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SPORT IN NINETEENTH CENTURY CANADA : THE EFFECTS OF TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGES ON ITS DEVELOPMENT

by

© IAN F. JOBLING

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

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FALL, 1970

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "SPORT IN NINETEENTH CENTURY CANADA : THE EFFECTS OF TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGES ON ITS DEVELOPMENT," submitted by IAN F. JOBLING in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the development of sporting activities and the technological changes which occurred in Canada throughout the nineteenth century. The effects upon sport of technological innovations in transportation and communication, improvements in sporting facilities and equipment, and the social and economic changes engendered by urbanization and industrialization were considered.

Many pastimes and games developed into organized sports with complex levels of organization and structure; several had provincial, regional and national associations to govern and administer the sport by the end of the century. The outcome of the many technological changes was an environment within Canadian society which was conducive to the rise of organized sport. Improved facilities and sporting equipment also resulted in a development of the level of skill and standard of performance within individual sports.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Relative to other aspects of Canada's social history, the research into the pastimes, games and sport of early Canadians has been negligible. Howell and Howell[1] have stated that "historical works usually consider wars, government, religion, social change, trade, and so on," but the history of sport is a neglected field. The social historians were not completely culpable for this neglect because, since the evidence from such research is a necessary part of the field of knowledge in physical education, it was the physical educator who was remiss in not instigating such studies. Fortunately, however, there have been a few studies conducted by persons in other fields which have provided some insights into aspects of sport in Canada.[2]

Davidson[3] was one of the first physical educators to examine the history of Canadian sport, and it was only in the 1960's that a concerted effort was made to carefully research the evolution of games and sports

---

[1] Nancy Howell and Maxwell L. Howell, Sports and Games in Canadian Life, 1700 to the Present. (Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 1969), Introduction.

[2] Several writers have examined the history of various sports in Canada. The few who have described the general aspects of sport include: W. Perkins Bull, From Rattlesnake Hunt to Hockey. (Toronto: The Perkins Bull Foundation, George J. MacLeod, 1934); W.A. Hewitt, Down the Stretch. (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1958); Henry Roxborough, Great Days in Canadian Sport (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1957); Henry Roxborough, One Hundred - Not Out (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1966); T. Frayne and P. Gzowski, Great Canadian Sports Stories. (Toronto: The Canadian Publishing Company Limited, 1965).

[3] Stewart A. Davidson, "A History of Sports and Games in Eastern Canada Prior to World War I," (Unpublished Ed.D. thesis, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, 1951).

within Canadian culture. The most encompassing study has been by Howell and Howell,[4] and these authors have produced a scholarly, documented work from the time of Canada's first settlement to the present. Lindsay,[5] Cox[6] and Jones[7] have examined the periods from 1807-1867, 1868-1900, and 1900-1920, respectively, in greater detail, with the purpose of showing the development of sport in Canada during those times. These, and other theses,[8] all purported to trace the history of various sporting activities in Canada, while denoting the influences which were instrumental in giving rise to their development. Whereas these have provided the "first-level" or stage in the research, Lindsay[9] has stated the need for a second-stage:

---

[4]Howell and Howell, op.cit.

[5]Peter L. Lindsay, "A History of Sport in Canada, 1807-1867," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969).

[6]Allan E. Cox, "A History of Sports in Canada, 1868-1900," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969).

[7]Kevin G. Jones, "Sport in Canada - 1900 to 1920," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Alberta, Edmonton 1970).

[8]These include: M. Ann Hall, "A History of Women's Sport in Canada Prior to World War I," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968); Barry E. Mitchelson, "The Evolution of Men's Basketball in Canada, 1892-1936," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968); George T. Vellathottam, "A History of Lacrosse in Canada," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968); Frank Cosentino, "A History of Canadian Football, 1909-1968," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969); John E. Reid, "Sports and Games in Alberta Before 1900," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), Rolf T. Lund, "The Development of Skiing in Canada Prior to 1940," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1970); Reet Nurmberg, "A History of Competitive Gymnastics in Canada," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1970); Elsie M. McFarland, "A Historical Analysis of the Development of Public Recreation in Canadian Communities," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Illinois, Urbana, 1969).

[9]Lindsay, op.cit., p.398.

> The next level of studies is designed to investigate, in greater detail, these influences, such as technological change, urbanization, British colonialism, the rise of professionalism, etcetera. In this way, a comprehensive history of Canadian sport will be developed.

As Lindsay has suggested, many factors influenced sport in Canada in the nineteenth century. Such factors were the rural influences which continued with the development of many new regions of the country; the philosophy of the English amateur athletic movement; the introduction of new games through immigration; the contributions of energetic sportsmen; and the trends in sport in the United States.[10] However, the technological changes which occurred throughout the nineteenth century, and the many ramifications which they engendered, had the most profound effect on the development of sport in Canada.

Tisdale[11] has stated that "technology is our name for the ways that man has discovered and invented for doing things which he wanted to do but could not do with already known methods." In the context of

---

[10]For further discussion about these factors, see Howell and Howell, op.cit.; Lindsay, op.cit; Cox, op.cit. Although the following studies were primarily concerned with sport in the United States, several factors which influenced the development of sport in that country were also in evidence in Canada: John A. Krout, Annals of American Sport. (New York: Yale University Press, 1929); Herbert Manchester, Four Centuries of Sport in America, 1490-1890. (New York: The Derrydale Press, 1931); John R. Betts, "Organized Sport in Industrial America," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Columbia University, New York, 1951); John R. Betts, "The Technological Revolution and the Rise of Sport, 1850-1900," Mississippi Valley Historical Review, V.40 (1953), pp.231-256; Foster R. Dulles, A History of Recreation: America Learns to Play. (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1965).

[11]Hope Tisdale, "The Process of Urbanization," Social Forces, V.20 (March, 1942), p.315. "Technology is the combination or totality of techniques employed by a people or at a given period for the purpose of adaptation to their bio-physical environment." (Henry P. Fairchild (Editor), Dictionary of Sociology and Related Sciences (Totowa, New Jersey: Littlefield, Adams and Co., 1965), p.317).

the nineteenth century, a technological change was an innovation in society which was the result of the application of an invention.[12] Major technological changes occurred in rapid succession following the "industrial revolution", a term applied retrospectively to represent the transformation of the economic order that had taken place in England, western Europe and North America at the end of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth century.[13]

The effects of the industrial revolution were felt in Canada in the nineteenth century; the ramifications of it were evident in the improvements in transportation and communication, and in the development of urbanization and industrialization. These developments had repercussions which affected Canadian society in many ways; one was in the realm of sport. Cozens and Stumpf[14] have stated:

> Sports and play activities of a vigorous physical nature have been an integral part of every culture in so far as is known, but the peculiar and particular development of such activities in a progressively more industrialized and urbanized society,... has a history all its own.

The technological changes which occurred in the nineteenth century transformed the pastimes and games of Canadians into sports. The distinction

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[12]Fairchild has stated that "Technological change is shown to be an enduring force of history, through the increasing differentiation in the form of tools and implements used by man, the constant additions to the range of inventions, the gradual increase in the empirical knowledge and the resulting greater ability in utilizing and exploiting the natural environment for his needs." (Fairchild, op.cit., p.317).

[13]Wilbert E. Moore, The Impact of Industry. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1965), p.2. For an overview of some of the major inventions of this period, see Arnold Toynbee, The Industrial Revolution. (Boston: Beacon Press, 1966).

[14]F.W. Cozens and F.J. Stumpf, Sports in American Life. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953), p.10.

between these three levels of play activity has been elucidated,[15] and in order to be consistent, the definitions used by Cox[16] were adopted:

> Play activities: behaviour characterized by a state of mind which accompanies mental and physical activity, voluntary and active in nature, pursued for the intrinsic satisfaction it affords during the period of participation.
>
> Pastimes: play activities in which there is an absence of competition, and which may or may not have temporary rules and take place outside fixed boundaries of time and place.
>
> Games: pastimes governed by temporary or permanent rules, which take place in situations of fixed boundaries of time and space and exhibit characteristics of competition by which winners and losers may be determined.
>
> Sports: games or pastimes, involving gross bodily movement, which have been developed in order to provide regular competitive physical activity governed by constituted rules.[17]

Throughout the nineteenth century there were also developments within various sports as the degree of skill, speed, dexterity, fitness, efficiency of movement and aesthetic grace improved considerably. The determination and application by the athletes must surely have been a factor in this evolvement, but the advancements in sporting equipment and facilities brought about by technological changes also had a sub-

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[15]These distinctions were formulated by the writer and other physical educators in a seminar at The University of Alberta, and used by Keith L. Lansley, "Play Theories and Classifications of Play," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), p.23.

[16]Cox, op.cit., p.vi.

[17]Lansley has defined sport as "games or pastimes which have been developed within complex societies to provide recurring competitive physical activity, and possessing constituted administration and rules of play." (Lansley, op.cit., p.23). The stipulation of "constituted administration" was an important element as it incorporated the idea of the sporting "club", which may be loosely defined as a grouping together of individuals with a common interest in a particular activity in order to organize regular competition under established rules.

stantial effect on this development.

The interaction and relationship between technology and sport were most interesting facets of nineteenth century Canadian society. As transportation became faster, cheaper and more comfortable following the advent of the steamboat and steam-locomotive, sporting enthusiasts travelled more frequently to other towns and cities. The introduction of the street-railways made travel within urban centres more convenient, and this resulted in a greater number of spectators at sporting events.

The more efficient printing industry, and better means of communication by telegraph, oceanic cable, telephone and photography enabled the editors of the periodical press to include many more items of sporting interest in the columns as the century progressed. Increasingly throughout the period, the newspapers served as the media for directing and reflecting public opinion on matters pertaining to sport, as well as informing readers of forthcoming events and the latest sporting results from many parts of Canada and other countries. The postal system, telegraph and telephone were utilized to arrange sporting excursions and competitions.

Urbanization and industrialization occurred in many parts of Canada in the latter years of the nineteenth century. Cox[18] has written about the effect of these social forces in the period 1868 to 1900:

> As the cities developed with the growth of manufacturing industries, there was an increase in the number of people working regular hours with time off work for recreation. Saturday afternoons became the common time for recreation, and while an increasing number of people played, so too

---

[18]Cox, op.cit., p.460.

> did many prefer to watch sports. The increased availability of potential spectators stimulated the development of commercialized sports....

The origins of many pastimes and games were rural, but it was in an urban-industrial social environment brought about by technological changes that the impetus in the growth of sport was evidenced. It was early in the nineteenth century that the first sporting club[19] was formed in Canada, and by mid-century there were many more.[20] However, even by 1850, there were no organizations or associations governing or controlling the various teams or clubs which had formed. These bodies, so characteristic of modern sport, became prevalent in the latter half of the century when the effects of urbanization and industrialization were manifest. The sporting clubs and associations fostered the pursuit of excellence in performance within sports by altering and modifying the rules and regulations to accommodate new trends in the style of play.

The effects of urbanization and industrialization on sport were varied. Civic pride in the achievements of sporting teams and athletes became more evident as the century progressed, and the response to the citizens' demands for better recreational facilities was more positive. The emancipation of women had its beginnings in the urban-industrial environment, and the use of sport to advance their claims towards social freedom was evident. The more efficient techniques of manufacturing not only resulted in sporting goods becoming cheaper and

---

[19] Supra., footnote 17, p.5.

[20] The first sporting club in British North America was the Montreal Curling Club, formed in 1807. (The Montreal Curling Club, 1807-1907. (Montreal: A booklet published by the Club, 1907), p.19.

more available to the public, but also helped to standardize the equipment for use in competition.

Within many sports, facilities and equipment were also ameliorated. Grounds, tracks, fields, rinks and gymnasia were transformed into more appropriate venues for athletes to demonstrate their skill, and towards the end of the century, full- and part-time curators and groundsmen were employed to maintain them in good repair. More thought was given to the utility of sports equipment; some improvements were distinct inventions, while others were the result of minor modifications to existing implements.

Technological innovations engendered changes in transportation, communication, urbanization and industrialization; they also facilitated subsequent improvements in sporting facilities and equipment. All of these related factors exerted an influence on the social life of Canadians in such a manner as to transform their pastimes and games into highly organized sports. The relationship between sport and technological changes is worthy of consideration because, as Betts has stated, "the technological revolution is not the sole determining factor in the rise of sport, but to ignore its influence would result only in a more or less superficial understanding of the history of one of the prominent social institutions...."[21]

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[21]Betts, "The Technological Revolution and the Rise of Sport, 1850-1900," p.256.

CHAPTER II

TRANSPORTATION

Canadians in the early years of the nineteenth century could travel along roads by stagecoach, sleigh or calèche, or on water by bateau, Durham boat, sailing schooner or, after 1809,[1] steamboat. Transportation developments increased rapidly with the technological innovation of steam, the advent of the steamship and, later, the steam locomotive, which influenced the mobility of the Canadian people over land and water considerably.

At the turn of the century, travel over land between Quebec and Montreal took approximately two to three days, depending upon the duration of daily travel. The Montreal Gazette[2] carried this advertisement in 1811:

> The public are hereby informed that the subscribers have established a line of stages to run from Quebec to Montreal - to commence on the 21st January inst. and run as follows:- To start from Quebec and Montreal on Mondays and Thursdays at 4 o'clock in the morning, and meet at Cape Magdelen or Three Rivers on Tuesdays and Fridays at 4 o'clock in the morning, and arrive at Quebec or Montreal the same evening, performing the rout [sic] from Quebec to Montreal or Montreal to Quebec in two days, without being out later than 8 o'clock in the evening (accidents excepted).

Roads were practically non-existent, and travel by stagecoach was

---

[1] It was in 1809 that the Accommodation, the first steamboat in Canada, and the second in North America, was put into operation. Edwin C. Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1963), p.94.

[2] Montreal Gazette, February 11, 1811. In 1830, the journey still took two days for the cost of six dollars (Ibid., March 1, 1830)

extremely arduous. The journey from Montreal to Kingston by Barnabas Dickinson's stage line took two days in 1816,[3] and it was not until that year that the first stagecoach ran between York and Niagara for the cost of five dollars a passage.[4] Even by 1843 the journey from Montreal to York by stagecoach required four days of travelling, and the overland routes to New Brunswick were passable for mail carts and waggons but were scarcely fit for carriages at any time before Confederation.[5]

Vehicles used to convey passengers had to be of sturdy construction to withstand the rigours of such tortuous and treacherous roads. Several different road vehicles were in vogue at this time, including the springless waggon, the buckboard with the carriage sprung on long floor boards, and the "buggy", "democrat" and "surrey" which all had light carriages.[6] In winter, when the roads were covered with snow, runners replaced the wheels and the "cutter" and carriole were suitable passenger sleighs.[7] The stagecoach for passenger travel was usually drawn by four horses and held about nine people with luggage, mail and light freight.[8]

Long, rigorous and, sometimes dangerous journeys were not conducive to inter-town sporting competition. It was usually only wealthy

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[3]Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada, p.180. [4]Ibid.

[5]J.S. Martell, "Intercolonial Communications, 1840-1867." Canadian Historical Association Report of Annual Meeting, Ottawa, May 1938. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1938), p.41.

[6]G.P. de T. Glazebrook, A History of Transportation in Canada. V.1. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1964), p.131.

[7]Ibid. [8]Ibid., p.32.

gentlemen who could afford the time and the expense because "inter-club games, particularly in cricket and curling, in the thirties and forties, through the difficulties of transportation, placed such competitions in the category of a half-week's holiday."[9] For the curlers of Toronto to play in a competition with the Hamilton Thistles' club, it took three days: one to travel the forty miles by sleigh, another to play the match and a third for the return journey home.[10] The first curling match between the Montreal and Quebec Curling Clubs was in the mid-1830's.[11] The location for the match was Trois Rivières, which was mid-way between the two cities, but it still required nearly two hundred miles of travelling by stagecoach and other runner-equipped carriages.[12] Travel to an inter-town curling match between Toronto and Hamilton in 1855 was a little more comfortable when the Toronto curlers used the Lord Mayor's carriage for the journey to Burlington Bay.[13] Towards the end of the century, especially in the prairie region, stagecoach travel was still necessary

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[9]Edwin C. Guillet, Pioneer Days in Upper Canada. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1964), p.189.

[10]Edwin C. Guillet, Early Life in Upper Canada. (Toronto: The Ontario Publishing Co. Limited, 1933), p.365.

[11]The actual date of this initial match between the two clubs is uncertain. It was reported in the Morning Chronicle, Quebec, January 25, 1861, as having been played on January 10, 1836. Kerr claimed it was played in 1835 (John Kerr, History of Curling. (Edinburgh: David Douglas, 1890), p.324) and The Montreal Curling Club, 1807-1907 (Montreal: A booklet published by the Club, 1907), p.27 has stated that it was "about 1838."

[12]Lindsay has stated "that two sporting clubs, some 180 miles apart, should come together for friendly competition, was without parallel at this time." (Peter L. Lindsay, "A History of Sport in Canada, 1807-1867." (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), p.25).

[13]Globe, Toronto, January 20, 1855.

to link communities and towns not served by rail. Two Prince Albert rinks competed in the Winnipeg Bonspiel of 1890 and made the trip by stagecoach to Qu'Appelle, and then on to Winnipeg by rail.[14]

Cricket was another sport in which inter-town matches, requiring many hours of travelling, were played. Teams from Guelph and Toronto played a match in Hamilton in 1834[15] but, in 1835, a Sherbrooke team trekked to Hamilton and Toronto "by foot, horseback, stagecoach and vessel."[16] When English cricketers toured Canada in 1859, the first group from another continent to visit for purposes of sporting competition,[17] a delay caused them to miss the train connection from Buffalo to Niagara Falls. Fred Lillywhite, the English tour director, later wrote:[18]

> On our arrival at Buffalo, we found the train for the Falls had departed, and we had therefore no other resource but to take a land conveyance for the Falls, if we desired to keep our engagement at Hamilton, and see anything of the world-renowned Niagara. The 22 miles between Buffalo and the Falls were crossed in five hours!

Although stagecoach travel was not the most desirable or comfortable form of transport for long journeys, it was efficient for travelling over short distances. With the opening of the new race course

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[14]W.A. Creelman, Curling, Past and Present. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1950), p.146.

[15]Edwin C. Guillet, Toronto: From Trading Post to Great City. (Toronto: Ontario Publishing Company, 1934), p.439.

[16]Henry Roxborough, One Hundred - Not Out. (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1966), p.53.

[17]Lindsay, op.cit., p.292.

[18]Fred Lillywhite, The English Cricketers' Trip to Canada and the United States. (London: F. Lillywhite; Kent and Coy., 1860), p.17.

at St. Pierre in 1830, an advertisement appeared in the Montreal Gazette to the effect that Mr. Luckin, "in addition to Sovereign and Diligence, has engaged, from Messrs. H. Dickinson and Co., and other stage proprietors, a number of their best carriages."[19] For the following year's races there was another advertisement indicating that a new four-horse coach, the Royal William, was available:

> This coach is entirely new, and has been built expressly for the occasion, is capable of carrying 15 to 20 inside passengers with ease, and is fitted up with soft seats and good strong springs. Fares in and out - 20 pence.[20]

Horse-drawn vehicles capable of carrying a large group of people were also used in winter and, in 1862, "a sleigh, accommodating about fifty persons, and drawn by six horses, conveyed persons to and from the pond"[21] near Truro, where the Halifax and Picton curling clubs played.

In many parts of Canada land travel was not a necessity in the early part of the century, because water transport was more convenient. As there were few canals, long distances were best travelled by the flat-bottomed bateaux or Durham boats which could negotiate the rapids.[22]

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[19] Montreal Gazette, September 13, 1830.

[20] Ibid., June 9, 1831. It is worthy of note that fares on the larger Royal William were considerably cheaper than what had been advertised by Mr. Luckin a year earlier, when the fare out and in was "three shillings and four pence" or forty cents.

[21] Kerr, op.cit., p.85.

[22] Glazebrooke, op.cit. V.1, p.75. Many of the canals built from the 1770's onward were intended for bateaux and had a depth of only two and one-half feet. Even the Lachine canal, completed in 1825, was only eight feet deep and this depth was not increased until 1848 (Ibid., p.76).

The shortage of deep canals restricted sailing vessels, which required keels, to the Great Lakes and parts of the St. Lawrence River. However, it was transport by water which really initiated the spread of inter-community sports competition, and this was possible only after the introduction of the "steamer."

The development of the steam engine had a considerable impact on society as a whole, as it revolutionized the transportation system in the nineteenth century through the steamboat and, a few decades later, the steam-locomotive. An atmospheric steam engine had been invented by the Marquis of Worcester in 1663 but James Watt modified and improved this engine to such an extent that he is considered to be its inventor.[23] However, it was not until the beginning of the nineteenth century that an efficient steamboat was built, and Lower Canada had the second steamboat in North America, the Accommodation, built and owned by the Honourable John Molson of Montreal, operating in its waters by 1809.[24] The Accommodation was capable of carrying twenty passengers, and its maiden voyage between Montreal and Quebec took sixty-six hours, of which thirty were spent at anchor because it had no lights for travelling at night. Even though the boat's six horsepower engine was not strong enough to propel it through St. Mary's Current on the return trip and ox-teams had to tow it,[25] the success of the steamboat was assured. Two

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[23]Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada, p.94.

[24]Ibid. The first steamboat in North America was Robert Fulton's Clermont, in which a British-built engine was used, and this vessel operated on the Hudson River from 1807.

[25]Ibid., p.95. Fares on the Accommodation, which included meals and a berth, cost eight dollars per passenger downsteam and nine dollars upsteam.

years later, Molson launched the Swiftsure, a vessel twice as large as the Accommodation, with an engine over four times as powerful[26] and, by 1818, five other steamboats were operated by Molson through the St. Lawrence Steamboat Company.[27] Seven years after the launching of the initial steamboat, the travelling time from Montreal to Quebec had been reduced to twenty-four hours, while upstream, from Quebec to Montreal, took thirty-six to forty hours.[28] Within the next few years, many vessels operated on the rivers and lakes and, by 1819, the editor of the Quebec Gazette counted fifteen steamboats operating in Canadian waters, three of which were American-owned.[29]

Travel by steamboat was not without its difficulties, and even by the 1820's few harbours had been built to accommodate them, so passengers and goods were embarked and disembarked by bateaux or Durham boats.[30] In York (Toronto) a vessel halted in the harbour, and boats equipped with hawsers were lowered from the gangways and rowed to the shore, whereupon the ship was hauled to the wharf.[31] In Montreal a temporary wharf was erected near the Molson Brewery to serve the vessels

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[26]Glazebrooke, op.cit., p.68. In 1816, the charge from Montreal to Quebec was ten dollars per passenger, but the fares were reduced in succeeding decades until, in 1851, passengers from Montreal to Quebec could secure a cabin fare on the Jenny Lind for twelve shillings and six pence, which included meals and a stateroom berth, or travel steerage for seven-and-a-half pence (Montreal Gazette, September 3, 1851).

[27]J.M. Gibbon, Our Old Montreal. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1947), p.71.

[28]Glazebrook, op.cit., V.1., p.68. A large number of people could be carried at this time. The Malsham accommodated over nine-hundred passengers, with luggage, from Quebec to Montreal in 1916.

[29]Ibid., p.69.

[30]Guillet, Pioneer Travels in Upper Canada, p.103. [31]Ibid.

of the St. Lawrence Steamboat Company, and a two hundred feet long permanent wharf was built in 1824.[32]

At first the accommodation for passengers was primitive, but competition between the steamship companies soon led to the building of more comfortable and luxurious ships. In the 1830's, cabins were built on the deck and, within a few years, "the equipment of the best steamships included thickly carpeted dining salons with individual tables and revolving chairs, buffets and bars, paintings and mirrors, lounges and smoking rooms, and sumptuous menus and wine lists."[33] Richard Bonnycastle, who travelled by steamboat along the St. Lawrence River in 1841, commented that "by the regulation of these conveyances in Canada, every one rises before eight, so that the beds may be curtained and breakfast decently prepared in the cabin."[34] Despite such comforts, many innovations had their breaking-in period, such as when the high-pressure steamers were introduced:

> The John By had been constructed to ply on the Rideau Canal, with paddle-wheels in the stern - the worst sailing and most ill-constructed boat in Canada. The engine was high pressure; and if a vessel was to be built for roasting passengers the John By might have furnished useful hints.[35]

One should not gain the impression that steamboats took over from sailing vessels and monopolized water transport. By 1851 there

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[32]Gibbon, op.cit., p.71. The Montreal Harbour Commission was established in 1834.

[33]Guillet, Pioneer Travels in Upper Canada, p.103.

[34]Richard H. Bonnycastle, The Canadas in 1841, V.1. (London: Henry Colburn, Publisher, 1842), p.61.

[35]P. Shirreff, A Tour Through North America. (Edinburgh: Oliver and Bond, 1835), pp.147-148.

were only 468 river steamships as compared to 3,141 river sailing vessels.[36] However, the impact of the steamboat was such that, in 1866, there were over a thousand steamboats with a tonnage of more than 417,000[37] and they "had long since monopolized the lake passenger service."[38] Ocean travel remained the domain of the sailing ship for most of the nineteenth century. The Royal William, built at Quebec, crossed the Atlantic Ocean from Pictou to London in 1833, taking twenty-five days and using steam as the main motive power for the whole distance.[39] The time of the Atlantic crossings was reduced considerably within a few years and in 1838 a vessel, the Britannia, took only thirteen days to steam from Liverpool to Halifax.[40] However, it was not until late in the century that steamships began to outnumber sailing vessels on ocean voyages as, even in 1880, slightly more sailing vessels than steamers entered Montreal harbour.[41]

A major problem for both steamboats and sailing vessels was the lack of sufficient canals to facilitate travel between the

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[36]Glazebrook, op.cit., V.1., p.66.

[37]Ibid. - Quoted from Canada Sessional Papers, 1867-1868.

[38]Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada, p.90.

[39]J. Castell Hopkins, Progress of Canada in the Nineteenth Century. (Toronto: The Progress of Canada Publishing Company, 1900), p.179.

[40]Archibald MacMechan, Samuel Cunard. (Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1928), p.20. MacMechan has stated that in 1838 an English steamer, the Sirius, passed the sailing packet Tyrian "lying becalmed, a log upon the sea, with canvas idly flapping, and waiting for a breeze." The captain of the Tyrian signalled "the new fangled steam vessel" to stop so that the mail bags, en route from Halifax to Falmouth, could be transferred to the Sirius (Ibid., p.16).

[41]Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada, p.90. However, in 1854, only six ocean steamships entered Montreal harbour as compared with 174 sailing vessels.

various lakes and rivers. After 1830, on the St. Lawrence River between Quebec and Montreal, or between Prescott and Kingston, there was no difficulty for travel, but in between lay a series of rapids, and it was necessary for stagecoaches to run in conjunction with the steamers.[42] Owing to these steamboat-stagecoach combinations, in 1843, a traveller could take twenty-six hours to travel the one hundred and eighty mile distance from Montreal to Kingston and twenty-two hours from Kingston to Montreal.[43]

Travelling time and speedy connections for other vessels, stagecoaches or, later, trains, became important factors in the advertisements of the steamboat companies. An advertisement concerning the 1838 sailing schedule of the Queen Victoria emphasized such points,[44] as did

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[42]For details regarding the building of canals in this period, see Glazebrooke, op.cit., V.1, pp.75-94; George Johnson, Alphabet of First Things in Canada, Third Edition (Ottawa: The Mortimer Co. Limited, 1897), p.36; "Canals of the St. Lawrence Waterways," Canada Year Book, 1954 (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1954), pp.830-833. The following indicates the extent of canal building up to mid-century: "By the end of the forties, then, a through communication for steamers and sailing boats had been achieved from the lower St. Lawrence through the upper river, or by way of the Ottawa River and the Rideau Canal, through Lake Ontario to the western end of Lake Erie, and by way of Detroit to Lake Huron, Georgian Bay, and as far as Sault Ste. Marie. Here there was a break in navigation. No work was undertaken on the Canadian side until the nineties, though an American canal was completed in 1855 (Glazebrook, op.cit., p.84).

[43]Montreal Gazette, August 17, 1843.

[44]J. Ross Robertson, Robertson's Landmarks of Toronto, V.2. (Toronto: J. Ross Robertson, 1896), p.871 - quoted from Evening Telegram, Toronto, July, 1838: "Daily Conveyance - To and From Lewiston, Queenston, Niagara and Toronto. - The new, splendid, and fast-sailing steamer, Queen Victoria, Thomas Dick, Commander, will, for the remainder of the season, ply daily between the above places, Sunday excepted, leaving Lewiston and Queenston every morning at eight o'clock and Niagara at half-past eight o'clock for Toronto. The boat will return each day from Toronto to Niagara, Queenston and Lewiston, leaving Toronto for these places at

that of the Royal Mail Line Steamers in the Montreal Gazette, when describing that the passage from Montreal to Niagara Falls took only fifty-four hours:[45]

> ... Steamers are commanded by the most experienced Captains, and their Saloons and State Rooms on the Upper Deck are fitted up to the most modern style, no expense having been spared to render them unequalled for elegance and convenience, as they are unsurpassed for speed and comfort.

Apart from their important influence in making transportation of passengers and freight more comfortable and economical, the steamboats offered many delightful moments for people who merely wanted to enjoy the thrill and adventure of such travel. Steamboat proprietors were aware of this desire and soon offered short pleasure trips and excursions:

> Cheap Pleasure Trip: The steamer Lady Colborne will leave Quebec for River du Loup (en bas), on Saturday, 6th July next, at twelve o'clock, and will return early on Monday morning. Fare 25 shillings for trip down and up, meals included while running.[46]

On the warm summer evenings, "moonlight excursions" were popular, especially in Montreal. Typical evening activities included a journey

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two o'clock p.m.

Passengers by this boat will on Monday and Thursday arrive in Toronto in time for the William the Fourth steamer for Kingston and Prescott, and passengers from Toronto for Niagara will arrive in time there for the Rochester and Oswego steamers. On arrival at Lewiston railroad cars will leave for the Falls, and on arrival at Queenston stages will leave for the Falls, whence the passengers can proceed next day by the steamer Red Jacket from Chippawa to Buffalo, or by the railroad cars for Manchester.

The Queen Victoria is fitted up in elegant style and is offered to the public as a speedy and safe conveyance, having all the accommodation that passengers can desire, to whose comfort every attention will be paid."

[45]Montreal Gazette, June 13, 1850.

[46]Ibid., July 3, 1844.

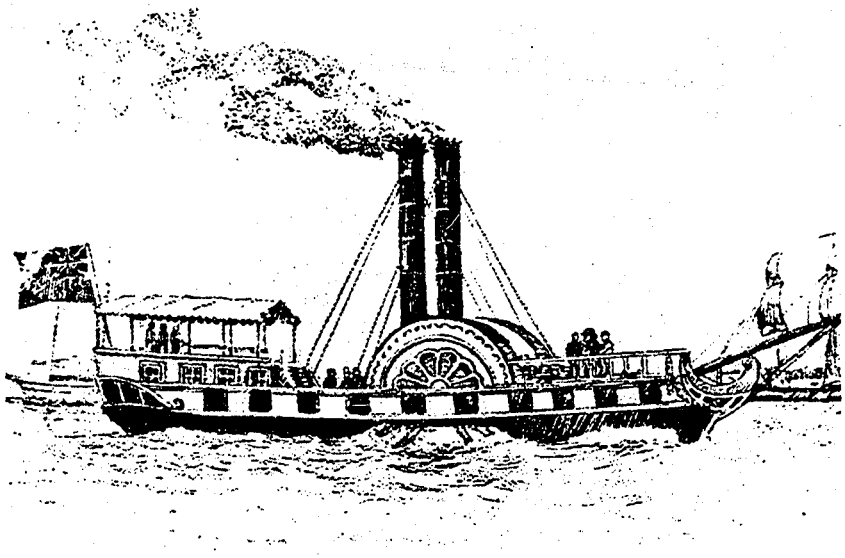

Plate 1. The Accommodation, Canada's first steamboat, was built in 1809 by John Molson of Montreal.

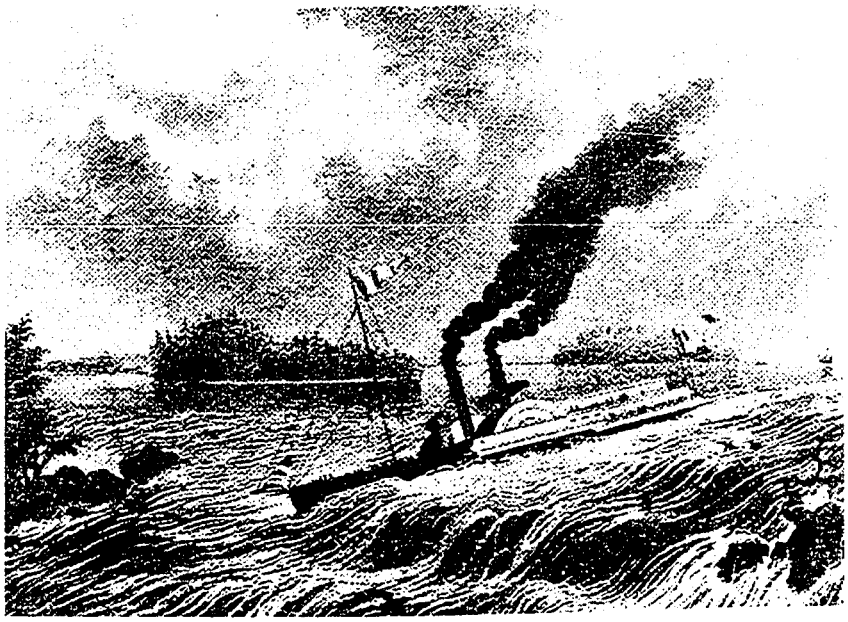

Plate 2. Shooting the Lachine Rapids.

down river from Quebec Basin to Boucherville, where a fireworks display would be held while a military band played on board.[47] The Maid of Canada regularly offered a cruise on the harbour and the river on the warm July nights, and there was "ample room for dancing to the music of the band on board."[48] Tickets for the two-hour cruise, from eight o'clock until ten, were twenty-five cents. Day-long trips were also popular during the summer months, and the steamboat companies often made all the arrangements regarding catering at the chosen site, as well as providing the ever-present musical band.[49]

The "shooting" of the Lachine Rapids had been an exciting pastime for many years but, with the coming of the steamboat, many more people were able to become adventurers. During his tour of Canada in 1860, the Prince of Wales enjoyed this thrill in the steamboat Kingston, complete with the drama of an Indian from the Caughnawaga reservation paddling out above the rapids in a canoe to take over the wheel because "only an Indian knew the course of the rapids."[50] Shooting the rapids was a

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[47] Ibid., July 18, 1867

[48] Ibid.

[49] Ibid., July 24, 1852. This advertisement indicated that a steamer would leave Montreal at 8.30 a.m. and return at 7.30 p.m., and the charges were two-shillings and six pence for gentlemen and one shilling and three pence for ladies. In the Maritimes, steamboat excursions were also popular, and favourite locations around Halifax were Bedford Basin, Woodside, the Hosterman grounds on the North West Arm, and McNab's Island. The two large pavilions for dining and dancing, as well as the areas for quoits and football made an excursion to McNab's Island popular. (Phyllis R. Blakeley, Glimpses of Halifax, 1867-1900. (Halifax: Public Archives of Nova Scotia, 1949), p.153).

[50] Edgar A. Collard, Montreal Yesterdays. (Toronto: Longmans Canada Limited, 1963), pp.105, 108. John Taylor, The Canadian Handbook and Tourists' Guide. (Montreal: M. Longmoore and Co., 1867), pp.72-74, has a detailed description of running the Lachine Rapids by steamboat - see Appendix A. The day of the Prince of Wales' arrival in Montreal provided good business for the steamboat companies as more than a dozen

great attraction and the steamboat companies capitalized on this by offering trips at many different times of the day. An advertisement in the Montreal Gazette, in 1861, announced that a train left Bonaventure Street at seven in the morning and connected with the steamer Richelieu, which ran the rapids and reached Montreal at nine o'clock[51] - a breakfast appetizer, and all for fifty cents.

Racing between the steamboats themselves was looked upon with mixed feelings by some passengers but for others it added to the excitement of steamboat travel. On a few occasions, editors of the newspapers appeared to encourage these competitions of speed:

> ... In the evening the wharfs were lined with spectators eager to witness the departure of the steamers Quebec and Montreal. The Quebec took the lead, and was followed closely out of the basin by the Montreal.... From all appearances it was expected that there would be a tight race between the competitors.[52]

Although the press reports were not always consistent in their outlook on such races, they generally advocated that, for reasons of safety, steamboat captains should refrain from this practice:

> We are glad to learn from Captain Milloy that no further racing will take place on the part of the steamer City of Toronto, between this city and adjacent ports. Captain Milloy deserves the thanks of the people in at once putting a stop to a system of things which could be productive if no good. He would have deserved more had he never given any countenance to the thing at all.[53]

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steamers were used to accommodate the vast numbers wanting to welcome the Prince on his voyage up the river. The cost for this trip was generally a dollar (Montreal Gazette, August 22, 1860).

[51] Montreal Gazette, August 29, 1861.

[52] Ibid., August 1, 1845.

[53] Robertson, op.cit., p.935, quoting from the Globe, Toronto, 1867. An editorial in the Niagara Mail, September 6, 1854 stated: "The steamers Peerless and Welland have been amusing themselves with the very

The steamboat influenced the development and dispersion of sport in various ways. One factor, which was also a good method of advertising, was the donation of prizes for certain sports events, such as horse-racing:

> Mr. James Greenfield, the proprietor of the Lady of the Lake steamboat, has transmitted to the stewards of the races, fifty dollars which Mr. Greenfield wishes to be applied as the commencement of a Steamboat Purse.... This liberality on the part of Mr. Greenfield will, we are certain, meet with its due reward from the public.[54]

Special trips to race-meetings were also popular and an advertisement under the heading "Three Rivers Races," in 1833, stated that the steamer St. George would leave Montreal on a Wednesday at eight o'clock in the evening in order to land persons at Trois Rivieres early Thursday morning for the races.[55] In order to accommodate the crowds which attended the Chatham horse and trotting races in May, 1868, the steamer Essex supplemented the railroad in providing transportation from Windsor to Chatham

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questionable sport of racing between this port and Toronto. There is nothing objectionable in steamers testing their sailing capacities; indeed, it is a subject on which the public generally feel as much interest as in a horse race, but it is decidedly wrong to race in the regular course of business, and expose the lives and property of travellers to danger." Lindsay has commented that it was interesting that the editor rebuked the captains, then published the result of the race, which was a win to Peerless by seven to eight minutes over a distance of thirty-six miles (Lindsay, op.cit., p.19).

[54] Montreal Gazette, September 7, 1829. Apparently no other steamboat proprietors donated as the race appeared as the "Lady of the Lake Steamboat Purse." (Ibid., September 28, 1829). A "Steamer's Purse" was also included in an advertisement for the Montreal Races of September, 1830, but during the actual period of the race-meeting from September 16-20, there was no race run for this prize (Ibid., August 12, 1830, September 16-21, 1830).

[55] Ibid., July 23, 1833. There was cabin accommodation for sixty passengers (Ibid., July 25, 1833).

and return.[56]

Other sports also benefited from the cheaper transportation which the steamboat provided. Many spectators observed the annual bonspiel between the Halifax, Thistle and Dartmouth clubs at Dartmouth in 1855, and it was stated in the Novascotian that "the steamboat company ought to be very much obliged to the Curlers for increasing the travel across the Ferry."[57] For the track and field games at Cornwall for the 1865 Queen's Birthday celebration, "the railways and steamboats brought their hundreds from all points between Montreal and Toronto,"[58] and it was estimated that at least ten thousand people were at the athletic grounds at some time that day. Excursion rates for baseball matches, cycling meetings and rifle tournaments were also granted by steamboat companies.[59] The Beaver Lacrosse Club sponsored a "Grand Pleasure Excursion to St. Alban's on the Iron Duke which connected with a train at St. Lambert."[60] The trip was to celebrate the Queen's Birthday, and a lacrosse match was played in full costume. A similar lacrosse excursion was encouraged through the columns of the Montreal Gazette[61] in 1867:

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[56]Neil F. Morrison, Garden Gateway to Canada. (Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1954), p.74.

[57]Novascotian, Halifax, March 5, 1855.

[58]Ottawa Citizen, May 26, 1865. At the inaugural sports meeting of the Barrie Amateur Athletic Association in 1889, three thousand people were at the ground to watch baseball, lacrosse, football as well as track and field and "excursions by rail and boat poured into town from all directions" (Globe, Toronto, May 25, 1889)

[59]Reporter, Fredericton, August 4, 1880; Winnipeg Free Press, May 18, 1886; Montreal Gazette, July 1, 1865.

[60]Montreal Gazette, May 22, 1861. The day-long trip was from seven o'clock in the morning until eight in the evening. Return tickets cost one dollar for gentlemen and seventy-five cents for ladies.

[61]Ibid., August 1, 1867.

> Excursions being the order of the day, cannot some enterprising clubs get up an Excursion to Caledonia Springs and give an exhibition game for the benefit of the guests at the new hotel. We commend the project to our enterprising friends the Managers of this Company. A Saturday trip, returning by moonlight, would, we think, be pleasant, and profitable.

When plans for a tour of England by a Canadian lacrosse team were being made, special excursion rates were offered by the Dominion Shipping Line to those lacrosse enthusiasts who wanted to accompany the team on the Sarnia, a vessel which "does not carry cattle."[62]

The popularity of rowing and sailing can largely be attributed to the part played by steamboats in making the regattas so enjoyable to the spectators. Not much could be seen by watching these two aquatic sports from the shores of lakes, and the steamboats enabled the followers of rowing and sailing to be amidst the activity. Following the Quebec Regatta in 1830, this extract appeared in the Montreal Gazette:[63]

> Notwithstanding the bad weather, we learn that the the [sic] concourse of spectators was very great. The John Molson had a large party of ladies and gentlemen.... The Band of the 32nd Regiment which was on board, gave some new and beautiful music. The Richelieu, St. Lawrence and Lauzon were also in attendance, and were all crowded to excess; on board of the first the band of the 24th attended.

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[62] Winnipeg Free Press, March 12, 1883. The special excursion rates also included free admission to all matches and the same reductions the teams received at hotels and on the railways in England.

[63] Montreal Gazette, September 12, 1830. Steamboats also played an important part in the success of the Montreal Regatta in 1844: "... Various steamboats were placed in requisition for the occasion, the largest of which, the Lord Sydenham, had on board, at a moderate computation, upwards of 500 spectators, including numbers of elegantly attired ladies.... The entire Bay of Longueuil was literally swarming with every conceivable variety of aquatic locomotive, from the huge steamboat to the diminutive canoe." (Ibid., September 29, 1844)

After the successful rowing regatta at Longueuil in 1860, when "the Bay was filled with boats of all sizes and shapes, from the passenger steamer to the wooden canoe," the correspondent from the Montreal Gazette encouraged the idea of yearly regattas because rowing did "more to develope [sic] the 'muscle'... than all the homilies ever uttered by physician or tutor."[64]

For the Toronto Rowing Club's regatta in 1867 it was reported that thousands of spectators purchased tickets to follow the races aboard steamboats on the bay, while thousands more lined the shore.[65] As stated previously, rowing spectators utilized the available steamboats in order to obtain a closer and better view of the events. On most occasions this was the case, but during the Canadian Association of Amateur Oarsmen's regatta in 1880 a journalist for the Toronto Globe[66] reported the following:

> There was a very good view of the race from the deck of the [Southern] Belle for the first half-mile, but that was all. For the rest of the distance the course was obscured by several small tugs, which, disregarding the post of honour, came between the wind and the Belle's nobility, filling the eyes of her passengers with cinders and their lungs with stifling smoke. 'Well, it wasn't much of a race anyway,' was a general consoling remark of the victims, and the prevailing good temper of the afternoon continued to hold its sway in spite of the provoking and unmannerly interruption to the field of vision.

Rowing was an extremely popular sport in the Maritime provinces and, for the important race between the Tyne crew from England and the "Paris" crew of St. John, thousands of spectators travelled by train

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[64] Ibid., August 31, 1860.

[65] Globe, Toronto, August 12, 1867.

[66] Ibid., August 5, 1880.

and steamer[67] to see the New Brunswick crew win over a six mile course on the Kennebecasis River. Unfortunately, James Renforth, the Tyne stroke, collapsed during the race and died later that day.[68] The following week the Halifax Aquatic Carnival, which had been sponsored by the newspapers, business men and sporting enthusiasts, as well as the Halifax Yacht Club, was held.[69] The four-oared race at this regatta was of special interest because, in addition to the three thousand dollar purse which was awarded to the "champions of the world," the provincial government of Nova Scotia offered an additional prize for the best Nova Scotia crew in an attempt to regain the rowing supremacy which was then held by New Brunswick.[70] Thousands of spectators, eager to see the great crews of the day, had to be content with viewing the race from the special grandstands erected near to the clubhouse, which accommodated two thousand people, from the banks, or from stationary vessels, as the Halifax Yacht Club would not permit any steamer to accompany the boats over the course. Obviously, the officials did not want to run the risk of the wash from the steamers, or of a boat straying onto the course,

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[67] Ibid., August 23, 1871. [68] Ibid.

[69] Blakeley, op.cit., p.161.

[70] Globe, Toronto, August 28, 1871. Of the crews originally entered in the race, three were from Nova Scotia, two from England, one from the United States. The St. John "Paris crew" withdrew because of rough water, an action with which the editor of the Novascotian was extremely critical: "No words can too strongly express the indignation that is felt in Halifax at their action." (Novascotian, Halifax, August 30, 1871) The Taylor-Winship crew from England came first and the Halifax crew, coached by James Pryor, a prominent boat-builder, was second (Globe, Toronto, September 1, 1871).

[71] Globe, Toronto, August 23, 1871.

which could interfere with the running of this exciting race.

Steamers were encouraged to remain on the outside of the rowers during the Canadian Association of Amateur Oarsmen's regatta in 1880[72] and there were no problems, but during the Citizen's Regatta in Toronto in 1881 there were complaints about steamers being in the way:

> The steamers Luella and Prowett Beyer distinguished themselves in the third heat of the sculls, washing Hamm to such an extent that had he not had the second place very securely, and able to paddle very gently he must have been swamped. The captain of the Luella, when spoken to, claimed he was not on the course, but afterwards when the true state of the case was pointed out to him, he apologized in the most ample manner, and promised not to offend again, a promise which he kept. The commander of the Prowett Beyer did not follow this excellent example. The worst behaviour of any steamer was that of the Algerian ... who nearly ran down the Toronto four-oared crew in the race, and swamped both the Halifax and Nagle-Lee crew. A more gross case of discourtesy, inhumanity, and bad seamanship has seldom been witnessed, and should any of the competing oarsmen have been drowned the trial of the captain for manslaughter would have been the certain result.[73]

However, during most rowing regattas the steamboat captains kept a safe distance away from the oarsmen, although sometimes this was not by a matter of choice. The Hamilton Times,[74] in reporting a match between crews from Hamilton and Windsor in 1865, observed that of the several steamers packed with spectators to see the race, the E.A. Brush was the only boat capable of keeping up with the rowers, so the judges were on it. The steamboat was a tremendous asset to the development of rowing as a sport because it enabled people to obtain a closer view of the competition and see many more intricacies of the art than from the shores

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[72] Ibid., August 4, 1880. [73] Ibid., September 10, 1881.

[74] Hamilton Times, September 2, 1865.

or banks.[75]

An especially glorious occasion when steamboats were in their element was during the reception of Edward (Ned) Hanlan upon his return from England as the "sculling champion of the world" in 1879. Many steamers were available to accommodate Hanlan's many admirers, as indicated by this advertisement which appeared in all the Toronto papers at the time:

HANLAN RECEPTION

THE CHAMPION SCULLER OF CANADA, UNITED STATES AND ENGLAND
Will arrive home
ON TUESDAY, THE 15th INST.
about five o'clock, p.m.

