

Chapter 1 : Exploration of North America - HISTORY

Explorations in Economic History is the only journal where you will find "Surveys and Speculations". This unique department alerts economic historians to the potential in a new area of research, surveying the recent literature and then identifying the most promising issues to pursue.

Visit Website But between and a series of interconnected developments occurred in Europe that provided the impetus for the exploration and subsequent colonization of America. These developments included the Protestant Reformation and the subsequent Catholic Counter-Reformation, the Renaissance, the unification of small states into larger ones with centralized political power, the emergence of new technology in navigation and shipbuilding, and the establishment of overland trade with the East and the accompanying transformation of the medieval economy. Protestantism emphasized a personal relationship between each individual and God without the need for intercession by the institutional church. Thus, the rise of Protestantism and the Counter-Reformation, along with the Renaissance, helped foster individualism and create a climate favorable to exploration. At the same time, political centralization ended much of the squabbling and fighting among rival noble families and regions that had characterized the Middle Ages. With the decline of the political power and wealth of the Catholic church, a few rulers gradually solidified their power. Portugal, Spain, France, and England were transformed from small territories into nation-states with centralized authority in the hands of monarchs who were able to direct and finance overseas exploration. As these religious and political changes were occurring, technological innovations in navigation set the stage for exploration. Bigger, faster ships and the invention of navigational devices such as the astrolabe and sextant made extended voyages possible. But the most powerful inducement to exploration was trade. The Orient became a magnet to traders, and exotic products and wealth flowed into Europe. Those who benefited most were merchants who sat astride the great overland trade routes, especially the merchants of the Italian city-states of Genoa, Venice, and Florence. The newly unified states of the Atlantic—France, Spain, England, and Portugal—and their ambitious monarchs were envious of the merchants and princes who dominated the land routes to the East. The desire to supplant the trade moguls, especially the Italians, and fear of the Ottoman Empire forced the Atlantic nations to search for a new route to the East. Portugal led the others into exploration. Encouraged by Prince Henry the Navigator, Portuguese seamen sailed southward along the African coast, seeking a water route to the East. They were also looking for a legendary king named Prester John who had supposedly built a Christian stronghold somewhere in northwestern Africa. Henry hoped to form an alliance with Prester John to fight the Muslims. His school developed the quadrant, the cross-staff, and the compass, made advances in cartography, and designed and built highly maneuverable little ships known as caravels. Dias sailed around the tip of Africa and into the Indian Ocean before his frightened crew forced him to give up the quest. A year later, Vasco da Gama succeeded in reaching India and returned to Portugal laden with jewels and spices. Born in Genoa, Italy, around 1451, Columbus learned the art of navigation on voyages in the Mediterranean and the Atlantic. Columbus, hoping to make such a voyage, spent years seeking a sponsor and finally found one in Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain after they defeated the Moors and could turn their attention to other projects. After ten weeks he sighted an island in the Bahamas, which he named San Salvador. Thinking he had found islands near Japan, he sailed on until he reached Cuba which he thought was mainland China and later Haiti. But the territorial disputes between Portugal and Spain were not resolved until when they signed the Treaty of Tordesillas, which drew a line leagues west of the Azores as the demarcation between the two empires. Despite the treaty, controversy continued over what Columbus had found. He made three more voyages to America between 1492 and 1498, during which he explored Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, Jamaica, and Trinidad. Each time he returned more certain that he had reached the East. In 1499 and Pedro de Mendoza went as far as present-day Buenos Aires in Argentina, where he founded a colony. Religious Motivations The impulse for exploration was further fueled by the European imagination. That idea had two parts: Ancient tales described distant civilizations, usually to the west, where European-like peoples lived simple, virtuous lives without war, famine, disease, or poverty. Such utopian visions were reinforced by

religious notions. Early Christian Europeans had inherited from the Jews a powerful prophetic tradition that drew upon apocalyptic biblical texts in the books of Daniel, Isaiah, and Revelations. They connected the Christianization of the world with the second coming of Christ. If secular and religious traditions evoked utopian visions of the New World, they also induced nightmares. The ancients described wonderful civilizations, but barbaric, evil ones as well. European encounters with the New World were viewed in light of these preconceived notions. To plunder the New World of its treasures was acceptable because it was populated by pagans. As European powers conquered the territories of the New World, they justified wars against Native Americans and the destruction of their cultures as a fulfillment of the European secular and religious vision of the New World. In 1492, Giovanni da Verrazano was commissioned to locate a northwest passage around North America to India. He was followed in by Jacques Cartier, who explored the St. Lawrence River as far as present-day Montreal. In 1564, Jean Ribault headed an expedition that explored the St. Johns River area in Florida. But the Spanish soon pushed the French out of Florida, and thereafter, the French directed their efforts north and west. Instead, the French traded with inland tribes for furs and fished off the coast of Newfoundland. New France was sparsely populated by trappers and missionaries and dotted with military forts and trading posts. Although the French sought to colonize the area, the growth of settlements was stifled by inconsistent policies. Initially, France encouraged colonization by granting charters to fur-trading companies. Then, under Cardinal Richelieu, control of the empire was put in the hands of the government-sponsored Company of New France. The company, however, was not successful, and in 1663 the king took direct control of New France. Although more prosperous under this administration, the French empire failed to match the wealth of New Spain or the growth of neighboring British colonies. The Netherlands The Dutch were also engaged in the exploration of America. Formerly a Protestant province of Spain, the Netherlands was determined to become a commercial power and saw exploration as a means to that end. In the newly formed New Netherland Company obtained a grant from the Dutch government for the territory between New France and Virginia. About ten years later another trading company, the West India Company, settled groups of colonists on Manhattan Island and at Fort Orange. The Dutch also planted trading colonies in the West Indies. By the mid-sixteenth century, however, England had recognized the advantages of trade with the East, and in 1497 English merchants enlisted Martin Frobisher to search for a northwest passage to India. Between 1497 and 1498 Frobisher as well as John Davis explored along the Atlantic coast. Gilbert headed two trips to the New World. He landed on Newfoundland but was unable to carry out his intention of establishing military posts. By the seventeenth century, the English had taken the lead in colonizing North America, establishing settlements all along the Atlantic coast and in the West Indies. This colony was short-lived, however, and was taken over by the Dutch in 1666. Croix and other islands in the cluster of the Virgin Islands. The Northern Voyages, a. Parry, The Spanish Seaborne Empire ; 2nd ed. Eric Foner and John A.

