Fairley and their five children left Broxburn, Scotland (6 miles west of Edinburgh) to come to Canada where they settled in Merritt, B.C. Mr. Fairley started working as a coal miner at Coal Hill Mine. boom to and

The following year William's brother Harry came out from Scotland and together they started a bakery. The first bakery was located on Coldwater Avenue in Merritt. After buying a horse and wagon they started a house-to-house delivery service. The town of Merritt at that time had a population of nearly 2,000 people and although there was another bakery in Merritt at that time, there was enough business for both.

After a short time the Fairleys moved next door to the Mercantile Store on Quilchena Avenue where they opened up a new bake shop and an ice cream parlour. They still delivered the bread by horse and wagon.

In 1915 the Fairley Bakery bought a delivery truck which, in those days, was quite a step forward. Delivering their bread daily, there was never any left over to bring back to the store as William had the driver give any extra loaves to the poor and needy of the town.

Mr. Wm. Fairley built two stores on Main Street in 1920. One was a new bakery and the other he rented to Overwaite Stores. In the new store he started a retail bake shop in a continual and decide

Poor health plagued Wm. Fairley in the mid 40's and finally in 1947 he passed away. However, the bakery closed before his death. His wife Mary, a small woman of 90 lbs., outlived him by twenty-one years.

As well as the five children they brought with them from Scotland. three more were born in Merritt. The surviving children remember the bakery and tokens quite well but the number of tokens and where they were made is not known.

Description of Token:

W. FAIRLEY/BAKER/MERRITT GOOD FOR/I/LOAF OF BREAD ALUM: Sc 8:28.





NUMISMATIC AWARDS

CANADIAN NUMISMATIC RESEARCH SOCIETY LITERARY AWARD

The panel of judges has announced that the recipient for the 1976 C.N.R.S. Literary Award was Norman E. Wells for his book "Medals and Tokens of the Industrial Exhibition Association of Toronto" which was published in June of 1975.

TAMS BRONZE LITERARY AWARD

A letter was received by Fellow Donald M. Stewart of Calgary notifying him that:

"I am happy to tell you that you have won TAMS Bronze Literary Award for your article 'The Hudson's Bay Company Tokens of the Ungava District'.

It will be presented at TAMS Banquet in August, in N.Y. August 27, 1976, at the American City Squire Inn, across the street from the Americana (which is the Convention Hotel)

I hope you will be there to receive the award in person"

Sincerely
Dottie Dow,
Presidentof TAMS

ROYAL CANADIAN MINT AWARD

The Royal Canadian Mint Award is to be presented each year to the Canadian who is deemed to have contributed the most to numismatic education in Canada.

The first recipient of this sterling silver medal award was Fellow Norman A. Williams of Vancouver, who received the award at the banquet closing the convention of the Canadian Numismatic Association at Ottawa on July 10th. 1976.

Our congratulations to all of you. You have truly earned this recognition.