The Chicora has been chartered to bring Hanlan home, at an hour which will be definitely settled on Monday morning. Return tickets will be issued and for sale on Monday at one o'clock at $1 each, for the benefit of the Homestead Fund. A number of steamers have been chartered to meet the Chicora on the Lake, leaving the docks at foot of Yonge, Church and York streets at three o'clock. The fare has been fixed at 25¢ for adults and 15¢ for children. The Opera Company now playing at the Horticultural Gardens will give an entertainment commencing at 8 o'clock sharp.

An Address will be presented by the Mayor about nine o'clock, to which the Champion will reply.

The Champion will also appear with his boat, in full racing costume.

Tickets will be sold at 50¢ - no reserved seats.

Tickets can be secured at Nordheimers', Sucklings' and leading hotels.

A.R. BOSWELL,
Chairman Reception Committee.

R.W. SUTHERLAND,
Hon. Secretary.[76]

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[75]Other references to the use and role of the steamboat in rowing regattas are: Montreal Gazette, August 23, 1831 and September 15, 1870; Globe, August 24, 1866 and June 30, 1873; Morning Chronicle, Quebec, August 28, 1867; Ottawa Times, September 28, 1887; Morrison, op.cit., p.76; and Roxborough, op.cit., p.63.

[76]Robertson, op.cit., V.2., p.949.

Sailing enthusiasts also found the steamboat an excellent innovation for viewing their sport. At a sailing regatta in Toronto in 1843 so many steamboats were in use that "the bay literally swarmed with craft of every description."[77] Some of the delights which the observers of a Quebec regatta in 1867 enjoyed from on board the steamer Arctic were revealed in the Quebec Morning Chronicle on September 16, 1867:

> The people on board had music... as well as the pleasure of a splendid trip, the delights of which included a near and clear view of the race, the refreshing, animating breeze of the river, and the sight of the picturesque, and imposing scenery of the St. Lawrence, which greets the eye everywhere in the route taken by the yachts.[78]

Throughout the nineteenth century the steamboat provided the opportunity for individuals to travel beyond their own communities in relative comfort, and this encouraged sporting competition between towns and cities in various regions. However, despite the comfort and convenience, there still remained a major factor which was detrimental to the development of inter-community sporting competition - that of time. For example, when the Cobourg Cricket Club visited Bowmanville in 1846 for a match, it was necessary to travel the twenty-five miles on the day previous to the game in order to ensure an enjoyable day of cricket. It was not until the advent of the railways that the one-day excursion for inter-community sport became feasible and, in other ways as well, this innovation in the field of transportation led to a spectacular rise in the amount of sporting activity.

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[77] Montreal Gazette, September 11, 1843. Five steamers were mentioned by name in the report of this sailing regatta.

[78] Ibid., July 27, 1854. Railway companies also offered similar sea-bathing excursions.

The steam railway evolved from a combination of two separate innovations: the track for carrying wheeled vehicles, which had been used in English mines for many years; and the steam engine.[79] The economy of the steam locomotive had a considerable impact on transportation, but this invention also exuded an emotional appeal:

> No mechanical invention was ever received with such universal rapture as the iron horse. It grew to be almost as much a friend of man as the real horse and when it panted when climbing a hill, men sympathised, encouraged and commended its efforts. The cranks on its wheels, moving up and down while at the same time moving forward, resembled the knees of a steady Clydesdale and there was a rhythm that led to poetry and song.[80]

In 1814, George Stephenson developed a steam locomotive which was the forerunner of those now in use and, in 1825, the first passenger railway in the world operated in Durham County, England.[81] The first railroad in Canada[82] led originally to Laprairie from St. John's, Quebec, and was constructed in 1836 to connect Lake Champlain with the St. Lawrence River, and thereby expedited traffic between Montreal and New York.[83] Like many of the early railways, the track consisted of wooden

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[79]Glazebrook, op.cit.,V.1, p.140.

[80]G.R. Stevens, The Incompleat Canadian (Canada: G.R. Stevens, 1965), p.120 quoted from F.N. Walker, "Four Whistles to Wood-Up," Upper Canada Railway Society Bulletin, No.37, 1952.

[81]Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada, p.201.

[82]The first railway was a short line in Quebec used to carry stone from the wharves at Cape Diamond to the Citadel and comprised an inclined railway operated by a stationary engine (Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada, p.202).

[83]Canadian Historical Association, Report of the Annual Meeting, Montreal, May 1930. (Ottawa: Department of Public Archives, 1930), p.114. Although this line was intended as a portage for goods, people were so anxious to ride on it that, because of the lack of coaches, dewheeled calèches and sleighs were placed on flat cars to accommodate them (Stevens, op.cit., p.121).

rails with flat bars of iron spiked on them.[84] Although the original plan for railways was that they should supplement water transport and were not to be built near canals, this soon proved to be short-sighted, and the Montreal and Champlain Railroad, covering the eight miles between Montreal and Lachine, opened in 1847.[85]

Very little progress in railway building was made until after 1850, and up to that year less than one hundred miles of railroad track had been laid.[86] The Guarantee Act of 1849, which provided for government aid to every railroad at least seventy miles in length, encouraged rapid construction of railways and, between 1850 and 1853, fifty-six charters were issued, of which twenty-seven were acted upon.[87] The result of this expansion was that many communities were connected by rail during the 1850's.[88] Montreal was linked to Richmond in 1851, Sherbrooke in 1852, Point Levis in 1854, and to Toronto by the Grand Trunk Railway in 1856. In Upper Canada the Great Western Railway ran from Hamilton to London in 1853, to Windsor in 1854 and through to Toronto in 1855. Ottawa (Bytown) and Prescott, and Cobourg and Peterborough, were linked in 1854. The opening of the railway from Halifax to Windsor in the spring of 1858 was a boon to inter-colonial travel,

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[84]Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada, p.203. Many of the early railways used wooden rails but warping and other troubles caused problems (Glazebrook, op.cit., pp.141-142).

[85]Glazebrook, op.cit., pp.143, 146.

[86]Ibid., p.153.

[87]Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada, p.214.

[88]For specific details, see Glazebrook, op.cit. V.1; Guillet, Pioneer Travels in Upper Canada; and James J. Talman, "The Development of the Railway Network of Southwestern Ontario to 1876," Canadian Historical Association, Report of Annual Meeting, June, 1953, pp.52-60.

and trains ran to and from Halifax twice daily, excepting Sundays.[89] Within the decade 1850-1860, the railway really expanded as, by 1860, there were three hundred locomotives in Upper Canada alone,[90] and at Confederation in 1867 a varied network of more than two thousand miles of rail linked the major cities and towns of Ontario, Quebec and the Maritimes.[91] By the turn of the century there were nearly eighteen thousand miles of track[92] serving Canada from sea to sea.[93] The railway companies were important for the carrying of raw materials and manufactured products, and they also promoted and encouraged passenger traffic by improving passenger comforts and by offering a rapid mode of transportation at reasonable rates.

As traffic increased, better facilities for rail travel, such as double tracks, a standard gauge of four feet eight and a half inches, larger engines, the use of coal as fuel instead of wood began to develop. Perhaps of most importance for travellers in winter-time, was the use of snowploughs.[94] Prior to this last innovation, trains were fre-

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[89] Martell, op.cit., p.45. The Inter-colonial railway linking the Maritimes with the eastern provinces while running through Canadian territory was not completed until 1876 (Glazebrook, op.cit. V.2, p.94).

[90] Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada, p.215.

[91] Glazebrook, op.cit. V.2, p.94.

[92] Canada, Department of Agriculture, Statistical Year Book of Canada for 1900. (Ottawa: Government Printing Bureau, 1901), p.356. The actual figure of miles in operation in 1900 was 17,657.

[93] In 1886, the first regular transcontinental train departed from Halifax and the inauguration of this service by the Canadian Pacific Railroad linked Canada east to west (Canadian Historical Association, Report of the Annual Meeting, London, 1940. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1940), p.119).

[94] Glazebrook, op.cit. V.2., p.94.

quently snow-bound for hours or days, often without food until dining cars were later introduced.

The early railway passenger cars provided little more than a place to sit, but improvements were soon forthcoming with the introduction of the early "swing bar" bench seat of the 1840's, which passengers could swing over so as to sit facing the direction of travel.[95] Seats became adjustable for height as well as inclination, and various innovations were tried to adapt the seat for sleeping comfort.[96] Although other inventors had patented various types of "sleeping cars" it was George Pullman,[97] an American, whose name became synonymous with comfort and luxury in rail travel. His passenger comforts were soon introduced into Canada. There was a demand on many railways covering long distances for a more convenient carriage so that the passengers could obtain some rest and relaxation from the fatigue of sitting for many hours of the day and night. In 1867 the Hamilton Times reported that an excursion party from Chicago was travelling through Hamilton to Rochester, New York, by way of the Blue Line over the Great Western Railroad in a special train comprising new Pullman cars.[98] A few days later a journalist of the

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[95] S. Giedion, Mechanization Takes Command. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1948), p.441.

[96] Ibid., pp.444-448. Although Giedion referred to United States patents in this development, similar equipment was being used in Canada.

[97] For further information on Pullman and the Pullman Company's contribution to railway travel, see Giedion, op.cit., pp.448-458; and John W. Oliver, History of American Technology. (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956), pp.420-422).

[98] Hamilton Times, January 8, 1867.

Hamilton Times had the opportunity of seeing through these cars:

> They are the most complete and finely finished railway carriages we have ever seen.... They are 65 feet in length, 11 feet in height from floor to ceiling, and from 10 to 11 feet in width. They are heated by a furnace in the centre, the construction of which is such that it acts as a ventilator in summer. There are in these cars, all the conveniences of dressing rooms, etc. and coffee and refreshments can be obtained on board when wanted. Passengers leaving Windsor at seven in the evening for the east, have a comfortable night's rest, and arrive in Rochester about seven the next morning, without change of cars.[99]

It was announced that several of these cars were in construction at the Great Western Railroad's workshops in Hamilton and were expected to be ready for travel by March of that year.[100] Other passenger comforts introduced during the nineteenth century included special lounging, smoking and dining cars, as well as luxurious carriages with drawing rooms.[101] Improvements in ventilation, heating and lighting also made rail travel more comfortable and attractive.[102] By 1900, the Canadian passenger cars were spacious, attractive and most conducive to rail travel.[103]

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[99] Ibid., January 10, 1867. [100] Ibid.

[101] Oliver, op.cit., pp.421-422. The Great Western Railroad company announced it had a new smoking car in 1872 which contained three rows of revolving cane chairs (Globe, Toronto, February 27, 1872). Many of the American innovations were patented in Canada but there were many patents by Canadian inventors, such as Thomas Clarke of Truro, Nova Scotia, who made improvements on sleeping cars in 1880 (Canada Patent No. 11,713) and James H. Elliott of Montreal, who devised a different type of dining car in 1887 (Canada Patent No. 26,795).

[102] Oliver, op.cit., pp.421-422.

[103] Passenger cars built in 1891 for the Canada Atlantic Company were framed of British Columbia fir and southern pine, with exterior woodwork in Canadian cherry of which "every inch was polished." The dimensions were: overall length - 63 feet; inside length - 57 feet; and height from rail to roof - 14 feet, 4 inches. The carriages each had separate smoking rooms to accommodate eight people, as well as leather seats and washrooms (Ottawa Citizen, June 13, 1891).

Despite the lack of passenger comforts when rail travel was first introduced, Canadians were anxious to ride on the trains. Three-quarters of the Great Western Railway company's earnings on the Niagara Falls to Windsor route in 1853 came from passengers,[104] and for the inaugural excursion of the Cobourg to Peterborough train in 1854, thousands of adventurers availed themselves of the free tickets.[105] The railway was bringing speed to travel and, although average speeds in the 1850's were about ten to fifteen miles per hour,[106] by 1863 the two daily express trains between Montreal and Toronto were covering the three hundred and thirty-three miles in sixteen hours.[107] Under the heading "Acceleration of Speed," the Grand Trunk Railway advertised in 1870 that the duration of the journey between Montreal and Toronto was thirteen hours,[108] an average speed of more than twenty-five miles per hour. After the last spike of the Canadian Pacific Railroad was driven in November, 1885, a special train continued on to Port Moody, completing the continental crossing from Montreal in five days and running at an average speed of twenty-four miles per hour.[109] However, it was not until June 28, 1886,

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[104] Stevens, op.cit., p.122.

[105] Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada, p.206.

[106] Glazebrook, op.cit. V.1., p.165.

[107] Globe, Toronto, May 26, 1863. The Grand Trunk Railway announced a reduction in fares between Montreal and Toronto at this time to: First Class, eight dollars single; fourteen dollars return, which was good for ten days; Second Class: five dollars single. There were sleeping cars on all night trains.

[108] Ibid., September 15, 1870.

[109] D.G.G. Kerr and R.I.K. Dawson, Canada - A Visual History. (Toronto: Thomas Nelson and Sons, (Canada) Limited, 1966), p.82.

that the first regular transcontinental passenger train, complete with first-class carriages, colonist cars, two parlour and sleeping cars, and a diner left Montreal and, six days later, on July 4, arrived at Port Moody.[110] Trains in the 1890's were travelling faster still, as the Canadian Pacific Railroad covered the distance between Ottawa and Montreal via the "new short line," which ran up the Ontario bank of the Ottawa River, in two-and-a-quarter hours.[111]

Since the introduction of railway travel, basic fares for passengers became cheaper as the decades passed.[112] Special excursion rates offered by the railroad companies, where a return ticket was issued and was valid only until a predetermined date, made rail travel even cheaper, especially for the sporting teams, which were travelling for a few days of competition.[113]

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[110] Ibid. In May, 1887 the line was extended to the docks at Vancouver. An interesting development of international consequence occurred around this time. Sir Sandford Fleming, of the Canadian Pacific Railway, realised that a railway traversing an entire continent would suffer from problems over time changes. He conceived the notion of dividing the world longitudinally into twenty-four "time zones" and that east-west travellers would change their watches by an hour as they crossed each zone. This is now the system in use all over the world (J.J. Brown, Ideas in Exile - A History of Canadian Invention (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1967), p.165.).

[111] Quebec, Summer and Winter (Quebec: Canadian Pacific Railway Co., 1901), p.29. The distance between the two cities was approximately 120 miles.

[112] Montreal Gazette, August 5, 1853; Globe, Toronto, May 26, 1863; Ottawa Citizen, June 13, 1891.

[113] Examples of excursion fares were, in 1876, from Halifax: to Quebec, twelve dollars return; to Montreal, fifteen dollars return; and to Toronto, twenty dollars return. (Halifax Citizen, August 11, 1876). Canadian Pacific Railway return excursion rates in 1882 from Winnipeg to Toronto and Montreal were thirty-nine and forty-four dollars, respectively (Winnipeg Free Press, September 21, 1882).

Soon after the railways began the companies realized the desire of the Canadian people to travel, and special "tourist" excursions were offered and conducted. The Grand Trunk Railway advertised in the Montreal Gazette of July 27, 1854, that "to enable the Public to enjoy the benefit of a change of air, return tickets will be issued to all stations between Montreal and Sherbrooke by the 4 p.m. train every Saturday until further notice, at the price of a single fare, returning on Monday morning." Daily excursions were also popular and Montrealers could travel to the Lake of Two Mountains and back by the Montreal and New York Railroad and the steamer Lady Simpson at half-fare.[114] Excursion tickets for "sea-bathing" throughout the summer season were offered by several railroad companies at reduced rates, and some of the resorts included Portland, Cape Elizabeth, Saco, Rye Beach and Rivière du Loup.[115]

Inter-community competition in many sports increased significantly with the laying of the railroads in the Canadas and the Maritimes because there was now the opportunity for "one-day" events with neighbouring towns, and a general decrease in the amount of travelling time. Participants in several sports also took advantage of the opportunities which railway companies offered in promoting passenger travel for groups through excursion and special fares.

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[114] Montreal Gazette, September 4, 1855. Fares were eight shillings from Montreal and six shillings and three-pence from Lachine.

[115] Globe, Toronto, June 29, 1860; Montreal Gazette, June 30, 1862 and July 13, 1885. Steamboat companies also offered "sea-bathing excursions" to the River Saguenay, Murray Bay, Rivière du Loup, Cacouna and other locations (Montreal Gazette, July 27, 1854).

In the sport of curling, rail travel encouraged more regular competition, especially among the eastern clubs. Following an announcement that eight gentlemen had arrived by train from Montreal to play Quebec curlers, the Morning Chronicle, in 1857, mentioned that within a few days clubs from Montreal and Quebec would play for a district medal.[116] Curling bonspiels on a large scale could now be held and, in 1858, a Grand East-West Bonspiel was instigated at Burlington Bay with thirty-two rinks taking part.[117] The next year a second east-west bonspiel was held on the Don River at Toronto, and clubs from Toronto, Burlington, Hamilton, Guelph, Bowmanville, London, Newcastle, Paris, West Flamborough, Scarborough, Fergus, Dundas, Ancaster, Darlington, Bayfield and Montreal were represented.[118] There were forty-two rinks and a total of one-hundred and sixty-eight players arrived in Toronto for the matches:

> Every train which arrived at the Union Depot brought its quota of players, accompanied by their curling stones and brooms, and upon the arrival of the cars from Hamilton, shortly before twelve o'clock, a special train was in waiting to convey the curlers to the vantage ground.[119]

In January, 1859, representatives from nearly all the curling clubs in Upper and Lower Canada were present at a meeting of the Canadian branch of the Royal Caledonian Curling Club.[120] It was decided at the meeting that five medals would be awarded and played off in the winter between

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[116] Morning Chronicle, Quebec, March 4, 1857.

[117] Globe, Toronto, February 19, 1858.

[118] Ibid., February 9, 1859. [119] Ibid.

[120] The formation of the Canadian branch of the Royal Caledonian Curling Club occurred in 1852 (Montreal Gazette, April 9, 1852).

the following clubs: Quebec and Stadacona, Montreal and Kingston, Ottawa and Buckingham, London and Paris, and West Flamborough and Burlington.[121] These matches all required considerable travelling. In 1861, one of the draws for a Royal Caledonian Medal competition was played in Montreal between the Stadacona Club of Quebec and the Toronto club, thus requiring a combined total of over one thousand miles of travelling for the matches.[122]

Twenty-three rinks from Canada and the United States took part in an international bonspiel in Buffalo in January, 1865, in which the Canadians won the competition after five hours of play.[123] The Canadian clubs which participated were Ayr, Burlington, Chatham, Dundas, Fergus, Flamborough, Galt, Kingston, London, Ontario, Paris, Port Hope, Scarborough, Simcoe, Thames, Toronto, Waverley and West Flamborough. Upon the return of the curlers to Canada, it was reported in the Globe[124] that "through the courtesy of the Great Western Railway a special car was prepared for the curlers, and indeed this company deserves great credit for the manner in which they have acted towards those who participated in the match."

Train travel enabled teams to visit more than one town on a week-

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[121] Montreal Gazette, January 20, 1859.

[122] Globe, Toronto, March 18, 1861. "This necessitated a round trip of 370 miles for the Quebec players, and 700 for the Toronto group, something that would have been unthinkable before the railroad era." (Lindsay, op.cit., p.36)

[123] Globe, Toronto, January 7, 1865.

[124] Ibid. The Great Western Railway employees were interested in curling and had played against employees of the Grand Trunk Railway on at least one occasion (Ibid., January 25, 1862).

end trip and play a series of matches, as the Fredericton curlers did in 1880, when they travelled to St. John to play against the Thistle Curling Club and then continued on to St. Andrews the next morning for further competition.[125] Even in the first year that an Edmonton curling club was formed, a rink travelled to a bonspiel in Winnipeg via the Canadian Pacific Railway from Calgary for a special return rate of twenty-five dollars.[126]

The Montreal Snow Shoe Club, which had been in existence since 1840,[127] helped to develop the sport of snow-shoeing by holding regular competitions. For the races in March, 1861, at Lachine, a special train ran from Bonaventure Depot, and many people availed themselves of the reduced rates which had been arranged.[128] Employees of the Grand Trunk Railway held regular snowshoe races from 1863 onwards,[129] and sometimes made use of the company's equipment, such as railway cars for a ladies' grandstand.[130]

When the Montreal Snow Shoe Club visited St. Andrews for a weekend in 1875, there was no snowshoe club in that community.[131] The snowshoers

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[125] Reporter, Fredericton, February 11, 1880.

[126] John E. Reid, "Sports and Games in Alberta before 1900." (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, 1969)p.65.

[127] Hugh W. Becket, The Montreal Snow Shoe Club, 1840-1881. (Montreal: Becket Brothers, 1882), p.4.

[128] Ibid., pp.71-72.

[129] Montreal Gazette, March 10, 1863 and February 22, 1867; Becket, op.cit., p.207. Becket has stated that the Grand Trunk Railway club was a private organization consisting of employees only, although some employees were members of other clubs.

[130] Morning Chronicle, Quebec, March 4, 1867.

[131] Becket, op.cit., p.293.

from Montreal left on Saturday morning to Vaudreil by train and then by horse and carriage to St. Andrews, where they were billeted for the weekend. Later that year, five members of the Tecumseh club tramped forty-five miles to St. Andrews, taking five hours to cover the first twenty-four miles.[132] Other less ambitious members of the club travelled by train, and a number of snowshoe races were held. The enthusiasm which was generated by the visit of those clubs may have been the reason a St. Andrews' snowshoeing club was formed later that season.[133]

An exciting excursion to Ottawa was arranged by the Canadian Snowshoe Club in January, 1884, when approximately two hundred and fifty members arrived at the Canadian Pacific Railway station and proceeded through the principal streets by torchlight.[134] The next day the snowshoers tramped to Rideau Hall and presented Governor-General Lansdowne with a pair of snowshoes to mark the occasion, at which he was made an honorary member of the club.[135] During their visit, the club members were to attend the ice-trotting races on the Crystal Park course as guests of the Ottawa Winter Trotting Club.[136]

Travel to and from communities took less time by train and thereby cut down the costs for sporting tours. In 1894, an American college ice-hockey team played in Montreal on a Friday night, spent all day on the train and reached Toronto in time to play on the Saturday night and despite the many hours of travel, won this particular match.[137] An ice-

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[132] Ibid., p.296.

[133] Ibid., p.298.

[134] Ottawa Citizen, January 6, 1884. Total club membership at this time was approximately five hundred (Ibid., December 19, 1883).

[135] Ibid., January 7, 1884.

[136] Ibid., January 4, 1884.

[137] Globe, Toronto, December 31, 1894.

hockey tournament was held in Edmonton in 1895 to which teams from Calgary travelled by train and played against such other teams as the North West Mounted Police and the Thistles.[138] The following year, a similar tournament was held in Edmonton and teams from North and South Edmonton, Fort Saskatchewan, and the Calgary-and-Fire Brigade club participated.[139] Even the smaller communities were giving support to their hockey teams and regular competitions were being held, especially by the 1890's. During the final games of an ice-hockey league comprised of teams from communities around the Brockville, Newborough and Westport area, the Brockville and Westport Railway ran excursion trips from Westport to convey the teams and their followers along the line to the games.[140] Many who could not attend the game would be waiting at the station when the train returned in the early hours of the morning and, while showing the excursionists home by lanterns, heard all about the night's activities.[141]

The sport of horse-racing benefited from the improved transportation of the railways as horses and turf enthusiasts could be conveyed with greater ease. New race-tracks were usually built in close proximity to existing railroads as proprietors and turf clubs realized the advantages this mode of transportation could provide. The St. Hyacinthe races were a popular turf attraction and, in 1852, special trains of the St. Lawrence and Atlantic Railroad were provided at the

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[138] Edmonton Bulletin, March 8, 1895.

[139] Calgary Herald, April 23, 1938.

[140] Centennial Committee of Newboro, Ontario, The Isthmus - A Historical Sketch of Newboro. (Smiths Falls: Standard Press, 1967), p.52.

[141] Ibid.

cost of five shillings for first class and three shillings and nine pence for second class return fares from Montreal.[142] The correspondent covering the races for the Montreal Gazette[143] reported:

> On Wednesday we took advantage of the special train of the St.L. and A.R.R., to get a sniff of pure air and see what was going on in the sporting world. The road was in good condition and the train (consisting of three well-fitted carriages) whirled along at the rate of near [sic] 40 miles an hour quite smoothly. The time was an hour and one minute, including the stoppages.

For the three days of the Toronto Spring Races in June, 1860, the Grand Trunk Railway ran special trains to the Carleton Race Course, for which the fare each way was twelve and a-half cents.[144] On the opening day of the races there were over three thousand people at the course and "the greater portion of the vast crowd returned to town by the special train on the Grand Trunk, which left Carleton at six o'clock."[145] Horse-racing was extremely popular on the prairies, and when the Winnipeg Turf Club constructed a new race-track in 1882, they used a site alongside the Canadian Pacific Railway's southwestern route, so that it could be reached by train within a few minutes.[146] Subsequent arrangements were made with this railway company to carry passengers at reduced rates.[147]

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[142] Montreal Gazette, August 3, 1852. Return fares from Richmond to St. Hyacinthe were seven shillings and six pence first class and five shillings for second class.

[143] Ibid., August 6, 1852.

[144] Globe, Toronto, June 26, 1860. Ten cents extra was charged for tickets purchased on the train.

[145] Ibid., June 28, 1860.

[146] Winnipeg Free Press, August 5, 1882.

[147] Ibid., September 22, 1882.

Many cricket clubs were in towns serviced by trains and this facilitated an increase in the frequency of inter-community competition. When the Cobourg Cricket Club was scheduled to play a match against Bowmanville, in 1846, the secretary of the Bowmanville club suggested that, as there was no rail connection at the time, it would be necessary for the Cobourg team to travel by stagecoach and steamer on the day prior to the match.[148] The railway alleviated such tedious travelling and it became possible for cricket teams to travel such distances as between Bowmanville and Cobourg and play on the same day. The eventual development of railway networks made it convenient for teams from different communities to combine, such as when the Toronto Cricket Club played a joint Peterborough and Cobourg team in 1861.[149]

The railway companies were most obliging to the touring English cricketers in 1859, and provided special trains for them on several occasions.[150] Canadian cricket-lovers followed the progress of the tour with interest, and many were anxious to see the Englishmen who were defeating Canadian "twenty-twos":[150]

> The sight at the [Hamilton] station we can scarcely describe. It was well known, for many miles around, that we could arrive by no other train than this, and it was with great difficulty we could emerge from our cars to get out of the station.

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[148] Edwin C. Guillet, Cobourg, 1798-1948, p.111. The distance between these two towns by land is approximately thirty miles.

[149] Globe, Toronto, June 26, 1861.

[150] Lillywhite, op.cit., p.17. A regular train waited at Kingston station for an hour when the cricketers were delayed (Ibid., pp.54-55).

[151] Ibid., p.46. A list of the twenty-two Canadians who played in the first three-day match of the tour in Montreal appeared in the Montreal Weekly Gazette, October 1, 1859 and has been reproduced by Lindsay, op.cit., p.294.

Plate 3. The welcome at Hamilton Station

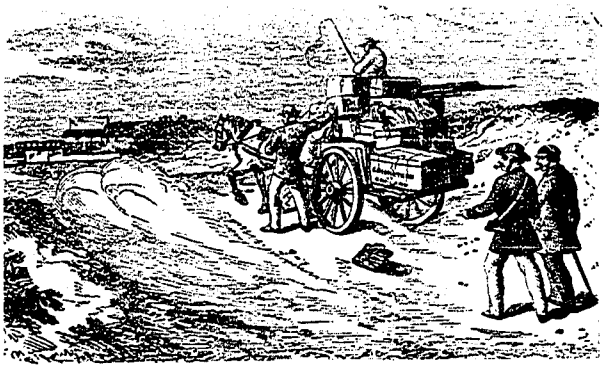

Plate 4. The arrival at Kingston station, where the train had waited for an hour when the cricketers were delayed.

Plate 5. Caught in a snow-storm.

Plate 6. En route between Buffalo and Niagara Falls; the twenty-two miles were covered in five hours.

Individual clubs from the United States also made use of the railroad. The Peninsular Cricket Club of Detroit, for example, played a match at Toronto and then went on by train to play Hamilton.[152] A team of players, selected by the Reverend T.D. Phillips, which was representative of Canadian cricketers from the eastern and Maritime provinces, spent forty-three hours on the train when travelling to play in Philadelphia in 1875.[153] On the same day on which they arrived by train, the Canadians were defeated by the United States in the tournament.[154]

By using the rail system where possible and horse-carriages when it was not, the Winnipeg Cricket Club planned a two-week tour to the west to visit Portage la Prairie, Binscarth, Russell, Moosomin and Regina. However, the club was concerned about the strength of the team because not all the regular members of the first eleven could obtain leave for that length of time.[155] The Winnipeg Free Press published team reports regularly throughout the duration of the tour.[156]

In the sport of lacrosse, matches between the National Lacrosse Association's league clubs (the Toronto, Ottawa, Cornwall, Shamrock and Montreal lacrosse clubs) required a considerable amount of travelling. In 1889, this league introduced a detailed account of the amount of travelling expenses which were to be deducted from the gate receipts and given to the visiting team.[157] The rules in this league at the time

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[152] Globe, Toronto, July 17, 1861.

[153] Ibid., September 17, 1875. [154] Ibid.

[155] Winnipeg Free Press, July 15, 1887.

[156] Ibid. Issues of mid-August, 1887.

[157] Globe, Toronto, April 29, 1884. The amounts varied according to the distance: Montreal to Toronto and vice-versa was two hundred and fifty dollars; Montreal-Ottawa, one hundred dollars; Montreal-Cornwall,

also stipulated that the champion club at the end of the season must be played three times, with the venue for two of the matches to be decided by the champion club and one by the challenger.[158] In the case of a tie, the Committee of Management was to decide where the fourth game was to be played. Such a situation occurred in the season of 1886, and the Committee of Management decided that the fourth game was to be played at the Shamrock Grounds in Montreal. The Toronto Lacrosse Club, the challengers, expressed their indignation over the matter in a letter written by Fred W. Gavin to the Globe:[159]

> [The Montreal Club]... have had the great benefit of calm slumber and rest in their own beds on the evening previous to the contests, while our men have been jogging up and down and pitching to and fro in broken rest over the wheels of a railway carriage all night.

Lacrosse was popular in British Columbia, especially between the booming cities of Vancouver and New Westminster, in the 1880's. The Canadian Pacific Railway ran special trains to Port Moody and then on to New Westminster to convey the thousands of lacrosse fans to the games.[160] The west coast players were especially active and, in 1890, a composite team, comprised of members of the Vancouver, Victoria and New Westminster lacrosse clubs, made plans to travel to Winnipeg by the Canadian Pacific Railway to participate in a tournament.[161] It was also planned that this team would play the Calgary Lacrosse Club on the

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eighty dollars; Toronto-Ottawa, two hundred dollars; Ottawa-Cornwall, one hundred and thirty dollars.

[158] Ibid., November 27, 1886. [159] Ibid.

[160] Barry Mather and Margaret McDonald, New Westminster, The Royal City (Vancouver: The Keystone Press Limited, 1958), p.136.

[161] Calgary Herald, August 27, 1890

return trip.

It soon became apparent to the organizers of sports meetings that the arrangement of special trains to carry passengers to the venues resulted in a larger number of spectators which, of course, helped make the competitions more successful and rewarding. On the occasion of the Beauharnois Athletic Games in 1856, notices and advertisements were issued to indicate that a special train would leave the Bonaventure Street Station in Montreal at a quarter-to-eight in the morning, and that tickets would cost fifty cents.[162] On the morning of the games the weather was rainy and the correspondent from the Montreal Gazette[163] reported on the proceedings at the station in this manner:

> ... At this time there were upwards of 200 or 300 persons at the railroad depot, Bonaventure Street, a very large proportion of who [sic] were ladies, who seemed determined to go, caute qu'il caute. A consultation was held between the vice-president of the railroad company and Messrs. Johnson and Rough, the secretary and manager of the road, when it was decided to take the voice of the ladies, who unanimously decided to go. The band of the 39th had arrived and when all had taken their seats, the last bell rang, and off the excursionists started, determined to prove to the people of Beauharnois that Montrealers were not to be baffled by the weather.

Track and field was very popular in the 1860's and, when Thomas Jarmy from Toronto was challenged to a hammer-throwing contest for one thousand dollars a side by Roderick McLennan of Glengarry in 1865, an estimated crowd of ten thousand attended the athletic grounds at

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[162] Montreal Gazette, September 9, 1856.

[163] Ibid., September 16, 1856. The organizers of these games had expected a crowd of about six thousand as over two thousand people watched the first annual Games of the Montreal Caledonian Society two weeks earlier in Guilbault's Gardens (Ibid., September 4, 1856).

Cornwall, many of whom travelled by special trains.[164] At the inaugural sports meeting of the Barrie Amateur Athletic Association which featured baseball, lacrosse and football games as well as track and field events, more than five thousand people entered the town and the Globe[165] reported that "excursions by rail and boat poured into town from all directions."

Baseball came to Canada from the United States and became a popular activity in Hamilton and Toronto,[166] where there were many teams formed by 1867. The sport was being played in many regions of Canada and its meteoric rise in popularity was probably partly due to the increased contact with Americans, as well as the fact that it was a game for the "rude mechanicals"[167] of the industrial centres, which were also served by the railways. The earliest clubs formed in Canada were in the towns and cities of Ontario connected by the railways.[168] Rail travel influenced the development of the sport in other parts of Canada as well. An inter-provincial baseball match was played at

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[164] Ottawa Citizen, May 26, 1865. Each competitor was allowed seven throws using sixteen, fourteen and twelve pound balls. McLennan won both the fourteen and sixteen pound throws and was declared the overall winner.

[165] Globe, Toronto, May 25, 1889.

[166] Hamilton Times, May 26, 1859 and July 11, 1859. Baseball's introduction and development in the Hamilton region was apparently a result of an increase in the number of American immigrants to Canada following the commencement of the Civil War (Lindsay, op.cit., p.80).

[167] Guillet, Toronto: From Trading Post to Great City, p.439. On the west coast, when the Great Northern railroad connection opened in 1894, baseball really flourished as a result of the increased amount of contact with Americans (Mather and McDonald, op.cit., p.143).

[168] Lindsay, op.cit., pp.79-81.

Halifax in June, 1876, when the Red Stockings Baseball Club of Moncton, New Brunswick, travelled on the Intercolonial railway to play Halifax's Atlanta Baseball Club.[169] In the North West Territories, Medicine Hat hosted the first baseball tournament on record in 1888, with teams from Medicine Hat, Calgary, Lethbridge and the mountain community of Donald.[170] The newly-completed railroad network of the Canadian Pacific Railway in the region facilitated such inter-city games and tournaments.[171] The Canadian Pacific Railway did much to promote many sports. One club which received special assistance was the Montreal Baseball Club, as the company offered special half rates to teams which would play them, and the managers did not pay at all.[172]

Football teams also utilized rail transport for inter-community competition. Intercollegiate rugby football was strong in eastern Canada from 1880 onward, and McGill University in Montreal and the University of Toronto made use of the railway to play their matches, although each player had to pay his own fare.[173] Queen's University

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[169] Halifax Citizen, June 30, 1876.

[170] Lethbridge News, October 5, 1888.

[171] Arnold M. Enger, "The History of Baseball in the Province of Alberta." (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1966) p.8. Baseball was played in Regina in 1887 and although there was no formal league, the Regina teams often boarded a freight to play other towns along the Canadian Pacific Railway (Earl Drake, Regina, The Queen City (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1955), p.58).

[172] Globe, March 1, 1900.

[173] T.A. Reed, The Blue and White. (Toronto: The University of Toronto Press, 1944), p.90. Reed has stated that the records indicated the home teams usually won, and he attributed this to the long train journey the night prior to the game: "There were no pullman sleepers for players in those days." Sleeping cars had been used on night trains between Montreal and Toronto since the 1860's (Globe, Toronto, May 26, 1863).

also had rugby players and they travelled to Brockville and other towns on a Saturday morning for matches and returned to Kingston that same evening on the "night express."[174]

James Naismith, a Canadian, invented and developed the game of basketball at the Young Men's Christian Association (Y.M.C.A.) Training School at Springfield, Massachusetts, in 1891.[175] The game was quickly adopted in Canada, as five of the ten men on the first basketball team were Canadians and four of them returned to Canada.[176] By 1900, basketball was being played in many towns and cities in Canada[177] and especially flourished in Y.M.C.A. institutions, many of which had been introduced through the railway companies.[178] In Toronto in 1897, the Grand Trunk Railway Company converted one of their buildings in Spadina Avenue for Y.M.C.A. work and basketball soon became popular:

> At a meeting which was held in the Railway Y.M.C.A. last evening a basket ball league was organized composed of the following shops:- Machine, blacksmith, car and erecting shops. The first of a series of games was played between machine and blacksmith shops after the meeting and resulted in an easy victory for the former....[179]

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[174] D.D. Calvin, Queen's University at Kingston (Toronto: Hunter-Rose Co. Limited, 1941), pp.281-282.

[175] Barry E. Mitchelson, "The Evolution of Men's Basketball in Canada, 1892-1936." (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968), p.13.

[176] James Naismith, Basketball, Its Origin and Development (New York: Association Press, 1941), p.144. Naismith remained in the United States.

[177] Mitchelson, op.cit., p.47.

[178] M.G. Ross, The Y.M.C.A. in Canada (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1951), p.234.

[179] Globe, Toronto, December 20, 1898.

Inter-city challenges in this new sport soon increased, and there was such enthusiasm that an inter-city Y.M.C.A. league consisting of teams from the Brantford, Hamilton, West End and Central (Toronto) branches was organized in 1897.[180] By 1900, inter-city games between Brandon and Winnipeg, Calgary and Edmonton, and Vancouver and Victoria were being played, but not to the extent that they were in the east because of the greater distance of travel by rail between western towns and cities.[181]

The first golf club with its own course in North America was the Montreal Golf Club, which was formed in 1873.[182] After a golf club in Quebec was formed in 1875,[183] weekend trips between the two cities were popular as the Montreal club received railway concessions from the North Shore Railway. In 1880, return tickets to Quebec cost three dollars each for club members, and the secretary secured a Pullman sleeping car so as to accommodate the whole party for sixteen dollars.[184] The course of the Toronto Golf Club, situated on the outskirts of Toronto, was not constructed until 1882,[185] and was easily accessible by 1896 as both the King Street car and the Grand Trunk Railway's Midland train conveyed golfers to the course entrance.[186]

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[180] Ibid., February 13, 1897. [181] Mitchelson, op.cit., p.44.

[182] W. Perkins Bull, From Rattlesnake Hunt to Hockey. (Toronto: The Perkins Bull Foundation, George J. MacLeod, 1934), p.191.

[183] The Royal Montreal Golf Club, 1873-1923. (Montreal: A booklet published by the Club, 1923), p.10.

[184] Ibid., pp.13-14.

[185] Joseph T. Clark, "Golf in Canada," The Canadian Magazine, V.26, No.1. (November 1905), p.44.

[186] Globe, Toronto, November 7, 1896. The Toronto Golf Club was formally established in 1876 (Clark, op.cit., p.43).

In the sport of target-shooting, a Grand Rifle Match was held at Brockville in 1863 where more than two hundred competitors from Montreal, Ottawa and other places along the line of the Grand Trunk Railroad participated.[187] Two years later, for the Grand Rifle Match at Prescott, marksmen could obtain return tickets for trains and steamers at half-price.[188] An advertisement appeared in the Ottawa Citizen to this effect in July, 1865:

> For the Rifle Match at Prescott, July 4 and following days, parties holding tickets issued at any station on the Ottawa and Prescott Railway would be returned free upon producing a certificate from the secretary of the Rifle Match that they had been competitors for any of the prizes.[189]

The Ottawa and Prescott Railway also offered return tickets at the cost of a single fare for passengers attending rowing regattas, and even conveyed the boats free of charge.[190] In order to ensure large crowds at regattas, organizers often arranged for them to coincide with other functions. The Sherbrooke regatta of 1855 was held in conjunction with the Provincial Agriculture and Industrial Exhibition and, for this occasion, the Grand Trunk Railroad "consented to convey passengers, stock, etc. from all stations on their line to Sherbrooke and back for single fares and rates."[191]

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[187] Montreal Gazette, July 18, 1863. Steamship companies also offered reduced rates for competitors in rifle matches. The Grand Trunk Railroad usually offered return trips for single fare to volunteers, and a twenty-five per cent reduction for others (Ibid., September 18, 1863 and Lindsay, op.cit., p.260).

[188] Montreal Gazette, July 1, 1865.

[189] Ottawa Citizen, July 3, 1865.

[190] Ottawa Times, September 26, 1867.

[191] Montreal Gazette, September 7, 1855. There were two entries from the Grand Trunk Boating Club at this regatta.

Some of the atmosphere which pervaded the trains during the return trips was captured by a journalist of the Montreal Gazette[192] when reporting the activities of the Lachine Regatta in 1867:

> The Lachine Regatta is at an end and has been a success. Short is our delay at the station. The train cars on our homeward journey are so thronged that even the roofs are used for seats. Joking, laughing, waving kerchiefs at everybody, we rattle citywards and are soon in our editorial sanctum; a little tired, rather hungry, very much sunburnt, but with the belief in our hearts that we have spent a very pleasant day.

The Maritimers had been keen supporters of rowing for decades, and were justifiably proud of their achievements in this sport. When the "Paris" crew of St. John, New Brunswick, were to meet the English "Renforth" crew on the Kennebecasis River in August, 1871, thousands of people travelled by train and steamer to watch the event.[193] At this same meeting, a young Halifax sculler, George Brown, was beaten by Joe Sadler of England, after having been obstructed in the race. However, Brown was still acclaimed as the fastest sculler in the world at that time.[194] Two years later, when he defeated John Biglin of New York on the Bedford Basin, "extra trains were run from Richmond depot, conveying large numbers of spectators to the ground."[195] Brown died at the peak of his career as a sculler in 1875.[196]

The popularity of rowing was further encouraged by the railways, as the citizens were able to see the popular heroes of the sport in person:

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[192] Roxborough, op.cit., pp.63-64.

[193] Globe, Toronto, August 23, 1871.

[194] Ibid., September 1, 1871. [195] Ibid., June 30, 1873.

[196] Ibid., July 7, 1875.

> This afternoon Edward Hanlan, Wallace Ross, Edward Ross, David Ward... and other friends of the scullers, took the Northern Railway at Toronto for this town [Barrie]. A parlour car had been kindly provided by Mr. Cumberland for the use of the party, who enjoyed the trip over the road immensely. At nearly every station along the line large crowds were assembled, all anxious to catch a glimpse of the champion and his rival from New Brunswick. On arriving here, carriages were in waiting, and after a little delay the whole cavalcade, preceded by the Barrie Brass Band, started up town.[197]

Two days later, the Toronto Globe of August 12, 1878, reported that "every train from the south brings in large crowds from Toronto, Hamilton and other Canadian cities, while not a few Americans are finding their way here." The railway companies knew that Ned Hanlan's popularity as a rowing champion would bring them revenue from passengers, so commissions were paid to the Hanlan Club, which subsequently gave Hanlan his share.[198] The total rail commission for Hanlan's appearance at the Barrie regatta was fourteen hundred dollars. In the 1878 rowing season, up to and including the Barrie Regatta, the Hanlan Club received $3,900 from the railroad as commissions for four regattas.[199]

Hanlan had so many victories that he was regarded as a hero,

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[197] Ibid., August 10, 1878.

[198] Ibid., October 15, 1878. The Hanlan Club managed Hanlan's rowing commitments and was comprised of businessmen who "gave their names and money to the organization for the reason that they thought Canada had a sculler of whom every Canadian ought to feel proud;..."

[199] Ibid. This amount included railroad commissions on May 15; June 26, at Pittsburgh; August 1 at St. John; and August 12 at Barrie. Hanlan's arrangement with the Club appeared to be mutually beneficial: "Since Hanlan has been under the management of the Club he had purchased for him two English, two paper, and four Elliott shells, costing, laid down here, about $140 each, making up for boats alone, not to mention extra sculls, rowlocks, outriggers, etc., the nice little sum of $1,120...."

especially in his hometown of Toronto. Upon the occasion of one of his triumphant returns from England, "torpedoes" were placed on the tracks of the Great Western Railway as a signal that the champion's train had arrived at the foot of the station at Yonge Street.[200] After the explosion, an assembled band played "See the Conquering Hero Comes" to initiate the reception and celebrations.

The Canadian Association of Amateur Oarsmen's regattas also received good patronage from the railway companies, especially the Grand Trunk Railway which, in 1884, made return tickets usable for several days at the cost of a single fare for those people desiring to attend the Toronto regatta.[201] The Nautilus and Leander clubs travelled to the regatta via the Grand Trunk, and the oarsmen received free transportation in a special car attached to the one o'clock train.[202]

Although the bicycle itself provided a mode of transport, many of the clubs which formed after the development of the "safety" bicycle[203] utilized the railways to travel to compete against other clubs and at cycling competitions sponsored by the Canadian Wheelmen's Association (C.W.A.) The Wanderers Bicycle Club of Toronto travelled by train to be the guests of the Newmarket Club in 1887[204] and, in 1890, the Toronto

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[200] W.A. Hewitt, Down the Stretch. (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1958), pp.66-67. Hewitt has stated the year as 1881 but it may have been following Hanlan's victory over R.W. Boyd for the Championship of England in 1882 (Globe, Toronto, April 4, 1882).

[201] Globe, Toronto, July 28, 1884. [202] Ibid., July 29, 1884.

[203] For further discussion on the bicycle see Chapter IV.

[204] Globe, Toronto, July 14, 1887.

Bicycle Club made arrangements to charter a special train to be used by the cyclists of their club and the Wanderers to visit Hamilton and Woodstock.[205]

Railroad and steamboat companies arranged for cyclists attending the C.W.A's. annual cycling competitions at Montreal in 1886 to pay a special low rate for travelling.[206] Two hundred and forty clubs[207] and more than seven thousand cyclists[208] were affiliated with the C.W.A. in 1898, the year in which the bicycle meeting of that association was held in Winnipeg. The popularity of cycling was considerable at that time and railway companies felt it prudent to offer reduced rates from all parts of the Dominion for those going to Winnipeg in September.[209] Special trains from Deloraine and Brandon were necessary to accommodate the local wheelmen.

Cycling was popular on the prairies, and when the Medicine Hat Bicycle Club held their first race meeting, riders from Winnipeg, Lethbridge, Calgary, Regina and Banff travelled by train to attend.[210] When the Medicine Hat club travelled to the Regina Bicycle Club's meet in 1895, which was held in conjunction with the Territorial Exhibition, there were three "good men" from the club who won most of the prizes.[211] The victorious cyclists returned to Medicine Hat by train to find a

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[205] Ibid., May 20, 1890.

[206] Winnipeg Free Press, May 18, 1886.

[207] Ibid., June 18, 1898. [208] Ibid., March 9, 1896.

[209] Ibid., June 18, 1898.

[210] Medicine Hat News, September 13, 1894.

[211] Ibid., August 8, 1895.

large crowd waiting to greet them at the station with the rail track "torpedoed and the Orange Band on the platform, playing a number of selections."[212]

Transport within towns and cities became more important as their population and physical size increased.[213] A system of street railways and suburban trains became essential to alleviate commuting problems in the larger cities. The population of Toronto in 1840 was 13,092, and it quadrupled in thirty years to 56,092 in 1871.[214] Montreal's population in 1851 was 48,207[215] and in ten years it had almost doubled as, in 1861, more than ninety thousand people resided in the largest city in Canada at that time.[216] Only five cities in Canada had more than twenty-five thousand inhabitants in 1861 [217] but, by the turn of the century, the populations of Montreal, Toronto, Quebec, Ottawa, Hamilton, Winnipeg, Halifax, St. John, London and Vancouver had all surpassed that figure.[218]

Toronto had a horse-drawn omnibus service from 1849, but it was in 1861 that the first horse-car street railway, called the Toronto

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[212] Ibid.