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Last Edited March 7, The economic history of what is now Canada begins with the hunting, farming and trading societies of the Indigenous peoples. Following the arrival of Europeans in the 16th century, the economy has undergone a series of seismic shifts, marked by the early Atlantic fishery, the transcontinental fur trade, then rapid urbanization, industrialization and technological change. Factory life changed the economic structure of society. Early in industrialization, usually only large factories were able to use the costly and heavy steam engine. The sawmill on Matapedia Lake ingeniously used an old steam locomotive as the motor by extending its smokestack. Previous Next This entry is the first in a series exploring the economic history of Canada. Although the following entries describe Canadian economic history by region, the country is historically a single economic unit. Improvements in transportation – the railways between and see Railway History , and the highway and pipeline systems after – have helped. The provinces have become important markets and suppliers for one another, so that an investment boom in one region such as the Prairie West could create a nationwide boom, while a slump in Ontario manufacturing becomes a nationwide slump. By the s, most Canadians had become city dwellers, and the majority of workers were in white-collar jobs, generally in the service-producing industries see Urbanization. Disparities in earnings, living standards and ways of life had been much reduced, especially after see Income Distribution. Nevertheless, the various regional economies were still very different. Manufacturing remained largely a matter for Ontario and Quebec , while the four western provinces still generated immense surpluses of natural products. In the Atlantic provinces , living standards after remained comparatively low and prospects less bright. Study of Economic History Economic history includes the study of the evolution of the economy and economic institutions. Dating to the 19th century, the subject uses ideas from economics , history, geography and political science. It must not be confused with the history of economic ideas or with the interpretation of general history using economic forces. Lawrence system – they traced interactions between geography, resources , foreign markets and the inflow of people and funds from abroad. They treated regional growth in relation to the staple products. More recent approaches have supplemented the old with modern economics and statistics. Work has been done in areas including working class history , urban growth , business history , the industrial development of central Canada, that fitted rather poorly into the Staple Thesis. Meanwhile, historical geographers produce invaluable material on settlement patterns and on the growth of towns, while regional studies, which staple theorists treated as components of nation-building, have become routes to regional self-confidence, especially in Quebec and Atlantic Canada. Marxist scholars share business and labour history and other fields with scholars whose ideologies are very different. An Economic History ; R. Pomfret, The Economic Development of Canada

Chapter 3 : History of Canada - Wikipedia

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Fraser was the first to descend the river that bears his name, and founded the earliest settlements in central BC courtesy PABC. Commercial, resource-based interests often drove exploration; for example, a westward route to Asia and later, the fur trade. By the mid-17th century most of the main geographical features of Canada had been mapped by European colonists. See also Arctic Exploration. These remains show that the earliest sighting was probably made by Bjarni Herjolfsson in 985; and that in about 1000, Leif Ericsson landed in the first of a series of expeditions culminating in the establishment of a short-lived Norse settlement. Despite these Norse settlements, when Europeans again approached northeastern America in the late 15th century, they were likely unaware of the routes and discoveries of their predecessors. Explorers at this time were seeking a westward route to Asia. Cabot probably coasted the shores of Maine, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland and Labrador; certainly he saw enough to organize a more ambitious, but totally disastrous, venture the next year. Equally difficult to pinpoint is the activity of the Portuguese Corte-Real family in that area between 1480 and 1492. Maps of the period show the rudimentary and hesitant outline of a coast stretching from the Spanish discoveries around the Carolinas northeast to the cod fisheries; however, there was still no understanding that Newfoundland was an island, nor any clear idea as to the nature of the coastline between the area of Spanish knowledge and the fishing banks 3,000 km north where the English, Portuguese and Bretons were active. Although Giovanni da Verrazzano sailed from North Carolina to Newfoundland in 1497 in French service, he stayed too far from shore to sight the strait separating Cape Breton from Newfoundland, and so remained ignorant of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Jacques Cartier made three voyages to Canada in 1498, 1504, and 1534. For the first time, Europeans were given some idea of the vastness of the country. He had now navigated both northern and southern entrances into the gulf, and had shown Newfoundland to be insular. The St. Lawrence would, with its tributaries, enable the French to explore and dominate much of the northeast of the continent in the 17th century. He also discovered the Canadian winter, for in 1535, frozen in at Stadacona, he lost almost a quarter of his men to the cold and scurvy. Similarly, like Cabot and Verrazzano, he did not reach the Pacific, but did find a route pointing straight west. For the remainder of the century the French and other Europeans continued to exploit the fisheries and the fur trade, but after Cartier the limits of French enterprise stopped at Tadoussac. Arctic Exploration and the Northwest Passage New explorations, which began in the 16th century, were far to the north see Arctic Exploration, where the English, in particular, made repeated attempts along the icebound shores of the eastern Arctic to find a water route to the Pacific. One effect of the search was that it opened up to European view, and eventual English domination, the great inland sea of Hudson Bay, which was explored by a series of expeditions culminating in those of Luke Fox and Thomas James. The century began with a new departure in the first European trading post in Canada was established at Tadoussac. The next year he landed in Acadia, where he explored the Bay of Fundy, and in 1605 he established Port-Royal. For the first time, perhaps, the Canadian environment took shape and form for European readers. From their mission stations in Huronia, the Jesuits in the 17th century reached as far west as Sault Ste. Marie, while back on the St. Lawrence they helped found a post at Ville-Marie, where the Ottawa River offered a new route to the west. Dominating the Jesuit reports were Aboriginal and missionary descriptions of Lake Superior, thought by some to be the gateway to the Pacific. The information from these scattered sources was brought together and given graphic form in the Jesuit map of the Great Lakes. Jesuit Relations also talk of the Coureurs de Bois, the rough outriders of French expansion and discovery, pushing westward in search of furs. The importance of Aboriginal peoples as guides and helpers emerges clearly in the French accounts. Europeans also observed and imitated Aboriginal methods of travel, such as the birchbark canoe in summer and the snowshoe in winter. In their wanderings, which took them as far as Lake Superior, they learned that many prime furs brought down to the French came from the Cree, who lived near "the Bay of the North Sea" Hudson Bay. It marked the beginning of a year rivalry between the St. Lawrence and the Hudson