[213] A discussion of urbanization appears in Chapter VI.

[214] Globe, Toronto, Board of Trade Edition, July, 1888.

[215] Kathleen Jenkins, Montreal, Island City of the St. Lawrence. (New York: Doubleday and Co. Inc., 1966), p.335 - quoted from the Census of Montreal, 1851.

[216] Canada. Department of Agriculture, Census of Canada, 1870-71. V.1. (Ottawa: I.B. Taylor, 1873), p.428.

[217] Ibid. The cities and their respective populations were: Montreal, 90,323; Quebec, 59,990; Toronto, 44,821; St. John, 27,317 and Halifax, 25,026.

[218] Canada. Department of Agriculture, Fourth Census of Canada, 1901. V.1. (Ottawa: King's Printer, 1902), p.22.

Street Railway Company, was introduced.[219] The terms of the thirty year franchise between the company, owned by Alexander Easton, and the city included regulations that the cars would not exceed the speed of six miles per hour, a minimum of a thirty minute service would be maintained, the fare on each route would be five cents, and that the cars would run sixteen and fourteen hours per day in summer and winter, respectively.[220] By 1891, the City of Toronto covered an area of seventeen square miles, through which sixty-eight miles of horse-car railway track ran to serve fifty-five thousand passengers daily.[221]

The fantastic increase in population in Montreal throughout the 1850's necessitated the introduction of a street railway service. In the decade 1852-1862, the population increased from 58,000 to 91,000 and the immigrants resided in new areas of housing which spread in concentric rings around the old fortified township.[222] Montreal, and the separately incorporated municipalities of Hochelaga, Cote St. Louis, St. Jean Baptiste, Cote St. Catherine and Cote St. Antoine, were be-

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[219] Toronto Transit Commission, Transit in Toronto, 1849-1967. (Toronto: n.p., 1967), p.2. Mr. H.B. Williams inaugurated the horse-drawn omnibus service on King and Yonge Streets between the St. Lawrence Markets and the village of Yorkville. Fares were sixpence.

[220] City of Toronto Municipal Council, By-Laws of the City of Toronto. (Toronto: Henry Rowsell, 1870), p.13. A provision of the agreement which was to be of importance to Toronto cyclists within the next few decades stated: "The roadway between and within, at least one foot six inches from and outside of each rail shall be paved or macadamized and kept constantly in good repair by the said Easton,..." (Ibid., p.12). This section of the streets provided an excellent riding surface (Infra., p.67).

[221] Toronto Transit Commission, op.cit., p.2.

[222] Omer S.A. Lavallee, The Montreal City Passenger Railway Company. (Montreal: Canadian Railroad Historical Association, 1961) no page numbers given.

coming too big for the average citizen, who owned no private carriage and could seldom afford to hire one, to travel within the city. As a result of this expansion, the Montreal City Passenger Railway was introduced in 1861 at the cost of five cents per trip, or twenty five trips for one dollar, which helped to make the residents of Montreal more mobile.[223] By 1890, this railway system had rolling stock of 1,000 horses, 150 cars, 49 omnibuses and 104 sleighs, and the frequency of service on St. Lawrence Street was one vehicle per minute by 1892.[224]

The first street railway in Halifax began in June, 1866, from Richmond Station, and these "horse-railway cars, which carried both a driver and a conductor, stopped any place, except on curves, to pick up or let down passengers."[225] The horse-cars ran eighteen hours per day and single fares were seven cents, or twenty for one dollar. However, in the decade between 1876 and 1886, Haligonians had to rely on horse cabs for transport within the city as the construction of the Intercolonial Railway had resulted in the removal of the horse-car tracks. Public transportation was not resumed until an American company began the Halifax Street Railway Company in October, 1886.[226]

St. John had a street railway by 1887,[227] as did Victoria, and this not only facilitated greater mobility but also resulted in a reduction in hack rates due to the competition.[228] Winnipeg also had

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[223] Ibid.

[224] Ibid.

[225] Blakeley, op.cit., pp.101-102.

[226] Ibid., p.105.

[227] Ibid.

[228] Edward Mallandaine, The British Columbia Directory, 1887. (Victoria: E. Mallandaine and R.T. Williams, 1887), p.7.

horse-drawn street cars up until 1892 when they changed to street-cars powered by electricity.[229]

Experiments to determine the capabilities of electric power during the nineteenth century led to the use of this power for transportation. The first electric operation of cars in Canada was at the Toronto Agricultural Fair in 1884, where an electric passenger railway was operated from where the city horse-car lines ended to the main section of the fair grounds.[230] During the ten days of the fair this electric railway, demonstrated by C.J. Van Depoele, carried thousands of passengers. The first commercial electric installation of an electric railway was a Van Depoele system at Windsor in 1886.[231] Other electric street car services were introduced soon afterwards in St. Catharines (1887), Victoria (1890), Ottawa (1891), Toronto (1892), Montreal (1892), Winnipeg (1892) and Halifax (1896).[232] The "electric cars" did require some

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[229] W.L. Morton, Manitoba, A History. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1957), p.264.

[230] John F. Due. The Inter-city Electric Railway Industry in Canada. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1965), p.3. The actual date and nature of the introduction of this important invention into Canada is not clear. Johnson, op.cit., p.75 has stated that electricity was first used as a motive power in Canada in 1883 at the Toronto Industrial Exhibition but that it was in 1884 that the first practicable road was exhibited. Brown, op.cit., p.164 has stated that James J. Wright of Toronto aided by Van Depoele, "another Canadian inventor", set up a street railway between Bathurst Street and Strachan Avenue, Toronto, in 1883 which proved impractical. However, Brown stated, it was at the Canadian National Exhibition in the summer of 1883 that an electric trolley pole system with the power transmitted through the wires was introduced, and that fifteen thousand people tried the new system of transportation.

[231] Due, op.cit., p.4.

[232] Lavallee, op.cit.; Due, op.cit., pp.4-5; Jenkins, op.cit., p.423; Morton, op.cit., p.264; Blakeley, op.cit., p.106.

adjustment, especially by the horses, which had lost pride of place on the city streets. The day after the trial run of the electric streetcar in Ottawa in June, 1891, the Ottawa Citizen carried a warning to drivers "to watch their horses carefully until they become accustomed to the new mode of transit."[233] The first electric streetcar in Montreal, the Rocket, was driven along St. Catherine Street on September 1, 1892. By Christmas of that year, sixteen electric streetcars were used exclusively on that route, and Montreal had completely changed over to them by 1894.[234]

Soon after the initial introduction of electric street railways, some inter-city lines became electrified to supplement the steam engine service between adjacent cities and towns.[235] The first of these inter-city services by electric cars had commenced in October, 1887, from St. Catharines to Thorold over the seven mile line of the St. Catharines, Merritton and Thorold Electric Street Railway.[236] An early line in this category was from downtown Vancouver to New Westminster, via Central Park, which opened in 1891.[237] Other inter-city electric car lines which were in operation prior to 1900 were between Niagara Falls and Queenston, Galt and Preston, Hamilton, Grimsby and Beamsville, and Hull and Aylmer.[238] In Toronto, the Metropolitan Railway and the Toronto

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[233] Ottawa Citizen, June 25, 1891. [234] Jenkins, op.cit., p.423.

[235] For details of these lines see Due, op.cit.; William E. Blaine, Ride Through the Garden of Canada. (Grimsby, Ontario: W.E. Blaine, 1967); John M. Mills, History of Niagara, St. Catharines and Toronto Railway. (Toronto: Upper Canada Railway Society and Ontario Electric Railway Historical Association, 1967).

[236] Due, op.cit., p.ix. [237] Ibid., p.5.

[238] Ibid., p.6. Following the opening of the Hamilton, Grimsby and Beamsville line in 1894, it was reported in a newspaper that "Grimsby is now a suburb of Hamilton." (Blaine, op.cit., p.13)

Suburban ran electric car lines to the suburbs of Eglinton, Richmond Hill, Newmarket, Weston and High Park before the end of the nineteenth century.[239]

By 1900, the total amount of electric railway track was nearly seven hundred miles[240] and these lines increased the mobility of the rural, suburban and urban populations they served. Commuting and travelling were much easier and this lessened the congestion of business and housing in downtown areas. The street railways did much to develop sports participation within the larger urban areas, as the residents enjoyed this cheaper, faster and more comfortable form of transportation. Since the street railway companies had to maintain rolling stock to cope with the traffic demand at peak periods, ways were devised to utilize this stock at other times as well to spread the maintenance and overhead costs over more passenger miles. Special concessions and frequent services were provided for sporting and recreational occasions and, in Montreal, streetcars were used to transport sporting participants and spectators to sailing and rowing regattas, beaches, and to other places of amusement where trolley terminal and turn-around points were located to cater for the demand.[241]

For the opening of the new grounds of the Toronto Baseball Club in 1886, which were hailed as the "biggest in the world except for Detroit," it was announced in the Globe that the Metropolitan team from New York would play and that "the Street Car Company signify their in-

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[239]Due, op.cit., p.6.

[240]Canada, Statistical Year Book, 1900, p.390.

[241]Omer S.A. Lavallee, personal correspondence, January 19, 1970.

tentions of granting transfer tickets and doing their best to accommodate the public."[242]

It was important that golf courses be in areas where large segments of land could be purchased at reasonable cost so they were usually situated on the outskirts of cities and towns. However, in order to encourage people to use them, they were usually located close to railway lines. Golfers in Toronto could use the King Street cars or travel by the Midland train to the Toronto Golf Club.[243]

In response to the building of a new turf race-track in Toronto in 1886, the Metropolitan Railway, which connected with the Yonge Street cars of the city railway, was extended as far as the entrance to Glen Grove Park so as to provide vehicles which would enable the public to reach the park from the town, or vice-versa, every half-hour.[244]

Electric inter-urban trains between Vancouver and New Westminster were running to Queen's Park in the 1890's, and multiple trains were required on the days in September when provincial or national lacrosse finals were played, as fifteen to twenty thousand people thronged to the matches.[245] Lacrosse still attracted very large crowds in eastern Canada in 1900, and for the city championship to be played on the Island between Toronto and the Tecumsehs, the Globe[246] stated that "the improved streetcar service which the Toronto Club has arranged will be taxed to their limit to get the big crowd over the bridge on Saturday."

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[242] Globe, Toronto, January 25, 1886.

[243] Ibid., November 7, 1896. [244] Ibid., August 5, 1886.

[245] Mather and McDonald, op.cit., p.12. New Westminster stores closed on the Saturday afternoons of the lacrosse games.

[246] Globe, Toronto, June 23, 1900.

The aquatic carnival in Halifax in August, 1871, attracted thousands of visitors and the cars of the City Railway Company were crowded with people, even though a number of "double-deckers" with seats on the roof were in use:

> ... the aerial perches were well patronized by gentlemen, despite the fact that the ladders for ascent and descent were shaky, and the roofs cheerfully imparted their dust-covering to broadcloth and tweed.[247]

Winter in the city of Quebec was a tobogganist's delight as there were many hills and slopes upon which one could slide. For many years the ice-cone at Montmorency Falls had been a popular site for this activity,[248] but its accessibility to the urban residents of Quebec became easier in the 1890's, when the Quebec Electric Railway opened its seven mile track.[249] The falls, which were one hundred feet higher than those at Niagara, often had an ice-cone up to eighty feet in height, which was "formed by the frozen spray from the Falls falling on a large rock out in the river."[250]

Apart from the service in providing efficient transport to

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[247] Blakeley, op.cit., pp. 161-162, quoted from Acadian Recorder, Halifax, August 30, 1871.

[248] Quebec residents had travelled to Montmorency Falls by sleigh and carriole to enjoy tobogganing: "Nothing could be more exciting and exhilarating than a slide on sleigh or toboggan, from the lofty summit of the ice mound or cone down to its base, at lightning speed, and thence along, with a sense of relief, but with blinding velocity for hundreds of yards, on the level, glassy roadway which hides the St. Lawrence from view (Louis P. Bender, Old and New Canada, 1753-1844. (Montreal: Dawson Bros., 1882), pp.201-202).

[249] Quebec, Summer and Winter, p.18.

[250] Luella Creighton, The Elegant Canadians (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1967), p.57, quoted from Frances Monck, My Canadian Leaves, An Account of a Visit to Canada in 1864-65 (London, 1891).

sporting events and recreational sites, the introduction of the street-car railways gave cyclists an opportunity of a "smooth ride" on the asphalted or macadamized strip between the rails.[251] Most contracts or terms of agreement between the cities and the street railway companies included conditions pertaining to the upkeep of the roadway between the rails[252] and, as the roads were so bad in many cases, the only ridable portion was the strip between the rails.[253] Some cyclists used this section on which to race and in some cities it became known as the "devil strip."[254] Recommendations from cyclists that this section be only lightly sprinkled with water instead of "flooded"[255] were not always well received and, in Toronto, one mayor was deposed for not ordering his streetwashers to leave this space dry.[256]

The bicycle, as well as providing a means of transport, became an instrument of sport and recreation in its own right.[257] However, the bicycle was also an important precursor to the automobile because it

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[251] Supra, p.60.

[252] City of Toronto Municipal Council, op.cit., p.13 (see footnote 220); City of Halifax Council, Laws and Ordinances Relating to the City of Halifax (Halifax: James Bowes and Sons, 1876), p.193. "The pavement or other surface of the roadway to be kept always in thorough repair by the company within the track and three feet on each side thereof, under the direction of such competent authority as the city council may designate."

[253] Globe, Toronto, March 9, 1896.

[254] William Stephenson, The Store That Timothy Built. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1969), p.27.

[255] Globe, Toronto, March 9, 1896.

[256] William Stephenson, "When the World Went Bicycle Crazy." MacLean's Magazine, V.69 (July 21, 1956)), p.25.

[257] See Chapter IV for the development of the bicycle and its influence on recreation and sport. Infra, pp.181-197.

created a new demand in transport. Hiram P. Maxim, a pioneer in the American automotive industry, has stated:

> It has been the habit to give the gasoline engine all the credit for bringing the automobile - in my opinion this is the wrong explanation. We have had the steam engine for over a century. We could have built steam vehicles in 1880, or indeed in 1870. But we did not. We waited until 1895.
>
> The reason why we did not build road vehicles before this, in my opinion, was because the bicycle had not yet come in numbers and had not directed men's minds to the possibilities of long-distance travel over the ordinary highway. We thought the railroad was good enough. The bicycle created a new demand which it was beyond the ability of the railroad to supply. Then it came about that the bicycle could not satisfy the demand which it had created. A mechanically-propelled vehicle was wanted instead of a foot-propelled one, and we know now that the automobile was the answer.[258]

The pneumatic tire and the hard surface road were also products of the bicycle. Without these, the initial introduction of the automobile would not have been the success that it was, because road travel could never have competed with rail transport in comfort and speed.[259] Charles Goodyear had discovered a method for vulcanizing rubber in 1839 and patented the process in 1844,[260] but it was John B. Dunlop who invented and developed the pneumatic or "cushion" tire in 1888.[261] Reference has already been made to the poor state of the roads and streets and, through the efforts of the Wheelmen's Associations, both

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[258] John B. Rae, The American Automobile. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1965), p.6 quoted from Hiram P. Maxim, Horseless Carriage Days.

[259] Rae, op.cit., pp.6-7.

[260] Oliver, op.cit., pp.238-239. The chemical process of heating rubber with sulphur resulted in a soft, pliable elastic substance.

[261] Merrill Denison, C.C.M. - The Story of the First Fifty Years. Weston, Ontario: C.C.M., 1946.

in Canada and the United States, some improvement was made in their condition.[262]

The development of the automobile powered by steam, electricity or gasoline was a long and involved process.[263] However, it was the internal combustion engine using gasoline as fuel which gave the greatest impetus to the automobile industry. The first gasoline automobile in North America was that built and driven by Charles B. King of Detroit in 1896.[264] Canada's first automobile was an electric car built by F.B. Fetherstonhaugh in Toronto in 1893, but the first gasoline automobile was imported by John Moodie of Hamilton in 1898.[265] Commercial production of motor vehicles in Canada did not commence until the Ford Motor Company of Canada was established in Windsor in 1904.[266]

An anthropologist has stated that "inventions motivated by play impulses are fairly common"[267] and the automobile, like the bicycle

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[262] Globe, Toronto, December 20, 1898; John A. Krout, Annals of American Sport. (New York: Yale University Press, 1929), p.174; Rae op.cit., p.5. Pressure from bicyclists induced the United States Congress to appropriate ten thousand dollars for a Bureau of Road Inquiry in the Department of Agriculture in 1893. (Ibid.).

[263] For a discussion of this development, see Rae, op.cit.

[264] Ibid., p.11.

[265] Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada, opposite p.169.

[266] Sun Life Assurance Company of Canada, The Canadian Automotive Industry. (Ottawa: n.p., n.d.), p.2. For the development of the automotive industry in Canada, see C. Howard Aikman, National Problems of Canada: The Automotive Industry in Canada. McGill University Economic Studies, No.8 (Toronto: Macmillan Company of Canada Limited, 1926); Robert Collins, A Great Way to Go - The Automobile in Canada. (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1969).

[267] A.L. Kroeber, Anthropology. (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1948), p.354.

which preceded it, was originally an instrument of sport.[268] It was not until the turn of the century in Canada that the motor vehicle began to be used extensively as a means of transport. Canada's first motor bus was Sir John Eaton's "Electric Tally-Ho" which was introduced in 1900.[269] However, in the new century, the automobile had a considerable impact upon the mobility of Canadians and upon their travelling associated with recreation and sport.

The horse-drawn vehicles and wind-blown or man-powered vessels of the early nineteenth century had given way to vehicles powered by steam, electricity and the internal combustion engine and steam-powered ships by 1900. Transport became more efficient and Canadians took advantage of faster, cheaper and more comfortable modes of travel as the century progressed. Sporting enthusiasts travelled beyond their localities for recreation and competition more frequently, and the advancements made in transportation facilitated sporting activity between individuals and teams on a village, town, city, regional, provincial, national and international basis.

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[268] F.W. Cozens and F.S. Stumpf, Sports in American Life (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953), p.155.

[269] Guillet, Pioneer Travel in Upper Canada, opposite p.198.

CHAPTER III

COMMUNICATION

In the first decades of the nineteenth century there were three ways a person could ascertain what was happening in parts of Lower or Upper Canada beyond his village or farm: by word of mouth from travellers or new settlers, through letters and by the press. All these forms of communication were connected to the modes of transportation, and it is pertinent to note that, in 1809, the Deputy Postmaster at York announced that the mail from Quebec would be dispatched for Upper Canada in the first week of each month during the winter, and would probably take from sixteen to eighteen days to reach York.[1] In 1810 there were trips every two weeks throughout the year between Montreal and Kingston, but owing to the poor condition of the road beyond Kingston, there could not be regular trips to York except in winter.[2] Mail between Halifax and England from 1816 onward was monthly and the vessels called at New York on the return journey.[3]

Postal services west of York in the 1820's were even worse as

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[1]Edwin C. Guillet, Early Days in Upper Canada. (Toronto: Ontario Publishing Co., 1933), p.603.

[2]William Smith, The History of the Post Office in British North America. (Cambridge: University Press, 1920), p.102. Trips between Kingston and York [Toronto] were made every two weeks during this period. Jenkins has stated that mail in the early decades of the century cost one shilling and six-pence per letter between Montreal and Upper Canada and this resulted in travellers carrying letters for their friends. (Kathleen Jenkins, Montreal, Island City of the St. Lawrence. (New York: Doubleday and Co. Inc., 1966), p.264). Smith has stated that "it never happened that the mail bags contained as many letters as the pockets of passengers." (Smith, op.cit., p.249)

[3]Smith, op.cit., p.118. However, it took a month for mail to go from Quebec to Halifax, so it was important to make the connections (Ibid., p.121).

the whole of the Niagara peninsular, embracing the territory between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, contained a population of more than twenty thousand, but there were only five post offices to serve them.[4] Similarly, the London district, with a population of over sixteen thousand, had only one post office in each of the five counties.[5]

Overseas mail service was not only slow but expensive. However, in 1838, the steamer Sirius overtook Tyrian, the mail packet from Halifax, and the captain of the packet induced the steamship captain to take the mail.[6] The result was that the mail arrived in England in less time, and the postal authorities began their change-over to steam vessels. In response to an invitation for tenders to conduct a steamship service to carry mail between Liverpool and Halifax, Samuel Cunard entered into a contract in 1839.[7] However, as Thomas Stayner, the Deputy Postmaster General in Canada at the time pointed out, it would be useless to enter upon an expensive plan for reducing the time factor in conveying mails between Great Britain and Canada unless the postal charges were lowered to encourage usage of the service.[8] Up until the contract with Cunard was established, Canadians had to pay four shillings or more for postage which had accumulated on a letter on its way from Great Britain to the inland parts of Canada.[9] With the sailing of the

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[4] Ibid., p.132. The post offices were at the towns of Dundas, Grimsby, St. Catharines, Niagara and Queenston.

[5] Ibid.

[6] Ibid., p.217; Archibald MacMechan, Samuel Cunard. (Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1928), p.16.

[7] Smith, op.cit., p.218.

[8] Ibid., p.226.

[9] Ibid., p.227. At that time, postal charges were payable by the receiver and not by the sender.

first steamer under the Cunard contract, a notice came from the Colonial Secretary stating that the total charges on letters to the British North American colonies would be one shilling if the letter was addressed to Halifax and one shilling and two pence for any distance inland.[10]

The introduction of "penny postage" in Great Britain in 1841 was an immediate success because, as postal authorities found, the distance in expense between carrying a letter the shortest and longest distances in England, Scotland and Wales was very small.[11] The increased volume of mail more than overcame this slight difference.

Throughout the 1840's, there were many proposals for a reduction in postal charges within the provinces and the introduction of a uniform rate.[12] However, it was not until the British government relinquished control over the provincial post offices in 1851[13] that a uniform rate was introduced.[14] Postage stamps, to be purchased and

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[10] Ibid., p.228. Later in 1840, the regulations for postal charges were changed to apply to every half ounce in weight and not, as previously, to the number of enclosures.

[11] Ibid., p.237.

[12] For the history of this development, see Smith, op.cit.; C.M. Jephcott, V.G. Greene, and J.H.M. Young, The Postal History of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. (Toronto: Sissons Publications Limited,1964).

[13] Smith, op.cit., p.273.

[14] The Ottawa Citizen, June 2, 1849, reported the proceedings of the House of Assembly of the provincial parliament on May 22, 1849: Mr. Morrison reported the following Resolutions, passed in Committee yesterday, which were read a second time, and agreed to:

1. Resolved, That whereas it is expedient that a uniform and cheap rate of Postage should be established through British America: And whereas the Imperial Government has signified to His Excellency, the Governor General its readiness to relinquish the management of this Department so soon as a uniform System of Postage should have been agreed upon by the different local Governments of British America have agreed upon the following propositions, namely:-

affixed to letters by the sender, were also introduced at this time.[15]

The development of the postal services was important because many of the smaller towns and villages did not have access to newspapers, especially during the early years of the nineteenth century. There is very little evidence that sporting events and meetings were arranged through correspondence in this period, and perhaps this was due to the costly and slow service.[16] The press and its development had a greater effect on sport than correspondence by mail although its circulation was, to some extent, linked with the development of postal services. In England, from 1825, newspaper publishers were entirely exempt from postal duty on the paper they used.[17] Canadian newspaper publishers did not have to pay duty on paper but were responsible for paying postage on their circulated newspapers. A controversy over postal charges existed for many years. There was a feeling in the colonies that, because of the high cost of books, and the lack of libraries in many communities, the government should bear the cost of the distribution of newspapers, which were the only other means of extending public information.[18] When the post office came under the con-

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"That there be one uniform rate of threepence, Provincial currency, throughout British North America;

That no transit postage between the Provinces be allowed;

That two pence sterling the half-ounce shall remain as the rate in operation as regards letter by British Mails, as to be extended to countries having postal conventions with Great Britain...."

[15]Neil F. Morrison, Garden Gateway to Canada - One Hundred Years of Windsor and Essex County, 1854-1954. (Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1954), p.16.

[16]A further explanation for the lack of evidence of sporting events which were arranged by correspondence was that this type of material was not kept whereas most newspapers of this period were retained.

[17]Smith, op.cit., p.158.

[18]Ibid., p.276.

trol of the provinces in 1851, the distribution of newspapers, although not free in all areas, was considerably reduced in cost, thereby expediting a greater circulation.[19]

Within the printing and newspaper industry itself, there were several technological improvements which indirectly influenced the development of sport. The first newspaper in Canada was the Halifax Gazette, issued on March 23, 1752,[20] and this newspaper, like most others up until the nineteenth century, printed mostly government announcements, orders, proclamations and enactments as the proprietor was dependent upon this source of revenue.[21] Circulation figures were low because of the small populations of the towns and surrounding villages.

Even in the nineteenth century, up until the 1840's, wooden-framed, hand-operated, flat-bed presses made printing tedious and, while the mechanical means of printing was so time-consuming,[22] only basic and important news items, government notices and advertising were included in the newspapers. Consequently, there were very few references to the pastimes and games of the Canadians in the first few decades of the century. A number of technological innovations had increased the efficiency of newspaper production to some extent, but the hold-up in

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[19] For details of the cost of the distribution of newspapers, see Smith, op.cit.; Jephcott, et.al., op.cit.

[20] Louis B. Duff, "The Journey of the Printing Press Across Canada," Dem Gutenberg - Jahrbuch, 1937, p.228.

[21] W.H. Kesterton, "A History of Canadian Journalism, 1752-1900," Canada Year Book, 1957-58. (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1958), p.922. The early newsheet seldom had more than four pages.

[22] W.H. Kesterton, A History of Journalism in Canada. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Ltd., 1967), p.8.

output continued to be the handsetting of type.[23] However, there was an increase in the number of newspapers from fewer than twenty in 1813, to more than two hundred in the 1840's.[24]

Newspapers in the first half of the nineteenth century also changed in journalistic approach and content as the owner or editor of the newspaper no longer had to rely upon the revenue from government business.[25] The independence from the government resulted in freer political discussions and, along with this change, more local news began to occupy the pages as communities became too large for word-of-mouth coverage.[26] In the first two decades, there were few references to the recreations of the British North American although the reports which were included were generally favourable towards games and sports in the community.

After the Montreal Races in 1811 it was reported that following the events, "we retired to Dillon's Hotel for a splendid dinner and an evening of mirth and conviviality."[27] Such comments indicated to the readers of newspapers that it was fun to be a part of the activity.

Horse-racing notices and reports were featured in the press and, in 1829, the Montreal Gazette[28] reported the popularity of the turf in

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[23]Kesterton, A History of Journalism in Canada, p.24. Some of the innovations included the metal printing press, an ink fountain with composition rollers for inking the type and the foot, water-and-steam-powered press (Ibid.; John W. Oliver, History of American Technology. (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956), pp.207-209).

[24]Kesterton, Canada Year Book, 1957-58, p.924.

[25]Ibid., pp.24-25.

[26]Ibid., p.25.

[27]Montreal Gazette, August 12, 1811.

[28]Ibid., September 24, 1829.

its account of the Quebec races:

> Many a keen sportsman, whose purse was to be affected by the grand absorbing race of Monday, rose at an early hour..., thousands were to be seen trudging along on foot and in every species of vehicle to the great scene,...

The newspaper was also the best medium in which to advertise future events and available conveniences. Following the opening of the new race course at Montreal in 1830, the enterprising Mr. J. Luckin[29] inserted an advertisement in the newspaper:

> The subscriber respectfully begs leave to announce to the Ladies and Gentlemen of Montreal, and the Sporting Public generally, that he has leased, from the proprietor of the new Race Course at St. Pierre, that large and commodious house, lately fitted up as a Pavillion, which is now open for accommodation of the public.[30]

A few weeks later, the Fox Hunt and Jockey Club announced the charges for the admission of carriages, horsemen and people to the course.[31] Advertisements which were of interest to owners of horses for racing and hunting also appeared:

> The Sporting Horse Othello, will be kept for Mares this Season, from the present date to the 1st of August, at the head of Papineau Road, Côte de la Visitation. Terms - Eight Dollars a Mare, payable to the Green.[32]

Early horse race meetings were very social occasions and the newspaper reports of the period indicated this approach. After the Halifax races of 1833, the report in the Novascotian[33] stated:

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[29]Mr. Luckin also organized transportation to and from the races by stagecoach (Montreal Gazette, September 13, 1830, supra. p.13.

[30]Montreal Gazette, August 19, 1830.

[31]Ibid., September 9, 1830. [32]Ibid., April 26, 1830.

[33]Novascotian, Halifax, September 18, 1833.

> The Races were continued with great spirit on Thursday and Friday. The weather was delightful - and the concourse of spectators on both days, and particularly the former, was very great. The western side of the citadel was covered with gay groups - the exercising ground with equipages [sic] of every size and fashion - while some seventy tents ranged alongside the base of Camp Hill, dispersed the elements of mirth and hilarity, and, in many cases it is to be feared, of brutal excess.... The winning post was, however, the great rallying point for lovers of the turf, of both sexes. The elite of rank and fashion occupied a large booth, and a range of carriages extending north from it.

Horse-racing throughout Canada generally received favourable publicity in the press, which helped the sport develop to a high level of organization and competition.[34] However, editors harshly criticized horse-racing whenever the detrimental aspects of the sport, particularly gambling and rowdyism, seemed paramount. On September 7, 1841, the Canadian Colonist of Quebec stated:

> The races terminated here Friday; the sport we learn was very poor, but on the other hand, there was the average number of casualties both in men and in horses; and the broken heads and blackened eyes at the police office, gave abundant employment to the magistrates, varied by charges of swindling, gambling and pocket-picking. It is calculated that more than two thousand working men were kept idle during the two days of the races, and the pecuniary loss to the community consequent upon this must be heavy.[35]

Winter sports in general received good coverage in the press during the period. Although there were few regular competitions or

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[34] Editors often encouraged the public to attend race-meetings: "This is certainly the largest field of horses, both as regards numbers and amount of entrances, that has ever been shewn [sic] on the Canadian Turf, and it is to be hoped our townsmen will assemble en masse to witness the sport." (Montreal Gazette, May 23, 1844)

[35] Peter L. Lindsay, "A History of Sport in Canada, 1807-1867" (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), p.208 quoted from James S. Buckingham, Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick. (London: Fisher and Sons, 1843), p.248.

inter-town matches in curling, newspapers reported matches within clubs such as "bachelors versus marrieds" and "Canadians versus Scots."[36] Advertisements for the sale of curling stones[37] and notices of forthcoming games[38] also appeared in the press, thereby helping to publicize the sport.

Although boxing did not become an organized sport in Canada until the 1890's,[39] challenges between "local champions" were sometimes reported in the press.[40] Exhibitions of "self-defence" were advertised, usually to introduce and advertise the opening of schools for instruction.[41] Interesting exchanges of notices were inserted in the pages of the Montreal Gazette in September, 1835 by two exponents of boxing. Mr. James Reed of New York informed the public through the press that there would be a "grand sparring exhibition" and "display of self-defence" between Mr. Samuel O'Rourke and himself.[42] Mr. O'Rourke,

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[36] Lindsay, op.cit., p.30.

[37] British Colonist, 1839, cited in Henry Roxborough, One Hundred - Not Out. (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1966), p.101.

[38] Montreal Gazette, February 18, 1841; August 24, 1841; March 2, 1842. In Montreal in 1844, a curling match was advertised in aid of the Montreal General Hospital at which "a plate will be left on the ice, in which contributions to charity are to be placed (Ibid., February 22, 1844).

[39] The Toronto Athletic Club organized the first tournament for the Canadian amateur boxing championships in 1897 (Globe, Toronto, March 6, 1897).

[40] Canadian Freeman, May 8, 1828, cited in Lindsay, op.cit., p.87.

[41] William Fuller and James Sandford announced they would give the gentlemen of Montreal an "exhibition of self-defence" and that private lessons were available at a room in Notre Dame Street (Montreal Gazette, September 21, 1829).

[42] Montreal Gazette, September 5, 1835.

who was the proprietor of a gymnasium and also gave boxing lessons, replied to the notice stating that his name had appeared on Mr. Reed's placard without his authority. Since O'Rourke had previously offered one thousand dollars for a challenge bout, and Reed had not accepted, the Montreal gymnasium proprietor refused to appear on Reed's programme. However, O'Rourke did not miss the opportunity of advertising his establishment at this time of acute interest in the art of boxing:

> Mr. O'Rourke returns his thanks to the sporting public for the distinguished patronage they have extended to his establishment for athletic exercises, since it has opened, attested by the attendance of hundreds at his rooms for several evenings past.[43]

The most popular game in the early decades of the nineteenth century was cricket, especially among the officers of the garrisons and the upper class members of society. Cricket matches were often reported with accompanying details of batting and bowling performances.[44] Not all newspapers gave full coverage, however, for in some regions of Canada the game was not well known:

> We intended to have given a detailed account of the game, but, as it is yet so little known, we fear it would not prove sufficiently interesting to the generality of our readers, and as the players were indiscriminately mixed we knew not how to distinguish the two parties - would it not be advisable for them in future to distinguish each by a particular colour.[45]

Editorials commended the formation of cricket clubs and, of significant importance, encouraged the participation of the lower social classes in this sport. The Montreal Cricket Club, which was formally

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[43] Ibid.

[44] Nova Scotia Royal Gazette, February 28, 1805; Montreal Gazette, June 23, 1831; August 1, 1835; August 18, 1835; August 31, 1837; June 23, 1841; July 28, 1841.

[45] Kingston Chronicle, August 8, 1835.

organized in 1843,[46] played a match against the Garrison Club in September, and these sentiments of acclamation were expressed in the report of the match in the Montreal Gazette:[47]

> Having made so fair a beginning, it is to be hoped the Cricket Club will not be allowed to fall through for want of some little encouragement on the part of the mercantile community and others in authority, in permitting the young men in their employment occasional relaxation of an afternoon, in a manner so well calculated to improve their physical system, and which, like Aesop's fable of the "Bent Bow", would also enable them to return with satisfaction and renewed vigour to their respective duties.

The old Indian game of baggataway was not adopted by the European settlers in Canada until approximately a third of the century had passed. However, in the 1830's, the newspapers began to take an interest in the sport and reported matches between Indian tribes.[48] The St. Pierre race course at Montreal was the location for the Indians of Caughnawaga and the Lake of the Two Mountains to "display their skill in la crosse" in September, 1835.[49] After the match, the Montreal Gazette[50] briefly described the manner in which it was played:

> The game consists in driving by, or carrying in, a bat of a peculiar description, a heavy ball to the end of the field assigned to either party, and is decided in favor of the first party who gains "three" heats.

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[46] Montreal Gazette, August 19, 1843.

[47] Ibid., September 16, 1843. Newspapers in Lower Canada tried to persuade the French-Canadians to take up the game: "We only wish we had a little of their cricketing spirit in Lower Canada, for we have an idea that if we could only get Jean Baptiste to handle a bat properly we should soon make him a good Englishman." (Montreal Herald, August 6, 1843). Lindsay has stated that "the wish remained unfulfilled, for the French had no tradition of cricket implanted in their cultural heritage, and otherwise seemed reluctant to participate in the British sports." (Lindsay, op.cit., p.96)

[48] Ibid., August 1, 1833.

[49] Ibid., September 5, 1835.

[50] Ibid., September 10, 1835.

From this awkward description of the game, it was hard to imagine that the sport of lacrosse would capture the interest and enthusiasm of Canadians to the extent that it did. Within a decade, a journalist from that same newspaper ecstatically reported that "it is, undoubtedly, the most beautiful game of the kind we have ever seen; and the activity, grace, swiftness, and strength displayed by the players, equally delighted and astonished us."[51] Newspapers promoted the sport by such comments.

The aquatic sports of rowing and sailing were of popular interest, and the newspaper editors kept the public well-informed of events and occurrences in these spheres of physical activity. The Maritime newspapers, understandably, were most interested in these sports and encouraged them because of their connection with boat-building for the fishing industry. An editorial in 1827 was indicative of the extent to which Maritime newspapers exerted favourable opinion toward rowing.

> As the institution of Horse Races has been found invariably to improve the blood and mettle of the breed - so the establishment of Regattas has been found to carry the system of boat building to a higher standard and to introduce more scientific skill in the modes both of sailing and rowing improvements, which from the peculiar direction of our provincial industry, can be reduced to practical utility. Such rowing matches among our fishermen as were contested with so much zeal in the Regatta of last summer, must improve the model and management of their whaling boats; and, if we are not misinformed, the effects of the competition are already visible - several boats having been procured this spring, on our western shores, combining at once swiftness, strength and durability.

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[51] Ibid., September 30, 1843. In this particular game some "young gentlemen" joined the Indians.

[52] Novascotian, Halifax, August 2, 1827. The Novascotian also advocated rowing and other activities for improving physical fitness: "The tendencies of society now are all towards the over exercise of the mind at the expense of the body, or the wasteful neglect of both. Regattas help to cultivate and strengthen the frame - so would footraces, leaping, wrestling, and other athletic sports and exercises which are constantly practised in every country, and might with great advantage be introduced into this." (Ibid., August 24, 1836)

Elsewhere in Canada during the 1830's, rowing in the Maritimes was merely another activity, and reports of regattas, when included in the newspapers, were terse:

> The Halifax Regatta took place on the 31st of August. The sport was excellent, and the Navy and Military composing the garrison, lent their aid to add to the pleasure of the popular gala.[53]

The time lag between the occasion of a sporting event, such as the regatta in Halifax, and its inclusion in a newspaper in another region or province [54] was an important factor which hindered the dispersion of games and sports across Canada. Until the middle of the nineteenth century, sporting events and competitions which were described in the press were local in nature and detail. Readers were seldom aware of what was happening in other provinces or regions even on the political scene, let alone socially. Since the dissemination of information up until this time was tied to the physical communication of transportation, news travelled slowly. Items of interest were gleaned from the various newspapers which were circulated, and this process involved delays of days and weeks in reporting news. Editors were reluctant to include items and features on sport and recreation which were several weeks old. Consequently, in the first half of the century, newspapers, although useful in acquainting the readers with local activities, were not really effective in the dissemination of sporting information to other parts of Canada. However, the introduction of the electro-magnetic telegraph, which provided almost instantaneous

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[53] Montreal Gazette, September 26, 1837.

[54] It was almost four weeks from the date of the regatta in Halifax (August 31st, 1837) to the date it was reported in the Montreal Gazette (September 26, 1837).

news gathering, changed this.

The telegraph was a most significant invention in communication technology.[55] Samuel F.B. Morse devised a plan for transmitting letters and words by means of an electro-magnetic needle in 1832, but it was not until 1844 that he was able to send the first public message.[56] Two years later, in 1846, Toronto and Hamilton were linked by a telegraph system built and owned by the Niagara Electro-Magnetic Telegraph Company[57] and, in 1847, the service was extended to Montreal,[58] thereby providing an important communications link between Upper and Lower Canada. Telegraph linkage across Canada spread rapidly. A year after the first telegraph message in Canada was transmitted Quebec, Montreal, Toronto, Hamilton and London were all linked in the service.[59] Halifax, St. John and Boston were linked in 1849.[60]

Although there were few technological innovations pertaining to the actual mechanical process of production of a newspaper in the period between the introduction of the telegraph into Canada and the year of

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[55]For the scientific background of this invention, see Oliver, op.cit., pp.216-220.

[56]Ibid., pp.218-219. The first message sent by Morse was telegraphed from Washington to Baltimore and read: "What hath God wrought." (Ibid., p.219).

[57]Canadian Historical Association, "Canada's First Electric Telegraph," Report of the Annual Meeting, Montreal, May, 1930 (Ottawa: Department of Public Archives, 1930), p.114.

[58]Kesterton, A History of Journalism in Canada, p.23.

[59]G.R. Stevens, The Incompleat Canadian - An Approach to a Social History. (Canada: G.R. Stevens, 1965), p.127.

[60]Kesterton, A History of Journalism in Canada, p.127.

Confederation,[61] there was a general increase in the number of newspapers and a further change in the journalistic policy. The content of the newspapers, as a result of the development of the telegraph network in Canada, became more diverse, and there was a noticeable increase in the amount of space given to games and sports.

Cricket had a wide following throughout Canada in this period, with international matches receiving good press coverage. In 1853, the team which visited New York was more representative of cricketers in Canada than for previous matches[62] as there were players from Cobourg, Toronto and Montreal.[63] Canada lost the match but the Montreal Gazette[64] was enthusiastic about regular international competition in this sport:

> We trust soon to see not only one Canada and United States match played in the year, but to have clubs of the various towns playing annual "homes and homes" together - the St. George's and Montreal - New York Club and Toronto - or Newark and Coburg [sic].

This comment indicated the broader and less local outlook of the sporting editorials; a change which could only have developed as a result of more rapid transportation and communication, which enabled more current news to be included in the press. Other matches against

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[61] The Toronto Globe had steam presses in this period (Globe, Toronto, June 24, 1859) and the Daily Colonist of Victoria acquired a cylinder press in 1862 which hastened production. However, it was not until towards the end of the century that, with the introduction of the rotary press with electricity as the motive power, the process of newspaper production was significantly improved. (Kesterton, A History of Journalism in Canada, p.50). Daily newspapers had appeared in Montreal and Toronto in 1833 and 1835, respectively, but few other centres of population had them until later in the century ("What The People Read in Canada," Review of Reviews, V.33 (June 1906) p.720).

[62] Montreal Gazette, September 20, 1843; October 1, 1844; July 31, 1845.

[63] Ibid., August 30, 1853.

[64] Ibid., September 2, 1853.

the United States[65] and a touring team from England in 1859[66] resulted in more frequent reference to cricket. Fred Lillywhite, the organizer of the English team, has stated that the reporters from many parts of Canada who were present at the opening match of the tour in Montreal, telegraphed the information to their respective newspapers.[67] Telegraph arrangements for cricket were not confined to international matches as, in 1865, the Ottawa Times announced that the results of each day's play of the touring Ottawa Cricket Club would be telegraphed and printed in the following day's edition.[68]

The enthusiastic and informative coverage given to lacrosse by the press transformed this native-Indian game into a sport of national significance. After the Montreal Lacrosse Club was formed in 1856,[69] three other lacrosse clubs were organized within the city of Montreal by 1860.[70] The popularity of the sport spread further following the publicity in the press during the Prince of Wales' visit to Canada when players from the Beaver and Montreal clubs combined to play against a team of Caughnawaga and St. Regis Indians.[71] The

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[65] Ibid., July 27, 1854; Globe, Toronto, September 16, 1856; Morning Chronicle, Quebec, September 21, 1858; Globe, Toronto, August 3, 1859.

[66] Montreal Weekly Gazette, October 1, 1859.

[67] Fred Lillywhite, The English Cricketers' Trip to Canada and the United States. (London: F. Lillywhite; Kent and Coy., 1860), p.19.

[68] Ottawa Times, August 14, 1868.

[69] A Weyand and M. Roberts, The Lacrosse Story (Balitmore: H. and A. Herman, 1965), p.14.

[70] Montreal Gazette, March 21, 1860. These were the Hochelaga, Beaver and Young Montreal clubs.

[71] W. George Beers, Lacrosse, The National Game of Canada (Montreal: Dawson Bros., 1869), p.x; Montreal Gazette, September 13, 1860.

general interest of the public in the Prince's visit precipitated avid reading of the columns describing his tour, and it was inevitable that this exciting game would become known and played in areas outside Montreal within a short period of time. At this time W. George Beers, under the pseudonym of "Goal-Keeper", published a booklet entitled The Game of Lacrosse, which described the game in detail.[72] In his general remarks about the game, Beers wrote:

> There is a strange wildness and beauty about this game that excites the admiration of the spectator, and being very simple and easily understood, is the more interesting to him on that account. The innumerable and fantastic shapes the player is obliged to put himself in while "dodging" etc. is a source of much amusement both to the looker on and player, and as a lady has said in a poem addressed to a club of this city, the spectator will
>
> "Wonder at the players' gait,
> For crooked legs predominate."[73]

This publication, and an article entitled "A Rival to Cricket" which appeared in the Chamber's Journal in 1862[74] both helped to disseminate information about the game and encourage enthusiasm for it, in various parts of Canada. An editorial in the Montreal Gazette on September 26,

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[72] W. George Beers ("Goal-Keeper"), The Game of Lacrosse. (Montreal: M. Longmoore and Co., 1860). The title page stated that the book contained "the construction of the crosse, various methods of throwing and catching the ball, 'dodging', 'checking', goalkeeping, etc."

[73] Ibid., pp.3-4.

[74] "A Rival to Cricket," Chambers Journal, V.18.(December 6, 1862). Both Beers and the author of this article referred to lacrosse as the "national game of Canada". The Chambers Journal article enthusiastically extolled the advantages of lacrosse over the disadvantages of cricket: "It can be played even on the snow, and as well in winter as in summer. It can be played by any number of persons. The ground needs no preparation. The materials for the game are cheap and simple. It employs nearly every player at once, and is capable of infinite varieties, while it furnishes opportunities for the greatest skill and agility."(Ibid., p.366)

1866, epitomized the high degree of favour the press in general had for the sport.

> The account published elsewhere of the lacrosse Match - Ottawa against Montreal - is not without interest to the general public. It furnishes proof of two or three things interesting for Canadians to know, - that the luxury of town life in the chief city of British North America has not demoralized Canadians - even when their competitors were the (supposed) back-woodsmen of Ottawa our Montrealers have proved victors - Montreal has not proved a Capua to Canadian youth - a fact with which our military authorities may feel satisfied. With a militia force of such men as these Canada can never lack needful defenders.

By the end of 1867, there were more than eighty clubs and two thousand players of lacrosse,[75] and a National Lacrosse Association had been formed at a convention in Kingston in September at which twenty-nine clubs were represented.[76] These were developments which the press had promoted and promulgated.

In addition to their dual role of directing and reflecting public opinion, newspapers had also become a means through which citizens could voice their discontent. In the 1860's, newspaper editors were the recipients of letters from citizens who lamented the lack of adequate facilities, even though a few enterprising gentlemen had provided some amenities in Toronto and Montreal.[77] The younger people were very keen on this activity but were sometimes restricted by city by-laws related to swimming. "A Juvenile" wrote to the editor of the Toronto Globe[78] in 1861:

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[75] Montreal Gazette, November 14, 1867. [76] Ibid., September 27, 1867.

[77] Mr. Angus Blue informed the public in May, 1848 that the "Toronto Baths" had re-opened (Globe, Toronto, May 3, 1848). A "Montreal Swimming Club" offered subscriptions to "fathers and sons" for four dollars, but this was later reduced to two dollars in 1850 (Montreal Gazette, April 12, 1850).

[78] Globe, Toronto, August 20, 1861.

> As there is a by-law prohibiting persons from bathing off any wharf between the Queen's and Goodenham's, between 6 a.m. and 9 p.m., would it not pay some person to rent a part of some of the wharves, fence it in, and have it for a bathing place? They might charge a small sum for admittance or sell season tickets.... I am quite confident the bath would be well patronised, and would be a paying concern.

One year later, swimming baths were erected at the foot of York Street but, as the fence surrounding them was only about ten feet high, train passengers travelling to and from the Union Depot could see the nude men and boys.[79] The editor of the Globe was adamant that steps be taken to rectify this situation. Two years later, in 1864, the indoor City Baths, situated on Adelaide Street were opened,[80] and so Toronto was regarded as progressive. Even outdoor swimming facilities were non-existent in Ottawa in 1863 and, in response to a published letter from "Proprietas"[81] which criticized nude bathing in the Ottawa River, a correspondent, who signed himself "Sanitan", wrote to the Ottawa Citizen[82] and concluded:

> Now, sir, to satisfy the water lovers of both sexes, would it not be well to set apart a portion of the river for bathers and to oblige them to wear a pair of short drawers, reaching from the waist to mid-thigh? Or would it not be better still for the Corporation to erect a public floating bath?

In Montreal during the sixties, Mr. Kilgallen built swimming baths and the editor of the Montreal Gazette stated: "to those unable

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[79] Ibid., August 8, 1862.

[80] Ibid., June 17, 1864. For a description of these and other facilities of the period see Chapter V.

[81] Ottawa Citizen, August 14, 1863.

[82] Ibid., August 18, 1863. "Sanitan" wrote that "they who merely bathe, without being able to swim, lose half the pleasure, and more than half the benefit which arises from frequent ablutions."

to go to the salt water during this warm, oppressive weather, we recommend the Floating Baths as an excellent substitute."[83] A feature of the reports of swimming during this period was the reference by correspondents and editors of newspapers to facilities which were in existence in other cities. The Morning Chronicle of Quebec suggested that some "speculative gentleman" of Quebec might purchase an old swimming bath which was to be auctioned in Montreal.[84] It appeared as though Quebec residents were still without suitable facilities for swimming in 1863, because correspondents to the Morning Chronicle referred to the progress of the city of Montreal in this regard and lamented that similar swimming baths were not available in their city.[85] These comments as to what was occurring in other cities were not only indicative of the growth in civic pride, but also reflected the change from a local outlook of reporting on affairs to one of wider concern.

The growing importance of sport in the country at this time could not only be seen from the increase in the number of newspaper columns given to games and sports, but also the use of "head-lines" to capture the reader's interest. Rowing in the Maritimes was still a very popular sport, which provoked rivalry between the two principal centres at the time, St. John, New Brunswick and Halifax, Nova Scotia. The Halifax Novascotian of June 30, 1856, devoted three full columns

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[83] Montreal Gazette, August 17, 1863. In response to the public's frequent usage of these facilities, Mr. Kilgallen built larger swimming baths for the summer of 1864 (Lindsay, op.cit., p.184).

[84] Morning Chronicle, Quebec, July 18, 1851.

[85] Ibid., August 1, 1863; August 3, 1863.

to reprint a report of a boat race held seven years previously[86] when a crew from Nova Scotia had been beaten by a St. John crew. Large headlines followed this report in the Novascotian[87] of 1856:

THE SECOND GREAT BOATRACE

NOVA SCOTIA VICTORIOUS!

> After an interval of nearly seven years, as will be seen by the two preceding articles, descriptive of the triumph of our noble and generous rivals, the St. John boatmen, on the 10th October, 1849, we feel proud to announce to the world that Nova Scotia has recovered her lost laurels and that "Old Chebucto" has regained its original position, viz., the van in aquatic sports. The Boat race on the 24th of June, 1856, is a great triumph to the Province at large.

The rivalry between St. John and Halifax lasted many years,[88] but now the enthusiasm for rowing was not confined to the Maritimes. Rowing regattas had been held in Lower Canada since the early 1830's[89] and in Upper Canada since 1837,[90] but not on a regular basis. Following a regatta at Longueuil in 1860, the correspondent of the Montreal

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[86]This feature was reprinted from the Novascotian of October 11, 1849. The St. John oarsmen were from the Sand Cove Boat Club but the crew from Nova Scotia was not representative of a club organization.

[87]Novascotian, Halifax, June 30, 1856. A comment in the report of the race expressed the rivalry between these two rowing centres: "The Halifax boat is named 'Quick Step' but the St. John do. has no name, and as she has been beaten, will probably never have any other than 'Disowned'." Two of the renowned boat builders for rowing in the nineteenth century were Christopher Coyle of Sand Cove near St. John, and James Pryor of Halifax and both cities were proud of their boats.

[88]For further discussion of this rivalry and its influence on the sport of rowing, see Chapter VI.

[89]Kingston Chronicle, September 14, 1830; Montreal Gazette, September 6, 1830.

[90]Montreal Gazette, July 20, 1837. Lindsay has stated that the first single sculls events in British North America may have taken place at this regatta at Barriefield (Lindsay, op.cit., p.156).

Gazette[91] mentioned in the description of the activities that there were "entries from all parts of the Province, something Montreal had not seen for years." At that regatta, there must have been suggestions that annual regattas be established, because the editor heartily endorsed the idea and stated that "it would do more to develope [sic] the 'muscle', so much spoken of now-a-days, than all the homilies ever uttered by physician or tutor."[92]

Rowing crews from different parts of Canada also participated in international events prior to Confederation. Boats and crews from the United States had competed in regattas at Quebec from 1831 onward,[93] but it was not until the 1850's that crews from Canada competed in regattas in the United States. A crew from St. John competed in Boston in the Neptune in 1855 and defeated a crew from the White Hall Boat Club.[94] In a challenge race at Detroit for what was entitled the "Championship of the Lakes", a crew from the Shakespeare Rowing Club, Toronto, defeated a Metropolitan Boat Club crew of Chicago.[95] The newspaper reports of these international events helped to spread the popular following of the sport to various parts of the country as "Canadians" were competing. The interest was now no longer purely local.

Horse-racing was still a very popular activity among people from all classes of society. Nevertheless, the newspaper editors remained

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[91] Montreal Gazette, August 31, 1860. [92] Ibid.

[93] Montreal Gazette, September 3, 1831.

[94] Novascotian, Halifax, July 23, 1855.

[95] Globe, Toronto, September 8, 1858.

critical of the rowdy and gambling element the turf meetings attracted and, in response to some of the haranguing, Quebec attempted to solve the problem by shifting the race-course to Ancient Lorette in 1847.[96] The distance of this course from the city did manage to reduce the number of "dishonourables" at turf meetings conducted there,[97] but the Morning Chronicle was still critical of horse-racing in Quebec generally. In August, 1859, the editor stated that the main object of horse-racing in Quebec was "either wholly neglected, or aped in a most contemptible manner, while vice, drunkenness, riot and turbulence of the worst description find a pretext for excessive indulgence, and proceed to licentious outrage."[98]

A similar criticism was evoked about the old course on the Plains of Abraham in 1862 when reference was made to the new course on St. Charles Road, two miles from the town.[99] The new course was a necessity because the military authorities refused to allow horse-racing to take place on the Plains of Abraham facilities.

When the organization of turf meetings was not up to a desired standard, journalists covering the events were critical and cutting in their reporting of activities. Apparently, the St. Hyacinthe races at Montreal in 1852 did not run smoothly, and the organizers were subjected to a few terse paragraphs of criticism after the event:

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[96] Montreal Gazette, September 1, 1847.

[97] Morning Chronicle, Quebec, August 25, 1857.

[98] Ibid. In Halifax, because it was regarded as a 'demoralizing sport', horse-racing was disallowed in the late forties and it did not return until 1857 and, even then, it received City Council opposition (Lindsay, op.cit., pp.209, 211-212).

[99] Ibid., August 11, 1862.

> Cards were sold, but three times as many horses were put down as started, and the "colors" of the rider not being given, the uninitiated were no wiser after paying their money. A goodly number of spectators were present; in fact, too many for their own convenience in the Grand Stand, the roof of which is so low that nothing can be seen except within a few feet of the front.[100]

However, despite this outspoken opposition to a detrimental element associated with the sport, horse-racing flourished in many communities across British North America.

Winter sports received very favourable coverage in the press, and the delightful descriptions of these activities which appeared in newspapers in different parts of the country surely must have had some influence on their popularity.[101] The "skating mania" of the sixties was widespread from "Gaspe to Sarnia"[102] and "almost all the world [went] to skate."[103] Most natural ice-surfaces were bumpy and proved hazardous to learners. One method of overcoming these hazards was to prepare an area and flood it with water. In December, 1850, an enterprising group known as the Montreal Skating Club prepared such a rink at the corner of Alexander and Craig Streets and charged a subscription

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[100] Montreal Gazette, August 6, 1852. Such criticism was not confined to sporting events as this subjective style of reporting was in vogue during mid-nineteenth century - "even accounts of fires, drownings and other disasters were heavily interlarded with opinion and comment." (Kesterton, Canada Year Book, 1957-58, p.926).

[101] During the decade of the "skating mania" there were also significant improvements in skate design which made the fitting of skates to footwear easier and less troublesome. There was also a general improvement in ice surface and skating facilities. See Chapters IV and V for further discussion about these aspects and their influence on skating.

[102] W. George Beers, "Canada in Winter," The British American Magazine, V.2 (December 1863), p.167.

[103] Montreal Gazette, December 14, 1863.

membership of ten shillings for skaters to use it.[104] However, the secretary of the Skating Club, no doubt aware of the growing importance and influence of the press, showed a good sense of public relations when he forwarded an honorary subscription to the editor of Montreal Gazette.[105]

Although outdoor ice-surfaces were improved, the real surge of interest in skating occurred when indoor facilities were built.[106] Montreal had three indoor rinks by 1863,[107] the most lavish being the Victoria Skating Rink. However, in a paragraph headed "Free Skating versus the Victoria Rink" the Montreal Gazette, in 1863, stated that "firemen with a stream from the hydrant at the corner of Dorchester and Cemetery Streets were flooding the hollow at the back of the old French cemetery."[108] "Free" skating was popular,[109] but the indoor rinks offered many delights and attractions which the outdoor rinks could not. The proprietors of these facilities lavishly decorated them on occasions and hosted "masquerade" or "gala" balls on skates. Samuel Day wrote, in 1864, that some of the skating rinks are "exquisitely

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[104] Ibid., December 23, 1850. [105] Ibid.

[106] Most indoor rinks of the 1860's were erected by a group of individuals who solicited the public for subscriptions.

[107] The Montreal Skating Club Rink was opened in 1860; the Victoria Skating Rink in 1862; and Guilbault's Rink in 1863 (Montreal Gazette, February 21, 1860; December 26, 1862; November 12, 1863).

[108] Montreal Gazette, January 3, 1863.

[109] The Montreal Gazette added that, at the old French cemetery, "we anticipate for 'the million' great sport there after the first 'cold spell'." (Montreal Gazette, January 3, 1863). It was stated in the Toronto Globe that, on a December Saturday afternoon and evening in 1863, "there must have been several thousand persons on the bay, engaged in the exhilarating amusement of skating." (Globe, Toronto, December 28, 1863)

fitted up, and at the appointed season become highly imposing from the combined effect of brilliancy and beauty presented to the gaze of the spectator."[110] The décor and activities of a masquerade carnival at the Victoria Skating Rink in Montreal were delightfully captured by a journalist from the Montreal Gazette[111] who was in attendance:

> The interior of the Rink was brilliantly lighted and with its long vistas of banners, transparencies, Chinese lanterns, and festoons of evergreens above, and its dazzling expanse of ice below, contrasting with the gliding, rushing, swirling, grotesque figures arrayed in all the hues of the rainbow, and a few others not comprised in that phenomenon presented a sufficiently striking phantasmagoria.

Skating evenings, such as that which was described, were not confined to Montreal. Similar lavish skating occasions were reported in detail by the local newspapers in many parts of eastern Canada and the Maritimes as more indoor rinks were erected, and the descriptions of the successful skating evenings circulated.

The introduction of the telegraph into Canada in 1846 had provided a communications media through which news and information could be carried to various parts of the North American continent in a relatively short period of time. From the introduction of the telegraph until Confederation, there was a change in the outlook and approach of Canadians towards sport, as reflected by the press. The newspapers during this period published results and descriptions of games and sports from towns and cities in other parts of Canada. In this way, recreational and

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[110] Luella Creighton, The Elegant Canadians. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1967), p.53, quoted from S.P. Day, English America. (London: T. Coutley Newby, 1864).

[111] Montreal Gazette, January 25, 1866.

sporting activities of different areas became more widely known, and the interest in them more widespread. This initial trend developed to a greater extent following Confederation, when further technological innovations in communication and faster and more efficient methods of newspaper production made the dissemination of news in general, and sporting information in particular, more current and extensive.

Whereas the telegraph had become a means of sending information rapidly over land, submarine cables were used to link different communities separated by water. Frederick Gisborne instigated the first submarine cable between Cape Tormentine, New Brunswick, and Carleton Head on Prince Edward Island in November, 1852.[112] Following the laying of this cable, Gisborne arranged for a linkage with telegraph lines which connected many Maritime settlements with New York as well as eastern Canada.[113] Newfoundland and Cape Breton were connected by a submarine cable approximately eighty-five miles in length in 1856.[114]

The successful laying of these cables led to the more gigantic undertaking of connecting England with Canada by an ocean cable. Several attempts at laying an Atlantic cable were made[115] and, in August, 1858,

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[112] Canadian Historical Association, Report of the Annual Meeting, May, 1934 (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1935), p.124. Montgomery has stated that New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island were linked by the laying of the cable under the supervision of Gisborne in 1851, and that it was the first submarine telegraph in the world because it succeeded the linking of England and France by seven weeks (Paul Montgomery, "Canada Lays the First Cable," The Canadian Magazine, V.77 (No. 3, March, 1932), p.45.

[113] Montgomery, op.cit., p.45.

[114] John Murray, A Story of the Telegraph. (Montreal: John Lovell and Son, Ltd., 1905), p.199.

[115] For a detailed account of the laying of the Atlantic cable, see Murray, op.cit., and Charles Bright, The Story of the Atlantic Cable. (London: George Newnes, Ltd., 1903).

Queen Victoria of England and President Buchanan of the United States exchanged greetings following the successful completion of Cyrus Field's cable.[116] Unfortunately, within a month, the cable snapped and transmission ceased.[117] The Great Eastern steamboat unsuccessfully attempted to lay a cable in 1865 but, the following year, not only was the new cable completed, but the broken ends of the cable lost in 1865 were picked up and spliced.[118] Thus, on August 26, 1866, messages could be relayed over two cables to, and from England and the North American continent.

The Atlantic cable laid in 1866 was between Newfoundland and Ireland. Other submarine cables had been laid between Newfoundland and Cape Breton, and England and Ireland in the 1850's,[119] so telegraph linkage to many different places in the British Isles and on the North American continent was extensive. Subsequent cables between North America and Europe were laid in the nineteenth century and, as well as the increase in the number of connections, there were improvements in the capacity of the cables to handle a greater number of messages.[120]

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[116] Frank A. Doane, Nova Scotia Sketches. (Truro: Truro Printing and Publishing Co. Ltd., 1949), p.108.

[117] Murray, op.cit., p.210. [118] Doane, op.cit., p.108.

[119] Bright, op.cit., pp.16-18. A cable between Dover and Calais had been laid by 1851, and one between England and Ireland was laid in 1853.

[120] Ibid., pp.209-218. The speed of transmitting messages over the earlier Atlantic cables was approximately 25 to 28 five-letter words per minute. Technological improvements in telegraphy, generally, had increased the word carrying capacity of the Atlantic cables to almost fifty words per minute in one direction. However, by 1900, all submarine cables across the Atlantic were "duplexed", which enabled messages to be sent in both directions at the same time. This procedure, introduced in 1875, practically doubled the carrying capacity of the lines (Ibid., p.215).

Following the introduction of telegraphic service over the Atlantic cable, it was not long before current sporting news from England began to appear in the press. In 1867, horse-racing results from England often appeared in Canadian newspapers the day after the event had been held.[121]

Plans for a Pacific cable connecting Canada with Australia and New Zealand were introduced prior to 1900, but this service was not officially opened until October 31, 1902.[122]

The overland telegraph network expanded considerably throughout the latter third of the century. The total extent of connecting line of the three major companies in 1900 was more than thirty thousand miles[123] and this was in addition to the government telegraph lines. Telegraph lines paralleled the Canadian Pacific Railway company's tracks as they were extended west of Fort William in the 1880's. Upon completion of the Canadian Pacific's transcontinental rail and wire lines in 1885, the first all-Canadian telegraph service was established between

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[121] In 1867, reports of the Goodwood Races held in London on August 1 and 2 appeared in issues of the Globe, Toronto, on August 2 and 3, 1867. The Warwick Races of September, 1867, also appeared in the Globe of September 4, 1867, one day after they were held.

[122] Canadian Historical Association, Report of the Annual Meeting, Ottawa, May, 1931 (Ottawa: Department of Public Archives, 1931), p.99. For details of this British state-owned cable service, see George Johnson (Ed.) The All Red Line - The Annals and Aims of the Pacific Cable Project. (Ottawa: James Hope and Sons, 1903).

[123] Canada, Department of Agriculture, Statistical Year Book of Canada for 1900 (Ottawa: Government Printing Bureau, 1901), pp.522-523. The telegraph business in Canada westward of Quebec was transacted by the Great North-Western Telegraph Company and the Canadian Pacific Railway Company; and in the Maritimes, by the Western Union Telegraph Company (Ibid., p.523).

the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans.[124]

The transition from transmitting signals to the exchange of human speech over a wire was not made until Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone in 1874.[125] The first practical test of the telephone over a long distance was between Boston and Providence, Rhode Island, in 1875,[126] and following a successful demonstration of a one-way long distance talk from Brantford to Paris, Ontario, the telephone began to become a significant innovation in communication.[127] Telephone switchboards and exchanges spread rapidly after the initial one was built at Hamilton in 1878.[128] The Bell Telephone Company of Canada was formed in 1880[129] and, along with the efforts of other companies, promoted the use of this instrument. Within three years of the introduction of the telephone in Toronto in 1879, there were over four hundred instruments in use in that city.[130] The Board of Trade

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[124] James C. Bonar, "The Canadian Pacific Railway Company and Its Contribution Towards the Early Development and Continued Progress of Canada," V.1. (Montreal: Unpublished papers prepared for the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, 1950), p.28. Telegrams between eastern Canada and locations in British Columbia had previously been transmitted through the United States.

[125] Canada, Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development, Alexander Graham Bell Museum, Baddeck, Nova Scotia. (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1967), p.6. Despite protests to the contrary, Bell has been declared the sole inventor of the telephone (J.J. Brown, Ideas in Exile - A History of Canadian Invention. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1967), pp.143-144).

[126] Canada, Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development, op.cit., p.6.

[127] Francis T. Gill, "Canada Talks by Telephone," Canadian Geographic Journal V.18 (No.2, February 1939), p.87.

[128] Ibid. [129] Ibid., p.88.

[130] Globe, Toronto, Board of Trade Edition, July 1888, p.19.

Edition of the Toronto Globe in July, 1888, stated that there were 2,234 telephones in use at that time, and installations were at the rate of approximately one hundred per month. On the west coast, telephones were installed in Victoria in 1880, and the British Columbia Telephone Company constructed a telephone line between New Westminster and Port Moody in 1884, and connections to other parts of the province were extended within a few years.[131] By 1900, there were more than fifty-two thousand telephones in use across Canada[132] and the development of this communication media exerted a considerable influence on society. Arrangements for sporting events, games and matches were discussed without any delay, and this served to promote better organization as well as to increase the number of competitions between clubs.

Although the wireless, or radio was not introduced into Canada until the beginning of the twentieth century,[133] the first practical demonstration of Guglielmo Marconi's invention in North America is worthy of reference because of the early association of this innovation with sport. The American Associated Press hired Marconi to transmit the

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[131] H.J. Boam, British Columbia: Its History, People, Commerce, Industries and Resources. (London: Sells Ltd., 1912), p.486.

[132] Canada, Statistical Year Book of Canada for 1900, p.525. The number of instruments per province in 1900 were: Ontario, 24,276; Quebec, 15,921; Nova Scotia, 3,776; New Brunswick, 2,567; British Columbia, 3,011, Manitoba, Prince Edward Island and The Territories had the 2,866 between them.

[133] Glace Bay, Nova Scotia was the site where Marconi transmitted the first trans-Atlantic wireless to Poldhu, Cornwall, on December 15, 1902. In 1904 the broadcasting station was moved to Port Morien but was not opened for public use until 1907 (Canadian Historical Association, Report of the Annual Meeting, Quebec, June, 1952. (Ottawa: Tribune Press Ltd., 1952), p.75).

finish of the America's Cup yacht race of 1899 by wireless.[134] While spectators on pleasure-craft off Sandy Hook watched the American defender Columbia defeat England's Shamrock in three straight races, Marconi's wireless reported the progress of the contest to those on shore.[135]

The advancements in communication technology through the development of the overland and submarine telegraph, and the telephone, made news gathering by newspaper personnel more effective and efficient. The production of newspapers in the post-Confederation period of the century also became more economical and effectual, as further mechanical and operational improvements were made within the printing industry. Rotary and revolving presses, which were driven by steam, gasoline or electricity, ameliorated printing production.[136] The press which the owners of the Winnipeg Free Press purchased from the Hoe Company of New York in 1885 was capable of producing eighteen hundred eight-page papers, printed on one side, in an hour.[137] In 1899, the editor of the Toronto Globe claimed that his newspaper had the fastest and most "up-to-date newspaper press in Canada."[138] A press, which was powered by electricity,

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[134] F.W. Cozens, and F.S. Stumpf, Sports in American Life. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953), p.116. Parker has stated that the New York Herald paid Marconi five thousand dollars to cover the yacht race (Franklin Parker, "Play and Education," Physical Education V.26 (No. 1, March, 1969), p.3.).

[135] John Quinpool, First Things in Acadia (Halifax: First Things Publishers, 1936), p.162.

[136] Kesterton, A History of Journalism in Canada, p.51.

[137] Ibid., p.51.

[138] Globe, Toronto, April 8, 1899.

could produce forty-eight thousand eight-page newspapers an hour.[139]

"Slug-casting" of type, where a continuous and solid line of "copy" could be cast as a single unit, was an innovation which significantly improved the mechanical aspects of newspaper production.[140] The contribution of this technological development was also assisted by improvements in the type-setting methods of which the most widely used was Ottmar Mergenthaler's "Linotype."[141] This machine was operated from a keyboard and "each key brought into line an individual matrix which, when assembled with others, produced a mould for casting a slug or line of type from a pot of hot metal."[142] The Ottawa Journal changed to this type-setting machine in the 1890's.[143]

Other innovations such as folder attachments and the stereo-type process also increased the efficiency of newspaper production.[144] The cost of providing the basic commodity, that of paper, decreased considerably during this period. Until 1866 paper made in British North America had been manufactured from rags, which was an expensive process. With the invention of paper-making from wood pulp, a cheaper method of manufacture than from rags, Canadian newspaper owners imported the new material until the first wood-grinder mill was established by Alexander Buntin at Valleyfield, Quebec, in 1866.[145]

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[139] The press from the Hoe Company of New York produced approximately 24,000 ten-to-twelve page papers an hour, and this was the average size of the Globe at that time.

[140] Kesterton, A History of Journalism in Canada, p.51.

[141] Ibid., p.52.

[142] Oliver, op.cit., pp.446-447.

[143] Kesterton, A History of Journalism in Canada, p.52.

[144] Ibid.

[145] Ibid., p.51.

It was later found that chemical additives hastened the wood-pulp production of paper[146] and, eventually, a sulphide process was introduced which reduced the cost of newsprint production. Whereas the cost of newsprint in Canada prior to the introduction of this process in 1886 was approximately eight cents a pound, the amount declined to less than two cents a pound over the next two decades.[147]

As a result of these technological developments within the printing and newspaper industries, it became possible for newspaper owners and editors to produce more frequent and larger papers. At Confederation there were just over two hundred newspapers in the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, of which twenty-one were daily publications.[148] Seven years later, in 1874, that figure for the whole of Canada had more than doubled as there were close to five hundred periodicals, which included: 46 daily periodicals, 330 weeklies and 41 monthlies.[149] By 1900, there were more than twelve-hundred: 121 dailies, 804 weeklies, 202 monthlies and 99 tri-or semi-weeklies, tri-or semi-monthlies, bi-monthlies or quarterlies.[150] For the year 1885, the daily average circulation of the Toronto Globe was 25,404 issues[151] and, in 1892, there were more than fifty periodicals published in English and French in Montreal, including the Montreal Star, which had the largest

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[146] Oliver, op.cit., p.447

[147] Stevens, op.cit., p.132. [148] Ibid., p.130.

[149] Kesterton, A History of Journalism in Canada, p.39.

[150] Ibid.

[151] Globe, Toronto, January 30, 1886.

circulation of any newspaper in Canada.[152] The first newspaper in British Columbia did not appear until 1858,[153] but there were twenty-nine periodicals by 1895, including seven daily publications.[154]

The "magazine" as a periodical became an important addition to the printed media of communication after Confederation. The Saturday Reader and New Dominion Monthly, which were "chatty and easy", presented a new phase in Canadian social development as they were addressed to the general public and not just the rich.[155] In English Canada especially, there was a greater need than in French Canada to promote a sense of national identity following Confederation,[156] and the magazines which were published in this journalistic era helped to develop that unity.

It was also through the magazine periodicals that half-tone reproduction of photographs first appeared.[157] George Desbarats published a national news magazine, the Canadian Illustrated News, and, in 1871,

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[152]Norman Murray, Murray's Illustrated Guide to Montreal and Vicinity. (Montreal: Norman Murray, Publisher, 1892), p.25. The Montreal publications of 1892 included: 5 French and 4 English daily periodicals, 10 French and 8 English weeklies, 8 French and 11 English monthlies, and 2 English quarterlies.

[153]Boam, op.cit., p.453.

[154]George Johnson, Alphabet of First Things in Canada. (Ottawa: The Mortimer Co. Limited, 1897), p.130. Total figures for the publication of all periodicals by other provinces in 1895 were: Ontario, 534; Quebec, 150; Nova Scotia, 71; Manitoba, 56; New Brunswick, 49; North West Territories, 16; and Prince Edward Island, 14.

[155]Arthur R.M. Lower, Canadians in the Making - A Social History of Canada. (Toronto: Longmans, Green and Company, 1958), p.294.

[156]Kesterton, A History of Journalism in Canada, p.62. Kesterton has listed the more prominent magazines of the post-Confederation period.

[157]Brown, op.cit., p.145.

reproduced a photograph of Montreal's new Custom House.[158] Prior to this, the process of wood-engraving and then line-cuts etched by acid on zinc was used and, because it was so slow, few illustrations were included in the periodicals.[159]

Sketches and pictures of people have a universal appeal and the illustrations in early magazines were appreciated by the readers. As the art of photography improved and the cost of materials and reproduction declined, more photographs were included in magazines and newspapers. The Toronto Globe was one newspaper which pioneered illustrations and photographs, especially of a sporting nature. Action drawings of several sports were featured in the early 1890's[160] and sporting photographs began to appear in the Saturday editions a little later in that decade.[161]

Photography for "everybody" became possible after George Eastman of Rochester, New York, developed the process of using a film on special coated paper instead of glass in 1844,[162] and introduced the first hand camera, the "Kodak", in 1888.[163] The Eastman slogan of "You press the

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[158] Kesterton, A History of Journalism in Canada, p.53.

[159] Ibid.

[160] Action drawings of golf, horse-racing and yachting appeared in the Toronto Globe of 1890 on May 17, May 26 and July 3, respectively.

[161] Globe, Toronto, July 18, 1891 (Yachting and Lacrosse); January 23, 1892 (Football); October 22, 1892 (Toronto Bicycle Club); March 16, 1895 (Curling); and April 3, 1897 (Ice-boating).

[162] Oliver, op.cit., pp.443-444. Oliver has stated that Eastman's development of the transparent, paperback flexible film was "a technological achievement that wrought a revolution in photography."

[163] Carlton J.H. Hayes, A Generation of Materialism, 1871-1900. (New York: Harper and Row, 1941), p.94.

button - we do the rest"[164] became widely appreciated by many Canadians anxious to preserve glimpses of their lives.

A few years later Eastman's chemists produced a transparent celluloid film which was not only important for the progress of "still" photography, but was essential for "moving pictures" or cinematography.[165] Moving pictures were displayed as a novelty in bowling alleys, billiard rooms and "penny arcades" in the nineties, but it was not long before they were moved to a screen where a large number of people could see them.

An early moving picture shown in Canada in 1897 was a boxing match between Fitzsimmons and Corbett but for many viewers it was a disappointment because of "vagueness and incompleteness."[166] In January, 1900, an announcement in the Toronto Globe stated that an authorized picture of the J.J. Jeffries and Thomas Sharkey fight for the heavyweight championship of the world would be shown on six occasions over three days at the Grand Opera House.[167] The Globe correspondent stated that considerable progress had been made in films since the Fitzsimmons-Corbett disappointment:

> Every movement and expression of the contestants is plainly visible in the pictures, and that [sic] a graphic idea of the progress of the fight and the respective methods of the two men can be obtained in viewing the production.[168]

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[164] Oliver, op.cit., p.444.

[165] Ibid. A "cinematograph" was patented in France in 1895 (Hayes, op.cit., p.94).

[166] Globe, Toronto, January 11, 1900. [167] Ibid.

[168] Ibid. The comment that in other cities, ladies seemed as interested as men, was added.

As the number of newspapers increased in size and frequency throughout the latter third of the century, there was a concurrent change in their content. Confederation had implanted, at least to a slight extent, a sense of nationalism in the Canadian, and this was reflected on the pages of the newspapers as well as the magazines. An analysis of the content of newspapers in 1890 revealed that politics and public affairs accounted for approximately one-third of the news columns.[169] Personal items, police, accidents, court reports and farm news made up approximately one-quarter of the reading matter, and sport comprised nearly five per cent of the total coverage.[170]

The daily newspaper particularly, as well as the other less regular periodicals, increasingly devoted more columns to the reporting of sporting events, thereby promoting this activity in the social life of Canadians. Even prior to Confederation, the Montreal Gazette had headed some of its columns dealing with sport as "Sporting Intelligence" and the Toronto Globe gave excellent sporting coverage under such headings as "Sporting Amusement Notes", "Sports and Amusements", "Sporting Intelligence", "Sporting News" and "Sports of A Day". The influence of the Globe, like other important newspapers, was not confined to the city in which it was published. The management of the Globe proudly reported in 1887 that the "Globe train" travelled a "mile a minute" to distribute the news at points along the route to Windsor.[171] During the summer months, from the 1880's on, the Globe's reports of the weekend's sporting

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[169] Stevens, op.cit., p.133. [170] Ibid.

[171] Globe, August 15, 1887. The train covered the distance of 221 miles in 285 minutes, but this included eight stoppages and three "slow-downs".

activities sometimes required two pages.[172] Special articles on sporting clubs were also included, especially during the last decade of the century.[173] A section entitled "The Globe's Special Youth Department" occasionally featured explanatory articles on basic skills and rules for sport,[174] which further exemplified the informative role of the paper.

Not all newspapers in Canada featured sport to the same extent as the Toronto Globe or the Montreal Gazette. By the 1880's the Ottawa Citizen had fairly regular coverage under such headings as "World of Sports", "Sports and Pastimes" and "The People's Pastimes" but, with the exception of rowing and sailing, the newspapers of the Maritime provinces did not feature sport extensively. Many periodicals, especially those with a relatively small circulation, squeezed their sports reports into any available space on the pages. However, the increasing amount of space in the newspapers which was devoted to sport was a reflection of the growth and expansion of this activity within the social life of the communities.[175]

Special periodicals devoted to sport were introduced in the 1880's. A prospectus of a new journal, Canadian Cricket Field, which was to be

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[172]The August 15, 1881 ten-page edition required more than a full-page to cover items concerning Lacrosse, The Gun (Hunting), Homing Pigeons, Baseball, Pedestrianism, Cricket, Rifle, The Turf, Athletics, Aquatics, Bicycling, Lawn Tennis and Yachting.

[173]In the 1890's the Toronto Globe featured articles, sometimes accompanied by drawings and photographs, on cricket, lacrosse, baseball and football teams, bicycle and athletic clubs, horse and yacht races, and golf courses.

[174]Ibid., June 4, 1891.

[175]By the end of the century, most daily newspapers, averaging more than six to eight pages in length, gave extensive coverage of local, provincial and international (especially American) sport.

devoted "exclusively to the interests of cricket" and issued between May and September, was announced in 1882.[176] The first issue of Athletic Life[177] appeared in 1895, and the introductory issue stated the objectives of the periodical:

> Our aim is to have a complete record of all games and pleasures, authenticated and under their proper heading, and to assist and encourage their development. In this we have been fortunate enough to secure the co-operation of recognized authorities in the different branches of sport, and with their assistance we shall seek to encourage all correspondence, under its own heading, as will serve to develop the different pastimes, and to discuss various modes of procedure or suggested improvements.

Editors of newspapers continued to encourage and promote sport in this period and it was usually of an approving nature. The Montreal Gazette[178] favourably reported a football match between garrison officers and civilians on a Montreal cricket ground in 1866:

> We were glad to see so many people on the ground and to find that some little interest is at last being taken by the people of Montreal in manly sports, and we hope that this is only the first of many such games.

However, on some occasions it appeared as though the editors were exasperated, and their bluntness was evident:

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[176] Globe, Toronto, April 1, 1882.

[177] Athletic Life, V.1 (No. 1, January 1895), p.1. This magazine may have been the first sporting journal of its kind in Canada as the editor remarked: "It is astonishing that in such a country as Canada, and more especially in such a city as Toronto, the very nursery of athletic pastimes, no effort has ever been made to establish a high-class journal devoted to the fostering of pure sport." The complete introduction to this magazine is contained in Appendix E.

[178] Montreal Gazette, October 10, 1866.

> The Victoria Rowing Club [British Columbia] are most respectfully urged to be up and doing. A meeting was called a few evenings ago, but could not be held. Call another.[179]

Not all sports received a favourable reception from newspaper reporters, and many felt that they should influence public opinion rather than reflect it. Boxing, which only became an organized amateur sport in Canada in the late 1890's,[180] was still "socially condemned" by many editors of newspapers in the early years of this period. The term "prize-fighting" rather than boxing was usually applied to matches between opponents, and many were regarded by the press as "disgusting."[181] As late as 1894 the Edmonton Bulletin reported that such exhibitions are "a disgrace which should not be tolerated."[182] The editor added that "there is no room here for the display of their peculiar talents and they should be gently, but firmly, instructed by the proper authorities to move on."[183]

Certain sports acquired their own distinctive jargon, with baseball perhaps being the most colourful. After the first match of the

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[179] Daily Colonist, Victoria, April 19, 1889. The editor must have been in a vindictive mood on that day because he also wrote about the lack of interest in baseball in a terse manner: "In almost every city of the east, the public take sufficient interest in amateur baseball to offer pennants or trophies for season competition among local clubs. Why don't they here? It is not too late yet."

[180] The first Canadian amateur boxing championships were held under the auspices of the Toronto Athletic Club in 1897 (Globe, Toronto, March 6, 1897).

[181] Globe, Toronto, January 24, 1877.

[182] Edmonton Bulletin, December 20, 1894.

[183] Ibid.

International League, when Toronto played Rochester on the new Toronto baseball ground in 1886, the report in the Globe[184] illustrated the adoption of the new vivid vocabulary:

> The Torontos commenced business in their half of the 2nd, Veach going to first on called balls, and Spill following him with a fine two-begger [sic]. Humphries then struck out, and Darling hit a sacrifice to shortstop. Caskins made a mess of it by first making a bad throw to 3rd and allowing Veach to score, and then taking Warner's position on the plate and allowing Spill to score on a muff.

Baseball was exceptionally popular in Toronto in the 1880's,[185] and after the opening international league game of the 1888 seasor it was obvious that the editor of the Globe expressed the citizens' pride in their city:[186]

> What a baseball town Toronto has come to be! Four years ago the promoters of the game in this city were glad to get an opportunity of using the Jarvis Street lacrosse grounds when the Canadian game was not on, and the interest in the game was very limited. But on Saturday the attendance on the Toronto Baseball Club's own grounds, unsurpassed by any of the international ball fields, was larger by 4,000 people than the attendance at the opening game in any other International city. And Toronto floats the championship flag.

Despite the popularity of baseball in the major cities of Canada from the 1880's on, cricket remained the major summer sport throughout most of the post-Confederation period.[187] At the time of Confederation,

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[184] Globe, Toronto, May 24, 1886. The social atmosphere of the game still prevailed, as in notes which followed the detailed analysis, the journalist commented: "A fine silk hat belonging to one of the Governor's party was roughly treated by a foul ball."

[185] Ibid., April 18, 1888. During the 1887 season, tickets were sold to 79,000 adults and 14,000 children, and 39,000 score cards were purchased.

[186] Ibid., May 14, 1888.

[187] Allan E. Cox, "A History of Sports in Canada, 1868-1900," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), p.108.

cricket was the only game that could lay any claims as being Canada's "national" game[188] as the popularity of this activity extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific oceans. On Dominion Day of 1867 there were more than twenty cricket matches played around the Montreal area, and the editor of the Montreal Gazette commented, "we are glad to see this general revival of the king of out-door games, and trust the good work may continue."[189]

Canadian cricket teams were not often victorious against overseas teams from England and Australia, although they shared honours on a fairly equal basis in matches against the United States. There was some concern over humiliating losses to English and Australian teams, especially when the visitors played only eleven men to the Canadians' twenty-two. After an Australian team soundly defeated an Ontario cricket team in 1878, the Globe,[190] reflecting national disappointment published a prolonged criticism of the Canadians as cricketers:

> ...it only remains for Canadians either to give up cricket altogether or in the future avoid such lamentable exhibitions of their want of proficiency in the finest of out of door sports. Cricket has never had the foothold in the affections of Canadians that it has long held among both English and Australians, but with our proficiency in

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[188] Lindsay, op.cit., p.108.

[189] Montreal Gazette, July 9, 1867.

[190] Globe, Toronto, October 10, 1878. Cox has stated that one of the reasons for Canada's lack of success in international cricket was the teams were not representative of Canada because of the approach to selection of players and the distance of travel (Cox, op.cit., p.432). This had changed by the 1890's and after the international match against the United States in 1893, the Toronto Globe reported that: "Every part of the Dominion except Hamilton and the Northwest had a representative on the eleven. Vancouver in the far west and St. John in the east were both represented." (Globe, Toronto, April 24, 1894)

> other manly sports, the average physique of our male population, and our bracing climate, we have no reason to despair of being able to turn out a first-class team to uphold Canadian supremacy on the cricket field if we only go about it in the right way. If we would achieve any success in it worthy of the name we should make it our national game.

Claims that lacrosse was the "national game of Canada" had been extolled in the early 1869's,[191] and evidence that further attempts were made to bring this about appeared in the press. On the eve of Confederation, W. George Beers[192] wrote a letter to the editor of the Montreal Gazette which was subsequently published under the heading "La Crosse or National Game":[193]

> Sir: There is such unanimity of feeling with regard to the acceptance of La Crosse as our national field game, that not only should players use the present season to secure its permanency, but lovers of sports who believe in the mental and moral, as well as the physical utility of these exercises, should support us in our efforts to spread and nationalize this fine field game of La Crosse. I do not wish to advertise any coming encounter, but I really think the match to be played on Dominion Day between the Montreal Club and St. Regis Indians peculiarly appropriate and worthy of public encouragement. The occasion will inaugurate the acceptance of La Crosse as our national game, and there could be no better time for a popular expression of approval, which will find an echo from the Pacific to the Atlantic.

Whether Dr. Beers' letter had anything to do with the crowd which attended the Dominion Day lacrosse match between the Caughnawaga Indians and the Montreal Lacrosse Club is not certain, but the facilities were not sufficient to accommodate the five thousand spectators in atten-

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[191] Supra., p.87.

[192] Dr. Beers became the first Secretary of the National Lacrosse Association of Canada which was formed in September, 1867 (Montreal Gazette, September 27, 1867).

[193] Montreal Gazette, June 29, 1867.

dance.[194] However, Beers was over-zealous in his prediction that lacrosse would be hailed as Canada's national game because, throughout the 1860's, the sport was basically restricted to the larger towns of Quebec and Ontario.[195]

The comparisons between the attractions and advantages of cricket and lacrosse increased after Confederation. The lacrosse centre of the time was Montreal, and the editor of the Montreal Gazette frequently wrote editorials and published letters which fostered and maintained a controversial interest in these two sports.[196] A letter from a Chatham advocate of lacrosse was published in the Montreal Gazette of August 1, 1867 exemplified this public debate through the press:

> Lacrosse is preeminently a popular game. For a half-dollar a person can obtain an outfit, unlike cricket. Unlike cricket again its practice takes up less time, requires less elaborately arranged ground, and affords young men the greatest amount of exercise in the least possible time. It is not every one who can afford two whole days to attend a cricket match, but by early rising, while the dew is yet on the ground, a Lacrosse player can have his hour's healthful practice. Let it be our national game.

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[194] Ibid., July 4, 1867. The journalist's description of the crowd included such comments as "...along the cords the sterner sex mustered four and five deep ... on the fences wrested a large number of deadhead beholders, one even was niched in a church window; like, as far as position goes, a saint in a cathedral."

[195] Lindsay, op.cit., p.132.

[196] Included in the Montreal Gazette's description of the 1867 Dominion Day match in Montreal was an explanation as to why lacrosse was so popular: "'Why', growls a cricketer at our left, 'can't we raise a crowd of a hundred to see a cricket match, with the K.O.B's. band thrown in?' For the simple reason that Lacrosse is a popular game, easy of comprehension, always of thrilling interest, while Cricket, barring four-hits and catches at long-field, is slow to all but the players, or to understanding lookers-on. Cricket, like billiards, requires an educated audience. Lacrosse, like a horse race, is red jacket against blue, the excitement is more intense, and the suspense is soon over." (Montreal Gazette, July 4, 1867)

The argument over whether cricket or lacrosse was the "national" game became vehement in Confederation year, and letters written to the Montreal Gazette in August provided a basis for even more discussion and dispute among the followers of these two sports.[197]

The Montreal Gazette, from mid-1867 onwards, reported lacrosse games and news in its sporting columns under the heading "The National Game." The excitement and fervour about this sport immediately after Confederation was so extreme that an apparent myth about lacrosse becoming the national game of Canada by an Act of Parliament on July 1, 1867, came into existence. The reports in the press referred to the sport in this manner so frequently that several authors have perpetuated the myth.[198]

The popularity of lacrosse quickly spread across Canada and into parts of the United States. Chief Onwanonayshon, of the Six Nation Indians, and the Mayor of Troy, New York, arranged by telegraph for the

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[197] Montreal Gazette, August 7 and 8, 1867. These letters are repeated in Appendix D. Such arguments were not confined to the Montreal region as the Toronto Globe also encouraged lacrosse at the expense of cricket: "It [lacrosse] economises both time and money. A cricket match frequently lasts over two days, a lacrosse match seldom over three hours. Cricketing materials, such as bats, ball, leggings, gloves and other et ceteras, are very expensive, while the cost of Lacrosse materials for a club of twenty is less than a complete outfit for a single cricketer." (Globe, Toronto, October 26, 1867)

[198] Weyand and Roberts, op.cit., p.18; Roxborough, op.cit., p.6. Lindsay has stated, "A recent word on this subject appeared in Dick Beddoes' column in the Globe and Mail, December 20, 1968, which quoted Douglas Fisher of the press gallery in Ottawa as saying, that he had covered all available sources on this subject, with the conclusion that no political gathering with legislative or declaratory powers ever said anything about lacrosse in this period. The perusal of over twenty Canadian newspapers for 1867, as well as Statutes of Canada, leads to the present writer's agreement." (Lindsay, op.cit., p.129)

the Indians to play an exhibition game at one of Troy's "Baseball Tournament Days."[199] The first game "caused a perfect furore of enthusiasm" and the players were subsequently engaged for a second day on which "ten thousand people assembled to witness the game, which was played amid a perfect storm of applause."[200]

However, sportsmen in all parts of Canada were not as quick to adopt the game. The Fredericton Reporter[201] of October, 1880, stated that a lacrosse club had been organized in Newcastle and the report intimated that no club had been formed in Fredericton by that time, as the editor asked, "What are our young men thinking about?" It was reported in the Toronto Globe[202] that the first game of lacrosse in St. John, New Brunswick, was played on Good Friday in April, 1889:

> No display of science was expected, since the game was new to nearly every player. The play partook largely of the nature of a prolonged scrimmage, varied by diligent rubber hunting when some unpractised hand sent the ball skimming away at right angles to the line of the goals.[203]

Apparently, lacrosse in the Maritimes in the early 1890's still required support, as it was suggested at the National Amateur Lacrosse Association's convention at Ottawa in 1892 that the incoming council send "an officer or other qualified person to the Maritime provinces at the opening of the season now ensuing for the purpose of organizing three

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[199] Montreal Gazette, November 14, 1867.

[200] Ibid. A team was organized by players of the Brooklyn Baseball Club.

[201] Reporter, Fredericton, October 13, 1880. Although a lacrosse club was formed in Fredericton in 1891, no match had been played by May, 1893 (Ibid., May 10, 1893).

[202] Globe, Toronto, April 25, 1889.

[203] Ibid. Quoted from the St. John Sun.

districts on a proper basis and in accordance with the rules of the association."[204] On the prairies and the west coast, lacrosse was played on a challenge, if not a regular league basis, from the 1870's on.[205] Much of the enthusiasm for this game which was generated in the latter third of the nineteenth century may be attributed to the encouragement and support given to it by the periodical press.[206]

At the time of Confederation, newspapers included items which promoted national pride. The attention of the new Canadian nation was brought, by many newspapers, to focus on the World Amateur Rowing Championships on the Seine River in Paris, France, at which a crew from New Brunswick competed. The newly completed Atlantic cable was utilized to telegraph results and despatches from European newspapers back to Canada, and rowing enthusiasts were informed of the outcome of events within days.[207] The crew from St. John defeated the crews from London and Oxford and, from that day forth, became known as the "Paris crew."[208] Had the news

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[204] Globe, Toronto, April 9, 1892.

[205] Cox, op.cit., pp.137,144,149-152,154.

[206] This was, of course, not the only reason as the content and tone of the quoted passages from newspapers included above indicate. Apart from the general appeal of the game, the early formation of provincial and national organizations was an important factor which contributed to the sport's widespread participation and following. Cox has stated: "During the thirty-three years of this period, lacrosse developed from a game played mainly by Indians and a small group of middle-class citizens of Montreal, Toronto, Paris and Ottawa, into a popular sport played by thousands of Canadians from all walks of life .... Very few sports have had such a rapid development." (Cox, op.cit., pp.160-161)

[207] The Morning Chronicle of Quebec, and the Toronto Globe were two of several newspapers which received and published despatches from the Manchester Guardian and the London Telegraph during August, 1867.

[208] The members of the "Paris crew" were Robert Fulton, Sam Hutton, George Price and Elija Ross of the Western Boat Club in St. John (Morning Chronicle, Quebec, August 14, 1867).

of their victory via the Atlantic cable telegraph not preceded their return to St. John, the homecoming reception would not have been as jubilant as that which was awaiting their arrival:

> Patriotic citizens, and visiting ships whose masters and crews rejoiced with us in the triumph of our oarsmen in Paris, yesterday flung their banners to the breeze, as the hour approached for the arrival of the New York. Towards four o'clock the whole population, as if moved by one impulse, gathered at Reed's point and vicinity. Sporting characters, sober citizens, irrepressible arabs, genteel ladies, solemn looking clergymen and the inevitable woman with the baby were all there, mixed up in one motley crowd, with express wagons, coaches, slovens, and hand carts.... Altogether, the reception given the men was a warm one, and came straight from the hearts of the people.[209]

The "Paris crew" dominated four-oared rowing over the next few years and their exploits were widely known and acclaimed. Throughout the preparations for the international race against the "Renforth" crew from England in August, 1871, the Toronto Globe featured regular telegraphed reports from St. John.[210] The outcome and description of the race was featured under a bold heading in the Globe, "THE GREAT RACE - PARIS CREW WINS".[211] Perhaps the advice offered to the "Paris crew" in the Halifax Novascotian[212] in the previous year about waiting until

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[209] Morning Chronicle, Quebec, August 13, 1867.

[210] Globe, Toronto, August, 1871 issues. [211] Ibid., August 24, 1871.

[212] Novascotian, Halifax, October 3, 1870. "Much as we admire the pluck of the Paris crew, in thus shewing [sic] their willingness to meet their adversaries again, we yet think it better that the race should be postponed until next year. The Provincial oarsmen have sustained one defeat in 1870 and it is just possible that if they again ventured upon a race the result would be the same. For disappointment of their defeat is yet too recent a date, while the elation of the Tyne men would stimulate them to renewed efforts to gain another victory, so that in the race the odds would likely be against the Paris crew. Since it was decided to contest once more for the championship of the world, let it wait until next year, when it can run over the course with additional advantages in its favor."