Bay approaches to the fur country, which in the end would take the competing traders, and with them the course of exploration, to the Pacific coast. Although the French in the s finally managed to cross the height of land from the St Lawrence to James Bay by way of the Saguenay River and Lake Mistassini , that tortuous route could never compete with Hudson Strait. By the s the new company not only had posts on the shores of James Bay, but had established York Factory at the mouths of the Nelson and Hayes rivers – waterways which led deep into the western interior. Henry Kelsey As yet the Hudson Bay Company showed little interest in inland exploration, but from to one of its servants, Henry Kelsey , made a remarkable journey. Travelling with the Cree , he reached the Saskatchewan River , a busy waterway of Aboriginal trade, and from there the great plains, thick with herds of buffalo and populated by Aboriginal peoples, including Siouxan-speaking Assiniboine and Algonquian-speaking Blackfoot. To the north the prairie broke into wooded areas where moose , deer and beaver were plentiful – a lush region compared to the immediate hinterland of York Factory. He was the first European to reach the Saskatchewan River and the Canadian prairies, the first to leave a description of the grizzly bear and bison. The Kelsey Papers, which detailed his journeys, were not discovered by historians until . Aside from Kelsey, the only English interior explorations of any note from Hudson Bay were the ventures of William Stuart –'16 and Richard Norton –'18 northwestward among the Chipewyan. Here the westward movement halted until the Treaty of Utrecht ended the prolonged Anglo-French wars in North America. In one son, Louis-Joseph , reached the Saskatchewan River. Communications with Aboriginal peoples told him of "very lofty mountains" to the west, but geographers obsessed by inland seas, westward-flowing rivers and a nearby Pacific could not make sense of these assertions. Anthony Henday Even though the French seemed poised to capture the northwestern fur trade, the Hudson Bay Company was slow to react. Attempts by the Admiralty , by private groups and, rather unenthusiastically, by the company, to find a strait on the west coast of Hudson Bay to the South Sea – the traditional English concept of the Northwest Passage – had petered out by the late s, but in the following decade the company began to move in different directions. Living with a Cree woman, Henday followed the Cree along their canoe route from York Factory to the lower Saskatchewan River , across its south and north branches, to the great buffalo herds of the plains and the Blackfoot people. At his farthest west, somewhere near modern Innisfail , Alberta, Henday should have been within sight of the Rocky Mountains. Far to the west the Conquest led to the French abandoning interior posts, but the pause was brief. Once more the Hudson Bay Company reacted, if slowly, by sending its servants to and beyond the Saskatchewan River , notably Matthew Cocking in – In , the company established its first inland post at Cumberland House , km beyond The Pas , Manitoba. In command was Samuel Hearne. Apart from Hearne, North West Company traders carried out the most extensive explorations. The commercial struggle had begun, and would take the rival companies westward into Athabasca , across the Rockies and finally to the Pacific. As the traders battled westward, naval expeditions from Europe were also heading for the unknown Northwest Coast. Peter Pond In and Spanish expeditions from Mexico coasted northwards towards Alaska see Spanish Exploration ; and in , Cook made his more comprehensive, but still incomplete, survey northward from Nootka Sound to Bering Strait. The approximate outline and location of the coast were at last established, in the same decade as Hearne had reached the polar shore, but neither the British nor their predecessors had determined whether the stretches of coastline glimpsed through mist and rain were islands or mainland. And on the major problem of how far north the Rockies extended, these seaborne expeditions provided no help. He had crossed the watershed separating the Hudson Bay and Arctic Ocean drainage basins, opened a magnificent new fur-producing region, and taken European enterprises nearer the mountains and the Pacific. Lacking formal surveying skills, Pond was one of the last of the old explorers, men tough in body and mind, but often unable to represent accurately in map form where they had been or what they had seen. In , Mackenzie again sought a route to the Pacific. From Lake Athabasca he followed the Peace River into the Rockies , crossed the Continental Divide, followed the turbulent Fraser River down the western slopes, and finally reached the coast by way of the Bella Coola River. With this magnificent journey Mackenzie became the first European to cross the Canadian Rockies, but the difficulty of his route meant it had little commercial importance. Spanish survey expeditions were also on the coast, as were a number of trading vessels. For the first time the outline of modern Canada was emerging

on the maps – most notably on those of Aaron Arrowsmith, who had access to the surveys of the British Admiralty, the Hudson Bay Company and the North West Company, and whose maps of North America from onwards traced the accelerating pace of exploration across the continent. In 1791, Simon Fraser followed the river which was to bear his name down to tidal waters; and in 1792, David Thompson made a crucial commercial discovery when he traced the Columbia River down to its Pacific outlet by then, he found, in American hands. But away from these trails, all was uncertainty, ignorance and rumour; and on both sides of the mountains serious if sporadic exploration continued. While North West Company men made the more dramatic journeys, since the late 1780s the Hudson Bay Company had trained and used explorers of considerable technical ability – Philip Turnor, Thompson, Peter Fidler – who with the aid of Aboriginal guides mapped the fur-country waterways with a care and accuracy previously unknown. Thompson, in particular, was a remarkable traveller; switching to the North West Company, by the turn of the century, he had carried out extensive surveys along both the North and South Saskatchewan rivers, in Athabasca, along the Churchill River and around Lesser Slave Lake. It was estimated that he travelled 80,000 km on his surveys, on foot, on horseback and by canoe. After the union of the rival companies in 1800, the enlarged Hudson Bay Company continued filling in the blank spaces on the maps. With settlement confined to the Atlantic colonies, the St Lawrence Valley, Upper Canada and Red River, the fur trade still provided the main motivation and resources for exploration, opening up new fur regions, or finding better routes in existing areas of exploitation. In the frontier areas of the fur trade such as the Mackenzie Valley and, across the mountains, New Caledonia, exploration of the waterways continued. Samuel Black, John McLeod and Robert Campbell followed rivers on both sides of the northern Rockies – the upper reaches of the Peace, the Liard flowing into the Mackenzie, the Pelly and Lewes rivers leading into the Yukon, and the Stikine, which reached the sea in Alaska. From onwards John Rae, one of the most self-sufficient explorers of the North, whose techniques for travel and survival owed much to the Inuit, crisscrossed the huge area bounded by Great Bear Lake, the Boothia Peninsula and the northwest coast of Hudson Bay in a series of arduous journeys that soon became directed towards the search for the missing Franklin Expedition. Between 1826 and 1828, Norwegian explorer Roald Amundsen became the first European to successfully navigate a Northwest Passage. These explorations were for the most part taking place on or even beyond the margins of profitable fur-trading areas, but slowly the trade was losing its predominance. In the south, interest in settlement overtook the claims of the fur trade, and for this different sorts of surveys were needed. The prospects for agriculture, settlement, telegraph lines and railways became major concerns. Hind and Captain John Palliser conducted their mid-century surveys in this context. Quinn, England and the Discovery of America

Chapter 4 : From Tagus to the Ganges - Sanjay Subrahmanyam - Oxford University Press

In lieu of an abstract, here is a brief excerpt of the content. THE CANADIAN HISTORICAL REVIEW La preparation des oeuvres complètes de Minville constitue le projet de retraité d'un des ses proches collègues aux États-Unis, François-Albert Angers, assisté de Ruth Leroux-Paradis.

Additional Information In lieu of an abstract, here is a brief excerpt of the content: Further, both reader and reviewer must separate content from the subject of the dedication - although we are enjoined not to do so by the very nature of the enterprise. In this case the intent is to draw together a selection of essays in **REVIEWS** Canadian economic history, broadly defined to include political economy, natural resource development, and communications. The result is a book so confused in concept that it is difficult to imagine a readership. Contrary to expectations from the title, the book little reflects active research in Canadian economic history. This is probably just as well, since most of the essays contained in this volume are well below the standards usually associated with scholarly journals, in both intellectual and literary expression. At least two essays border on the silly. The shame is that there are a few interesting papers which deserve a fate better than the obscurity which this book otherwise warrants. In startling contrast to the generalizations so carelessly tossed about in the essays on political economy is the tightly argued essay of Arthur J. The analysis is, of course, based on detailed price considerations of the furs themselves in the London markets, the cost of the furs in terms of trade goods, and the cost of trade goods in London. The evidence shows, as the paper nicely argues, that the trade was exceptionally profitable; imperial help was not needed. Historians who follow the literature on the fur trade will find this essay a compelling addition. Later in the book there is an ethnographic essay by Carol Judd on the mixed-blood community of Moose Factory. There are three other papers in this volume which are recommended, although for different reasons. This wide-ranging study touches on law, economic theory, and history, and draws them together in a discussion of the government role in defining rights to the use of water resources. This is of interest because it gives a preview of the type of material which will eventually follow, in a more detailed form, in the history of the Department of Finance. Also, because of his importance in the history of public policy-making in Canada - Bryce was one of the first Keynesians of influence in Ottawa - this essay provides a rare insight into the official aims of the various relief programs. Last of the essays to be recommended is that of Alexander Dow on the history of metal mining. This essay sets out the broad themes for historical inquiry in the history of this important but much neglected industry. The other essays in this volume are not recommended. Too many of them are glaringly superficial, inadequate in techniques of analysis, and too poorly written to be of any interest. You are not currently authenticated. View freely available titles:

Chapter 5 : Economic History of Canada | The Canadian Encyclopedia

Explorations in Economic History (Explor Econ Hist) Journal description. Explorations in Economic History provides broad coverage of the application of economic analysis to historical episodes.