1871 was worthwhile. The report was certainly an indication of the widespread following which these remarkable oarsmen had in Halifax, as well as the rest of Canada.

Many of the residents of Nova Scotia, and the citizens of Halifax in particular, were at the one time both proud and envious of the achievements of their neighbours in New Brunswick. The history of rowing in the Maritimes centred around these two provinces, and the rivalry between the cities of St. John and Halifax in the sport had been paramount since 1849.[213] George Brown of Halifax had been an outstanding sculler for several years, and had won the championship of America at Springfield in 1874,[214] but his untimely death in July, 1875, prevented him from achieving the title of world champion.[215] However, the dominance of rowers from Nova Scotia in four-oared races had declined considerably by the mid-1870's and, in 1875, the rowing enthusiasts of Nova Scotia decided to do something about it. The Halifax newspapers rallied to the cause and promoted the efforts of businessmen and merchants, and the citizens of Halifax generally,[216] in selecting, training and maintaining a crew of the Fishermen's Rowing Association, which became known as "Our Boys".[217] The crew was selected months prior to the

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[213] Ibid., October 15, 1849.

[214] Globe, Toronto, July 11, 1874. [215] Ibid., July 7, 1875.

[216] This was not the first occasion upon which the citizens of Halifax had shown their support to rowing crews. In 1871, when both the "Tyne" and "Paris" crews had been invited to an international regatta in that city, the expenses of training a specially selected Halifax crew were paid out of the general regatta fund. (Globe, Toronto, August 28, 1871). In New Brunswick, a special Provincial government grant of two thousand dollars had been given to assist with preparations for the "Paris crew's" trip to France (Reporter, Fredericton, April 26, 1867).

[217] From the time the crew was selected, the Halifax Citizen referred to them as "Our Boys".

international rowing regatta to be held in Philadelphia in September, 1876, and special quarters were established on the Northwest Arm where the oarsmen were "put through a thorough course of training."[218] The Halifax Citizen of August 29, 1876, presented a resumé of how "Our Boys" had come to represent Halifax in the race:

> The death of George Brown dampened somewhat the ardor of boating men, and the Halifax Boating Club, by which he had been backed in the Scharff and Morris races, ceased to exist. But there were gentlemen who thought that at least an effort should be made to win fresh aquatic laurels, and with that object they organized the 'Fishermen's Rowing Association'. Some of the best men of the city are on the charter roll. A meeting was called and it was decided to enter a crew for the race at Philadelphia. Some $4,000 were required to put the matter through in shape, and the amount was promptly guaranteed.

When the Halifax crew defeated the "Paris crew" in the first heat, the St. John rowing enthusiasts, huddled around the telegraph office, were amazed.[219] There was much excitement in Halifax on the day of the final race against a Thames crew from England. A crowd began to assemble in front of the telegraph office at two o'clock in the afternoon and, by five o'clock, "Hollis Street was black with people all anxious to know the result."[220]

> At 5.08 the announcement was made that the race was started, and then the interest became intense. Very little was said, but anxiety was manifest on every face. At about half past five the bulletin in the telegraph office window announced that the Thames crew had won. The announcement was received with incredulity, and every

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[218] Halifax Citizen, August 29, 1876. Quoted from the St. John News.

[219] Ibid., September 4, 1876/ Quoted from "a St. John despatch to the Chronicle." "The news of the Halifax crew's victory created great surprise here, and when first bulletined would not be credited."

[220] Ibid., August 30, 1876.

> one hung on anxious to get the real result. The hopes of the people turned out to be correct and a minute or two afterwards the welcome announcement appeared "First report incorrect, Halifax won" and then such a cheer went up that Hollis Street had never echoed before. Some went perfectly wild with excitement, throwing their hats in the air, etc.[221]

Although the crew from Halifax was first over the finishing line, the crew from England was awarded the race on account of a foul which, in fact, hindered the crew from Canada more than it did their opponents. However, in the hearts and minds of most Haligonians, the victory laurels belonged to the "Our Boys" crew and plans for a lavish homecoming reception were reported in the newspapers daily until the actual event on September 19, 1876.[222]

The exploits and performances of Edward (Ned) Hanlan made delightful reading for rowing enthusiasts both within Canada and internationally, and throughout his career he remained a journalist's "dream". Hanlan first became Canada's single sculls champion in 1874[223] and, over the next decade, he rowed in three hundred and fifty events and lost on six occasions only,[224] feats which the press often reported in detail.

Hanlan was already a popular sporting figure in Canada and the

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[221] Ibid.

[222] The Halifax Citizen reported the preparations and proceedings for the celebration on a daily basis. A detailed account of the welcome to the Halifax crew which was published in the Halifax Citizen of September 20, 1876, has been reproduced in Appendix C.

[223] Nancy Howell and Maxwell L. Howell, Sports and Games in Canadian Life, 1700 to the Present. (Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 1969), p.119.

[224] Robert S. Hunter, Rowing in Canada Since 1848. (Hamilton: Davis-Lisson Ltd., 1933), p.28.

United States[225] before travelling to England to compete for the honour of Rowing Champion of England. In Toronto, Hanlan's home town, the newspapers covered the preparations for the race in detail for weeks in advance and the Toronto Globe even included a detailed map of the course over which Hanlan and the English sculler, William Elliott, rowed.[226] The news of Hanlan's victory was sent via cablegram to many Canadian newspapers, and the Toronto Globe of June 17, 1879, introduced their detailed analysis of the race by a series of headlines on the front page:

THE GREAT RACE

EDWARD HANLAN VICTORIOUS

THE CANADIAN CHAMPION OF ENGLAND

Hanlan Leads the Race from Start to Close

AND WINS BY ELEVEN LENGTHS

The Most Magnificent Race Ever Rowed

AN IMMENSE CONCOURSE AND INTENSE ENTHUSIASM

(Special Cablegram to The Globe)

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[225] Globe, Toronto, August 14, 1876; August 10, 1878; October 4, 1878; Hunter, op.cit., p.28. Hanlan rowed against John Hawdon in England in May prior to his championship race with Elliott. The news of Hanlan's victory was sent by cable and on the day after the race the Toronto Globe reported how the announcement was received in the city: "In the early part of the day the newspaper and telegraph offices were besieged by people anxious to know the result of the race, and when the bulletin announced that the Toronto man had won, a feeling of intense joy prevailed.... The Mayor despatched the following cablegram to Hanlan:- 'Toronto sends hearty congratulations. Jas. Beatty, Jr., Mayor.'" (Globe, Toronto, May 6, 1879)

[226] Ibid., June, 1879 issues.

Newcastle-on-Tyne, June 16.

> The Canadian's greatest event of the aquatic season has come-off, and Canada is again victorious, her champion having once more won pretty much as he pleased, not a little to the astonishment of the Tyne-siders, many of whom, perhaps, expected to see their man beaten, but thought that the race would at all events be a close one.

The Globe devoted approximately half of the front page to descriptions of the race, which included cabled despatches from the Associated Press, the Newcastle Daily Chronicle, as well as comments from other Canadian newspapers.[227] Many congratulatory cablegrams were sent to Hanlan from various parts of Canada and the Free Press of Ottawa expressed the thought that Hanlan should be knighted.[228]

The impact of rowing on Canadian society during this period was largely the result of the support and encouragement given to that sport by the press. The sport was popular across Canada by Confederation as "every reasonably sized town with sufficient water close by had its enthusiastic oarsmen and staged an annual regatta."[229] The prestige of Canadian oarsmen was so great in this period of the nineteenth century that the slogan in international rowing regattas became, "Beat the Canadian entry and take first prize."[230]

Perhaps as an offshoot of the general increase in participation in aquatic sports, swimming developed as a sport in the post-Confederation

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[227] Ibid., June 17, 1879. [228] Ibid.

[229] Cox, op.cit., p.286. Cox has stated, "If public interest, press coverage, international success and numbers of clubs are taken as measures of the status of a sport in a society, then rowing must be considered the major sport in Canada during the period 1868-1900."

[230] Howell and Howell, op.cit., p.18. Quoted from Frank G. Menke, The New Encyclopedia of Sports (New York: A.S. Barnes, 1947), p.314.

period. For many years, most communities had to be content with the natural bathing facilities of lakes or rivers as swimming baths. Apparently, Montreal still had only one "swimming bath" in 1874, as an announcement appeared in the Montreal Gazette that Mr. Kilgallen, "the enterprising proprietor of the only public bath we have," was retiring from business.[231] The editor advocated that the City Council purchase Kilgallen's facilities as "it would tend to public good to have such a place of easy access to the poor and their children."[232]

Facilities were no better in Toronto and, in 1875, the press of that city, supported by public opinion, lamented about the lack of a safe and convenient public bathing facility.[233] Walter Armour built baths near the Union Station[234] which were opened to the public in June, 1876, but the editor of the Globe still pressed for free swimming facilities:[235]

> As has often been remarked, suicides are numerous and numbers increase in the very hot weather.... It is well known that frequent bathing has a direct influence on all the passions, the passion of homicide as well as others. We should like, therefore, to see free swimming baths.

The Dolphin Swimming Club was organized in Toronto in July, 1875,[236] but

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[231] Montreal Gazette, May 26, 1874. [232] Ibid.

[233] Globe, Toronto, April 23, 1875. One month later an interesting suggestion to solve the lack of facilities for bathing appeared in the Globe under the heading "Ladies bathing": "We believe if any enterprising individual would inaugurate the system of bathing machines, which, driven a short way into the water and left there till signalled for removal, afford a comfortable place for dressing and undressing...." A more practical suggestion appeared in a letter from "Bather" who suggested that bathing boxes should be placed along the shore on the Island (Ibid., May 24, 1875).

[234] Ibid., May 26, 1875. [235] Ibid., June 21, 1876.

[236] Ibid., August 3, 1876.

practised in natural bathing places until the Wiman Swimming Baths, on the eastern end of Toronto Island, were opened a few years later.[237]

In response to this announcement of the formation of a swimming club in Toronto, the editor of the Halifax Citizen[238] wrote a lengthy discourse on the need to organize a club in Halifax:

> It seems pretty evident that we are not to have public baths provided by the City Council, and perhaps it would hardly be reasonable to ask for such luxuries until a little money is found to expend on our streets. It is necessary therefore, if we are to have any facilities for salt water bathing within easy reach of our people, that private enterprise should provide them. We believe that if proper steps were taken for the organization of a swimming club, hundreds of young men would be found ready to join it. ...when cricket clubs, baseball clubs, curling clubs and other co-operative societies can afford to spend what [sic] amount in the aggregate to large sums every year for promotion of sport and healthful exercise, we see no reason why this most popular pastime should not be pursued and promoted in the same way.

This appeal had its effect, as one gentleman wrote and stated that, if a swimming club was formed, he would place "at their disposal, free of charge, suitable premises on the Dartmouth side of the harbor, with attendants."[239]

Safe swimming facilities were apparently lacking in Winnipeg as a comment appeared in the Winnipeg Free Press of April, 1880, that "the drowning season is nearly here - it is remarkable for the good items it supplies for the papers."[240] A year later, a letter was written to the editor of that same newspaper which stated that "it is rather a strange thing that in the midst of so much enterprise, none of our

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[237] Howell and Howell, op.cit., p.113.

[238] Halifax Citizen, August 10, 1876. [239] Ibid., August 11, 1876.

[240] Winnipeg Free Press, April 19, 1880.

monied men should ever have thought of building a bathing establishment."[241] Such comments did indicate the concern of citizens.

The novelty of the early bicycles or "velocipedes" caught the attention of the newspaper journalists and there were frequent references to this form of locomotion. In February, 1869, the Daily Colonist of Victoria announced that a consignment of velocipedes was on its way to Victoria from Paris and, in explaining the manner in which a three-wheeled machine was used, the writer stated that "the foot propels the vehicle at a locomotive rate of speed over any ordinary road."[242] By the next month, velocipedes were being "exercised on Beacon Hill" at a speed of about a mile every three minutes, which impressed the owners of the Daily Colonist so much that they ordered six two-wheelers for the newspaper carriers to use.[243] However, a year later, the interest in this novel form of transportation and fun had apparently subsided as, according to the Daily Colonist of May 10, 1870, they were not even seen in Victoria's gymnasiums.[244]

In Toronto, however, the velocipedes had become an important mode of transport which was looked upon with apprehension by the editor of the Globe[245] in 1869:

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[241] Ibid., August 11, 1881. Winnipeg's Louis Bridge Bathing Station on the Red River had been established by 1900, and on August 19, 1900, over one-thousand swimmers were in attendance (Kevin G. Jones, "Sport in Canada - 1900 to 1920," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1970), p.329).

[242] Daily Colonist, Victoria, February 17, 1869.

[243] Ibid., March 9, 1869. After he extolled the advantages of the velocipede, the editor commented, "...besides, Velocipedes never require to be fed."

[244] Ibid., May 10, 1870.

[245] Globe, Toronto, April 17, 1869.

> VELOCIPEDOMANIA is spreading to an inordinate extent. So long as their use was confined to the rinks, it was well enough, but now that they are making their appearance in scores on the sidewalks, they have got to be a nuisance. Complaints are heard on all sides, of the narrow escapes made daily by women and children, and when one looks at one of the unmanageable things wiggling along, in their eccentric fashion; making women and children rush frantically in all directions, the complaint is not to be wondered at. If our city authorities could lay aside their petty quarrels for the nonce, and pass a little by-law on the subject, they would be doing good service.

As the cyclists became more adept and their machines more roadworthy, this unfavourable attitude on the part of the press changed to one of encouragement. Early bicycle meetings and competitions received favourable press coverage,[246] especially after the formation of the Canadian Wheelmen's Association in 1882,[247] as newspapers in general reflected the Canadian people's enjoyment of the bicycle. Women also rode, but this became a more common occurrence following the advent of the "safety" bicycle in the 1880's and after ladies were admitted into bicycle clubs.[248] In "The Women's Pages" of Athletic Life in 1896 it was stated that "there are so many women buying wheels nowadays that no less than three large schools have been started in Toronto with the object of meeting the wants of would be riders."[249]

Evidence that there was a general change in the attitude of

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[246] Ibid., June 20, and July 5, 1881; August 1, 1882.

[247] Ibid., September 3, 1882.

[248] M. Ann Hall, "A History of Women's Sport in Canada Prior to World War I," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968), p.89. In Winnipeg, a ladies' bicycle club was formed in 1896 (Winnipeg Free Press, July 17, 1896).

[249] Athletic Life, V.3 (April 1896), p.169. The writer of this article added "the only objection that many people have to seeing women on bicycles is that they so seldom appear graceful" (Ibid., p.170)

editors of newspapers and magazines, as well as the general public, from the introduction of the velocipede to the development of the popular safety bicycle, was seen in an article in Athletic Life[250] in 1895:

> Bicycling as a pastime has probably exercised the public mind to a greater degree than any other sport of ancient or modern times. Looked upon first as a harmless vagary of a few hair-brained enthusiasts, it suddenly assumed the dimensions of a "terrible innovation threatening the wholesale destruction of law and order," till now, public opinion having changed with kaleidoscopic celerity, it is regarded as a most delightful and health-giving pastime and a distinct boon to those engaged in all classes of business.

Golf, which was developed as a sport when the Montreal Golf Club was formed and constructed a course at Mount Royal in 1873,[251] was another outdoor activity praised by the press because of the healthful benefits. The Toronto Golf Club, which was established in 1876 but did not have its own course until 1882,[252] was the subject of an extensive article, complete with line drawings, in a Saturday edition of the Toronto Globe in 1890.[253] This article, which explained the details of the game of golf and the organization of the club, was only one of several features on different sports which appeared in the Globe in the 1890's.[254] These articles were an excellent means of acquainting

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[250] Ibid., V.2 (October, 1895), p.171.

[251] W. Perkins Bull, From Rattlesnake Hunt to Hockey. (Toronto: The Perkins Bull Foundation, George J. MacLeod, 1934), p.191.

[252] Joseph T. Clark, "Golf in Canada," The Canadian Magazine. V.26 (No.43, November 1905), p.44.

[253] Globe, Toronto, May 17, 1896.

[254] Supra., p.106.

Canadians with the rules and skills of various sports, as well as the peculiar language associated with them:

> How many people in the city know of the existence of the Toronto Golf Club or know anything of the game its members play? Golf! What is it? You ask a golfer, and he will carry you off your feet with his talk of "puts" [sic], "niblicks" and "tees". As well may the greenhorn attempt to translate the vernacular of the curling rink as gleaned from a golfer, except at great expenditure of pertinacity and patience, an understanding of the beauties of this other Scottish game. For golf has a language of its own, like all other long-established devices for athletic entertainment and exercise. In this attempt to explain the game to the readers of THE GLOBE... if I succeed in showing that the game is far removed from plebeian "shinny", [golfers] may extend forgiveness, for, be it known, and take warning, you cannot hurt the Golfer more cruelly than by exclaiming with a glow of sudden intelligence suffusing your countenance, "oh, yes, I understand; it's a sort of shinny."[255]

Winter recreational and sporting activities also thrived in popularity and participation as a result of improved communication. The skating rinks continued to be the centres of winter social activities and, with reports of costume balls and masquerade carnivals making good "copy", the journalists supported these activites on skates by writing about them in glowing terms.[256] Editors of newspapers occasionally published letters which described the activities of skating carnivals, and included a lengthy list of those in costume and the characters they portrayed.[257]

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[255] Globe, Toronto, May 17, 1890. The journalist stated that, "a disgruntled tennis player, when asked what he thought of golf, replied:- 'Confounded game; knock a ball into a bush and hunt for it all day.'"

[256] Roxborough has stated: "Sometimes, early sports writers were seemingly drowned in their flow of words. This tragedy probably involved a Hamilton scribe, who in 1867 described a skating carnival as 'a promiscuous gathering of glacial rovers who, in all imaginable garbs will flit about the rink as if moved at the will of someone controlling the varying gyrations with a fairy wand.'" (Roxborough, op.cit., pp.211-212)

[257] Montreal Gazette, January 24, and March 6, 1867.

The grace and beauty of figure skating captured the attention of journalists and there were frequent reports in the 1880's to the effect that "a favourite feat of the skilled skater is to cut on the ice all the figures from one to nine."[258] In 1888, it was reported that the Amateur Skating Association of Canada had been formed to "perfect, perpetuate and establish on a firm basis speed, art, and science skating."[259] The championship meeting, which was to be held at the Victoria rink in Montreal in February, 1888, had speed and "fancy" skating as a part of the competitive program.

The location of the first game of ice hockey in Canada has been the subject of controversy and debate for many years[260] but, since its introduction in the mid-seventies, this winter activity has been most popular. By 1886, a national association, the Amateur Hockey Association of Canada, had been formed, although its function at that time was primarily the organization of hockey in the province of Quebec.[261] The cup donated by Lord Stanley in 1893[262] for the premier hockey team in Canada soon became a coveted trophy which facilitated much rivalry between teams. After Queen's University of Kingston was defeated by

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[258] Globe, Toronto, December 23, 1882.

[259] Ibid., January 21, 1888.

[260] For a detailed discussion see Cox, op.cit., pp.227-230; Foster Hewitt, Hockey Night in Canada. (Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1968), pp.3-4; Howell and Howell, op.cit., pp.33-35; Lindsay, op.cit., pp.41-44; Menke, op.cit., p.569; and Roxborough, op.cit., pp.137-142. Infra., p. 242 ff.

[261] Cox, op.cit., p.231. The affiliated teams at that time were Quebec, Ottawa, Montreal A.A.A., Crystals and Victorias.

[262] Roxborough, op.cit., p.143.

Montreal for the Stanley Cup in 1895, the editor of the Kingston News expressed disappointment over the lack of moral support from the newspapers of Toronto.[263] The sports editor of the Globe[264] replied:

> So far as The Globe, at least, is concerned, there has been no "gusto" displayed in telling the story of the defeat of the Queen's team. On the contrary, the reverse was a matter of regret, as showing that the standard of the game in this Province is not nearly as high as we had believed. The decisive defeat of the Bank of Commerce team emphasized this disparity between the strength of Ontario and Quebec clubs. The Globe is a newspaper, and its reports are not dictated by the childish prejudices that cause The News to see in every visiting club an enemy that must be met with the axe.

A ten-page article entitled "Hockey in Eastern Canada" was published in a Dominion Illustrated Monthly in 1895 and outlined the development and skills of the game, as well as the rules and regulations.[265] The author, R.Tait McKenzie, prophetically concluded the informative article by stating that hockey had so many advantages that it would become Canada's national winter-game.[266] In January, 1895,

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[263]"The Toronto papers have been recounting with great gusto the defeat of Queen's by Montreal for the Stanley Cup. Queen's was never in great favor in the city of fires and boodie [sic] investigations, but when our boys go up regularly and take all the honors in football and hockey it makes the western men very angry. Hence the satisfaction expressed over the defeat of the representatives of their Province in hockey." (Globe, Toronto, March 16, 1895, cited from the Kingston News, March 14, 1895)

[264]Ibid. The defeat of the Bank of Commerce team of Toronto occurred in the final game for the bank championship of Canada played on March 11, 1895. The Bank of Montreal team of Montreal defeated the Toronto representatives 12 goals to 2 (Ibid., March 12, 1895).

[265]R. Tait McKenzie, "Hockey in Eastern Canada," Dominion Illustrated Monthly V.3, (1895), pp.57-64.

[266]Ibid., p.64. McKenzie, a prominent physical educator, listed the following among some of the many good points about ice-hockey: "Men of thirty and even over can take part... the outfit is cheap... the well-covered, well-lighted rinks now render the players independent of

Harper's Weekly included an extensive illustrated article on hockey in Canada.[267] The Canadian author explained various aspects of the game and related how "within the last twenty years we have watched its evolution from the humble shinny of school-days into that game whose attractions have won approval and imitation far beyond our narrow borders."[268] These two articles, in leading magazines of the time, did much to enhance the status of the sport. International matches between Canadian and United States teams were introduced at approximately the same time the articles were published,[269] and the scope of this sport became much wider from that period on.

Hockey in the Maritimes benefited from faster means of communication in the 1890's. James G. Harrison, who captained the St. John Amateur Athletic Association hockey team when it won the championship of the Maritime Provinces in 1896, has stated that the first organized hockey played in St. John was in the early nineties.[270] The hockey league consisted of four teams, the St. John Athletics, Mohawks, Victorias and the Bankers. It was not long before teams from outside of the Maritime provinces were invited to travel and play against the Maritimers. However, the schedule of league games in the eastern provinces was sometimes

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weather or daylight... it would be difficult to find a better exercise for developing the legs, back and loins, and a man must have acquired sound wind to be able to stand an hour of it."

[267] William McLennan, "Hockey in Canada," Harper's Weekly, V.39 (January 12, 1895), pp.45-46.

[268] Ibid.

[269] Globe, Toronto, December 31, 1894, and January 2, 1895.

[270] Evening Times-Globe, St. John, April 16, 1958.

so organized that invited clubs found it necessary to decline many invitations. Mr. Fred P. Magee, the Secretary of the St. John Hockey League, had his invitations to the Montreal Hockey Club declined on several occasions:[271]

Montreal, Dec.24, '97

Dear Sir,

Your letter of December 15th. was read at committee meeting of our club and after considerable discussion decided that (although we would like to) we could not as yet make any definite arrangements as regards a game with your team. The number of Championship and other engagements prevent us looking so far ahead, but I feel sure that later in the season by communicating with us we may be able to get in a game with your team either here or in St. John.

Believe me
Yours very truly
Signed And. N.M. MacKerrow
Hon. Sec. M.H.C.

However, when Magee became secretary of the Canadian Winter Port (C.W.P.) team of St. John during 1897, he received a favourable reply to his suggestion that his club visit Prince Edward Island. The President of the Abegweit Hockey Club of Charlottetown wrote:

> ... we would like very much to have your team visit the Island this season about the first or second Tuesday in February, and we feel confident you could arrange enough matches to almost cover your expenses, viz. one with the Victorias of this City, one with Summerside of that place and one with our team. We will guarantee you $75.00 for our match providing you play us on Tuesday evening. The Victorias would play you on Wednesday and you could go to Summerside and play them on Thursday. The Victorias and Summerside ought to be able to guarantee you between $40 and $50 each.[272]

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[271] Fred Magee, Papers (Saint John Hockey Club; St. John Hockey League). Manuscripts from New Brunswick Museum, Archives Section, St. John. For similar reasons, the Montreal Hockey Club could not accept an earlier invitation in February, 1897.

[272] Ibid. (Correspondence from L.B. McMillan, President, Abegweit Hockey Club, Charlottetown, Prince Edward Island, December 29, 1897).

Other clubs in the Maritime provinces were anxious to play matches against the hockey teams of St. John.[273] The secretary of the Amherst Hockey Club wrote to the St. John Hockey League requesting that his club be included in the league in the 1898-1899 season.[274] It appeared, from subsequent correspondence, that Amherst was not included in the league as Douglas sent a telegram[275] to Magee in March, 1898, which stated:

> What date can you come. We want a crack at champions. As I have reported you will be here do not disappoint me now.

Arrangements were subsequently made for representative clubs from St. John to play the Canadian Winter Port's team at Amherst as soon as a "cold snap" ensured good ice for the game.[276]

The improved means of communication, especially the more extensive use of the telegraph, facilitated faster and more efficient scheduling of matches; this was an important factor in the development of organized hockey in the Maritimes.[277]

Canadian ice-carnivals became popular tourist attractions as well

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[273] Ibid. In the 1897-1898 season there were letters to Magee from Amherst and Halifax, Nova Scotia, and Moncton, New Brunswick.

[274] Ibid. (Correspondence from J.R. Douglas, Secretary, Amherst Hockey Club, Amherst, Nova Scotia, November 8, 1898) Douglas stated: "...our team is very anxious to get into your league this winter and we would like exceedingly to be advised when the committee to set dates and make arrangements meets as we will if you think advisable send down a man to represent us in putting our case before you."

[275] Ibid. (Canadian Pacific Railway Company's Telegraph, March 3, 1898, from J.R. Douglas).

[276] Ibid. (Correspondence from J.R. Douglas, March 11, 1898).

[277] Ibid. Included within these manuscripts are numerous letters and telegrams which indicated the extensive use of the postal and telegraphic services to expedite arrangements for exchange visits and league matches between hockey clubs of the Maritimes.

as providing good fun and merriment for the local residents. In 1882, the members of the Montreal Snowshoe Club initiated proposals whereby all winter clubs would co-operate to organize an ice-carnival in that city.[278] In January of the following year, the gala events of snowshoe races and processions, curling bonspiels, trotting events, toboggan runs and sleigh parades were held.[279] The inauguration of the Ice Palace was the highlight, and multi-colored lights in Dominion Square illuminated the gigantic structure, which boasted a ninety-foot central column.[280] The next Montreal winter carnival featured an Ice-Castle of similar dimensions to that of the previous year, and an illustration of this appeared in Harper's Weekly in February, 1884.[281] The favourable publicity these winter carnivals received attracted visitors from various parts of Canada, the United States and Europe, and the sports of tobogganing, snowshoeing, curling, skating, hockey, ice-trotting, ice-boating and, later, skiing, became widely known and appreciated. Another article appeared in Harper's Weekly in 1894,[282] the publication of which coincided with the Quebec winter carnival, recalled some of the activities and excitement of carnivals held in previous years:

> One must attend the winter carnival in Canada to appreciate its beauties. There is an exuberance in the very air that infuses every spectator with the hilarity of the hour. The carnival usually extends over a week, and the days are devoted to contests and exhibitions of

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[278] Jenkins, op.cit., p.409. [279] Ibid.

[280] Ibid., p.410.

[281] John A. Krout, Annals of American Sport (New York: Yale University Press, 1929), p.305. The illustration, which appeared in Harper's Weekly of February 9, 1884, was an engraving from a photograph.

[282] Caspar W. Whitney, "A Canadian Ice Carnival," Harper's Weekly, V.38 (February 10, 1894), pp.126-127.

> the different kinds of sports indigenous to Canada. Of course the site which first attracts all visitors is the ice palace. No one can possibly have any conception of the splendor of this immense castle, built of solid blocks of clear ice, until he has seen it. Fancy its transcendent glory, with the sun making a myriad prisms of its sides and roof, and then picture to yourself what a glorious sight it must be at night illuminated by thousands of electric lights, each shining like a diamond on the tiara of a queen!

Throughout the nineteenth century, then, there were several significant developments in communications which indirectly affected the subsequent development of recreation and sport in Canada. With the exception of the passing on of information by human speech in direct conversation, the handwritten letter or printed newspaper was the only means of conveying information and messages to and from places outside and within British North America until the first telegraph lines were installed in 1846. Although many people had been skeptical of the telegraph, it soon became an important communications media, especially as an adjunct to the news-gathering sources of the periodical press. However, overland telegraphy did not solve the problem of the lengthy delay in receiving information from overseas, and it was not until 1866 that the Atlantic cable enabled messages to be transmitted and received beneath the sea from North America to Europe. The third period, from the introduction of submarine telegraphy to the end of the century, saw the consolidation and improvement of the technological innocations in the communications industry: more telegraphic networks and improved transmission, the introduction of the telephone and, most importantly, a more regular and efficient periodical press. The printing and publishing industry developed significantly throughout the nineteenth century and newspapers, journals, magazines, books and catalogues all exerted considerable

influence on the social life of Canadians.[285]

Recreation and sport, as an integral part of the social life, was directly influenced by these technological changes within the communications media. As the efficiency of information gathering and dissemination improved, more recreational and sporting activities were included in the periodical press. Increasingly throughout the century, editors of the periodical press, especially daily newspapers, devoted more columns to those news items which the public liked to read. Much of that material embraced reports of sporting matches, events, competitions and races as well as general information about the recreations of fellow Canadians.

As the scope of information sources broadened, the pastimes, games and sports of the people in other regions and provinces were duly reported in the local press. Thus, sporting enthusiasts had a greater awareness of what was going on in the sporting world and, equally as important for the development of sport, had suitable means of communication to utilize that cognizance and arrange to be included as participants or spectators. The postal system, which had vastly improved the means of expediting letters by the end of the century, the telegraph and the telephone facilitated teams and individuals to combine or compete in sporting activity without taking days, weeks, or months to make arrangements. In this regard, the technological developments in communications had a substantial influence on the developments in sport throughout the nineteenth century.

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[283]An important aspect of communication which had a considerable influence on the developments within recreation and sport throughout the nineteenth century was the published or printed advertisement. Handbills, posters, classified advertisements and sales catalogues were important. Guide-books for sports were also available and the Spalding Athletic Series was popular in the 1890's and cost ten cents each. These shall be discussed in later chapters in relation to sports equipment and facilities.

CHAPTER IV

RECREATIONAL AND SPORTING EQUIPMENT

The transformation from the early pastimes and games of Canadians at the beginning of the nineteenth century, to the organized sport which was in existence by 1900, reflected the changes in society brought about by the inventions and technological innovations of that one hundred years. Technological changes in the fields of communication and transportation influenced the development of sport by making sporting enthusiasts aware of what was happening in other villages, towns and cities, and by improving the efficiency of travelling to participate in recreational and sporting activities. Similarly, the evolution or invention of various articles of sporting equipment played a significant part in the development of sport because these instruments were, in many cases, an integral component of the activity.

The equipment for the activity, and the activity itself, were inter-dependent variables, and change within one subsequently created a necessary, or at least a desirable change in the other in order to facilitate the continued development of the sport.[1] Many of the changes in sporting equipment were gradual and involved only minor refinements. Others were more distinct and were regarded as inventions worthy of patent. Changes in equipment were important, but the impact they had on the development of sport was also governed by the extent to which the

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[1]An example of this point was the changes made in baseball following the introduction of the catcher's glove or mitt. Prior to this innovation, the catcher had to stand far beyond the batter in order to catch the pitched ball after the first bounce. The protection the glove offered enabled the catcher to stand directly behind the batter, thereby improving the skill and spectacle of the sport.

instrument and articles could be manufactured. Therefore, the transition in manufacturing from craft to industry, or from "hand-made" to "mass-produced", was an important element.[2] Production of equipment on a large scale tended to reduce the cost of equipment and also facilitated the development of the concept of "uniformity" which became important as the codes, rules and regulations governing sporting competition between two or more individuals or teams gradually evolved.

Since the inception of the Canadian Patents Office in June, 1824, there have been many patents related to sports equipment and facilities.[3] Not all of these patented inventions were brought to fruition, let alone manufactured to any great extent. However, the patents indicated the type of sporting equipment designed, and the nature and degree of change throughout the century.[4]

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[2]The aspect of manufacturing as a part of industrialization is discussed in Chapter VI. However, within this chapter, the manufacture of specific items of equipment relating to various sports is studied.

[3]Most Canadian patents may be found in the following publications: Canada, Patent Office, List of Canadian Patents from the Beginning of the Patent Office, June, 1824, to the 31st of August, 1872. (Ottawa: Maclean, Roger and Co., 1882); Canada, Copyright and Patent Offices, The Patent Office Record. The first edition of The Patent Office Record was published in 1873, and is currently published on a weekly basis under the authority of the Commissioner of Patents. Some important patents in the period 1824-1872 which were related to sports equipment were filed in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick and have not been published. These may be found in their original form in the files of the Canadian Patent Office in Ottawa. A list of these patents, which relate to ice-skates mainly, is included within Appendix F.

[4]The July 1, 1869, edition of The Patent Office Record includes a list of Canadian Class Titles taken from the Classification Manual prepared for internal use within the Patent Office. Of the 401 major classifications, the following were found to include patents relating to sporting equipment or facilities: 2 Apparel; 15 Brushing, Scrubbing and General Cleaning (Curling Brooms); 20 Building; 33 Geometrical Instruments; 35 Education; 36 Boots, Shoes and Leggings; 54 Harness; 58 Horology; 62 Refrigeration; 73 Measuring; 88 Optics; 89 Ordnance; 95 Photography; 114 Propelled and Buoyant Marine Structures; 115 Marine

The early settlers, especially the officers of the garrisons, probably brought their cricketing equipment with them, as this had been a popular activity in England early in the eighteenth century.[5] This sport was remarkable for its static nature with respect to the method of play and the equipment in use. An equipment innovation was introduced by members of the Toronto Cricket Club in 1853 when they "imported, through Mr. Henry Rowsell, a 'catapult' or bowling machine."[6] Unless this machine was very adaptable, it was probably not used for very long because, by 1860, a basic change in the style of bowling had taken place in North America. Amateur cricketers, who had been using an under-arm method of bowling, began to adopt a round-arm action[7] which increased the speed of the released ball. Cricketers in British North America were exposed to this type of bowling during the tour of Fred Lillywhite's English

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Propulsion; 152 Spring Wheels and Tires; 178 Communications Systems; General; 179 Telephony; 180 Motor Vehicles; 181 Acoustics and Sound Recording and Reproduction; 185 Mechanical Motors; 197 Typewriter Machines; 237 Heating Systems; 282 Amusement and Exercising Devices; 273 Amusement Devices, Games; 280 Land Vehicles; 305 Land Vehicles, Wheel Substitutes; 317 Electricity; 360 Bed, Chair, and Seat Cushions, Surfaces and Upholstery.

Most sports equipment and facilities appeared in Classes 272 and 273, of which there were 44 and more than 150 sub-classes, respectively (Canadian Patent Office, Classification Manual, Class 272, and Class 273).

[5]S.M. Toyne, "The Early History of Cricket," History Today V.5 (No.6, June 1955), p.357.

[6]Globe, Toronto, June 4, 1853.

[7]Charles Blancke, "Cricket in America," Harper's Weekly V.35 (September 26, 1891), p.725. Professional cricketers in England had been using this tyle of delivery for several years (Ibid). Over-arm bowling had replaced both under-arm and round-arm bowling by the 1890's (Allan E. Cox, "A History of Sports in Canada, 1868-1900," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), p.73).

"professionals" in 1859.[8] In 1863, the Toronto Cricket Club hired a professional bowler[9] who probably dispensed with the bowling machine which had been purchased a decade before, to concentrate on teaching his fellow club-members the improved style.

Much of the equipment for cricket was imported and, although there was no semblance of a "sporting goods" store until late in the century,[10] advertisements appeared in newspapers which indicated that supplies were available. These advertisements sometimes appeared under rather unusual column headings. Levey Brothers of King Street, Toronto, announced in 1861 that imported Dark and Page cricket bats and balls were available within a classified advertisement headed, "Jewellery and Fancy Goods."[11] Equipment was sold through the premises of a "bookseller and stationer" in Fredericton in 1865.[12]

Imported merchandise was expensive and, because the nature of the game required numerous different items of equipment,[13] a considerable amount of borrowing and lending was conducted between teams and clubs.[14]

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[8] Ibid.

[9] Globe, Toronto, June 5, 1883.

[10] A retail outlet more closely akin to a sporting goods store began to appear after the advent of the "safety" bicycle in the 1880's.

[11] Globe, Toronto, June 26, 1861. Copies of the revised rules of the Marylebone Cricket Club were also available from this source at that time.

[12] Headquarters, Fredericton, August 9, 1865.

[13] This was one of the arguments which the advocators of lacrosse used: "Cricketing materials, such as bats, balls, leggings, gloves and other et ceteras, are very expensive, while the cost of Lacrosse materials for a club of twenty is less than a complete outfit for a single cricketer." (Globe, Toronto, October 26, 1867)

[14] It was necessary for cricketing materials to be borrowed from the Toronto Cricket Club for a match between "tailors" and "shoemakers" even though the "tailors" had a "regularly organized cricket club." (Globe, Toronto, August 20, 1861)

This was not always a satisfactory compromise as, in 1882, it was reported in the Edmonton Bulletin that the reason Fort Saskatchewan could not accept a challenge from the Edmonton Cricket Club was because "they have been unable to practice as the Edmonton Club has their bats and wickets borrowed [sic]."[15] In order to encourage the formation of new teams and clubs, more established cricket organizations sometimes donated equipment. The Pipestone Cricket Club, soon after their formation in 1871, were presented with some equipment from a gentleman of the district as well as a bat from the Moosomin Cricket Club.[16] These donations must have been sufficient for play as the club members decided to wait until winter to buy, "when equipment could be purchased more cheaply from England."[17] According to the club's account book of 1888, the equipment was subsequently purchased from England.[18]

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[15]Edmonton Bulletin, June 10, 1882. The police team at Fort Saskatchewan was a progressive club as the Edmonton Bulletin reported on June 6, 1893, that they had purchased a cocoanut matting, from which the balls played true and came off faster than from grass. According to the newspaper report, this was the first time cricket had been played on cocoanut matting in the North-West (Helen M. Eckert, "The Development of Organized Recreation and Physical Education in Alberta," (Unpublished Master of Education degree, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1953), p.44).

[16]Pipestone Cricket Club, Minute and Account Book 1887-1890 (Unit No.256, Saskatchewan Archives Board, Legislative Assembly, Regina).

[17]Ibid., Minutes, June 11, 1887.

[18]Ibid., Accounts, March 16, 1888. The entry listed the equipment and price and included 2 bats at 12/6 each; 3 "best" bals at 6/- each; 3 practise balls at 5/- each; 2 leg guards at 8/6 each; 2 pairs of batting gloves at 7/6; 1 bag for 10/6; and a score book for 1/-. The equipment was purchased from "Lillywhite's" in England for a ten per cent discount, but the five per cent duty brought the total cost to $29.75 in Canadian funds. In 1890, 2 bats and a practise net were purchased for $9.50.

Throughout most of the century, cricket materials were imported from England as there were very few manufacturers of cricketing equipment in Canada. A Montreal manufacturer exhibited some of his products in the Paris (France) Exhibition of 1867, and these elicited the following remarks:

> Mr. Peacock, of Montreal, exhibits a set of cricket stumps, bails and five bats, which are well and strongly made, though somewhat clumsy. There would appear to be a considerable demand for these things in Canada.[19]

Roscoe C. Barnes, of London, Ontario, patented an improvement on a cricket bat in 1878 when he introduced the idea of inserting a piece of rubber to act as a cushion between the bat and the handle.[20] A wedge-shaped tongue, running longitudinally through a groove in the handle, was patented by William and John B. Heighington, of Toronto, in 1889.[21] These two inventions lessened the jarring effect when the ball hit the bat.

At that time, cricket balls were quickly knocked out of shape. Thomas Prest, a Toronto manufacturer of cricket balls, patented an improved cricket ball which "practically cannot be knocked out of shape."[22] The ball was composed of pieces of cork which were compressed into a solid mass before string or thread was wound around it. A leather cover

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[19]Personal correspondence from Melvin Small, Examiner, Canada Patents and Copyright Office, Ottawa (December 27, 1969). Material from Record Group 17, II-5-13, Department of Agriculture, Public Archives of Canada, Ottawa.

[20]Canadian Patent Office, Patent 8763 (Roscoe C. Barnes, London, Ontario: 1878). Although an examination of patents provided an indication of the type of equipment in use, it could not be ascertained to what extent these items were manufacturered and used by the public.

[21]Ibid. Patent 32746 (William Heighington and John B. Heighington, Toronto: 1889).

[22]Ibid. Patent 35859 (Thomas Prest, Toronto: 1891).

was then stitched around it.[23]

There did not appear to be anything distinctive about the clothing of cricketers, although "whites" or "creams" were correct attire for important matches towards the end of the period.[24] A photograph of the English professional team which toured North America depicted the players wearing white trousers and spotted shirts, but this may not have been what they wore onto the field.[25] The uniformity of both competing teams in cricket was apparently confusing at times because a journalist for the Kingston Chronicle reported in 1835 that "the players were indiscriminately mixed [and] we knew not how to distinguish the two parties - would it not be advisable for them in future to distinguish each by a particular colour?"[26] Cricket caps were available in the stores later in the period,[27] so perhaps they were available in team colours which would have alleviated the problem.

The old Indian game of baggataway became known as "La Crosse" as "the game was first witnessed on this continent by the Jesuit Missionaries who gave the sport its name because the chief implement used, the

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[23] Ibid. Leather covered balls were being manufactured and it was the process of compressing cork and winding it with thread that was being patented.

[24] Colin F. Whiting, Cricket in Eastern Canada (Montreal: Colmur Co. Reg'd., 1963), p.29. The photograph of an international match at Toronto, 1872, indicated that most players were in white clothing.

[25] Peter L. Lindsay, "A History of Sport in Canada, 1807-1867," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), p.296. The source of the illustration was, Eric Parker, The History of Cricket (London: Seelby Service and Co. Ltd., n.d.), p.136.

[26] Kingston Chronicle, August 8, 1835.

[27] Halifax Citizen, June 2, 1876. An advertisement stated that baseball and cricket caps were available at Ross' Hat Store for twenty cents.

curved netted stick, resembled a bishop's crozier."[28] The game remained one which was played primarily by the Indians in a high-spirited fashion until the 1840's.[29] The "crosse" or stick used by the Indians was rounded at the end and laced with deerskin thongs.[30] The length of the stick was approximately three feet and the pocket formed by the crossed thongs varied in size from a foot across, to one which was just large enough to hold the ball.[31] The construction of the pocket of sticks used by some tribes did not facilitate the throwing of the ball, and so the feature of the early Indian game of baggataway as played by these tribes was running rather than passing.[32]

Within a few years of the British North Americans taking up the game in the 1840's,[33] a slight pocket at the hooked end of the stick had evolved to facilitate passing.[34] The Montreal Lacrosse Club, which was formed in 1856, developed a dodging and passing game and were using a heavier and longer stick with a wide, triangular net of gut.[35] Dr. George Beers' book of 1869, The Game of Lacrosse,[36] described "the crosse" in

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[28] Ted Stanwick, Lacrosse. (New York: A.S. Barnes, 1940), p.1.

[29] Nancy Howell and Maxwell L. Howell, Sports and Games in Canadian Life, 1700 to the Present. (Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 1969), pp.30-31.

[30] W. Perkins Bull, From Rattlesnake Hunt to Hockey. (Toronto: The Perkins Bull Foundation, George J. MacLeod, 1934), p.355.

[31] Mike Law, "The Development of Lacrosse in Canada," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), p.2.

[32] Ibid.

[33] Lindsay, op.cit., p.116.

[34] Perhaps the strength and endurance required for the running type game of baggataway was too great for the new white enthusiasts and they attempted to pass the ball, hence the change in the design of the stick.

[35] George T. Vellathottam, "A History of Lacrosse in Canada," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968), p.26.

[36] Beers published this under the name "Goal-Keeper".

detail. The stick was usually of hickory or ash and Beers stated, "a long crosse is to be preferred to a short one; as enabling [sic] the player to throw the ball to a greater distance, and check with more facility."[37] Moose and eel skins were sometimes used for weaving the bagged end, but cat-gut was the material most generally used by both the Indians and the whites.[38] Beers also described how to weave the crosse in detail,[39] and delineated the method of "bagging the crosse":

> Bagging the Crosse. - This is not allowable by some clubs as it is not used by the Indians, but as it facilitates "dodging" to a great extent by keeping the ball on the Crosse better when an opponent strikes it, it is thought proper to mention it here. It is made either by slackening the material used, or if gut, by soaking it near the handle in water, and placing a round weight on it so as to cause it to sink. Allow the two ends of the Crosse to rest on something, so as to cause the gut to be weighed down. Remove the weight when the gut is perfectly dry, and the Crosse is "ready for action".

The reference to a "bagged crosse" not being allowable by some clubs was an important aspect of the game which was not resolved for several years.[40] On Dominion Day, 1867, the laws of lacrosse were drawn-up by the Montreal Lacrosse Club.[41] The laws, which constituted the only recognized rules of the game, stated that "the Crosse may be of any size to suit the players, but the woven net-work must not be bagged."[42] In a comment on this rule, a journalist of the Montreal Gazette suggested that the rule was not explanatory and that a certain amount of "bagginess"

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[37] W. George Beers, The Game of Lacrosse (Montreal: M. Longmore and Co., 1860), p.8.

[38] Ibid., pp.9-10.

[39] Ibid., pp.10-12.

[40] It was not until 1900 that the ban against the bagged stick was removed (Winnipeg Free Press, May 5, 1900; Law, op.cit., p.10).

[41] Montreal Gazette, July 17, 1867.

[42] Ibid.

or concavity should be legal.[43] It was suggested that the rule would be more meaningful if it stated that the concavity had to be less than a certain number of inches when the ball was on the crosse. When the National Lacrosse Association of Canada was formed at the lacrosse convention in September, 1867, it was stipulated that the strings of the crosse must be flat when the ball was not resting on them.[44] The sticks of this period were long, with broad and lightly strung webbing.[45]

The type of ball in use by the 1860's had also changed from the stuffed piece of deerskin which had been used in baggataway.[46] Beers wrote that although sponge balls were used, the solid India rubber ball was preferred because it could be thrown further and was harder to stop.[47] The laws adopted in 1867 stipulated that "the ball shall be india rubber sponge, not less than eight, and not more than nine inches in circumference."[48]

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[43] Ibid., July 26, 1867.

[44] Ibid., October 15, 1867. It was also recommended that the leading string should not be elevated above the stick (Ottawa Times, October 1, 1867).

[45] Hugh Templin, Fergus, the Story of a Little Town (Fergus, Ontario: The Fergus News-Record, 1933), p.266.

[46] Bull, op.cit., p.355. Bull has stated that a rounded wood-knot was also used. The deerskin ball was usually stuffed with hair (Jesse E. Middleton, The Municipality of Toronto - A History V.2 (Toronto: The Dominion Publishing Company, 1923), p.749).

[47] Beers, op.cit., p.9. A reference to the distance the ball can be "flung" was indicative of the change to the passing game.

[48] Montreal Gazette, July 17, 1867. Although the journalist of the Montreal Gazette questioned whether there should not be a weight specification (Ibid., July 26, 1867), no reference was made to this effect in the rules adopted at the first annual convention in September (Ibid., October 15, 1867).