For the full citation, see the end of the document] The economic history of Canada until was dominated by waterways. The fur-trade pressed westward by the St. Lawrence with its tributaries and the Great lakes; the fishing industry, the fur-trade, and the lumbering industry depended upon water transport. Only since have wheat-raising, mining, and pulp and paper become important. It was as a fishing ground that Canada was first approached by Europeans. The enormously productive waters of the coasts and later of the Banks were visited by French and Portuguese in the first half of the sixteenth century. English fishermen, lacking solar salt, of which large supplies were needed for the green fishery practised by other Europeans, developed the dry fishery, and established themselves securely on the Avalon peninsula of Newfoundland in the second half of the century; their fishery expanded as prices rose in Spain following imports of treasure from the New World and the collapse of the Spanish fishery. Lawrence and its tributaries. After the discovery by the French of a vast supply of furs, the spread of the fashion for beaver hats, and the demands of the Indians for iron and gunpowder, the fur-trade pushed up the valley of the St. Lawrence, where there was freedom from attack by other European countries and safety for monopoly control. The great forested Precambrian shield gave an abundance of beaver skins which were brought down by the rivers - first the Saguenay, and later the St. Maurice and the Ottawa - to the French traders in exchange for European goods. Successive monopolies were obliged to meet the serious inroads of the Iroquois from the south supported by the Dutch on the Hudson. With the practical extermination of the Hurons by the Iroquois, the fur-trade for the moment almost ceased. Under these conditions, monopolies failed, and settlement made little progress. In , under the aggressive interest of Colbert, Louis XIV revoked the charter of the Company of New France, and governed the colony from the throne. Immigrants were sent out in numbers, and seigniories were liberally granted. The church and the seigniors prescribed a feudal pattern for the life of the habitants, and the fur-trade drew men to the woods, so that agriculture, handicapped by climate and difficulties of clearing, progressed slowly. Wheat crops were small and uncertain; few cattle were kept; and the colony was closely dependent upon France for goods, and even for food. With increase in population, French traders were compelled to penetrate the interior and re-establish the trade route to the west destroyed by the Iroquois. Success in military measures brought its problems in rapid increase in production of furs, decline in price, and eventually in the issue of card money and inflation. The exposed character of settlement made it an easy prey to the English, and necessitated withdrawal from Nova Scotia under the Treaty of Utrecht. The French attempted to consolidate the new position by fortification of Louisbourg at Cape Breton. New France could not support itself, and the fishery resorted to illicit trade with the dyked lands of Acadia for cattle and with New York and Philadelphia for flour. Conflict between the New England and French fisheries led to the capture of Louisbourg, establishment of the English at Halifax , and expulsion of the Acadians from the fertile lands of the bay of Fundy []. The new area yielded an abundance of furs; but the distance from Montreal increased transportation costs, and the additional expense of the war brought the fur-trade and the colony to collapse and the victory of the English. The Early British Period. Expansion of the New England fishery and New England trade in the Maritimes and of the fur trade of New York in the interior involved increasing conflict with the restrictive measures of the Navigation Acts and of legislation such as the Sugar Act in the interests of the British West Indies. Canada had been added to the Empire rather than Guadeloupe in order not to increase the production of British West Indies products and to increase the consumption. Conflict in the Maritimes and in the interior, with the inevitable conflict between the St. Lawrence and the Hudson, hastened the outbreak of hostilities after the Quebec Act, which attempted to restrain internal development in much the same fashion as the French had done prior to Collapse of the British Empire followed that of the French. Free lands and supplies were provided, but agriculture remained of less importance than the fishery in Nova Scotia and lumber in New Brunswick. Fish and lumber were sent to the West Indies , but both suffered from American competition. The Napoleonic wars

were followed by a heavy preference on lumber from British North America and expansion of the industry on the rivers of New Brunswick. The War of closed the British West Indies to American ships, with the result that Nova Scotia became a more important base for exports and re-exports of fish and other products. The shift from French to British allegiance brought to Canada the markets of the British Empire and a rapid development of trade and industry. New roads were built and post-offices established; new crops and improved methods of agriculture were introduced. Seigniories were taken over by English officers and soldiers were settled on the lands. Shipping increased; and flour, potash, and staves became important articles of export. In and after, Loyalists came in to occupy the lake and river shores of Upper Canada. The soil was fertile, but hard to clear, and when surplus crops could be produced there were no roads over which they might be carried and no markets to receive them. By over a million acres had been granted in Upper Canada ; and wheat, brought down by water, began to be an important export crop. Labour was scarce, and industry was confined to the small local grist mill, tannery, bootmaker and carriage shop. The retail trade of the country was carried on by country merchants who received wheat, potash, and other products for export in exchange for imported manufactured goods. Heavy imports received at Montreal and Quebec went to Upper Canada , to the Indian country, and to the American west, which found the St. Lawrence the cheapest outlet to the sea. Lawrence the bateau and Durham boat appeared to supplement the canoe, and these were followed by the lake schooner and the steamer. The first steam vessel arrived at Quebec in , and in the first steamship was launched on lake Ontario. Yonge Street and Dundas Street were built to serve the interior; and stages ran between Montreal and Kingston and in the long-settled Niagara district, but roads continued to be severely needed and postal services were correspondingly slow. As in New Brunswick , lumbering began in the Ottawa valley at the beginning of the century under the stimulus of imperial preferences, and white pine, floated down to Quebec , became the chief export of the country. In three hundred thousand tons of shipping, nearly all carrying square timber, left British North America for Great Britain. Duties on foreign timber were lowered in , and the timber trade suffered temporarily from overstocking of the market. In the fur-trade, English manufactured goods and trading capacity were combined with French experience. The English fur-traders had rum and woollen cloth; the French had a body of men who knew the river routes and how to deal with the Indians. Traders from Albany moved to Montreal and penetrated to the west, their ventures leading, with the heavy. Canoes following the old Ottawa route were supported by lake boats which carried heavy goods to Grand Portage to be distributed by lighter canoes to the Saskatchewan, the Churchill, and the Peace rivers. A trade in which monopoly had always been important found intense competition to be fatally destructive. Lawrence and Chaleur Bay yielded large quantities of cod. The West Indies were the market for fish, particularly until , when the United States was admitted to the West Indies trade, and until , when slavery was abolished; and lumber, coal, fish, and potatoes were sent to the United States. The timber-trade continued under a substantial preference until it was forced to adjust itself to new and apparently harsh conditions of free competition, followed by reduction in the early forties. While timber interests raised the cry of ruin, it was obvious that Canadian white pine, with its durability, freedom from imperfections, and great length, could hold its own against Baltic timber without the assistance of duties; and the slumps from which the Canadian timber trade suffered were due not to removal of the preference, but to the usual violent fluctuations in the timber trade and its dependence on constructional activity. The effects of the timber trade on New Brunswick and the Canadas were evident in rapid expansion of settlement. New Brunswick received large numbers of poor immigrants, though there was a slow drain of emigration, both from that province and from Nova Scotia. John alone had vessels in the timber trade in After the collapse of , better ships were built in fewer numbers. From immigrant ships the terrible cholera epidemics of and spread up the country, and the opposition of Lower Canada to an influx entirely English-speaking was intensified by the penniless and diseased condition of the multitudes who crowded the port of Quebec. Thereafter restrictions were imposed, and the health of immigrants improved. Over a third of a million immigrants entered Canada in the decade of the forties alone. Immigration and settlement raised problems of land distribution. The size of land grants was reduced, and after the grants were generally about one hundred acres. In a system of land sales was introduced. Settlers on wild land met with difficulties from Crown and Clergy reserves and from speculation, by which large blocks