The clothing worn by the Indians during the game comprised heavy furs and skins for protection from the sticks of opponents. However, not all the blows were received in the actual course of the game because "if the braves showed any slackness in play, it was afterwards the privilege of squaws to give them a thorough beating."[49] In The Game of Lacrosse, George Beers stated that the dress of the players "should consist of a fine flannel shirt, pants and cap; moccassins [sic] or light shoes and a belt."[50] Beers recommended light footwear:

> Moccassins [sic] or light shoes facilitate speed in running, and agility in "dodging" etc., besides being easier to the feet than boots.[51]

Moccasins were not always suitable under wet conditions. After a match between the Montreal Lacrosse Club and a combined team from Ottawa in 1866, the following observation was recorded:

> ... The Ottawa men were at a great disadvantage wearing moccasins, which on becoming speedily wetted on the soft ground, gave their owners many a fall. The Montrealers wisely wore light shoes or boots.[52]

The club uniform was an interesting aspect of the development of the sport.

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[49] Bull, op.cit., p.355. [50] Beers, op.cit., p.5.

[51] Ibid. Beers also recommended the use of an athletic support: "The Belt should be worn on the loins, so as to pass over the navel, and must not be too tight or too loose. A belt is intended to support the abdomen, liver, etc. and greatly assists the player in running.... A light sash, such as are worn in Canada in winter, would be preferable to a belt, as it is much easier to the loins. A gentleman has proposed the general use of sashes for clubs in Canada, as being more Canadian-like, and also looking better. This is a very good idea, and deserves notice."

[52] Montreal Gazette, September 29, 1866. "The Ottawa men wore red and white tights, and blue, red, or white caps, and were shod with moccasins. The Montrealers wore loose grey pants; some having white caps and body clothes." (Ibid.) The National Lacrosse Association rules adopted at Kingston in 1867 stipulated that spiked shoes were not to be worn (Ibid., October 15, 1867).

The attire of the Montreal players was a marked contrast to that of the Indians:

> The Montrealers wear their natty uniform, white caps, white jackets with red cuffs, gray knickerbockers with red cord, and black stockings. The Indians appeared in varied costume, barefooted for the most part, with trousers of modest dye, scarlet and yellow pre-dominating, motley headgear, and shirts to match.[53]

A distinctive team colour was necessary in this sport to facilitate recognition of one's own players, and one of the first purchases of a newly-formed lacrosse club was the uniform.[54] The use of numbers to distinguish individual players became a rule of the Canadian Lacrosse Association in 1900.[55]

Although Beers himself was a goal-keeper and included an extensive section on the art of goalkeeping in his book of 1860, he made no reference to the dimensions of the goals.[56] Flags were used to demarcate the area[57] but, at the lacrosse convention, a motion to place a tape or cord above the six feet high flags so as to guide the umpires in their decisions was lost after considerable discussion.[58] The distance between the flags was reduced to six feet instead of the commonly used distance of seven feet.[59] Although it was recommended that the distance from

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[53] Ibid., July 4, 1867.

[54] Soon after the Toronto Lacrosse Club was formed in June, 1867, they purchased uniforms and appeared in an exhibition match before one thousand people "in their natty uniform consisting of white cap, white tight-fitting shirt trimmed with blue, light grey knickerbockers, and brown hose." (Montreal Gazette, July 10, and July 31, 1867)

[55] Law, op.cit., p.9.

[56] Beers, op.cit., pp.34-38.

[57] In a report of a Dominion Day match in 1867, reference was made to a ball being "thrown squarely through the flags." (Montreal Gazette, July 4, 1867)

[58] Ottawa Times, October 1, 1867.

[59] Ibid.; Montreal Gazette, October 12, 1867.

goal to goal be not less than one hundred and fifty yards,[60] this dimension was not practical for all playing areas, and it was decided that the distance should be "agreeable to the Captains of both sides."[61]

The use of two sticks for goals caused some problems with regard to the legality of scoring on certain occasions. Perhaps it was because of some dubious decisions in past games that one of the rules the National Amateur Lacrosse Association introduced in 1882 was that, to score a goal, the ball had to be put through the front of the flags.[62] Even after that rule was enforced, the absence of a goal net resulted in the awarding of some doubtful decisions:

> The Shamrocks and Torontos were struggling desperately to break a tie in the historic grounds at the corner of Wellesley and Jarvis Streets. Each needed one goal to win and the excitement was at a fever heat. At last, a Shamrock home player got away for a shot. So far as the crowd could see, it went nowhere near the goal posts, but, the goal umpire happened to be an Irish sympathizer - in fact he was one of the leading Irish citizens in Toronto of that day. Up went his hand. The onlookers gasped. He had given the victory to the visiting team. Then a roar answered his action, but the goal umpire did not wait to explain his decision. He lept [sic] the fence and fled for his life followed by a mob of indignant Toronto supporters.[63]

At the convention of the Canadian Lacrosse Association in 1898, it was ruled that goal nets must be used for all matches played by clubs within their organization.[64] A model of the net to be used was shown at the

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[60] Montreal Gazette, September 27, 1867.

[61] Ibid., October 15, 1867.

[62] Globe, Toronto, June 3, 1882. The National Lacrosse Association incorporated "Amateur" in its title in that year.

[63] Law, op.cit., p.10 - quoted from Fred Jacob, "Is Lacrosse What It Used To Be," Maclean's Magazine (June 15, 1926), p.10.

[64] Globe, Toronto, April 9, 1898.

meeting and the Toronto Globe reported that delegates realized "the necessity of some contrivance that will as nearly as possible prevent any mistakes by umpires."[65] Soon after the goal nets were introduced in eastern Canada, they were used for matches in Winnipeg.[66]

One of the several attractions of lacrosse was the relatively low cost of equipment required.[67] A stick could be purchased in 1867 for fifty cents,[68] which made it reasonably available to the young people: "The boys take wonderfully to it and the crosse may be seen accompanying the scholar as regularly as the bundle of books."[69] Towards the end of the century a wide range of lacrosse sticks was available; from a boy's stick for twenty-five cents to "Lally's Men's Special" for $1.85.[70] Lacrosse sticks were usually made by Indians, and Patrick "Joe" Lally was one of the most prominent manufacturers in Canada towards the end of the century.[71] Patents for Lacrosse sticks began to be filed in the

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[65] Ibid. The journalist added that "wherever the nets have been in use they are declared to be indispensable."

[66] Winnipeg Free Press, June 28, 1898. The goal nets ordered from the east were to be used for the first time on July 1, 1898.

[67] In an article on the progress of lacrosse in Toronto, the Globe reported in 1867 that, compared with cricket, "the game economises time and money." (Globe, Toronto, October 26, 1867)

[68] Montreal Gazette, October 23, 1867.

[69] Globe, Toronto, October 26, 1867.

[70] T. Eaton and Company Limited, Toronto, Bicycle and Summer Needs Catalogue, 1897, p.23. The range was extensive and included: Lally's Men's Special No.1 ($1.40); No.2 ($1.00); Boys' No.1 (.90¢); Montreal youth's (.85¢); Boys hawthorne (.50¢). Lacrosse balls sold for thirty cents.

[71] E.J. Dopp (editor), "Lacrosse Records and Rules of Box Lacrosse," (Unpublished pamphlet, Canadian Lacrosse Association, 1950), p.1. Dopp has stated "every Lacrosse stick that has been made and marketed since the white man took over the game from the Indians, has been made by Indians."

first decade of the twentieth century[72] and perhaps this was because of the new regulation which permitted bagged sticks. Lally took out a patent in March, 1905, for an improvement in the lacrosse stick, and several other patents were filed by Indians from Caughnawaga, in Quebec, in succeeding years.[73]

Baseball, which originated in the United States in the 1840's, was first played with a bat which was nothing more than a stout paddle with a blade two inches thick and four inches wide, and a dressed handle.[74] The ball consisted of a bullet, or piece of cork, or a metal slug with string or wool yarn wound tightly round it. The surface was seldom covered except for stitching to prevent it unravelling.[75] In the early baseball games not even the catchers wore gloves to protect their hands.

The catchers stood about twelve feet behind the plate and received the ball on the first bounce. But whenever runners were on bases, it was necessary for a catcher to move closer in order to receive

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[72]The earliest patent for a lacrosse stick found by the writer in the files of the Canadian Patent Office was one awarded to Patrick Joseph Lally of Cornwall, Ontario, on March 28, 1905 (Patent 92423). The object of the invention was to provide a stick which permitted the ball to be thrown with much greater speed, and consisted of "a lacrosse stick of ordinary shape, wound with a plurality of longitudinal leaders..."

[73]Other patents were: Patent 102562 (Decaire Ceel, Caughnawaga, Quebec: 1906); 108860 (Thomas Decaire, Caughnawaga: 1907); 108859 (Peter Terinhioton, Caughnawaga; 1907).

[74]John A. Krout, Annals of American Sport. (New York: Yale University Press, 1929), p.115.

[75]Ibid.

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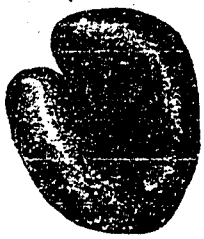
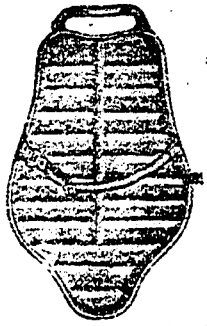
We present to the public this season the finest line of baseball mitts and gloves ever put on the market. They are made by Draper & Maynard, the makers of the well-known D. & M. boxing gloves and striking bags, which will be sufficient guarantee as to quality, and the prices are unequalled by any other dealer.



Catcher's mitts, Boys', at 15c, 25c, 50c; men's, 75c, $1.00, 1.50, 2.00.
First-base mitt, 65c; first-base glove, $1.25; infielder's gloves, 50c and 75c.
Spalding's mitts, No. 3, $1.00; No. A, $2.00; No. 5 or $3.00, professional.



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No 4

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No. 54, boy's bat	5c.
No. 53, "	8c.
No. 0XE, polished	20c.
No. 0X, ash tips	25c.
No. 01, Spalding's black bird, willow	40c.
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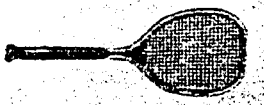

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Tennis balls, Jeffries', 25c each.
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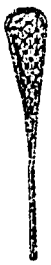
Tennis poles, painted, $1.25 pair; English poles, $1.75; oak finish, $1.75.

FOOTBALLS.

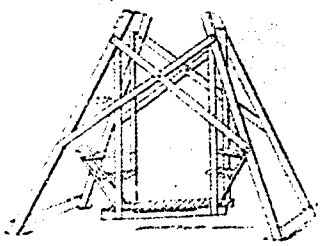
Our football covers are made of the best leather used for that purpose, and have given the best of satisfaction. The bladders are made of the best quality rubber, and each bladder is thoroughly tested before sending out. We positively will not replace bladders which accidently burst or puncture.

No. 3, Association	$1.50	Bladders only, No. 5	$0.75
" 4, "	1.75	Covers only, No. 3	1.00
" 5, "	2.00	" " " 4	1.10
Bladders only, No. 3	0.50	" " " 5	1.25
" " " 4	0.65	Football shin guards, per pair,	0.45



LACROSSE.

No. 1, Youths', Lally's	$0.75 each
No. 1, Boys', Lally's	0.85 "
Lally's special home	2.25 "
McInerny's professional cloth cord	3.00 "
Lacrosse balls	0.50 "



Lawn Swing, $5 00.

Plate 7. Catalogue advertisement for sporting equipment, 1899.

the ball quicker and prevent runners from stealing bases.[76] Protective equipment soon became acceptable, and the glove, face-mask and chest protector began to appear.[77] However, the rule that a batter was out on the third strike if the catcher received the pitched ball on the first bounce remained in effect until 1879.[78] By this time, the protective equipment of the catcher enabled him to stand directly behind the bat and receive the ball in front of his body.[79]

Fielders other than the catcher surreptitiously adopted gloves for protection, although this practice was regarded by some of their colleagues and the spectators as "sissy" and "unmanly".[80] The early gloves were flesh-coloured and skin tight in an attempt to conceal their use but, in 1877, A.G. Spalding began to use a heavily padded glove.[81] Bull[82] has stated that, as late as the 1880's, players in Canada used to dust rosin on their hands to prevent them from being split open by fast balls. After a game was played in Donald in 1889, it was reported in the Medicine Hat Times that the weather had been "quite cold and the basemen used gloves".[83] However, by 1900, the gloves of both the

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[76]Wayne H. Bishop, "The Evolution and Development of Baseball in the United States," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968), p.36. Since the development of rules and style of play basically followed what was happening in the United States it is appropriate to refer to equipment innovations in that country.

[77]The Winnipeg Free Press on December 4, 1915, stated that 'Dug' Allison of the Cincinnati Red Stockings was the first catcher to wear a glove in baseball in 1869. A catcher's mask, invented by Fred Thayer, a lawyer of Boston, was first worn in 1877 by James Tyng of the Harvard Baseball Club (Bull, op.cit., p.121).

[78]Winnipeg Free Press, December 4, 1915. [79]Bishop, op.cit., p.55.

[80]Ibid., p.36 - cited from A.G. Spalding, America's National Game (New York: American Sports Publishing Co., 1911), pp.475-480.

[81]Bishop, op.cit., p.36. [82]Bull, op.cit., p.324.

[83]Medicine Hat Times, February 9, 1889.

catchers and the fielders had evolved from the early "pancake" models to ones which were suitable for fielding in the faster game.[84]

Mass-production methods of manufacturing helped to standardize the production of baseball equipment.[85] When baseball organizations and leagues became established, an important element of pennant matches was that regulation equipment had to be used. The balls had to be of uniform weight and size[86] and the Toronto Globe of May 5, 1877, carried a notice to this effect:

TO DEALERS IN BASEBALL GOODS

> It having come to my knowledge beyond doubt that a wholesale Fancy Goods Firm, dealing in Toronto, Ontario, Canada, has offered for sale and sold to the Trade a Base Ball, representing same as the "Mahn Base Ball," No.1, double cover, adopted by National League, International Baseball Association, and Tecumseh Club, Champions of Canada, as the ball to be used in 1877 (and are now offered for sale retail in this city and other towns), the said ball is a fraud and not as represented, and would caution all dealers and baseball players from buying same, and would advise all who have bought to return to Toronto, as some who have seen the difference have already done.
>
> No Base Ball is the genuine adopted double cover ball unless it is stamped "Double-cover, adopted by the League, Mahn Pat. May 21, '72. One ounce molded rubber, No.3 - J.H. MAHN, Manufacturer." Has three inches of yarn passing outside of cover, sewed with double thread, Ball feels slightly soft if pressed.
>
> The imitation Ball sold has not No.3 stamped on it, nor the yarn outside cover, but a cheap grade of Ball, about one-third less price than the regular adopted Ball.

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[84] Carl T. Felker, "Baseball - Saga of Strength Through Stability," The Sporting Goods Dealer (February, 1969), p.111.

[85] John R. Betts, "The Technological Revolution and the Rise of Sport, 1850-1900," Mississippi Valley Historical Review V.4 (1953), p.244.

[86] George A. Van Horn was reputed to be the first manufacturer of baseballs by machines and started this method of manufacture in the 1850's.

In 1886, a meeting of the Judiciary Committee of the Canadian League of Provisional Baseball Clubs was held in Toronto with representatives from the Toronto Club, Hamilton Clippers, Guelph Maple Leafs and Londons in attendance.[87] Part of the business meeting included a request to the secretary to write to the makers of "approved balls" and ask on what terms they would supply the league.

Baseball equipment generally became more practical and cheaper as the popularity of the sport spread across the North American continent. Charles Morris, of Cincinnati, Ohio, filed for a Canadian patent on a bat which merged from a round handle into an oval section at the striking point.[88] Apparently this feature had no advantages because bats featured in the catalogues were rounded at the striking end. Spalding bats were sold by the T. Eaton Company of Toronto and there was a wide range of selection. In 1899, the prices varied from five cents for a boy's bat to thirty-five cents for the top-grade,which was "'The Spalding' men's model, made of fine selected timber, oil finish, Model B."[89] Other equipment included catcher's mitts which ranged from a leather mitt, for one dollar, to the Spalding "league mitt, made of the finest hog skin" for five dollars.[90] Catcher's masks and body protectors were also advertised.[91] The Spalding "Official League" ball sold for one dollar each

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[87] Globe, Toronto, January 30, 1886.

[88] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 31,541 (Charles N. Morris, Cincinnati, Ohio: 1889).

[89] T. Eaton and Company, Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1900, p.225.

[90] Ibid.

[91] Masks ranged from 75 cents for a youth's model to $5.00 for a league "sun protecting" mask. Body protectors made of rubber and inflated with air were $8.00 to $10.00.

but cheaper ones were available.

An indication of the degree to which this sport had become organized may be ascertained from an examination of the variety of items and articles which were available from retail outlets. In addition to items previously mentioned, the following were included in a retail catalogue of 1900:[92] infielder's gloves, hand-forged toe and heel plates, pitcher's box plates, home plates, bases, indicators for umpires, scoring books, and baseball guides for the season.

Baseball equipment was readily available at a reasonable cost and this factor helped the sport attract many participants. Without this important protective equipment and the uniformity of balls and bats, the sport of baseball would not have developed to the highly structured stage it reached at the end of the nineteenth century.[93]

There were isolated instances when golf was played in Canada in the early nineteenth century, and Clark[94] has stated that at the time when Quebec fell into the hands of the British, Scotch officers played outside the walls on the Plains of Abraham with the clubs they had brought with them. However, it was not until after the middle of the century

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[92]T. Eaton and Company, Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1900, p.215.

[93]This sport also had a tremendous spectator following and, in 1889, a "Baseball Bulletin Board"was patented in Canada to keep the spectators informed. One aspect of this invention included "a diagram of a baseball field, with the position of the players marked thereon, and a series of indicating markers, each bearing a number, or other distinguishing mark to denote a player, and a catch or pin for attachment to the board, whereby the progress of a game may be set as despatches are received from the field." (Canadian Patent Office, Patent 31343 (W. Crozier and Frederick A. Duneka, New York: 1889))

[94]Joseph T. Clark, "Golf in Canada", The Canadian Magazine V.26 (No.1, November, 1905), p.43.

that golf became a game with a considerable following.[95]

The histories of golf clubs and the golf ball are long and "curious" ones.[96] However, in nineteenth century Canada, the development of equipment did not exert much influence until the latter years of the century. The golf sticks and clubs used in Canada were fairly crude, but when they were not available whittled sticks and even garden hoes were used on occasions.[97] By the 1870's the names given to individual clubs tended to reflect the quality and nature of the courses on which they were used as they were called "mud spoon, driving putter, baffing spoon, sand iron and track irons."[98]

The changes which occurred in the golf club in Canada were the result of changes in the type of ball in use. Golf balls up until the 1880's were "featheries", which were hand-made by compressing boiled goose feathers inside a leather cover.[99] As the materials dried, the leather shrank and the rubber expanded, thereby forming a hard ball, capable of being driven 150 or 175 yards. When the Montreal Golf Club hired W.F. Davis as the club professional in 1881, the arrangement for his services was that he would receive five dollars a week. In addition, he agreed:

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[95] Howell and Howell, op.cit., pp.103-104.

[96] For details of the history of these items see, Frank G. Menke, The New Encyclopedia of Sports (New York: A.S. Barnes, 1947); Charles Price, The World of Golf (New York: Random House, 1962); and John S. Martin, The Curious History of the Golf Ball (New York: Horizon Press, 1968).

[97] W.V. Uttley, A History of Kitchener, Ontario (Waterloo: Chronicle Press, 1937), p.107.

[98] Henry Roxborough, One Hundred - Not Out (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1966), p.106.

[99] Carl T. Felker, "Golf - From First Feather to Modern Solids," The Sporting Goods Dealer (May, 1969), p.99.

"I am to get all that I can for making and repairing clubs and balls."[100] The charge for making up a ball was four pence and involved the process of carefully sewing a skin covering around a feather core.[101] However, "featheries" could neither withstand the blows of clubs nor the rigours of the ground very well, and the gutta-percha ball or "gutties", which were smooth, solid and more durable,[102] became an ideal substitute when introduced into Canada. It was soon found by the users of the "guttie" that an older, niched and marked ball tended to travel farther in flight than a new smooth one. A pattern of dimples and raised bumps was soon included as a part of the manufacturing process.[103]

The most important development in the process of golf ball manufacturing was the rubber ball wound with thread. Coburn Haskell and Bertram Work of Ohio patented their invention in Canada in 1898. The claim of the patent read:

> 1st. A ball, comprising a core formed with a rubber thread wound into spherical form under tension approaching the elastic limit, and a shell of "relatively hard inelastic material inclosing said core, substantially as and for the purpose set forth. 2nd. A ball, comprising a core composed wholly or in part of rubber thread wound under high tension, and a gutta-percha shell inclosing said core, substantially as and for the purpose set forth.[104]

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[100] The Royal Montreal Golf Club, 1873-1923 (Montreal: A booklet published by the Club, 1923), p.14.

[101] Ibid.

[102] Felker, "Golf From First Feather to Modern Solids," p.99. Although the gutta-percha ball was invented in 1848 by Dr. Robert Paterson of Scotland, it was not readily available in Canada until long after the mid-century. For a detailed description of the invention of the gutta-percha ball, see Martin, op.cit., pp.33-42.

[103] Ibid., p.100. The markings were made by the use of a mould.

[104] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 61,691 (Bertram G. Work, Akron, Ohio and Coburn Haskell, Cleveland, Ohio: 1898). Haskell has been given

This ball was so lively and travelled so far that golf courses had to be enlarged.[105] The usual cost of golf balls was thirty-five cents each, or $3.75 per dozen.[106]

In order to utilize the better balls to the greatest extent, changes were made in golf clubs. When feather balls were in vogue, wooden clubs with a thin neck and club-head were in use but, with the advent of the gutta-percha ball, a more compact and solid club-head was needed. Most golf clubs were imported from England until the beginning of the twentieth century,[107] although some were produced in Canada. In 1881 the Montreal Golf Club professional charged sixty cents for a club-head and fifty cents for making a shaft.[108]

Clubs used in Canada in the latter years of the century usually had a shaft made from hickory, with a leather-covered handle. The head of the club was of well-seasoned hardwood which was weighted with lead and faced with horn.[109] Six or seven clubs were used and included the

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most of the credit for this invention. The Haskell ball was originally wound by hand but John Gammeter of the B.F. Goodrich Rubber Company developed a machine to do this, which he patented in 1900. For details of these developments and their impact on golf, see Martin, op.cit., pp.42-54.

[105]Price has stated that this ball added twenty yards distance per stroke (Price, op.cit.).

[106]T. Eaton and Company, Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1900, p.216.

[107]Felker, "Golf - From First Feather Ball to Modern Solids," p.100.

[108]The Royal Montreal Golf Club, 1873-1923, p.14. Davis, the club professional, charged sixpence for putting new horn or lead on the club face, and for splicing and glueing.

[109]Globe, Toronto, May 17, 1890. One of the new clubs which was patented in the 1890's included the invention of William Jennings of Toronto: "The object of my invention is to devise a golf club superior in driving power to those ordinarily in use, and it consists essentially of a club, the head of which is constructed preferably of sprung steel, the

play club, putter, spoon, sand iron, cleek, and niblick or track iron.[110] Imported clubs from Scotland, and the North American brands of Morristown and Spalding ranged in price from one to three dollars.[111]

Golf was popular towards the end of the century and, in 1893, the Toronto Golf Club held regular competitions on Saturdays.[112] The increasing interest and enthusiasm in the sport was probably the reason why golf practising devices were invented and introduced at this time. Perhaps the short season for golf in Canada encouraged the English inventor of a "Captive-Ball Apparatus for Practising Golf" to patent his new device in this country in 1895.[113] This apparatus consisted of a ball attached to a cord which was, in turn, connected to a spring, for registering the force at which the ball was hit by the golfer. A more sophisticated item of golf practice equipment was patented in 1898 which, in addition to recording the range a ball would have travelled in flight, also registered the direction the ball would have taken as a result of the golf swing.[114]

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metal being so shaped as to leave resilient steel walls surrounding a central space which preferably has a metal spring or a filling of elastic material arranged therein." (Canadian Patent Office, Patent 47,555 (William T. Jennings, Toronto: 1894))

[110] Globe, Toronto, May 17, 1890.

[111] T. Eaton and Company, Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1900, and Globe, Toronto, September 26, 1898.

[112] Globe, Toronto, May 8, 1893.

[113] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 48,009, (Robert G. Graham, London, England: 1895).

[114] Ibid., Patent 60,499, (John G. Warren, Kent, England: 1898). The machine also automatically reset the "ball" after it had been hit.

The clothing worn for playing golf varied throughout the period. In the 1880's, as more tournament matches were organized, stringent regulations were applied to clothing by some clubs:

> Canadian golfers were required to wear red coats and white flannel trousers, with caps of the 'fore-and-aft' style.... It was compulsory that each Captain wear white gloves when making the first shot, after which he was privileged to remove them.[115]

Members of the Toronto Golf Club also made use of the locker rooms provided, as the Globe[116] reported in 1896, that a number of players "are now exchanging morning coats and patent leathers for the business-like golfing suits." However, by 1900, the popularity of golf was widespread and, as the sport had lost much of its exclusive association with the upper class,[117] golfing apparel was no longer an important feature of the game.

Another activity which, when first introduced, was usually played by the more wealthy members of the communities was lawn tennis. As the cost of equipment decreased and more public facilities became available, this sport was played by Canadians from all walks of life.

The modern game of lawn tennis was first played at a garden party in Wales in 1873 when Major Walter C. Wingfield presented a demonstration of his new game.[118] In July, 1874, a patent was awarded to Wingfield

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[115]Howell and Howell, op.cit., p.104, quoted from Canadian Sport Monthly, V.36, (No.2, June, 1949), p.35. The "plus-four" trousers for golf did not come into fashion until after the First World War.

[116]Globe, Toronto, November 7, 1896. No golf bags appeared in the illustrations accompanying this article. Nevertheless, they were available in this period and were in use.

[117]Cox, op.cit., p.135.

[118]John Durant and Otto Bettman, Pictorial History of American Sports. (New York: A.S. Barnes and Company, 1952), p.70.

in England for "A Portable Court for Playing Tennis"[119] and, soon after, he sold packaged equipment for the new game.[120]

Tennis was first introduced into Canada in an organized form when the Toronto Lawn Tennis Club was founded by T.S. Plumb.[121] The equipment for the first few years was imported from England. Racquets were framed with ash in a pear-shape and were loosely strung. In Lennoxville, the first game of tennis was played in the late 1870's using small, light bats, but heavier racquets were soon introduced.[122] The earliest racquets used in lawn tennis were lop-sided as they had more of the frame and strings on one side of the handle than on the other.[123] In 1883, a new shape of symmetrical design was developed and this new racquet was wide at the top and narrow at the "neck", that is, where it met the handle. The size of the racquet heads grew larger at

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[119]Margaret Ellis, "A History of Tennis," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968), p.35.

[120]Malcolm D. Whitman, Tennis Origins and Mysteries. (New York: The Derrydale Press, 1932), p.104. The package included two racquets, a bag of balls, netting, posts, and a set of rules and instructions for marking the court area (Ibid). In 1875, the Marylebone Cricket Club published the rules but, in 1877, the All-England Croquet and Lawn Tennis Club was established and formulated new rules which became known as "Wimbledon rules" because the club was situated in that suburb of London (J.G. Smith, Lawn Tennis (London: B.T. Batsford Ltd., 1953),p.116).

[121]H.G. MacKenzie, "History of Lawn Tennis in Canada," Athletic Life, V.1. (January, 1895), p.16.

[122]D.C. Masters, Bishop's University - The First Hundred Years. (Toronto: Clarke, Irwin and Company Limited, 1950), p.57.

[123]Carl T. Felker, "Tennis - Growth in U.S. Traces to 90 Years Ago," The Sporting Goods Dealer, (June, 1969), p.71. "This style of racket was particularly suited for out-strokes, but with the passing of that swing, the racket passed out of existence." (Ibid. quoted from Armond Van Pelt, The Sporting Goods Dealer, (November, 1939))

this time and "it was not until several years later, when the theory that the amount of cut depended on the expanse of stringing was thoroughly exploded, that the heads of the rackets used by experts were reduced in size and made round or oval in shape."[124]

Many tennis racquets used in Canada in the nineteenth century were imported from England and the United States, and in the 1890's prices ranged from one to eight dollars. An Eaton's catalogue of 1897 featured tennis items, and it was stated in the advertisement that "we use American goods entirely as we find them much better adapted to the climate".[125]

The first balls designed for lawn tennis were invented by John Heathcote, an Englishman, who realized that the vulcanized, soft-rubber ball in use was too light.[126] Heathcote covered the rubber balls with circular strips of flannel, but even the balls used in tournaments varied in weight, size, hardness and bounce.[127] The pieces of cloth were

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[124] Ibid. Although the racquet heads became smaller, there was still concern over cutting the ball. In 1904, a patent was taken out in Canada for a tennis racquet with an uneven surface formed by projections of knotted strings so that a cut or rotary motion could be more readily imparted to the ball (Canadian Patent Office, Patent 90268 (John E.H. Hyde, New York: 1904).

[125] T. Eaton and Company Limited, Bicycle and Bicycle Sundries, Special Catalogue, 1897, p.23. Racquets weighed from 12 to 15 ounces. In 1900, Eaton's advertised "we carry an assortment of leading makers of the world and can give you a racquet from $1.00 to $8.00" (Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1900, p.215). The importance of taking care of the racquet to prevent warping was soon realized as several racquet presses were patented. One of these was a combined racquet holder and press, designed to prevent moisture from affecting the strings (Canadian Patent Office, Patent 30,824 (George P.C. Holmes, Llangollen, Wales: 1889)).

[126] Whitman, op.cit.

[127] Ellis, op.cit., p.5. This type of ball was used in the All-England tennis tournament of 1880.

stitched together and glued to the ball but this was not effective as the covers came loose after a few games. The introduction of the seamless ball, with the cloth cover bonded to the rubber, provided the growing sport with a ball which was standardized and more predictable in flight and bounce.[128] The cost of tennis balls in the nineties ranged from twenty to forty cents.[129]

The "Wimbledon" rules of 1877 stipulated that the height of the net should be 3 feet 3 inches at the centre, with the posts supporting the net placed 3 feet outside the court area.[130] Since the designated court width at that time was twenty-seven feet, this meant that the net had to stretch thirty-three feet. In order to maintain as close to a uniform height as possible, varous net-tightening devices were introduced to solve the problem.[131] Nets and poles were available in retail stores and tennis enthusiasts could purchase this equipment for an initial outlay of less than five dollars.[132]

Tennis was a game which was most suitable for women to play, and

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[128] Ibid. The Spalding sporting goods company patented a process of covering tennis balls in 1921: "The process of covering tennis balls which consists in applying to a rubber centre an over-size cover of fabric and compacting said over-size cover down into a smooth snug fit upon the rubber centre" (Canadian Patent Office, Patent 208,269 (A.G. Spaulding [sic] and Brothers, Chicopee, Massachusetts: 1921)).

[129] T. Eaton and Company, Sales Catalogues, 1897-1900.

[130] Smith, op.cit., p.16.

[131] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 26,275 (John P. Helfenstein, Webster Grove, Missouri: 1887); Patent 47,716 (W.B. Hopkins, Washington, D.C.: 1894).

[132] T. Eaton and Company, Sales Catalogues, 1897-1900. Tennis nets of varying lengths cost from $1.50 to $2.75, and poles cost from $1 to $2.

they actively participated in this sport soon after it was introduced into Canada.[133] A report in the Fredericton Reporter of July 9, 1884, indicated the clothing recommended for women players:

> Tennis - If played by girls it should be played without corsets. Against a young fellow in flannels, a girl in stays and a dress weighted with the cumbersome protuberances which are now in fashion has no chance.... The proper tennis costume for a girl would be a Garibaldi shirt and a plain skirt, as light as possible, but girls do not really care enough for tennis to make any sacrifice of personal adornment for its sake.

Perhaps the enthusiasm for tennis among women in the Maritimes was lacking, but this was not so in the eastern provinces, where the number of women participants increased considerably.[134] Men's apparel for the sport was usually a "natty suit of flannel"[135] if one belonged to a club:

> The grounds of the Toronto Lawn Tennis Club present quite a brilliant appearance on a fine afternoon, with a number of ladies and gentlemen, either seated on the raised benches which command the courts, or grouped about the arbor, while various young men and maidens flit over the grassy sward - many arrayed in all the effective colours of the Club, crimson, blue and brown.[136]

Footwear for tennis was varied, although advertisements for tennis shoes appeared in the daily press throughout the nineties.[137] Although the cost of tennis shoes was relatively high, this did not deter people from

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[133] M. Ann Hall, "A History of Women's Sport in Canada Prior to World War I," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968), pp.72-74. Ladies participated in a tournament at Ottawa in 1881 (Ottawa Citizen, February 12, 1881).

[134] Hall, op.cit., pp.73-78. [135] Globe, Toronto, June 28, 1890.

[136] Howell and Howell, op.cit., p.117, quoted from The Week, Toronto, June 17, 1886.

[137] A.C. Morgan's store advertised that tennis shoes were available for $7.50 a pair (Winnipeg Free Press, May 31, 1893).

playing the game and tennis, within twenty-five years, became an organized sport and recreational activity with a considerable number of enthusiastic participants.

Although relatively few people participated in lawn bowling, a club was established in 1837 in Toronto. In its first year of formation, the Caer Howell Club had twenty-five members and, by club regulations, each member had to provide his own bowls.[138] George Elliott described the balls in use towards the end of the nineteenth century in an extensive article on bowling which appeared in The Canadian Magazine in 1902.[139] The white jack or "kitty" was usually made of porcelain or earthenware, although ivory was sometimes used. The diameter of the jack was two inches and the larger "bowls" were usually sixteen inches in circumference.[140] The material used for the bowls was lignum vitae or "wood of life", a tree which was native to the West Indies and the northern coasts of South America:

> The inner or heart wood, the duramen, is the part employed for the manufacture of bowls. It is of a dark, greenish brown colour, very hard and very heavy, the specific gravity being set down at 1.333. Bowls, therefore, will sink in water. The wood fibres are arranged in diagonal and oblique successive layers, and it is owing to this intricate arrangement, together with the density, that the wood and consequently the bowls cannot be split.[141]

The bias of the bowl was formerly achieved by loading the oblate side of the bowl with lead but, by the turn of the century, this was prohibited. As a consequence, the procedure of making the oblate half of the bowl

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[138] George Elliott, "Bowling on the Green," The Canadian Magazine, V.14 (September, 1902), p.518.

[139] Ibid., pp.513-523.

[140] Ibid., pp.518-519.

[141] Ibid., p.519.

smaller than the prolate half during manufacture on the lathe, and then adding two metal or ivory discs to identify the bias, was incorporated.[142] This was one sport where standardized equipment was a necessity for keen competition and, by the turn of the century, Elliott reported that "in the Dominion of Canada its devotees now number many thousands, and there are even a few female bowlers."[143]

A recreational activity which was played by men and women in pleasant surroundings was croquet, which had become very popular in England in the middle of the century.[144] Although a level, grassed surface was desirable for the game, it was not a necessity and so croquet equipment was really all that was required. The game was popular across Canada,[145] especially among women and, in 1866, Harper's Weekly described it as the greatest outdoor game for women yet invented.[146] Its impact as a social sport was considerable and, as it did not require strength, many women were skilful exponents of the game.[147] Croquet

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[142] Ibid. Bowls were numbered one to four according to the amount of bias.

[143] Ibid., p.523.

[144] Herbert Manchester, Four Centuries of Sport in America, 1490-1890. (New York: The Derrydale Press, 1931), p.160. Croquet, from the French word meaning "crooked stick," was similar to the English game of "pall mall", which was also being played in the seventeenth century. The popularity of the game of croquet revived in the 1850's in England (Menke, op.cit., p.818).

[145] Roxborough, op.cit., p.70. In Peel County in 1874, T.W. Duggan wrote in his diary: "Up to Bart's, played croquet with lamp till 10 o'clock!" (Bull, op.cit., p.263)

[146] Manchester, op.cit., p.160.

[147] "Moreover its courting and matchmaking qualities were considered beyond all praise!" (Manchester, op.cit., p.160)

sets with mallets of different lengths were available for purchase from retail stores[148] and, although the popularity of the game fluctuated over the years, many households had croquet sets which were used in private gardens, especially on long summer evenings.[149]

Another sport which was introduced into Canada late in the nineteenth century was basketball. The Canadian-born inventor of the game, James Naismith, developed this activity at the Young Men's Christian Association (Y.M.C.A.) Training School in Springfield, Massachusetts, in the 1890's.[150] Two members of Naismith's original basketball class at the college brought the game to Canada and first introduced it through the Y.M.C.A's.[151] Part of the attraction of the game was the simplicity of the equipment required. Naismith has stated that, at first, an ordinary Association or soccer football was used until 1894 when the Overman Wheel Company made a larger ball which was adopted as the official ball for the game.[152] The rules of 1894 stated that the ball

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[148]T. Eaton and Company, Bicycle and Bicycle Sundries Catalogue, 1900, p.22. Prices ranged from .65¢ for a set of four balls and five inch mallet, to $1.90 for eight balls and eight inch mallet.

[149]Roxborough, op.cit., p.70.

[150]Barry E. Mitchelson, "The Evolution of Men's Basketball in Canada, 1892-1936," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968), p.12.

[151]Ibid., p.28. In 1892, Lyman Archibald went to the Y.M.C.A. in St. Stephen, New Brunswick, and T.D. Patton was appointed as Director of Physical Education at the Montreal Y.M.C.A. Both men incorporated basketball into their Y.M.C.A. programmes.

[152]James Naismith, Basketball, Its Origin and Development (New York: Association Press, 1941), p.90. The approximate cost of Association footballs in 1893 was three dollars. The regulation basketball manufactured by A.G. Spalding and Bros. with a "Fine Leather Cover and best Red Para-Rubber Bladder cost four dollars in the United States."(James Naismith and Luther Gulick, Basket Ball (New York: American Sports Publishing Company, 1894), p.34)

should not be less than thirty inches, nor more than thirty-two inches in circumference.[153] In 1898 the weight of the ball was established at a minimum of eighteen ounces, and a maximum of twenty ounces. Apart from court space, the only other item of equipment required was the goals which, at first, were peach baskets. These were very frail,[154] so a cylindrical woven wire basket was soon introduced to replace them. Naismith has related how the goal net originated:

> In 1893, the Narragansett Machine Company of Providence, Rhode Island, manufactured a basket that was very similar to the one that is in use today. It was made of an iron rim and a cord basket.
>
> It was stated in the rules at first that the ball must stay in the basket in order to count as a goal; and since the basket was ten feet from the ground, there had to be some way of getting the ball out. When the goal was fastened to the gallery, the ball was easily retrieved by anyone who could reach over the balcony rail. When the basket was against the wall, however, it was sometimes necessary to use a ladder to get the ball. Later we made a practice of drilling a hole in the bottom of the peach baskets in order that a wand might be inserted from below and the ball might be punched out in this manner. Since the pole was often missing, we had to resort to many other devices. On account of the inexperience of the players, fortunately, the goals were few and far between.
>
> The Narragansett, realizing our difficulties, constructed a goal with the net entirely closed. When a goal was made, the ball stayed in the basket. To get the ball out of this basket, an ingenious device was installed. A chain was fastened to the bottom of the net and passed over a pulley on the brace that fastened the basket to the support. To empty the basket, the referee pulled the handle of the chain and the ball rolled out.[155]

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[153] James Naismith, op.cit., p.90. [154] Ibid., p.91.

[155] Ibid., p.92. The cost of these manufactured baskets with the release mechanism was $15.00 for a pair of indoor goals, and $30.00 for a pair of outdoor goals (James Naismith, Basket Ball (Springfield: The Triangle Publishing Company, 1893), p.19). The open-bottomed net was authorized for amateur championship play in the United States in the 1912-1913 season although they had been in use since about 1906 (A.M. Weyand, The Cavalcade of Basketball (New York: Macmillan Company, 1960), p.14).

The backboard was introduced in 1895 as a direct outcome of the actions of "overzealous spectators who gladly used any means to help their team win".[156] When the baskets were nailed to the lower edge of the balcony, spectators had the opportunity of deflecting the ball so that it either entered or missed the goal, whichever they wished. A regulation backboard of six feet by four feet was introduced to prevent such discrepancies.

The members of Naismith's original basketball team wore long gymnasium trousers and full sleeved jerseys, and other players of that time wore baseball or football pants, or full or knee length gymnasium tights with shorts over the top.[157] However, within a few years, basketballers were dressed in uniforms not unlike those worn today.[158] Light canvas athletic shoes with rubber soles were worn in the decade of the nineties and, soon after the turn of the century, a special basketball shoe was introduced.[159] The speed at which this game spread

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[156] Naismith, Basketball, Its Origin and Development, p.93.

[157] Mitchelson, op.cit., p.98.

[158] Ibid. Spalding Basket Ball Guides after 1900 featured these uniforms regularly and they included, in 1902: sleeveless worsted jersey, $1.25; duck knee pants with padding at the hips and knees, $1.25 or, the same but in heavy drill, .80¢; sateen knee pants with no padding, $1.25; worsted knee tights, $1.25; and stockings, $1.75. Low cut canvas shoes with rubber soles were advertised at between $1.50 and $3.00. Weyand has stated that sleeveless or quarter-sleeve jerseys were soon adopted (Weyand, op.cit., p.15).

[159] T. Hepbron (Editor), Spalding's Athletic Library - Official Basket Ball Guide (New York: American Sports Publishing Company, 1902), p.201. "A new shoe has been designed for basket ball players, one that cannot slip because of the unique construction of the sole, which is made of rubber with holes in it so as to form a sufficient suction when in contact with the floor to prevent slipping and yet not enough to interfere with the freest action.... The shoe sells for $4.00, and fills a long felt need. A team equipped with these shoes begins the games with a decided advantage over the opposing team."

across Canada was considerable and exemplified the extent to which organization and the willingness to provide suitable equipment at a reasonable cost could develop a sport.

For most of the nineteenth century, the football played in Canada resembled either soccer or rugby.[160] Neither of these games required very much in the way of equipment except for balls, as protective clothing, other than boots, was seldom worn. Footballs were imported from England in the mid-century period[161] and, as the basic outlay for the game was relatively cheap, the activity was enjoyed by many. The ball for rugby was of a rounded oval shape and, when a University of Toronto team visited Detroit and played a team from the University of Michigan in 1879, the Detroit Free Press described the ball as not being "a sphere, but an oblong arrangement about the size and shape of a large watermelon and very elastic."[162] In the 1890's, the price of footballs ranged from one to two dollars, although bladders could be purchased separately for fifty to seventy-five cents.[163] Purchasers of balls must have expected them to withstand considerable punishment, as the T. Eaton Company found it necessary to state the following in their catalogues of the 1890's:

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[160] Cox, op.cit., p.94.

[161] Joseph Robinson and Company of Toronto announced in the press that English leather-covered footballs in several sizes had arrived from England.

[162] T.A. Reed, The Blue and White - A Record of Fifty Years of Athletic Endeavour at the University of Toronto. (Toronto: The University of Toronto Press, 1944.

[163] T. Eaton and Company, Sales Catalogues, 1897-1900. Ankle pads and shin guards were also advertised at this time.

> Our football covers are made of the best quality of leather that is used for the purpose. The bladders are No.1 goods, and are thoroughly tested before they are sent, so if you burst or accidentally puncture your football, don't ask us to replace it free of charge as we positively will not replace loss....[164]

Rugby football in the 1880's was in a very confused state because of the varying rules in each of the three rugby unions: the Quebec Rugby Football Union (formed in 1882); the Canadian Rugby Football Union (1882); and the Ontario Rugby Football Union.[165] Canadian rugby began to differ from English rugby, and the style of the game developed in such a manner that protective equipment was desirable.[166] As a general rule, the development of this protective clothing first occurred in the United States and was adopted by Canadian players.[167] The headgear worn in the early years of rugby was merely to distinguish one team from the other, and was not designed for protection. However, by the end of the century many football players wore a protective device over their ears and a nose guard, both of which were held in place by straps around the back of the head.[168] An article about the development of protective equipment used in the American game appeared in the Toronto Globe in 1900

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[164] Ibid., Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1900, p.215.

[165] Frank Cosentino, Canadian Football - The Grey Cup Years. (Toronto: The Musson Book Company Limited, 1969), pp.13-14.

[166] Frank Cosentino, "The Development of Football in the United States and Canada From the Game of English Rugby," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968), p.51. Prior to these developments, in 1874 the playing rules of the McGill University Football Club stipulated the items of clothing which could not be worn: "no one wearing projecting nails, iron plates, or gutta-percha on any part of his boots or shoes, shall be allowed to play in a match." (Quoted from original documents pertaining to the McGill University Football Club, April, 1874).

[167] Ibid., p.46.

[168] Ibid.

and it was probable that similar equipment was used by Canadian players at that time:

> Each year produces new devices to render football less dangerous to players of the American game. Beginning with padded trousers and canvas jackets a dozen years ago, different articles have been added until he needs a leather helmet, rubber nose mask, leather shoulder pieces, padded shoulders and elbows, wrist guard, stomach protector, padded trousers, shin guards, elastic anklets, and padded ankle pieces on his shoes. Now some of the big university teams are protesting against the use of this armour - on the grounds that they are liable to injure a player tackling the wearer of all these devices.[169]

Most of this protective equipment was made from a specially prepared sole leather which was moulded and shaped with wool padding.[170] A report on some of this equipment which was manufactured by the Victor Sporting Goods Company, Springfield, Massachusetts stated that "the shoulder and collar bone guards protect both these important points, and while being strong and durable, are at the same time light and do not in any way interfere with free movements."[171]

Equipment for track and field events held during most of the nineteenth century was not standardized and competitors used whatever was available at the time. Prior to the first organized track and field meeting, which was the Toronto Athletic Games, in 1839,[172] running and other athletic events were usually the outcome of challenges for which the teams of the contest were agreed upon by the competitors.[173] Even towards

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[169] Globe, November 6, 1900.

[170] Carl T. Felker, "Football - Equipment Evolved as Game Changed," The Sporting Goods Dealer (July, 1969), p.146.

[171] Ibid.

[172] Lindsay, op.cit., p.138.

[173] Ibid., pp.138-139; Donald G. Ranson, "The History of Distance Running in Canada," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1970), pp.2-3.

the end of the century "articles of agreement" had to be signed because much of the equipment was not standardized. At the Lucknow Caledonian Games held in 1882, the following terms of agreement for a throwing contest were drawn up and signed by the participants:

> The match to consist of the following five contests:- Throwing heavy hammer, 16 lbs. weight, exclusive of handle, which must not be under three feet six inches above hammer head, three quarters of an inch diameter in thickness from iron to six inches from head, from which it must taper to one and a quarter inch at end. The light hammer head to weigh 12 lbs., handle to be of same thickness, but four inches longer. The heavy stone to be 21 lbs., a natural granite, or, other boulder picked from the wayside. The light stone to be 14 lbs. of a similar nature. The caber to be of heavy wood, 16 feet long, 8 inches at one end, and tapered to 4 inches at the other, and to be tossed under the Scottish-American rules.[174]

The problem of the varying weight of throwing implements had been evident for many years prior to these games. Mr. D. Ross of Toronto, for example, had written to the Toronto Globe in 1858 to urge the importance of having a uniform weight of stones and hammers in Highland games all over Scotland, England and North America.[175] Ross cited the example of the discrepancies in the weights of hammers, and stated that at games in New York the light-hammer weighed seven pounds and the heavy-hammer, sixteen; while in Boston the weights were ten and eighteen pounds, respectively. Ross concluded his letter to the editor by

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[174] Globe, Toronto, September 4, 1882. Excursions ran from Guelph, Southampton, Kincardine and London, as well as intermediate stations for these games and there was a crowd of over ten thousand people (Ibid., September 14, 1882).

[175] Ibid., October 9, 1858. Hammers of different weights were used at succeeding annual athletic carnivals in Montreal: in 1843, at the Montreal Athletic Games, the light-hammer weighed 10 lbs; at the Montreal Olympic Games in 1844, the weight of the light hammer was 8 lbs. (Montreal Gazette, September 29, 1843, and August 28, 1844).

stating that "with such material differences, it is impossible to decide as to the relative strength of competitors at a distance."[176]

In the seventies and eighties, the hammer was an iron ball attached to a wooden handle, usually of strong maple, about three and one half feet long.[177] In the 1870's the performer was compelled to throw from within a seven foot circle but, later, he was allowed to make a double turn preparatory to hurling the weight.[178] Later in the century, lead was also used for the hammer-head, and wire, instead of wooden handles were used. An advertisement in 1894 for a Spalding hammer, which featured a drawing of a sixteen pound hammer with a wire handle, stated that "this Hammer is practically indestructible, and its use avoids the vexatious delays occasioned by broken handles."[179]

Up until the formation of the Amateur Athletic Association of Canada (A.A.A.of C.) on December 14, 1883,[180] the organization of track and field meetings and carnivals had been in the hands of various bodies

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[176] Ibid.

[177] W.A. Hewitt, Down the Stretch (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1958), p.79.

[178] Krout, op.cit., p.197.

[179] James Naismith and Luther Gulick, Basketball. (New York: American Sports Publishing Company, 1894), p.2. The price of the 16 lb. hammers with wire handles was $7.50 for an iron ball, and $10.00 for a lead ball. Krout (op.cit., p.197) has stated that the wire handles had double grips after 1880 but the illustration accompanying the Spalding advertisement of 1894 did not indicate this development.

[180] Ottawa Citizen, January 3, 1884. "The object of the Association shall be the protection of mutual interests of its members, and the advancement and improvement of amateur athletic sports." As indicated by the statement, this organization was not only concerned with track and field, but invited other amateur sporting clubs and organizations to affiliate.

such as the Caledonian societies, army garrisons and people interested in athletics within various communities. Consequently, there were few track and field events for which the rules and regulations were established. Some of the discrepancies with regard to the weights of hammers have been shown, but up until the first A.A.A.of C. Dominion Championships in 1884[181] references to the weights of "light-hammers" included 7, 8, 10, 12, 15, 16 and 17 pounds, while the weights for "heavy-hammers" were 15, 16, 18, 22 and 25 pounds.[182] However, from the inaugural Annual Championship Meeting of the A.A.A.of C. in 1884,[183] a sixteen pound hammer was used, and this was the weight used for every succeeding annual championship in the nineteenth century.[184]

As was implied in the letter from Mr. Ross,[185] the weights of stones also varied from one competition to the next. The heavy stone[186] or ball ranged in weight from twenty-one to twenty-four pounds, while the light one was usually from nine to seventeen pounds.[187] However, as had happened with the hammer, the A.A.A.of C. included only one shot putting event, for which the 16 pound weight was used.[188]

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[181] Ibid., September 29, 1884.

[182] Montreal Gazette, July 11, 1840; September 29, 1843; August 28, 1844; Globe, Toronto, October 9, 1858 and September 4, 1882; Howell and Howell, op.cit., p.89.

[183] Amateur Athletic Association of Canada, First Annual Report, 1884, (Montreal: A.A.A.of C., 1884), p.7.

[184] Ibid., Annual Reports, 1884-1900. [185] Supra., p.177.

[186] In the agreement for weight throwing events at the Lucknow Caledonian Games in 1882, there was reference to the stone being of "natural granite, or, other boulder picked from the wayside." Supra., p.176.

[187] Montreal Gazette, July 11, 1840; September 29, 1843, August 28, 1844; Globe, Toronto, September 4, 1882; Howell and Howell, op.cit., p.89.

[188] Amateur Athletic Association of Canada, Annual Reports, 1884-1900.

Throwing the 56 pound weight was a field event included in the A.A.A.of C. annual championships, and these were thrown by using one or two handles. A.C. Spalding and Brothers advertised that the weight was available "with two sets of handles, for one or two hands."[189] The weight cost ten dollars in iron and eighteen dollars in lead.

Although a discus throwing event was not included in the A.A.A. of C. championships until 1901,[190] this item of equipment became available soon after it had been used in the revived Olympic Games in Athens, Greece, in 1896. An advertisement for "Spalding's Olympic Discus" featured an illustration of the throwing implement and prophetically stated that "discus throwing will be one of the features of future athletic events."[191] An important aspect of this advertisement was the emphasis upon the standardization of the item of equipment:

> Spalding's Olympic Discus - An exact reproduction of the Discus used in the Olympic Games at Athens, Greece, by Robert Garrett of Princeton, the winner of this event. We guarantee an "Olympic Discus" to be absolutely correct in shape, measurement and weight as well as substantially constructed and highly finished.[192]

The range of track and field events included in organized athletic games, carnivals and competitions was considerable. In many cases, specifications of equipment were not necessary as, especially until after the middle of the century, athletes competed under ad hoc rules drawn up

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[189]Naismith and Gulick, op.cit., p.2.

[190]Amateur Athletic Association of Canada, Annual Report, 1901.

[191]Luther Gulick (Editor), Spalding Athletic Library - Official Baseball Guide, 1898 (New York: American Publishing Company, 1898).

[192]Ibid. It was also stated in the advertisement that all records made with this discus would be recognized by the American Athletic Union.

by the local organizers. The bias towards particular activities depended upon which group of people was conducting the meet,[193] and there was little continuity or consistency in rules and regulations. However, in the 1880's, with the formation of the Montreal Amateur Athletic Association in 1881,[194] and the founding of the A.A.A.of C., track and field became a better organized sport with consistent rules and regulations applied to the events and the equipment to be used.

Track events were started with a verbal "Go", a drum and, later, the dropping of a handkerchief or some object well in front of the starters.[195] It was not until the 1870's that a gun or pistol was used to start the races.[196] The clothing worn by runners in these races was varied; the athlete was usually attired in long tights, and spiked shoes were rarely worn until the latter years of the century.[197] A

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[193] Cox, op.cit., p.178. "Annual Caledonian Society meets naturally included the traditional Scottish throwing events, such as tossing the caber, throwing the 56 pound weight and throwing the hammer, as well as the usual running and jumping events. Annual meets organized by the garrisons included races in heavy marching order, while lacrosse clubs usually held annual track and field meets in which there were several events involving lacrosse skills. Schools and colleges adhered to the traditional English events, including kicking the football and throwing the cricket ball." (Ibid.) Although most of the events at the first tournament of the Toronto Police Athletic Association in 1883 were conducted under the rules of the North American Caledonian Association, they included an event which involved lifting on a machine which registered the strength. However, this machine broke after the first performer's effort (Globe, Toronto, October 22, 1883).

[194] The first organized track and field meeting of this association was held in September, 1881 (Ottawa Citizen, September 5, 1881).

[195] Menke, op.cit., p.934. [196] Ibid.

[197] W.A. Hewitt, op.cit., p.99. A photograph taken in 1876 of Sir Henry Pellatt of Peel county and reproduced in Bull, op.cit., p.157, has depicted a type of clothing worn. Bull has stated that Pellatt wore canary-coloured trunks and a high-necked vest, and that "anything less was considered immodest."

notable exception was the shoes worn by John S. Robertson, the winner of the Amateur Championship of Canada for the 220 yards in 1880, which were spiked.[198]

"Inventions motivated by play impulses are fairly common."[199] Kroeber, an eminent anthropologist, has stated that the old "high" bicycle was "purely an instrument of sport."[200] By the end of the century, there had developed from these early "velocipedes" or "boneshakers" a "safety" cycle which was hailed with acclaim as an instrument of transportation as well as one of sport.

The first velocipede in Canada was believed to be a Paris "boneshaker", which was taken to Glace Bay in 1865.[201] This type of machine had a framework of solid iron, and wheels of different sizes, with the front wheel being larger in order to propel it.[202] These cycles had a wave of popularity in Canada just after Confederation, and the Toronto Globe[203] reported that "Velocipedomania is spreading to an inordinate extent." The "ordinary" cycle evolved from the "boneshaker" and, in the 1870's, the front wheel had grown to sixty-four inches, and the rear wheel had shrunk to twelve inches.[204] Changes in the construction of the

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[198]These shoes are exhibited at the Montreal Amateur Athletic Club, Montreal (Personal visitation, August, 1969).

[199]A.L. Kroeber, Anthropology. (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1948), p.355.

[200]Ibid.

[201]John Quinpool, First Things in Acadia (Halifax: First Things Publishers, 1936), p.151.

[202]Merrill Denison, C.C.M. - The Story of the First Fifty Years. (Weston, Ontario: C.C.M., 1946), pp.7-10.

[203]Globe, Toronto, April 17, 1869. [204]Denison, op.cit., p.8.

machine took place and the heavy wooden wheels gave way to spoked-metal ones to which was attached a solid rubber tire.[205] Krout has stated that "each improvement made the bicycle more popular until it ceased to be regarded as a curiosity and became a delightful, but somewhat precarious, resource for open-air recreation."[206]

Bicycling became a popular pastime, and organized bicycle competitions and meetings were held in the 1870's and 1880's.[207] The speed of these machines was not fast; the Globe[208] reported in 1869 that, over a distance of a half-mile, a runner had defeated a velocipede rider. Even on the "ordinary" cycle or "penny-farthings", by the early 1880's, the time over a mile distance on a prepared track was approximately three and a half minutes.[209] Despite their shortcomings, these early bicycles provided an enjoyable and invigorating activity for many Canadians.

Several velocipede models were patented by Canadians in the 1860's, each being regarded as an "improved " design. "Stinson's Velocipede",

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[205] Ibid.

[206] John A. Krout, Annals of American Sport (New York: Yale University Press, 1929), p.174.

[207] Bicycling clubs had formed as an outcome of people getting together for social outings but, after the formation of the Canadian Wheelmen's Association in 1882, bicycle meets and competitions were more frequently organized and encompassed a greater number of cyclists.

[208] Globe, Toronto, April 19, 1869.

[209] W.G. Ross, of the Toronto Bicycle Club, covered a mile on the Rosedale track of Toronto in 3 minutes, 29.5 seconds (Globe, Toronto, October 22, 1883). However, by 1888, Fred Foster of the Wanderers' Bicycle Club, Toronto, rode the last mile of a three-mile event in 2 minutes, 46 seconds (Ibid., October 15, 1886).

patented by James Stinson[210] of St. George in Brant County, Ontario, was one of the earliest of the Canadian bicycles. This ingenious machine did not have pedals but was propelled by a person sitting on the seat and pushing hand rods backwards and forwards to provide a pendulum motion. Connecting rods, a crank and cog-wheels transferred this power to drive the rear wheel. Other novel velocipedes were invented and patented by Canadians throughout the seventies and eighties.[211]

The greatest surge in bicycling activity followed the initial appearance of the "safety" bicycle. This invention, which was named "safety" to contrast it with its dangerous contemporary, was invented in the 1870's, but was not produced commercially until 1885.[212] Instead of the high driving wheel of the velocipede, the large diameter of which was necessary because the power was exerted directly to the pedals, the safety cycle had two wheels of equal size. The rider sat on a seat placed above and between the two wheels and applied power with his feet to the rear wheel through an arrangement of pedals, cranks, sprocket wheels and a chain.[213]

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[210]Canadian Patent Office, Patent 2910 (James Stinson, St. George, Ontario: 1868). Other early velocipede patents filed by Canadians were: "Radcliffe's Double Combination Improved Velocipede," Patent 3016 (James Radcliffe, Windsor, Ontario: 1869); "Erskine's Application of Power to Velocipedes," Patent 3107 (William C.C. Erskine, Eugenia, Ontario: 1869). Erskine's machine was a tricycle.

[211]Patents for bicycles or tricycles in this period included: Patent 8191 (Rachel A. Mason, assignee of Allan Mason, Paisley, Ontario: 1877); 12,661 (Charles J. Shirreff, Brockville, Ontario: 1881); 13,737 (James Amess and John Hogan, Guelph: 1882); 17,851 (J.G. Bailey, W. Patterson, and R. Thorne, Toronto: 1883); 19,771 (Thomas H. Robinson, Toronto: 1884).

[212]Denison, op.cit., p.12.

[213]Ibid. Denison has stated that the inventor of the "safety" cycle was H.J. Lawson, a sewing machine maker of Coventry, England, who

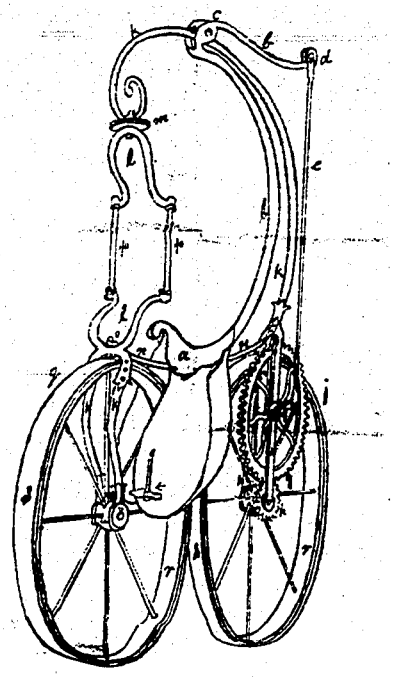

Plate 8. James Stinson's Velocipede, which was propelled by the arms, 1868.

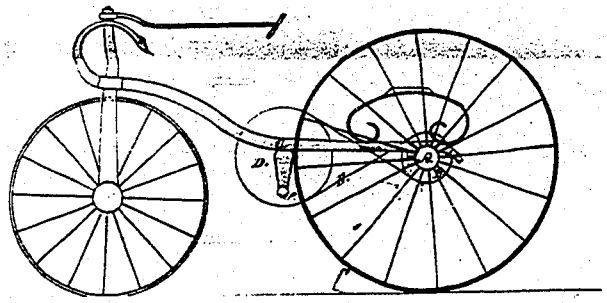

Plate 9. William C. Erskine's velocipede, 1869.

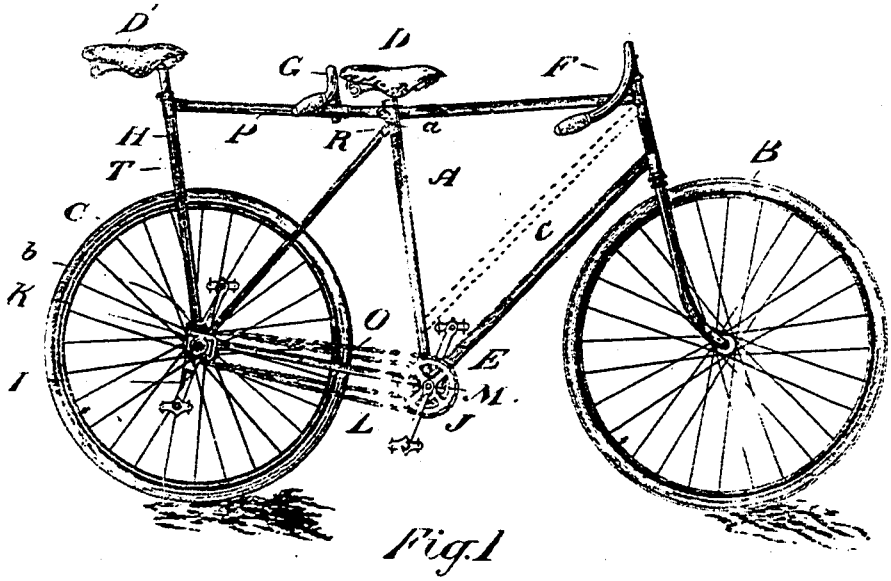

Plate 10. A Tandem bicycle patented in 1894 by Edward C. Hill, Toronto.

The safety bicycle had a universal appeal as it could be ridden by women and children as well as men, and it was this feature which put thousands of cyclists on the roads in the nineties. A drop frame bicycle for women was devised so that they could enjoy this activity without endangering their modesty.[214] In the 1890's, there were hundreds of patents issued in Canada for bicycles and bicycle attachments such as tires, brakes, lamps, wheels, mudguards, and other sundry equipment.[215] Many of these were filed by Canadian inventors.[216]

Several other important technological developments pertaining to transportation occurred at approximately the same time the safety cycle was introduced. John B. Dunlop of Belfast, Ireland, invented a pneumatic tire in 1888 which complemented the safety cycle.[217] The invention of this tire made cycling more comfortable and economical on the rough roads and paths which prevailed in Canadian urban and rural areas at the time. There were many patents filed for improvements on

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introduced the new and revolutionary design in 1876. Although Lawson is regarded as the inventor, J.K. Starley of Coventry began to produce them commercially in 1885 (John B. Rae, The American Automobile (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1965), p.5).

[214]Denison has stated that a young Englishman who went to the United States to go into the bicycle business "devised the drop frame so that his bride could share with him the joys of cycling." (Denison, op.cit., p.11)

[215]In the last years of the century, patents relating to cycles and cycling equipment were slightly in excess of the following totals per year: 60 in 1895; 150 in 1896; 230 in 1897; 120 in 1898 (Canada, Canadian Patent Office Record, V.5 23-26 (1895-1898)).

[216]Bicycle and bicycle sundries patents are filed at the Canadian Patent Office, Ottawa, under Class 280 - Land Vehicles.

[217]Denison, op.cit., p.10. It was stated in the Toronto Globe of April 22, 1896, that Dunlop invented the pneumatic tire in 1889 and that he had recently sold the invention for fifteen million dollars.

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the pneumatic tire and throughout the nineties tire treads improved, fabrics were reinforced, better methods were devised to attach the tires to wheel rims and inner air tubes were developed.[218]

A number of important inventions regarding brakes for slowing or stopping the cycle were also patented at this time. Several of the earlier patents were designed so that the brakes clamped onto the tire, which must have caused rapid deterioration.[219] Frank Hammond, of Paris, Ontario, patented a bicycle brake in 1894 which was constructed and arranged so as to press on the under portion of the metal or wood rim of the wheel in order to prevent wear, by a brake, on the rubber tire.[220]

Other innovations which affected the development of the bicycle were ball-bearings and cold drawn steel tubing, which made the machine more economical. Bicycle accessories and attachments such as mud and skirt guards, pumps, lamps, bells, tools, seats, trouser and toe clips and rear-view mirrors were all developed and designed to capture the lucrative market.

Advertisements for bicycles appeared regularly in the daily newspapers in the 1890's and special catalogues on bicycles were printed by the manufacturers to meet the demand of cycling enthusiasts. The T. Eaton Company of Toronto included a section on bicycles in their cata-

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[218]Canadian Patent Office, Patent 37,890 and 40,935 (Permetre La Force, Toronto: 1891 and 1892); 46,411 (Hans J. Caulfield, Toronto: 1894); 46,641 (J.B. Dunlop and J.B. Dunlop, Jr., Blackrock, Ireland: 1895); 62,409 (William B. Morris, Altamont, Manitoba: 1889); 53,228 (Finlay A. McRae, Montreal: 1896).

[219]Ibid. Patents Nos. 45,066, 51,007 and 55,858.

[220]Ibid. Patent 47,042 (Frank Hammond, Paris, Ontario: 1894).

logues from 1892 onward and even produced special "bicycle" supplements.[221] Early in the decade, the cycles were relatively expensive:

> The "American Rambler" - No. 1. Full roadster machine, made specially for a heavy man and for rough work, will stand almost any usage, fitted up with the celebrated Gormully and Jeffery tire, regular list, $175, our cash price, $135.

Other models were also available, including a "Worth" convertible tandem which "can be adjusted in half a minute to an ordinary safety for one or vice versa."[222] Youths' bicycles with twenty, twenty-four and twenty-six inch wheels ranged from twenty to fifty dollars in price. If solid tires were ordered, the price was reduced by five dollars.[223]

Two years later, in the 1894 Christmas catalogue, Eaton's advertised men's and women's bicycles "fitted with Morgan-Wright pneumatic tires, wood rims, and all modern improvements."[224] Prices steadily decreased and, although the premier-line machines sold for one hundred dollars, good quality bicycles were available at fifty dollars or less in 1897.[225] Throughout this bicycle "boom" period, the public was besieged by advertisements in the daily press as new manufacturers extolled

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[221] T. Eaton and Company, Limited, Bicycle and Bicycle Sundries Catalogue, 1897.

[222] Ibid. Fall and Winter Catalogue, 1892-93, p.94. The weight of this tandem cycle was 65 pounds and was advertised for sale at $175.

[223] Ibid.

[224] Ibid. Christmas Catalogue, 1894, p.98. It was also stated in the advertisement that "these wheels are perfectly new and thoroughly first class, being equal in every respect to regular $125.00 machines." A drawing of Santa Claus delivering his gifts on a bicycle was featured in this catalogue.

[225] Ibid. Bicycle and Bicycle Sundries Catalogue, 1897, pp.2-11.

the advantages of their particular product. The Toronto Globe of Saturday, April 8, 1899, for example, had thirteen advertisements from major bicycle manufacturers and included a full page advertisement inserted by the Hyslop Brothers firm. As a result of this competition between companies and the improved efficiency of production, the cost of bicycles decreased considerably in the last few years of the century. Eaton's had a special bicycle, the "Meteor", manufactured for their exclusive sale by the Comet Cycle Company of Toronto which cost only thirty-five dollars.[226] The Canada Cycle and Motor Company's "Norseman" model, "made and guaranteed by a Canadian firm in a Canadian factory", was sold through Eaton's for twenty-five dollars with "Durham single-tube guaranteed tires", or thirty dollars if Dunlop tires were fitted.[227] Some very cheap bicycles, advertised as being "full-sized and new", sold for less than twenty dollars.[228]

An extensive supply of bicycle accessories, attachments and repair kits were available through retail stores, "bicycle shops" and catalogues. The Eaton's Spring and Summer Catalogue of 1900 advertised saddles for $1.00; foot pumps ranging from .35¢ to .90¢; hand pumps for .10¢; "Never Leak" solution to put inside porous tires for .25¢ per four ounce tube; a "Phoenix bundle carrier" which held items to the bar without the use of straps, for .25¢; a cyclometer which registered up to

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[226] Ibid. Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1898, p.194. Even the top-line imported Kensington models which were available through Eaton's had decreased in price to $65.

[227] Ibid. Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1900, p.213.

[228] A new bicycle at Munson's of Yonge Street, Toronto was advertised for $17 (Globe, Toronto, July 1, 1900).

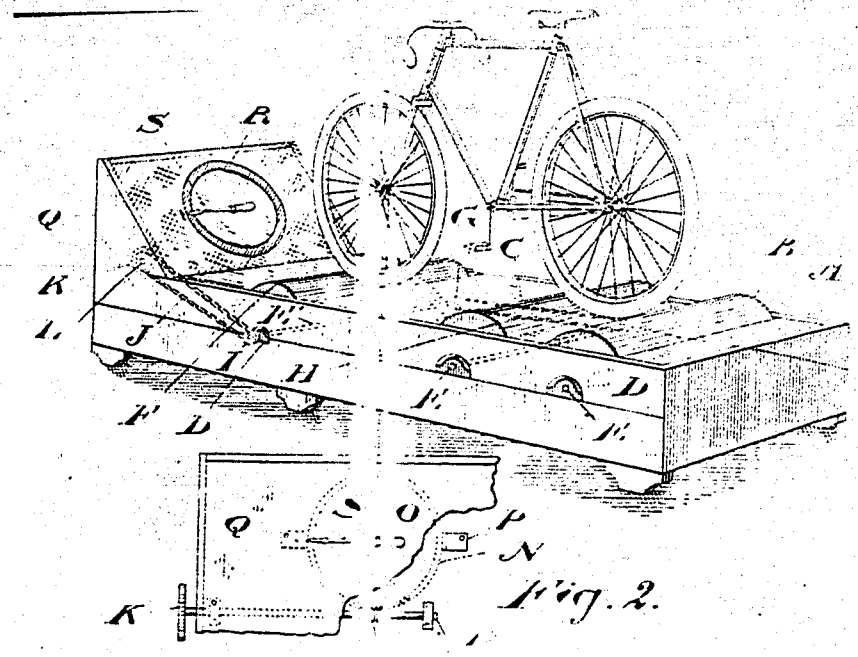

Plate 11. William F. Mitchell's "Home Trainer for Bicycles," patented in 1896.

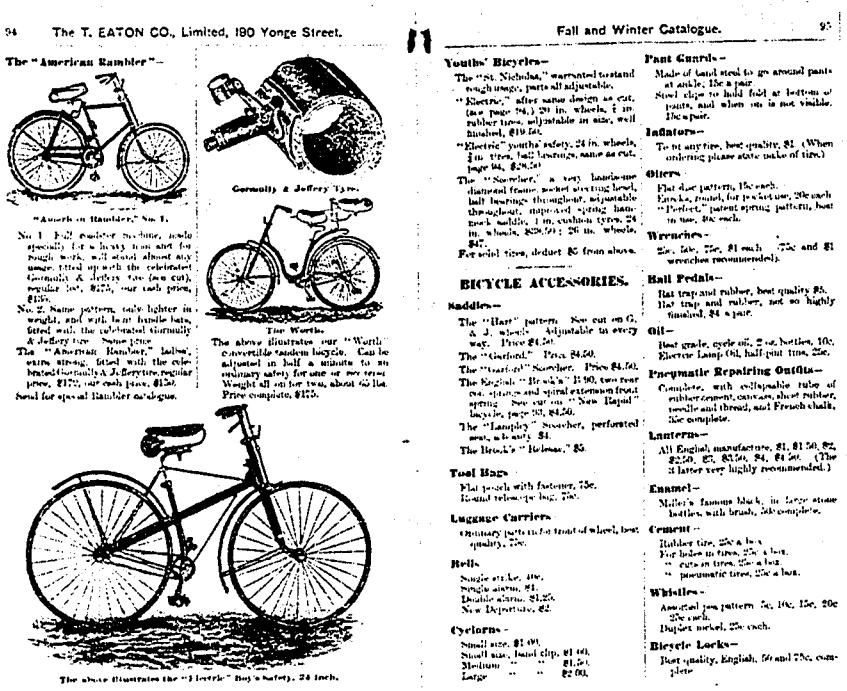

Plate 12. Advertisement for Bicycles and Accessories, 1892-93.

ten thousand miles for .65¢; bells, ranging from .20¢ to $1.00; and bicycle locks from .15¢ to .35¢.[229] Many more accessories were produced as the cycle manufacturers realized they had many willing buyers among the cycling enthusiasts.

Many of the improvements in the cycles were conducive to increasing speed. The pneumatic tire enabled cyclists to travel faster and, for several years after they were first introduced, riders using these tires were given handicaps by racing officials. In a three-mile event at a cycling meet at Brockton Point, British Columbia, in 1891, C.J. Piper from the Victoria Bicycle Club was handicapped 300 yards behind riders using "cushion" tires and 600 yards behind those using "solids".[230] Bicycle frames became lighter and racing cyclists could strip more weight from the machines themselves. Toe clips had been in use for several years, but a new type was introduced in 1897 and was apparently more suitable for racing:

> Riders given to fast wheeling, racers and road riders have always found difficulty in keeping their feet on the pedals, even with the best toe clips. Unless the foot is so bound up in wire as to incur danger in case of accident, it will slip off sideways or jar off the pedal in going over tracks or rough ground. A new style toe clip called "The Kantslip" has recently made its appearance and is meeting with much favor. It fits any style shoe and holds the foot rigidly until the rider wishes to withdraw it backward to dismount.[231]

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[229] T. Eaton and Company, Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1900.

[230] Cox, op.cit., p.64 cited from Daily Colonist, May 27, 1891. Piper decided to ride on solid tires and won. The C.W.A. stipulated that riders using pneumatic tires were to be handicapped 100 yards over "cushions" and 200 yards over "solids" for each mile.

[231] Medicine Hat News, August 5, 1897. This notice was included in a two-column feature entitled "Bicyclists Column" in this weekly newspaper. However, the column did not appear regularly.

Several manufacturers and retailers of bicycles offered riding lessons, usually in "riding schools" on their own premises. Commenting upon the opening of the riding school of Messrs. McDonald and Wilson, Toronto agents for Remington and Columbia bicycles, a Globe[232] correspondent wrote:

> Wheels will be provided those attending the school, and they will thus avoid injuring their own bicycles, which learning by means of a friend who knows all about it, under the glare of the electric light on Jarvis Street, invariably means. It is a well known fact that during the process of learning, bicycles are subjected to more damage and abuse, both orally and otherwise, than at any other period.

The bicycles at the riding schools may have also suffered from abuse as several machines for "teaching the art of bicycle riding" were patented in 1896 and 1897. Avard H. Miller's patent[233] was designed to train several riders simultaneously as it was "a machine consisting of a central revolving post from which radiate arms at the ends of which are attached bicycle wheels, the whole to be propelled by foot power applied to the pedals as in ordinary bicycling." The machines which John Boyle of Orillia, Ontario, and William F. Mitchell of Guelph patented were suitable for use in a private residence.[234]

Bicycles were modified and adapted to provide motive power on

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[232] Globe, Toronto, February 10, 1896. There were at least three large bicycle schools in Toronto by 1896 ("The Women's Pages," Athletic Life, V.3 (April, 1896), p.169).

[233] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 51,191 (Avard H. Miller, Yarmouth, Nova Scotia: 1896). The term "bicycle wheels" referred to the entire bicycle as a unit.

[234] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 51,452 (William F. Mitchell, Guelph: 1896); 54,723 (John Boyle, Orillia, Ontario: 1897). Mitchell's invention made use of rollers.

water. In 1900, two Toronto inventors patented a "Marine Velocipede" which incorporated a bicycle placed on, and between, two large marine floats.[235] There were also several adaptations to make the bicycle ridable on winter ice.[236] Some of the modifications were simple conversions of the bicycle which could be made by the owner:

> A runner takes the place of the front wheel, and a patent spiked tire is made to fit tightly round the pneumatic tire of the rear wheel. The spiked tire catches in the ice, forcing the wheel on faster than summer speed. The rim, being steel, is as elastic as the pneumatic tire alone.[237]

As stated previously, the drop frame model bicycle was designed for women cyclists because it was more suitable for their clothing. However, many women had become avid cyclists prior to the modification and cycling was a major cause of the revolution in women's fashions[238] or, as Stevens has stated, "an immediate result of the cycling craze was the emancipation of Legs."[239] For the sake of both safety and comfort, the long flowing dresses of women were modified because, as one lady cyclist stated, "skirts, while they have not hindered women from climbing to the topmost branches of higher education, may prove fatal in down-hill

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[235] Ibid. Patent 66,649 (Charles Clark and Alexander H. Canning, Toronto: 1900). An earlier and more cumbersome model of "an apparatus for navigation" was patented in 1874 (Patent 3,276, Richard Smith, Sherbrooke, Quebec: 1874).

[236] Ibid. Patent 45,592 (J.R. Sederguest and George J. Clark, St. Stephen, New Brunswick: 1894); 65,487 (Charles C. Casselman, Brunel, Ontario: 1899).

[237] Globe, Toronto, November 9, 1895. This cycle was available at the R.A. McReady Company store in Toronto for $16.50.

[238] Hall, op.cit., p.86.

[239] G.R. Stevens, The Incompleat Canadian - An Approach to Social History. (Canada: G.R. Stevens, 1965), p.205.

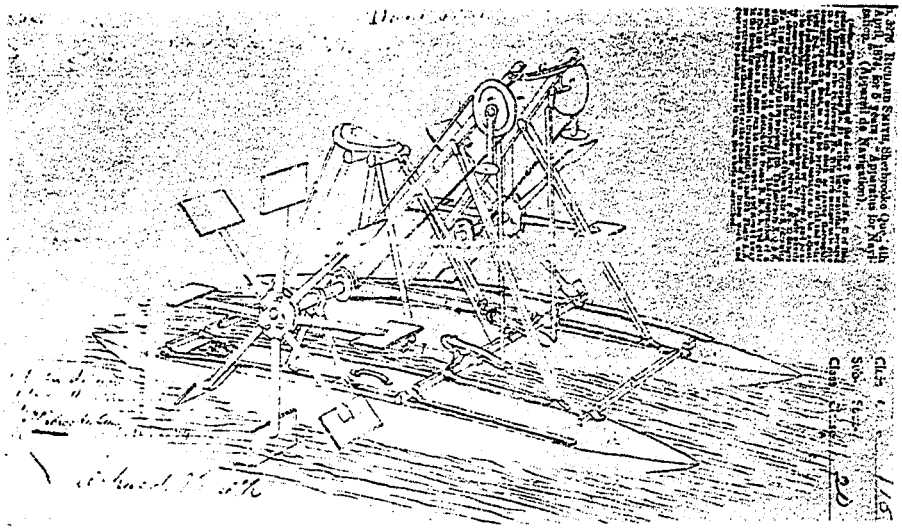

Plate 13. "Apparatus for Navigation," patented in 1874 by Richard Smith, Sherbrooke, Quebec.

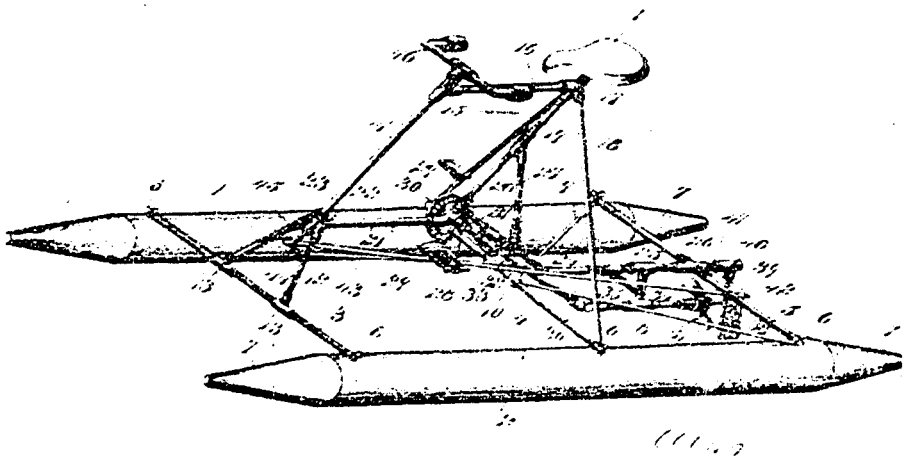

Plate 14. The "Marine Velocipede" patented by Charles Clark and Alexander Canning of Toronto in 1900.

coasting."[240]

The more modest riders used to tie the hems of their skirt to their shoe laces, but this procedure lapsed with the invention of the coaster brake as the young ladies could "glide past interested males without risk of exposure."[241] However, most women shortened their skirts, despite the social battle which ensued.[242] The divided or "bicycle skirt" became a more acceptable item of clothing as the years passed, but "bloomers", which had been worn and advocated at mid-century by an American woman, Amelia Jenks Bloomer,[243] were never really regarded as appropriate attire in Canada, even by women.[244]

With hemlines raised and skirts divided, women took to the bicycle. Eaton's advertised divided skirts and bicycle suits in their catalogues of the 1890's and there was a wide range from which to select.

> No. 569 Ladies' bicycle suits (jacket and skirt only) of all wool homespun tweed, colors fawn, brown, light grey and oxford grey, short circular skirt, sizes 32 to 40 bust, $7.98.[245]

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[240]Sidney H. Aronson, "The Sociology of the Bicycle," Life in Society, Thomas E. Lasswell, et.al. (Editors) (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1965), p.62.

[241]Stevens, op.cit., p.206.

[242]For a discussion of the bicycle as an aspect of the emancipation of women, see Hall, op.cit., pp.86-92; Aronson, op.cit., pp. 60-62; Stevens, op.cit., pp.205-207.

[243]Mabel Burkholder, Out of the Storied Past. (Hamilton: Hamilton Spectator, 1968), p.168.

[244]Hall, op.cit., p.91.

[245]T. Eaton and Company, Fall and Winter Catalogue, 1898-97, p.52. It was stated that the length of all bicycle skirts would be 38 inches unless otherwise ordered. In the Spring and Summer Catalogue of the following year, a ladies' bicycle costume comprising a blazer and skirt sold for eight dollars (p.5).

Ladies' bicycling jerseys for fall and winter riding were also advertised; the prices ranged from $1.50 to $2.25.[246] An elegant rainproof cape for bicycling in wool serge made cycling comfortable even under inclement weather conditions.[247]

Bicycle clothing for male cyclists was also in vogue, and bicycle pants, jerseys, sweaters, knickers, stockings and stocking supporters were advertised as being appropriate apparel.[248] The bicycle suits of the nineties were available in either a long or short length:

> No. 001 Men's bicycle suits, in dark grey and brown, knee pants, with buckle at knee, coat unlined, cap to match, also long pants if preferred instead of short, special, $3.95 suit.[249]

Waterproof bicycling capes for men were also sold in retail stores.[250] Bicycle stockings and shoes of various designs completed the outfit. A boot designed especially for cycling was patented in 1897:

> A boot adapted to support the ankle of the wearer, and having that portion of the upper over the instep entirely cut out or dispensed with, the said part of the upper embracing the ankle being joined to the toe portion by low sides.[251]

Some of the bicycle clubs had their own distinctive uniforms. The dress of the North Star Bicycle Club of Edmonton consisted of dark blue knickerbockers and stockings, and white sweaters.[252]

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[246] Ibid. Fall and Winter Catalogue, 1896-97, p.52. The jerseys were also advertised as being suitable for golfing.

[247] Ibid., p.50.

[248] Ibid. Fall and Winter Catalogue, 1892-93, p.96.

[249] Ibid. Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1896, p.90.

[250] Ibid. Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1898, p.116.

[251] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 56,218 (Antoine Laroque, Montreal: 1897).

[252] Edmonton Bulletin, January 23, 1896. The club comprised both men and women members but the uniform for the ladies was not stated.

Cycling became an extremely popular recreational activity, so the demand for bicycles was great. Over the latter decades of the century the standard and quality of bicycles improved, yet the cost of them decreased. Under such conditions, cycling flourished as both the number of bicycle clubs, and individual club memberships rose. The sport of cycling included both track- and road-racing, and was one which attracted many participants as well as spectators. A bi-monthly magazine, Cycling, was first published in Toronto in 1890,[253] and this publication kept cycling enthusiasts informed of events in the world of cycling. The Dunlop Trophy Race, sponsored by the tire company which had pioneered the pneumatic tire, became a major international road-racing event following its inauguration in 1894.[254]

Roller-skating became a popular activity in the months when there was no ice and, by the 1880's, the roller-skate had developed into a safe and sturdy item of sports equipment. James L. Plumpton, an Englishman, invented a skate on four wooden rollers set in pairs in 1863 which made the gliding movements of locomotion possible.[255] Several improvements to roller-skates were patented by Canadians in the 1870's and 1880's and included modifications and improvements to clamps and adjustments, the rocking motion of the rollers and the durability of the truck action, and the adaptation of ball-bearings.[256] Many novel

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[253]Denison, op.cit., p.14.

[254]Ibid., p.16. This race was abandoned in 1926 but the magnificent trophy is displayed at the Sports Hall of Fame in Toronto (Personal visitation, August, 1969).

[255]Krout, op.cit., p.179.

[256]Canadian Patent Office, Patent 6,958 (Francis C. Ireland, Lachine, Quebec, co-inventor with and assignee of W.A. Leggs: 1877); 8,193 (John P. Lovett, Toronto, co-inventor with and assignee of Alfred J. Peerless:

ideas and designs were evident in some patents, as inventors devised new modifications so as to provide more thrills and excitement for the thousands of people who took to the activity. Alfred J. Peerless, of Toronto, a pioneer in designing roller-skates, patented a unique two-roller skate attached to a foot-board in 1878.[257] It was reported in the Edmonton Bulletin in 1894 that a pneumatic tire skate, capable of travelling at forty miles per hour, had been produced by a Toronto inventor: "The invention is called a bicycle skate, stands ten inches high, has ball-bearing and spring rests for the feet and ankle supports."[258]

The construction of roller-skates became so good that there were few ice-skating manoeuvres which could not be simulated on rollers. Consequently, many of the skating activities which had previously been restricted to the winter months, when ice was available, were now performed in the warmer months as well. Hockey, basketball and "polo" were played on roller-skates, and speed and marathon races were also conducted.[259]

Although indoor bowling was enjoyed by many throughout the century, the press in the first half of the century generally ignored this game because of its reputation as a gambling activity.[260] However, at

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1877); 21,051 (Samuel Carman, St. Catharines, Ontario: 1885); 21,877 (Jairns A. Hull, Toronto, June 13, 1885); 22,368 (Frederick Mallory, Brockville, Ontario: 1885). Many roller-skates manufactured in the United States were sold in Canada (Globe, Toronto, August 4, 1885).

[257] Ibid. Patent 8,561 (Alfred J. Peerless, Toronto: March 20, 1878).

[258] Edmonton Bulletin, August 26, 1894.

[259] Krout, op.cit., p.179; Howell and Howell, op.cit., p.129.

[260] Lindsay, op.cit., p.270.

mid-century, proprietors of hotels and resorts often placed advertisements in the press to indicate to prospective tourists that their establishments had bowling alleys.[261] Balls were originally made of wood and were delivered from the palm of the bowler's hand.[262] In the early 1890's, the Canadian Amateur Bowling Association (C.A.B.A.) was formed,[263] and the Canadian Club, which had brought finger-hole balls into use in 1891-92, rejoined the C.A.B.A. on the understanding they would be allowed to use the new balls against the other clubs which were still playing "flat-hand" style.[264] That season became a test series resulting in the adoption of the finger-hole balls.

An improvement for the finger-holed ten pin bowling ball was patented in Canada by Charles Rodman of New York in 1894.[265] A portion of Rodman's claim stated that he had invented plugs which slid into the finger-holes to prevent the following problems:

> It has been the custom heretofore to construct ten pin balls with holes to place the fingers in, in order to secure a firm hold of the ball. These holes throw the ball out of balance so that they roll irregularly, and as the balls are made of lignum vitae, (a wood without any regular grain) the edges of the holes become broken and ragged by use and they then tear the fingers of the bowlers.[266]

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[261] Montreal Gazette, August 9, 1852; August 12, 1864; June 12, 1867; Roxborough, op.cit., p.94.

[262] Dick Brett, "Headpins and Kingpins," Centennial Sports Committee, Centennial Sports Review (Hamilton: Al Macfarlane Enterprises, 1967), p.56.

[263] W.H. Whyte, Montreal Amateur Athletic Association - A Literary Souvenir of the M.A.A.A. Fair (Montreal: A booklet published by the Association, 1886), p.17. Bowling within the M.A.A.A. had begun in 1881 and, in 1889, a Montreal Amateur Bowling Association had been formed and consisted of three clubs (M.A.A.A., V.R.C. and Le Canadien).

[264] Ibid.

[265] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 47,680 (Charles W. Rodman, Queens, New York: 1894).

[266] Ibid.

Lignum vitae, the very hard close-grained wood used for lawn bowling balls, was also used as the material for indoor-bowling balls. A report in the Toronto Globe in 1900 stated that the growth of bowling had made new sources for obtaining this material, and improved methods of getting it to market, imperative.[267] However, the journalist also stated that a new "composition ball" was to be put on the market soon and, although it cost more, it had "all the best qualities of lignum vitae but does not chip or warp." The composition ball referred to was probably a hard rubber ball which came into use soon after the turn of the century.[268]

A "bowling crease" with an intricate mechanized arrangement for pin-setting was patented in 1891 by Thomas H. Roberts of Owen Sound, Ontario.[269] A cord was used to raise and lower a platform containing the pins and deposit them in the precise positions on the bowling crease. However, the "pin-sellers" in most establishments were usually young boys who were kept very busy, as the popularity of both five- and ten-pin bowling was considerable by 1900.

For many years, "bare-knuckle" fighting and "prize-fights" were the only form of boxing,[270] and it was not until the Marquis of Queensberry established his rules that modern boxing, with gloves, began to emerge.[271] The Queensberry rules stated that boxers had to use "fair-

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[267] Globe, Toronto, December 17, 1900. [268] Brett, op.cit., p.56.

[269] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 36,126 (Thomas H. Roberts, Owen Sound, Ontario: 1891).

[270] Menke, op.cit., p.240.

[271] Robin Ryan, "A History of Boxing in Canada," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), p.2.

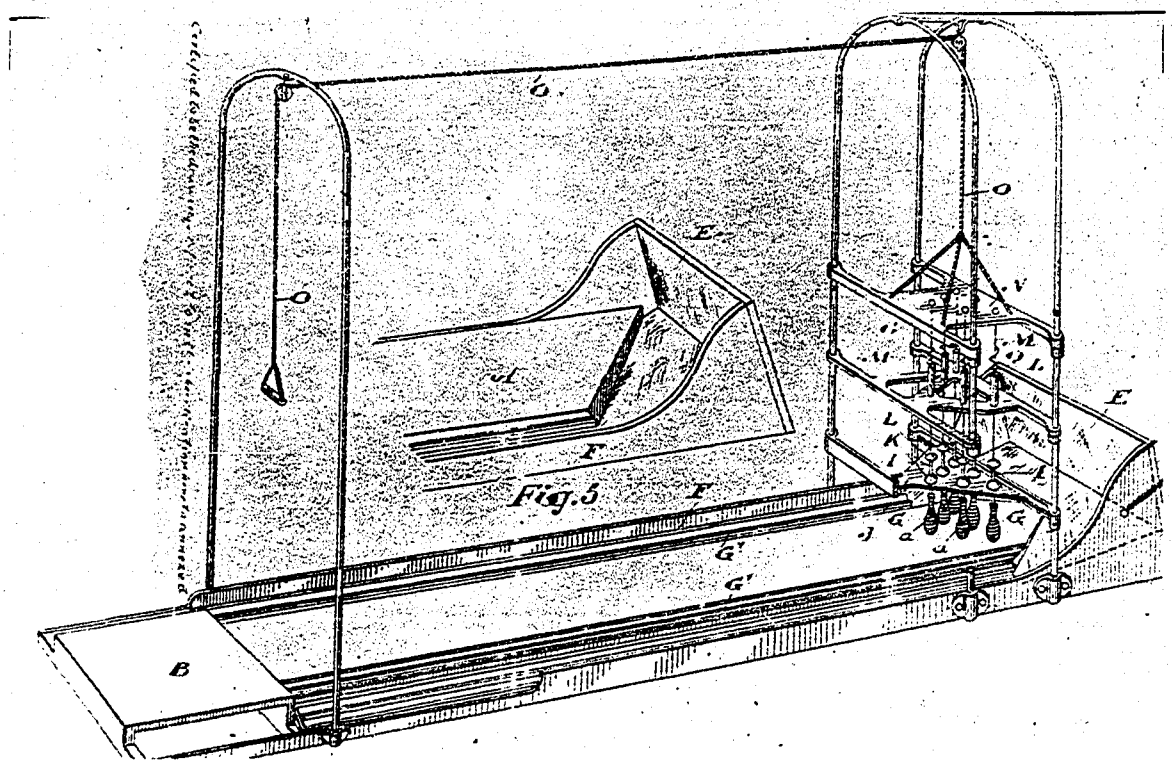

Plate 15. A bowling-alley, patented by T.H. Roberts of Owen Sound, Ontario, in 1891.