of land were withheld from cultivation. The Erie canal had been opened from Buffalo in 1819, and canals were demanded to carry wheat from Upper Canada to the ocean ports. The Welland canal was opened in 1829, the Rideau in 1832, and others followed. Successful competition with the Erie route was, however, prevented by the obstruction of the upper St. Lawrence. The canal scheme could not be carried out until the Act of Union in 1840 provided adequate financial support and focussed the energies of both provinces on the task. Steamships were able to descend to Montreal from lake Ontario by 1846, and the channel across lake St. Peter was steadily deepened after that date. Exports of wheat and flour were hampered not only by the expense and delay of the long, laborious journey to England, but also by reduction of the preference given in the Corn Laws. Free entry of Canadian flour to England was permitted in 1850, and mills were rapidly built, only to be ruined by the abolition of the Corn Laws in 1854. But completion of the St. Lawrence canal. Trade continued to be restricted to British ships by the operation of the Navigation Laws, though inland waters such as the St. Lawrence and the Great lakes were exempted. The Trade Acts of 1859 and 1860 were followed by abolition of the Navigation Laws in 1864. Industry developed as a result of the expense of importing British goods. Maurice Iron Works at Three Rivers had produced small quantities of iron for more than a century and, with the Marmora Iron Works, made stoves and axes. Agricultural implements were nearly all imported. There were a few paper, glass, and woollen mills; but none of the products were of high quality or sufficient to supply the needs of the country. Capital and technical skill were lacking, while the demand was limited, for towns were small and farms self-sufficing. The fur-trade shifted from the St. Lawrence. York boats carried to the interior from the posts on Hudson Bay goods brought by vessels from England, and collected furs to be carried back to London. In the interests of economy, farming was introduced at the posts, and extended at Red River settlement. Shipbuilding, lumbering, and fishing continued as the basis of the economic life of the Maritime provinces; and their decline after 1850 with the introduction of the railway and steamship created serious difficulties. Wooden shipbuilding was destroyed, and sailing ships were forced into local or remote trade lanes. Steamship and railway traffic built Halifax and St. John into dominant ports at the expense of the outports. Telegraph and cable lines added to coastal steamship services, and local railway lines brought the two cities into the realm of world trade, while roads were extended into the back country. Financial problems which accompanied building of railways and the decline of wooden shipbuilding contributed to Confederation and construction of the Intercolonial Railway.

, *Explorations in Canadian economic history: essays in honour of Irene M. Spry / edited by Duncan Cameron University of Ottawa Press Ottawa, Canada Wikipedia Citation Please see Wikipedia's template documentation for further citation fields that may be required.*

European colonization of the Americas There are reports of contact made before the voyages of Christopher Columbus and the age of discovery between First Nations , Inuit and those from other continents. Records indicate that on 24 June he sighted land at a northern location believed to be somewhere in the Atlantic provinces. Among his lieutenants was a geographer named Samuel de Champlain , who promptly carried out a major exploration of the northeastern coastline of what is now the United States. They initially failed and permanent Nova Scotian settlements were not firmly established until during the end of the Anglo-French War. The census showed a population count of 3, Acadians and habitants French-Canadian farmers in the administrative districts of Acadia and Canada. Military history of Canada Map of North America in showing forts, towns and areas occupied by European settlements. Britain pink , France blue , and Spain orange By the early s the New France settlers were well established along the shores of the Saint Lawrence River and parts of Nova Scotia, with a population around 16, Raid on Grimrose present day Gagetown, New Brunswick. The return of Louisbourg to French control by the peace treaty prompted the British to found Halifax in under Edward Cornwallis. Many of the Acadians settled in southern Louisiana , creating the Cajun culture there. Treaty of Paris gains in pink, and Spanish territorial gains after the Treaty of Fontainebleau in yellow. France and Spain kept the Treaty of Fontainebleau secret from other countries until Guadeloupe produced more sugar than all the British islands combined, and Voltaire had notoriously dismissed Canada as "Quelques arpents de neige", " A few acres of snow ". So many Loyalists arrived on the shores of the St. John River that a separate colonyâ€” New Brunswick â€”was created in ; [] followed in by the division of Quebec into the largely French-speaking Lower Canada French Canada along the St. Britain made several concessions to the Americans at the expense of the North American colonies. Fishing rights were also granted to the United States in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and on the coast of Newfoundland and the Grand Banks. The British evacuated the outposts with the Jay Treaty of , but the continued supply of munitions irritated the Americans in the run-up to the War of Arthur Lower in the s provided the long-standard historical interpretation that for English Canada the results were counter-revolutionary: English Canada started its life with as powerful a nostalgic shove backward into the past as the Conquest had given to French Canada: However he says it did find a different path forward when it fought against British rulers after to secure "modern liberty". That form of liberty focused not on the virtues of citizens but on protecting their rights from infringement by the state. The American frontier states voted for war to suppress the First Nations raids that frustrated settlement of the frontier. American forces took control of Lake Erie in , driving the British out of western Ontario, killing the Native American leader Tecumseh , and breaking the military power of his confederacy.

Chapter 7 : Explorations in Economic History - Journal - Elsevier

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For the full citation, see the end of the text. For this reason the most convenient method of dealing with the subject is a regional treatment, by means of which the story of the exploration of the chief features of the geography of Canada may be told in turn, and in some sort of chronological sequence. So far as we know, the first white men to discover the Atlantic seaboard of North America were the Norsemen from Greenland. For practical purposes, the discoverer of the mainland of North America was John Cabot, who in an attempt to reach Asia by the western route reached what was probably Cape Breton island in 1497, and coasted down the Atlantic seaboard from Labrador to Chesapeake bay in 1498. The St. Lawrence river, which became known as the St. Lawrence, was explored by Jacques Cartier in 1498. Cartier explored this river as far west as Montreal. The North West Passage. From early in the sixteenth century there had been rumours of a sea lying to the north of Labrador. The entrance to such a sea is clearly marked on a Portuguese map of 1498. It was not until 1606, however, that Hudson strait was discovered by George Weymouth, who penetrated one hundred leagues into the strait; and it was not until that Henry Hudson sailed through Hudson strait into Hudson bay, and explored part of that vast inland sea. Hudson was cast away by mutineers after spending the winter on the shore of James bay; but he was followed by others who carried on the work he had begun. These voyages made it clear that "the north-west passage" did not lie through Hudson strait and Hudson bay, and discouraged for the time any further attempts to find it. Not, indeed, until the nineteenth century was the attempt resumed in earnest. Especial interest attaches to the attempt made in by Sir John Franklin, who lost his life and the lives of all his men when hemmed in by the ice on King William island. In and in the subsequent years numerous expeditions were sent out to search for Franklin and his men; and in the course of this grim search, the whole of the Arctic coast of Canada was charted. Ships sailing west from the Atlantic met ships sailing east from the Pacific; and thus the existence of a north-west passage was at last demonstrated. The actual navigation of the north-west passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific was achieved by the Norwegian explorer, Roald Amundsen, in 1906. Further explorations in the Arctic archipelago have been carried out by a number of American explorers, such as Robert E. Peary, by a Danish explorer, Otto Sverdrup, and by a series of expeditions sent out by the Canadian government. Meanwhile, the exploration of the interior of Canada had been proceeding apace. Jacques Cartier, being a sailor, and fearful of leaving his ship, did not penetrate the St. Lawrence valley above Montreal; but Samuel de Champlain, who followed him after the lapse of two-thirds of a century, pushed boldly into the interior, and laid bare the geography of a good part of the Great lakes region. In he made his way up the Ottawa river, and reached the Georgian bay of lake Huron, via lake Nipissing and the French river; and thence he went with the Indians south-west to lake Ontario via lake Simcoe and the Trent river. Louis Joliet and Father Jacques Marquette reached in the Mississippi, and in Cavelier de la Salle explored the Mississippi to its mouth in the gulf of Mexico. In Father Albanel reached Hudson bay from the St. Lawrence valley, going by way of the Saguenay; and in the Chevalier de Troyes led an expedition to Hudson bay by way of the Ottawa river and lake Abitibi. The prairies of the West were reached by two routes. In two of his sons appear to have reached the foothills of the Rocky mountains. But after the conquest of Canada by the British in 1763, the French fur-trade in the West was taken over by a group of daring adventurers from Montreal, who formed about the North West Company. In Sir Alexander Mackenzie, a partner of the North West Company, explored the Mackenzie river to its mouth; and in went up the Peace river, down the Fraser, and across country, until he reached the Pacific ocean. The discovery of the north-west coast of North America is wrapped in some obscurity. It is possible that the Spaniards from central America may have visited it in the seventeenth century; but there is no proof of this. Certainly, Vitus Bering sighted the coast of Alaska in 1741. But the real discoverer of British Columbia, so far as we know, was a Spaniard, Juan Perez, who visited Vancouver island and the Queen Charlotte islands in 1774. He was followed by others; but the first actual knowledge of the north-west coast resulted from the last voyage of Captain James Cook, who visited

the coast in It was these voyages that gave Sir Alexander Mackenzie the knowledge which enabled him to make his overland dash to the Pacific in In , however, Simon Fraser , a partner of the North West Company, succeeded in exploring the Fraser river to its mouth; and in David Thompson , another partner of the North West Company, crossed the Rocky mountains, and reached the Columbia. Thompson, who had spent his life mapping the Great West, surveyed in the Columbia river from its source to its mouth; and thus completed his life work by laying bare another feature of the geography of the Pacific slope. During the past century numerous explorers added to the achievements of the great pathfinders of earlier days. Tyrrell and his brother, J. Tyrrell , who made in a famous journey across the Barren lands; V. Stefansson, who has made notable contributions to the explorations of the Arctic; and last, but not least the officers of the Canadian Geological Survey , who have been engaged for three-quarters of a century in tracing the details of the map of Canada, in all sorts of out-of-the-way places. The literature relating to the exploration of Canada is voluminous; but the chief general authorities are S. Lawrence basin London, , L. Burpee, The search for the western sea Toronto, , N. Mirsky, To the north! The story of Arctic exploration New York, , A. Laut, Pathfinders of the west Toronto, , and The conquest of the great north west 2 vols. Wallace, By star and compass Toronto, Anthony peninsula of Newfoundland.

Chapter 8 : Economic History of Canada - Canadian Economic history

Explorations in Canadian Economic History: Essays in Honour of Irene M. Spry, sous la direction de Duncan Cameron.
â€” University of Ottawa Press, , p.

Additional Information In lieu of an abstract, here is a brief excerpt of the content:
Further, both reader and reviewer must separate content from the subject of the dedication - although we are enjoined not to do so by the very nature of the enterprise. In this case the intent is to draw together a selection of essays in REVIEWS Canadian economic history, broadly defined to include political economy, natural resource development, and communications. The result is a book so confused in concept that it is difficult to imagine a readership. Contrary to expectations from the title, the book little reflects active research in Canadian economic history. This is probably just as well, since most of the essays contained in this volume are well below the standards usually associated with scholarly journals, in both intellectual and literary expression. At least two essays border on the silly. The shame is that there are a few interesting papers which deserve a fate better than the obscurity which this book otherwise warrants. In startling contrast to the generalizations so carelessly tossed about in the essays on political economy is the tightly argued essay of Arthur J. The analysis is, of course, based on detailed price considerations of the furs themselves in the London markets, the cost of the furs in terms of trade goods, and the cost of trade goods in London. The evidence shows, as the paper nicely argues, that the trade was exceptionally profitable; imperial help was not needed. Historians who follow the literature on the fur trade will find this essay a compelling addition. Later in the book there is an ethnographic essay by Carol Judd on the mixed-blood community of Moose Factory. There are three other papers in this volume which are recommended, although for different reasons. This wide-ranging study touches on law, economic theory, and history, and draws them together in a discussion of the government role in defining rights to the use of water resources. This is of interest because it gives a preview of the type of material which will eventually follow, in a more detailed form, in the history of the Department of Finance. Also, because of his importance in the history of public policy-making in Canada - Bryce was one of the first Keynesians of influence in Ottawa - this essay provides a rare insight into the official aims of the various relief programs. Last of the essays to be recommended is that of Alexander Dow on the history of metal mining. This essay sets out the broad themes for historical inquiry in the history of this important but much neglected industry. The other essays in this volume are not recommended. Too many of them are glaringly superficial, inadequate in techniques of analysis, and too poorly written to be of any interest.

Chapter 9 : Irene Spry - Wikipedia

Journal description. Explorations in Economic History provides broad coverage of the application of economic analysis to historical episodes. The journal has a tradition of innovative applications.

Canada, second largest country in the world in area after Russia , occupying roughly the northern two-fifths of the continent of North America. In addition, Canada harbours and exports a wealth of natural resources and intellectual capital equaled by few other countries. The word Canada is derived from the Huron - Iroquois kanata, meaning a village or settlement. In the 16th century, French explorer Jacques Cartier used the name Canada to refer to the area around the settlement that is now Quebec city. Later, Canada was used as a synonym for New France , which, from to , included all the French possessions along the St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes. The name Canada was fully restored after , when Britain divided old Quebec into the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada renamed in Canada West and Canada East , respectively, and collectively called Canada. The act also divided the old colony of Canada into the separate provinces of Ontario and Quebec. Dominion status allowed Canada a large measure of self-rule, but matters pertaining to international diplomacy and military alliances were reserved to the British crown. Canada became entirely self-governing within the British Empire in , though full legislative independence was not achieved until , when Canada obtained the right to amend its own constitution. George Hunter Canada shares a 5,mile- 8,km-long border with the United States including Alaska –the longest border in the world not patrolled by military forces–and the overwhelming majority of its population lives within miles km of the international boundary. Although Canada shares many similarities with its southern neighbour–and, indeed, its popular culture and that of the United States are in many regards indistinguishable–the differences between the two countries, both temperamental and material, are profound. More than that, Canadians live in a society that in most legal and official matters resembles Britain–at least in the English-speaking portion of the country. Quebec, in particular, exhibits French adaptations: The French character in Quebec is also reflected in differences in religion, architecture, and schooling. Elsewhere in Canada, French influence is less apparent, confined largely to the dual use of French and English for place names, product labels, and road signs. The Inuit prefer that term rather than Eskimo , and it is commonly used in Canada. In addition, the growing number of immigrants from other European countries, Southeast Asia , and Latin America has made Canada even more broadly multicultural. It was a founding member of the United Nations and has been active in a number of major UN agencies and other worldwide operations. In Canada joined the Organization of American States and signed a free trade agreement with the United States, a pact that was superseded in by the North American Free Trade Agreement which also includes Mexico. Parliament BuildingsParliament Buildings, Ottawa.