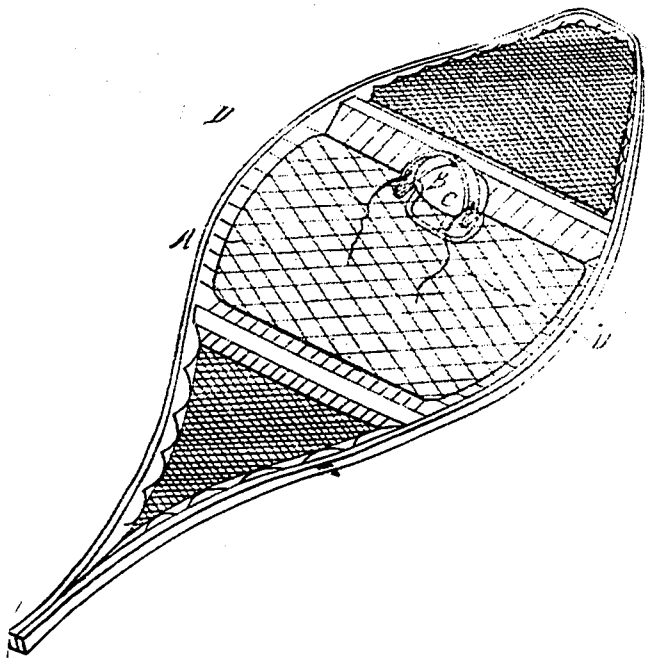

Plate 16. An improved foot-band for snow-shoes, patented by E.J. Harkin, Trois Rivières, Quebec, in 1885.

sized gloves of the best quality, and new."[272] Boxing gloves at various prices were available through Eaton's catalogues in the 1890's:

> No. H. Men's 6-oz or 8-oz, Corbett style, wine-coloured kid, laced and padded wrist, raised welt across palm, best quality curled hair, very popular with club men, $3.75 set.
>
> No. I. The Frank Erne style, fighting mitt, made with tip on end for grip, or the Corbett style fighting glove, made of the best materials that can be obtained for the purpose, 5-oz or 6-oz as ordered, $7.50 set.[273]

A number of different striking or punching bags were in use. Albert R. Rumsey of Cleveland, Ohio, patented a "striking bag for exercising" in 1884, which entailed "an exercising device consisting essentially of an inner rubber bag, an outer bag, or covering, preferably made of canvas and a suspending cord secured to the outer bag."[274] Eaton's catalogues also advertised a variety of punching bags for both light and heavy work-outs:

> No. 79. The D and M gymnasium bag, extra heavy horse-hide, triple-stitched. This bag is made for heavy work and warranted to stand same, complete, $5.00.
>
> Spalding's championship striking bag, made of the best of kid, silk-sewn, pure gum rubber, weight complete, 13 oz. This bag is suitable for exhibition or very fast work, price $7.50.[275]

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[272] Johan Louw, "Origin of Boxing and Its Development to Modern Boxing," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), p.44 cited from Denzil Batchelor, British Boxing (Northampton: Clarke and Sherwell Ltd., n.d.), p.28. Gloves for sparring had been recommended and introduced by Jack Broughton in the eighteenth century.

[273] T. Eaton and Company, Fall and Winter Catalogue, 1899-1900, p.224. Boys' gloves ranged in price from $1.25 to $2.00.

[274] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 20,675 (Albert R. Rumsey, Cleveland, Ohio: 1884).

[275] T. Eaton and Company, Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1900, p.215. The catalogues also advertised "striking bag mitts, made of kid, elastic wrist, welt across palm, cut away back and wrist, which prevents the hands from getting warm, .50¢ pair."

Boxing became an organized sport in Canada in the nineties when several clubs were formed, and the first tournament for the Canadian amateur boxing championships was held in 1897.[276] The popularity of the sport was considerable by 1900, and a factor affecting its growth was the availability of good quality equipment at reasonable prices.

The early development of gymnastics in Canada was closely related to the growth of private gymnasia.[277] The activities and exercises performed were those which had been developed in Europe, and brought to North America by settlers. Equipment in the gymnasia varied considerably and depended upon the outlook of the proprietors. Boxing, fencing and weight-lifting equipment were often provided as well as small apparatus such as clubs, sticks, ropes, and pulleys.[278] By 1867, the Montreal Gymnastic Club's equipment included parallel and horizontal bars, swings, trapezes, ladders, barbells, dumbbells, and a vaulting horse.[279] Mr. Fred Barnjum, of Montreal, held classes for children and ladies from 1866 and the activities included Indian-club swinging, exercises with dumbbells and marching.[280] Men's activities were more

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[276] Globe, Toronto, March 6, 1897.

[277] Lewis R. Waller, "Historical Notes and Records on the Sport of Gymnastics in the Province of Quebec," (Unpublished material, 1965), p.1. "In the nineteenth century, the word 'gymnastics' was used to describe and refer not only to gymnastic apparatus activities, but also to military drill, calisthenics, physical training, acrobatics and pyramid building. It was quite common, in the period, for all activities conducted in the gymnasium to be referred to as gymnastics." (Reet Nurmberg, "A History of Competitive Gymnastics in Canada," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1970), p.13)

[278] This equipment was available at Alloway's Royal Gymnasium. (Montreal Gazette, November 2, 1860).

[279] Montreal Amateur Athletic Association, Athletic Leaves, V.1. (September, 1888), p.22.

[280] Nurmberg, op.cit., p.9.

varied and, in 1865, Barnjum held a public exhibition which included the use of the following apparatus: horizontal bar, parallel bars, flying and double trapeze, gymnastic and flying rings, and hurdles.[281] Most gymnastic societies which developed throughout the latter half of the century made or purchased equipment and apparatus similar to that used in Barnjum's display.[282] The University of Toronto's gymnasium comprised horizontal bars, a vaulting horse, flying rings and "other appliances usually found in a gymnasium."[283]

Gymnasium equipment towards the end of the century also included wall machines for weight training. The Spalding Company advertised a Victor Wall Machine in 1894 featuring a "Centre Arm Adjustment which permits all the lower, as well as the direct and upper chest movements."[284] An exerciser which was suitable for both gymnasium and private home use was advertised in Eaton's catalogues throughout the 1890's:

> The Whitely Exerciser: The best and most popular exerciser on the market, simple and durable, can be used in any room, and is never in the way. It weighs less than 2 lbs. A chart with each exerciser, and with Nos. 1, 2 and 3 we send free 'Anderson's Physical Education.' The price of this useful book is 50¢.[285]

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[281] Ibid.

[282] Uttley, op.cit., p.107; Daily Colonist, Victoria, February 4, 1860; Lindsay, op.cit., p.275-280.

[283] Reed, op.cit., p.2.

[284] Naismith and Gulick, op.cit., n.p. The text of the advertisement stated: "The various changes are made by raising or lowering the centre bar, requiring but a few seconds to do it. This adjustment has proven the most useful and beneficial addition to a chest weight ever conceived. By its use in conjunction with the upper movements every muscle in the human body can be exercised." The cost of the item of equipment was $15.00 for "Japan Finish" and $18.00 for "nickel-plated finish".

[285] T. Eaton and Company, Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1899, p.224.

By 1900, then, apparatus for the performance of gymnastic activities was available in most gymnasia in Canada. The popularity of general exercising and weight-training necessitated the inclusion of these items of equipment. The gymnasium, therefore, became a facility which offered its clientele a wide variety of activities.

The basic equipment for horse-racing did not change very much over the century. Horse-racing had been popular in Canada for many years prior to 1800,[286] and although the track and course facilities improved considerably, there were few alterations to saddles and bridles for horses.[287] Whips and spurs were used early in the century; the Montreal Gazette in 1830 reported a race and stated that "Lady Heron gained the race easily, her jockey whip in mouth, while Filho was hard pressed with whip and spur."[288]

The major innovation in horse-racing equipment in the century was the use of a starting barrier in the 1890's. For most of the century the horses were lined up behind a mark on the track, and the signal to start was a vocal "away", a flag, or a blast of a horn. This procedure was not always satisfactory, as was seen in the same series of races between Lady Heron and Filho in 1830:

> The third heat remained to be contested by Lady Heron and Filho. At the word "away", though the rider of Filho had said he was ready, yet he refused to go, and wished to have another start, but the Stewards were unanimous that the start was fair.[289]

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[286] George Gale, Quebec, 'Twixt Old and New. (Quebec: Telegraph Printing Company, 1915), p.264.

[287] Several patents for improvements of saddles and bridles were filed, among them were Patent 7,076 (William H. Taylor, Baldwinsville, New York, and Samuel Taylor, Hamilton, Ontario: 1877); 19,104 (Samuel Payette and Edward N. Heney, Montreal: 1884); 19,929 (George A. Mace, Exeter, Ontario: 1884).

[288] Montreal Gazette, September 20, 1830. [289] Ibid.

The Toronto Globe of December 29, 1894, described and illustrated a new "starting machine" which had been successful in Australia. The invention of Messrs. Johnstone and Gleeson of Australia consisted of a screen or barrier of eight light ropes stretched parallel to each other at intervals of a few inches. The ropes were attached to a wire running to a pulley machine operated by the starter:

> When the horses have all reached the starting point the screen is lowered so that the top of it is about level with the horses' heads, and the starter, watching his opportunity, touches the button as soon as he has got his field on even terms. The screen flies up to the top of the wire rope with the velocity of a shot from a catapult, which in principle it is, and the horses spring away from the mark with a clear path.[290]

Subsequent reports in the Globe indicated that the starting machine was "making its way eastward",[291] and it was first used in Canada at the Woodbine course in May, 1896.[292] The starting barrier ensured that no horse was across the starting line before the signal, but the problem of "kicking" horses was not solved until chute starting stalls were introduced.[293]

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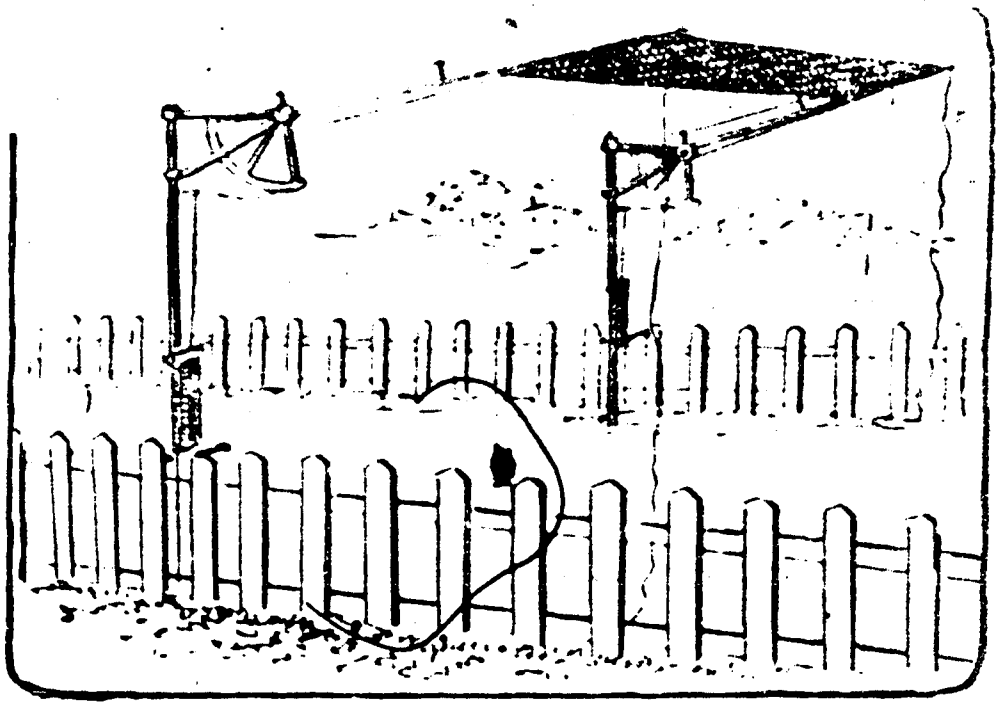
[290] Globe, Toronto, December 29, 1894.

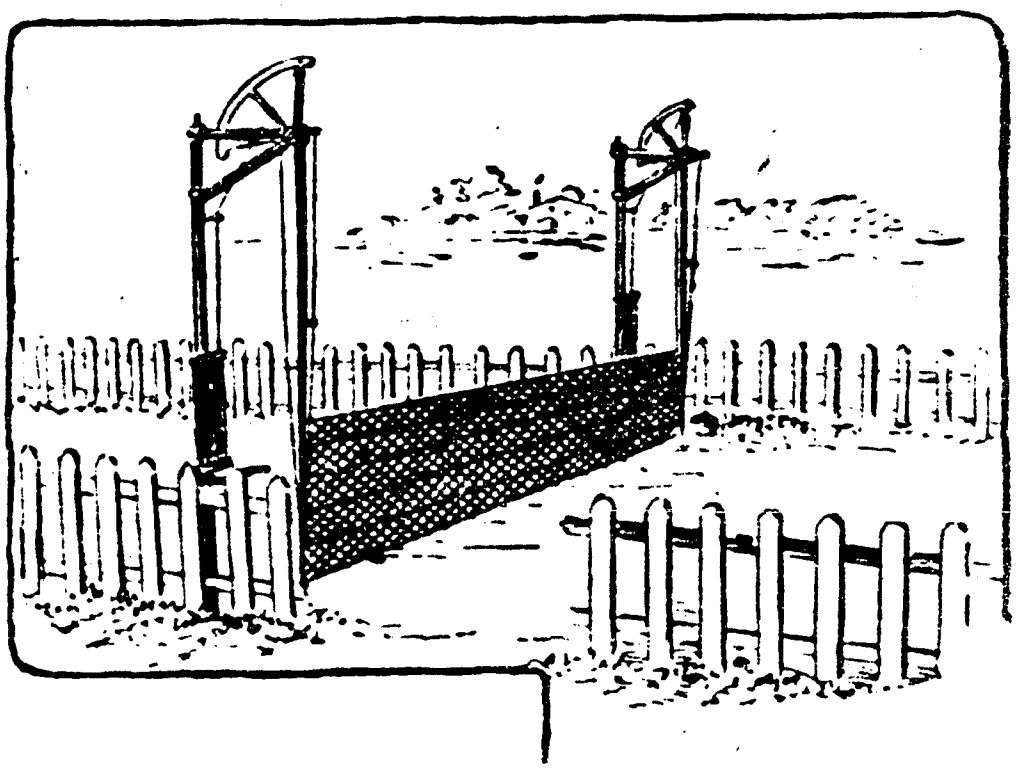
[291] Ibid., February 18, 1896. The hope was expressed that the machine would be in operation at the Ontario Jockey Club's meeting in May because "with this assistance the starter has no annoying delays at the post, and every horse has an equal chance."

[292] Ibid., May 25, 1896. A problem was that the machine could not be used for all races as eight different distances were to be raced and the course was organized in such a way that there were eight different starting posts (Ibid., March 19, 1896).

[293] W.A. Hewitt, Down the Stretch, p.147. "In those days the actions of the horses at the post was something to behold. Usually they faced every way but the right one, and before they got away the patience of the starter was frayed. As a rule, all the kickers were placed on the outside regardless of the positions they had drawn;..."



THE STARTING MACHINE UP.



THE STARTING MACHINE DOWN.

Plate 17. Starting-barrier for Horse-Racing, 1896.

Riders had to be suitably attired for most organized race meetings throughout the century. In a footnote to an advertisement about the Montreal races in 1830 it was stated that all "riders had to be dressed in proper Jockey Style."[294] The following year a description of this apparel was added in parenthesis after the announcement - "breeches and top boots."[295]

Trotting races were frequently held in Canada from the 1830's on,[296] and the harness used was usually a high-wheeled sulky or calèche.[297] At first, the sulkies had four wheels, but as the competition in races increased, a two-wheeled high sulky was introduced. The driver had to "sit on a perch" on this harness, and it was not until late in the century that a major modification to this design was introduced.[298]

A "bicycle" sulky, with a ball-bearing axle and pneumatic tires, was introduced in the 1890's and a low twenty-eight inch wheel was incorporated.[299] A report in the Toronto Globe of 1892 gave details of the new harness:

> The "bike" certainly adds to the speed of the harness horse, and as speed is what the public want the new style of sulky may be considered a fixture. It is claimed that

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[294] Montreal Gazette, August 12, 1830.

[295] Ibid., June 16, 1831.

[296] Ibid., September 23, 1830; February 12, 1835.

[297] Lindsay, op.cit., p.217; Menke, op.cit., p.537.

[298] A number of minor modifications were patented in Canada and included Patent 7,290 (John W. Wood and Charles Schoen, Owatonna, Minnesota: 1877); 9,273 (William J. Hamill, St. Catharines, Ontario: 1878); 25,934 (W.M. Lawson, Sarnia, Ontario: 1887); 31,042 (Joseph Barsalon, St. John, Quebec: 1889).

[299] Krout, op.cit., p.53.

> the ball-bearings, which reduce the friction on the axle to a minimum, and the pneumatic tire will make a difference in the mile of from one to three seconds, as against the old style of sulky wheels. The "bike" wheels now in use are the same size as an ordinary safety bicycle. A Western sulky builder has tired the large wheels with ball bearings and pneumatic tires, but abandoned them on account of finding them less steady than the small wheels. It will not be long before the sulky with the big, wooden wheels will be as much a back number as the high wheeled bicycle.[300]

A bicycle sulky was used on ice for the first time in Canada in the winter of 1893-94 and was found to be "two or three seconds faster than the trotting sleigh."[301]

A detailed diagram of "a sulky wheel hub that has no equal" was included in an advertisement of the Henderson Bicycle Company, Toronto, and it was claimed that this patented invention made "our wheel the fastest yet produced and a boon to horsemen, who are not slow to appreciate its advantages over all others."[302]

Polo was played in several regions of Canada during the latter decades of the century.[303] It became an extremely popular sport on the prairies after Edward M. Wilmot introduced the sport to ranchers around Pincher Creek in the North West Territories (Alberta) in the early 1880's.[304] Whittled branches or broom handles, and cricket balls were used at first, but proper polo mallets and white balls were purchased in

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[300] Globe, Toronto, August 20, 1892.

[301] Ibid., February 18, 1895. [302] Ibid., April 10, 1897.

[303] Phyllis R. Blakeley, Glimpses of Halifax, 1867-1900. (Halifax: Public Archives of Nova Scotia, 1949), p.151; Bull, op.cit., p.313.

[304] High River Pioneers' and Old Timers' Association, Leaves from the Medicine Tree (Lethbridge: Lethbridge Herald, 1960), p.155.

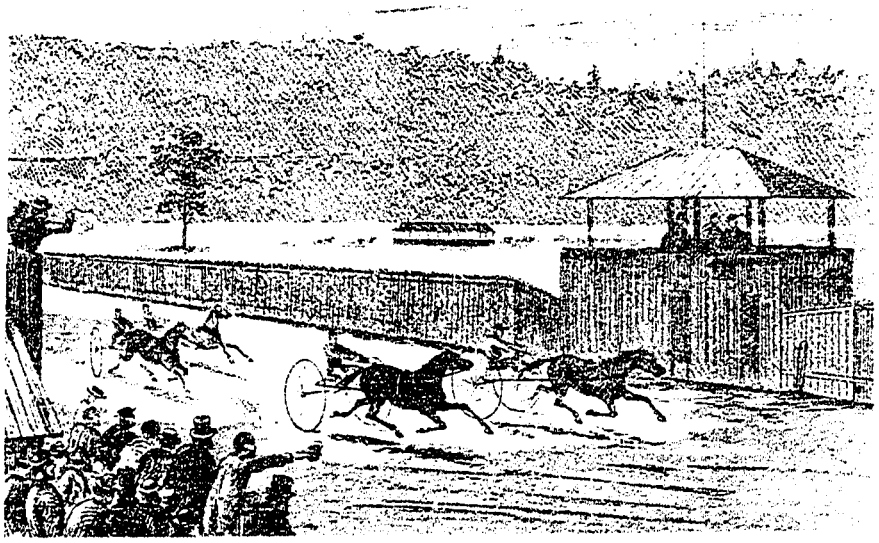

Plate 18. The Driving Park Races at Hamilton, 1873.

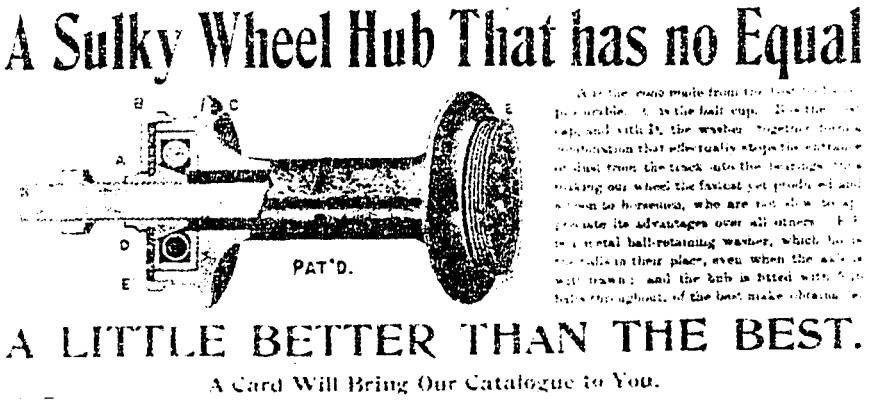

Plate 19. Advertisement for the Henderson Bicycle Company, Toronto, 1897.

England by Mr. Wilmot during a visit in 1889.[305] This exciting sport enticed many followers and, within a radius of 120 miles on the plains of Alberta, there were seven clubs by 1897.[306]

The ponies or horses used for polo were an important component of the game. The cayuse was used at first because it was the only horse available, but with breeding, the half- and three-quarter bred ponies were found to be faster and had more stamina.[307] The prairie ponies were so agile and suitable for polo that many were shipped to England and sold for prices ranging from thirty-five to one hundred dollars.[308]

Although suitable facilities for swimming were not always available, the lakes and rivers made bathing possible during the warm summer months. Youths and men had no concern over what should be worn while bathing, but the lack of a suitable garment was a deterrent for women bathers.[309] Appropriate apparel was recommended in Home and Health[310] in 1882:

> There is no doubt that the less cumbersome the clothing the more beneficial the bath, and ladies who are fortunate in having private bathing places will find a flannel dress, made with a loose blouse waist and short closed drawers,

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[305] Eleanor G. Luxton, "History of Polo in Western Canada," (Unpublished papers prepared for the Glenbow Institute, Calgary, 1961).

[306] High River Pioneers' and Old Timers' Association, op.cit., p.155. Reference was made to a Polo Magazine which was in circulation in 1897.

[307] Luxton, op.cit.

[308] Calgary Herald, October 12, 1899. The newspaper stated that Mr. Harry D. Critchley had shipped a carload of approximately twenty ponies to England and that the "supply was never equal to the demand."

[309] Hall, op.cit., p.48.

[310] Quoted in Una Abrahamson, God Bless Our Home (Canada: Burns and MacEachern Ltd., 1966), pp.117-118.

> very nearly perfection; but for the ordinary bather, who has to take her chance with many others, there is no better design than the one which also serves as a gymnastic suit, and consists of a sailor blouse, skirt and trousers. The skirt is plain in front, and there is no more fullness in either blouse or skirt than is necessary to its good appearance. The amount of material required for this entire suit is a little less than nine yards. Twilled flannel, dark blue or Russian gray, is the most serviceable material for a bathing dress, as it does not chill or hold the water.

Even in the nineties women's bathing costumes were fashioned after the clothing worn by seamen, and they "copied the conventional middy and bell-bottom trousers of the jack-tars; clad in decent blacks or blues from head to heel the bathers diffidently made their way from dressing boxes to the deep, doubtless hoping that they might be mistaken for seafarers."[311] Similar designs were illustrated in Eaton's catalogues throughout the nineties, as were "bathing hoods" and shoes.[312]

A number of curious swimming "devices" and "aids" were patented towards the end of the century, and although many of them were possibly theoretically sound, they apparently proved to be impractical.[313] Nevertheless, the evidence of such inventions has indicated that there was a marked interest in swimming at that time.

In the early years of the century it was recognized that rowing competitions and matches would improve the speed, strength and durability

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[311] Stevens, op.cit., p.211.

[312] T. Eaton and Company, Spring and Summer Catalogue, 1894, p.31. An all-wool, navy blue estamine serge with white braid trimmings cost $4.00; bathing hoods were 50¢ and white canvas bathing shoes with rope soles were 75¢ a pair.

[313] The following selection of patents were indicative of the variety of swimming devices, aids and machines. Canadian Patent Office, Patents 23,963; 32,191; 33,279; 49,564; 54,140; 66,007; 69,455).

of boats as boat-builders and oarsmen strived to improve the performance of their craft.[314] The boats used in rowing regattas in the first-third of the century were mainly those designed primarily for fishing.[315] At a Quebec regatta in 1830 the rowing races were for four-oared gigs; whale-boats and six-oared gigs; and four-oared boats rowed by sailors.[316] An exception was the four-oared gig, Eagle; built of Spanish cedar and twenty-eight feet long. It was obvious this craft was designed for racing:

> ... she is described as a beautiful model, of very light construction, and finished in a style of elegance that would lead one almost to imagine it had been taken from its place in a glass case.... The thwarts are narrow and thin cedar boards, only of sufficient strength to bear the oarsmen, and the ornaments, which consist only of a brazen eagle at the bow, and slight brass rods at the cockswain's seat, are very plain, but handsome and appropriate. This elegant cutter is said to weigh only 130 lbs.[317]

The Eagle had been ordered from New York by officers of the 32nd Regiment of Quebec, and carried the crew to victory in the Quebec regatta of 1831.[318] Within a few years, the boat-builders of the Maritime provinces became renowned for their craftsmanship.[319] Keen rowing rivalry existed between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia or, more especially St. John and Halifax, as the respective provinces and cities prided themselves upon

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[314] Novascotian, Halifax, August 2, 1827.

[315] Ibid., July 20, 1826 and August 5, 1829.

[316] Montreal Gazette, September 12, 1830.

[317] Ibid., August 23, 1831.

[318] Lindsay, op.cit., p.155.

[319] There were builders of racing craft in other provinces; an advertisement inserted in the Montreal Gazette, February 6, 1845, stated that a boat builder by the name of Alexander had a 32 feet, six-oared gig for sale. The breadth of the craft was 3 feet 8 inches, and the depth 20 inches.

their rowing and boat-building capabilities. Crews from the two cities competed in a race on Chebucto Harbour, Halifax in October, 1849, and following the defeat of the Halifax crew, the editor of the Novascotian described the St. John crew's craft in a laudatory manner.[320] The Eclipse was built of pine and fastened throughout with copper and, compared with the Nova Scotia boat of cedar, the planks were "as thin as a wafer."[321] The length of the boat was thirty-four feet with the width and depth being three feet and fourteen inches, respectively.[322]

The Eclipse had been built at Sand Cove by Christopher Coyle, a young boat-builder who became renowned for his fine craftsmanship. The following year the editor of the Novascotian[323] extolled the prowess of New Brunswick boat-builders, and Coyle in particular:

> We have accomplished wonders in the building of our boats, and in pulling them also; but we are still far behind our friends the Newbrunswickers. The North End

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[320] Novascotian, Halifax, October 15, 1849.

[321] Ibid. The 12 feet long oars were 11 inches in the blade and were described as being "adapted to those who grasp them." Apparently, the Eclipse carried no coxswain, and no rudder was used. This factor was reported in the Novascotian in 1857 in an article which recalled the rowing contest of 1849: "...our opponents New Brunswick rowed their neat boat as straight as an arrow, and that, too, without the sign of a rudder. This new idea had resulted from an accident, when, as we are told, the mooring line got foul of the rudder of a starting boat and carried it away. This boat won the race, and the rudder soon became discarded as an useless appendage in rowing matches." (Ibid., August 10, 1857)

[322] The report in the Novascotian was concluded: "The short and the long of the matter is just this, the crew of the Eclipse have studied the science of rowing - inseparable from the universal law of machanics, and are, consequently, far ahead of us as boatmen. They know how to apply their strength, and this explains why the slight apparatus with which they perform the work stands all the necessary tug." (Ibid)

[323] Ibid., September 23, 1850.

> Boat Club have been making enquiries of Mr. Coyle, the New Brunswick builder, as to his terms of building them a boat; but he, it appears, could not give a positive answer, without first consulting his colleagues. To the question as to whether the Sand Point [sic] Club would sell the gig they licked us with, he answered in the affirmative - the price £50, with the assurance that the then racer was now a slow coach, compared with one since built by him.

The New Brunswick boat-builders had achieved an international reputation for their supremacy in constructing racing shells as Harvard University engaged St. John craftsmen to make a white-pine eight-oared rowing shell with iron outriggers.[324]

The attachment of outrigger oar-locks was the first revolutionary alteration in the construction of boats for racing. This innovation reduced the size of the beam and, consequently, the dead weight of the craft.[325] Outriggers had been used in England in the 1840's, and by 1846 both the Oxford and Cambridge eights were outrigged.[326] Boats were built without keels after the mid-1850's and the heavy, square-shaped oars in use gave way to light and more rounded oars.[327]

The quality of boats manufactured in Nova Scotia throughout the 1850's improved considerably. The boats built by James Pryor of Halifax were rowed to victory by Nova Scotian four- and six-oared crews in the

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[324]Roxborough, op.cit., p.65.

[325]Rudolph C. Lehman, The Complete Oarsman. (London: Methuen and Company, 1908), pp.20-21.

[326]Ibid. This invention is generally attributed to Henry Clasper, a Tyne River oarsman who suspended the oar out over the water by iron brackets, thereby changing the position of the fulcrum and the oar for more effective utilization by the rower (John V. Cromback, The Olympics, 1960 (New York: Ballantyne Books, 1960), p.79; Globe, Toronto, September 16, 1870).

[327]Lehman, op.cit., pp.22-23.

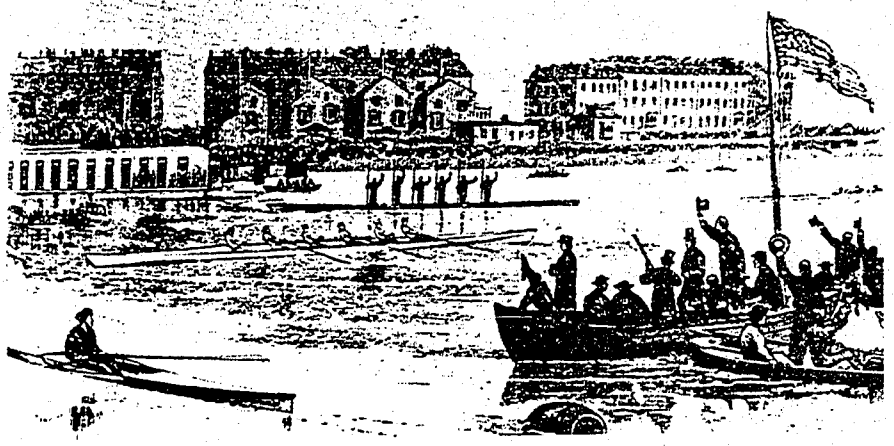

Plate 20. A six-oared shell built for Harvard University in 1857 at St.John, New Brunswick.

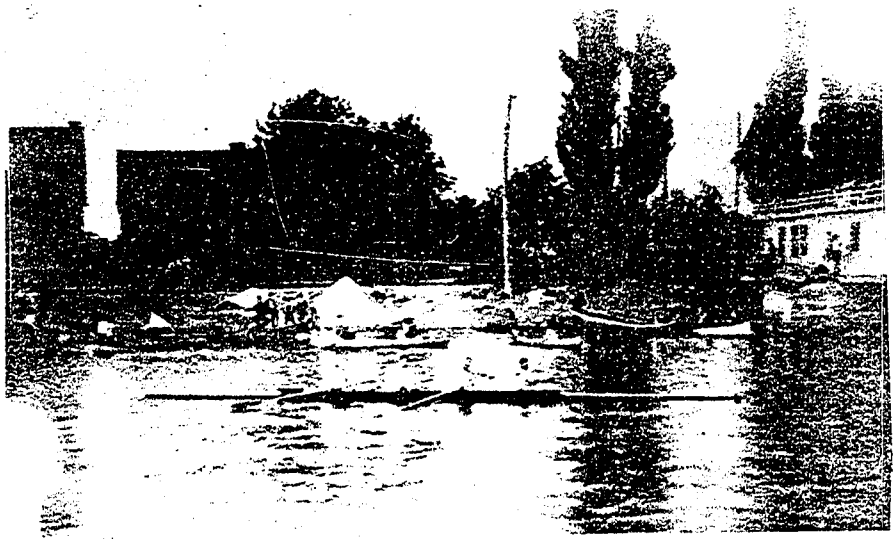

Plate 21. A four-oared crew at the Ottawa Rowing Club, 1886.

Halifax Regatta of 1851,[328] and in 1856 Nova Scotia beat a New Brunswick crew in what the editor of the Novascotian stated was "the second great boat race."[329] The Novascotian reprinted the entire report of the "great boat race" seven years previously (October 11, 1849), which New Brunswick had won. The rowing enthusiasts of Nova Scotia were ecstatic over the win, and a special presentation to James Pryor, the builder of the victorious Quick Step, was made in December, 1856. The Honorable Joseph Howe made the presentation:

> Mr. Howe, addressing himself to Mr. Pryor, said... you have not wasted your time in frivolous pursuits, but have employed your leisure in scientific enquiries and experiments which be at the foundation of the prosperity of your country. It may seem a light matter to win a boat race and a piece of plate. It might be so in some countries; but not in Nova Scotia; not only that we cannot afford to lose our credit abroad, but because perfection in nautical art lays at the root of our prosperity as a commercial people.[330]

The following year a further challenge between crews from St. John and Halifax resulted in another victory for the Haligonians in James Pryor's Wide Awake.[331] The St. John boat, Neptune, had been built for the Union Club by a New York boat-builder named McKay,[332] and was designed

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[328] Novascotian, Halifax, September 15, 1851.

[329] Ibid., June 30, 1856; Supra, 91.

[330] Ibid. January 6, 1857. For the complete report of the presentation which appeared in the Novascotian, see Appendix B.

[331] Ibid., July 27, 1857.

[332] Ibid. The editor of the Novascotian, in commenting upon the fact that a boat built in New York had been used by the St. John crew stated: "This, then, is a tacit acknowledgement of their own inferiority, so far as building a Boat is concerned." This was apparently a second Neptune as the report in the Novascotian stated that this craft was "not the old Neptune".

for calm waters. The sea was choppy on the day of the challenge and it was not safe for the Neptune to race, so the crew forfeited by rowing to shore after the signal to start had been given. The Wide Awake "had her nose well up out of the water, looking as weatherly as a whaler", and completed the course "without shipping as much as a sup of water."[333] The description of the Neptune was indicative of the boat's unsuitability "in anything but calm water":

> ... the Neptune was cut away to almost nothing forward and aft, with her midship raised so as to work the oars to advantage, and having her rowlocks fitted to outriggers extending some six inches beyond the topsides - a veritable Thames wherry.[334]

Rowing was also a very popular sport in the eastern provinces at this time, and the Shakespeare Rowing Club accepted a challenge from the Metropolitan Rowing Club of Chicago to compete in a four-oared race at Detroit in 1858.[335] The Shakespeare Club crew won the race, which was deemed the Championship of the Lakes, with a small boy as coxswain, "who sat astern of the rowers and controlled the rudder by means of cords."[336]

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[333] Ibid. The Wide Awake was formerly named Alert, a boat built by Pryor nine years previously and especially modified for the race. The Wide Awake was sold soon after this race to John Lithgow and other men of Halifax for £15 (Ibid., August 3, 1857).

[334] Ibid. The weight of the Neptune was 130 pounds. The following month a New Brunswick crew narrowly defeated a crew from Halifax who had a harness around their backs and attached to their oars in order to exert more power during each stroke (Ibid., August 17, 1857).

[335] Globe, Toronto, September 8, 1858. Middleton has stated that the Shakespeare Club was a loose association which brought James MacKay from Scotland to build a six-oared shell. Since the event against the Metropolitan Rowing Club was between crews of four-men, it was unlikely that boat was used (Jesse E. Middleton, Toronto's One Hundred Years, 1834-1934. (Toronto: The Centennial Committee, City of Toronto, 1934), p.98.

[336] Ibid., October 18, 1858.

The Chicago crew carried no coxswain, which proved to be a disadvantage in the heavy swell:

> ... she steered quite wild and was near getting foul of her competitor at the first start. The arrangement by which it was intended to steer was fixed forward of the third oarsman. The excitement of the race was too great to allow of one man managing oar and rudder both, and the consequence was that the boat lost ground from bad steering.[337]

Although there were many boats designed exclusively for racing by the 1860's, organizers of rowing regattas still included events for the slower boats. The programme for the regatta at Longueuil in August, 1860, included races for four-, six- and ten-oared "ship boats" from steamers.[338] The Toronto regatta in August, 1866, featured a fishermen's race in boats which were used in the season,[339] and the Ottawa Rowing Club's first annual regatta included races for four-oared outriggers, double skull skiffs (lapstreak boats pulled from the gunwale), canoes, four-oared inriggers (lapstreaks) and single skulls (uncovered lapstreak boats pulled from the gunwale).[340] Nevertheless, the delicate racing shells were the craft which received the most attention and admiration. A correspondent for the Hamilton Times described the boats used in a four-oared rowing match between crews from the Hamilton White Ash and Windsor Rowing Clubs in 1865:

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[337] Ibid.

[338] Montreal Gazette, August 31, 1860. The "ship-boats" were from the Nova Scotian and Brittania, and the war-steamers Styx and Valorious.

[339] Globe, Toronto, August 24, 1866.

[340] Ottawa Times, September 12, 1867. The races for this regatta were held under the "Laws of Racing as settled by the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and the principal Boat Clubs in London, England, contained in the Argonauts Book on the Art of Rowing and Training."

> I went down to the boathouse of the Windsor club[341] to take a look at the light, yet precious little craft in which the racing was to be performed. The boats are of the lightest and approved make, with iron outriggers, and were both built by the late Denis Phelan, of Hamilton. The Windsor men had the advantage somewhat in their boat, it being 14 inches longer, and two or three inches narrower in the beam than the Hamilton boat... [it] is a beautiful specimen of the boat-builder's art.... These boats are kept 'boxed up', so to speak, and handled by their owners as carefully as a lady does her jewels.... A possible touching of their treasure by clownish hands is viewed with alarm by the boatmen; and no wonder, for these boats are built to stand strain in but one direction, and in but one particular way, and would easily be injured by clumsy handling.[342]

In July, 1867, Canada won her first rowing victory over the world at the Paris Exhibition in France.[343] The crew from St. John, known from that time on as the "Paris" crew, had taken two "home-made boats some thousands of miles to show the rest of the world how to row."[344] The St. John crew entered the inrigged- and outrigged-fours and, to the surprise of the world, won both championships.[345] Whereas the English

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[341]"Clubs in those days were merely convenient places for social gatherings, storing of boats, and depots from which to hold regattas. Boats were owned by the men who rowed in them. If you wished to form a crew, then the four of you went out to the builders and bought a skiff." (Robert S. Hunter, Rowing in Canada Since 1848. (Hamilton: Davis: Lisson Ltd., 1933), p.15).

[342]Hamilton Times, September 2, 1865. The Hamilton boat was older: "Lately its bottom had been painted over with red lead, and, for the purposes of the race, it was requisite to overlay this with a polished coating of black lead, the standard anti-friction application for aquatic racers of this class."

[343]Hunter, op.cit., p.16. Crews from Canada had successfully competed in rowing regattas in the United States prior to this time but the Paris races were the first outside North America. For an account of these events, see Hunter, op.cit., pp.13-16 and Lindsay, op.cit., pp. 304-307.

[344]Globe, Toronto, August 2, 1867.

[345]Morning Chronicle, Quebec, August 14, 1867.

boats weighed about sixty pounds, the New Brunswick boats were much heavier, being close to two hundred pounds.[346] "Sala", a correspondent from the London Telegraph, had stated that "their boat is a curious old-fashioned outrigger, and looks like a Chinese puzzle painted green, it is so wonderfully made, and so curiously put together."[347] A correspondent of the Manchester Guardian wrote about the "good quality of their boats which, though much too heavy, are keel built, stand well up on the bows, and displace wonderfully little water."[348]

In September, 1867, another St. John crew competed in a four-oared race against the Ward brothers of New York, but they were defeated by a large margin of distance.[349] The St. John Thetis, built by Thomas Dalton of St. John was 37 feet long, 27½ inches wide, and 9 inches deep - "as fair a proportioned, needle-like clipper that aquatic eyes rested lovingly upon."[350] However, the American boat, built by Stephen Roberts of Harlem, New York, was regarded as a swifter craft.[351]

Single sculls events became very popular and materials other than wood were tried in an attempt to gain maximum speed. George Lovett rowed a boat made of tin when he defeated Bernard Gallagher for the

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[346] Ibid., August 13, 1867.

[347] Quoted in the Morning Chronicle, Quebec, August 14, 1867.

[348] Ibid.

[349] Reporter, Fredericton, September 20, 1867. This crew was not the Paris crew although the race was classed as being for the "Championship of the World." See Lindsay, op.cit., pp.310-311 for a detailed description.

[350] Thetis was constructed of Aroostook or "pumpkin pine". The bow and stroke oars were 13 feet 3 inches long, and the waste oars 13 feet 6 inches long.

[351] Ibid. The boat was named Sheridan Shook and was of Spanish cedar, 46 feet long, 20 inches wide, and 10 inches deep at amidships.

Championship of Halifax Harbour in 1859.[352] The weight of this craft, the Lady Stewart, was forty pounds, and it was twenty feet long. Richard Tinning used a boat which weighed only twenty-nine pounds in a single sculls race against Bob Berry at the Ottawa Regatta of August, 1868.[353] Berry's boat weighed eighty pounds and was a marked contrast to Tinning's Cigarette which had been purchased from Henry Clasper, the English boat-builder at Newcastle-on-Tyne.[354]

A radical change in the construction of racing shells was the introduction of sliding seats. In the 1850's, the practice of greasing the seat and sliding on it for the initial strokes began, and oarsmen soon found this action to be so advantageous that heavier rowing trunks were worn, so they could "slide" throughout the entire length of the race.[355] The James Renforth crew, which came to Canada in 1870 to row at the Lachine Regatta, was observed wearing heavy chamois-leather trunks. The long polished seats of the English shell were treated with lard just before the race, so that the oarsmen slid freely and increased the length of their stroke.[356] It was not until after 1870 that the idea of having the seats slide on wheels was put into practice.[357] This type of sliding seat was invented in America, and used by scullers and crews in

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[352] Novascotian, Halifax, July 18, 1859. Paper boats were used in North America in the 1870's and 1880's but their use declined due to their tendency to become water-logged (Hunter, op.cit., p.11).

[353] Globe, Toronto, August 25, 1868.

[354] Ibid.

[355] Hunter, op.cit., p.11.

[356] Middleton, Toronto's One Hundred Years, 1834-1934, p.120.

[357] Ibid.; Hunter, op.cit., p.11.

North America and Europe soon afterwards.[358] The early seats moved only about nine inches, but by the mid-1880's, longer slides of fifteen to eighteen inches were in use.[359] Hunter[360] has stated that Ned Hanlan became known a "The Father of the Sliding Seat", because it was he who perfected this most difficult rowing movement. Hanlan's rowing style was described in the Toronto Globe of June 19, 1879, just prior to his race against William Elliott, the English champion:

> Instead of sliding some nine or ten inches or so, he slid about eighteen! Thus at the beginning of the stroke his legs were so doubled up that his face was close to his knees (insomuch that his method of rowing or sliding has been called the knees-and-nose style). To allow the oar to work freely to this extra forward movement, the fixed rowlocks are replaced by swivelled ones.

Boat-builders continued to produce lighter and faster boats throughout the remaining decades of the century. Nehemiah Logan of Straight Shore, Nova Scotia, built a new boat with seats which slid on brass, a patented system of rowlocks, and a special steering apparatus.[361] The Smith-Nickerson crew, which won the stakes of $1,000-a-side in this boat in its maiden-race, gave $100 to Logan for his mastery in boat-building.[362]

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[358] Lehman, op.cit., p.22. Lehman has not indicated who invented the sliding seat, but Middleton has stated that Richard Tinning recalled that Walter Brown, an American rowing champion, had observed the result of the actions of the Renforth crew at Lachine in 1870. He then laid a track in his own shell, placed the seat on wheels and in doing so, became the inventor (Middleton, Toronto's One Hundred Years, 1834-1934, p.120).

[359] Lehman has stated that the changes in the construction of sliding seats since that time have been few and insignificant (Lehman, op.cit., p.22). George Warin of Toronto patented an improvement on sliding seats in 1882 (Canadian Patent Office, Patent 15,676 (George Warin, Toronto: 1882)).

[360] Hunter, op.cit., p.11.

[361] Halifax Citizen, July 10, 1875. [362] Ibid., July 27, 1875.

Robert Jewett built the four-oared Nova Scotia for the "Our Boys" crew in 1876, and it weighed only 92 pounds despite the fact that it was 41 feet long, had sliding seats, and Spanish cedar was used for its construction.[363]

Canadian oarsmen such as George Brown, Richard Tinning, Bob Berry, John Scholes, Ned Hanlan, Wallace Ross and Jake Gaudaur made sculling a most popular facet of the sport of rowing. The degree of excellence between many scullers was so close that the boats in which they rowed played a vital part. Prior to the scheduled challenge race between George Brown and R. Fulton at Digby Basin, in 1872, a comment appeared in the Toronto Globe to the effect that Brown's committee had ordered three boats to be built for his selection, and that Fulton had also ordered a new shell.[364] Mr. Elliott of Green Point, New York, was in great demand to build boats;[365] Ned Hanlan purchased the Spanish cedar shell in which he defeated Evan Morris of Pittsburgh in June, 1878, from Elliott.[366] The boat weighed only 30 pounds, and was 30 feet long, 12

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[363] Ibid., August 29, 1876, cited from the St. John News. The width amidships was 18½ inches and the depth was 7½ inches. An even lighter racing four had been used in the regatta at Lachine in 1870. The English boat, Dunstan-on-Tyne was 40 feet long, 19 inches wide and weighed only 90 pounds. The boat was not taken back to England after the race as it was purchased by Mr. Liddell of Pittsburgh for $250 in gold (Globe, Toronto, September 16 and 20, 1870).

[364] Globe, Toronto, July 13, 1872. Brown's three boats were made by three different boat builders: Elliott of Green Point, New York; Jewett of Dunstan-on-Tyne; and Searle of London. Fulton ordered his boat from Elliott but, as it was broken when it reached him, he obtained another Elliott boat which had already been built.

[365] Ibid.

[366] Globe, Toronto, July 13, 1872. The depth at the bow and stern was 3½ and 2½ inches, respectively (Ibid). No indication of the cost was given at this time, but in 1882 George Strickland purchased the boat in which Hanlan had defeated Jake Gaudaur in Pullman for $110.00 (Ibid., August 1, 1882).

inches wide, and 5 inches deep in the centre. Paper boats were also used by Hanlan and other scullers[367] but although lighter, they tended to become waterlogged and sluggish more rapidly than the wooden craft.[368] However, the Winnipeg Rowing Club puchased a paper-mache, four-oared shell from the Waters Brothers of Troy, New York, in 1883, so the advantages of the light construction of these craft may have outweighed the disadvantages.[369]

The changes which occurred in the racing shells in the nineteenth century did much for the sport of rowing. Prize money and professionalism were an important aspect of rowing during the middle years of the century. Hunter has stated that "better and faster skiffs meant more wins and more wins meant new and faster types of boats."[370] This circular arrangement benefited the sport of rowing. The new lighter and faster boats required skill and training to handle them well, but there were also many training boats for those oarsmen seeking to enjoy rowing on a recreational or amateur basis. The formation of the Canadian Association of Amateur Oarsmen in 1880 resulted in a considerable increase in the

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[367] Ibid., October 15, 1878. Charles Courtney of New York used a paper boat weighing only 27 pounds at the 1881 Citizens Regatta in Toronto (Ibid., September 2, 1881).

[368] Hunter, op.cit., p.11. This was especially so in salt water, as the Vancouver Boating Club members found out after they purchased two paper-mache boats in 1888 (Ibid., p.93).

[369] Winnipeg Free Press, March 10, 1883. The membership of the Winnipeg Rowing Club at that time was in excess of 150, and two practice boats were to be bought from a builder in Toronto (Ibid). A patent for the "Art of Making Paper Boats" (light boats of impermeable paper) was filed in 1880. (Canadian Patent Office, Patent 11,732 (Pierre A. Gendron, St. Hugues, Quebec: 1880)).

[370] Hunter, op.cit., p.15.

number of Canadians participating in the sport. However, the reason they were able to utilize the highly sophisticated rowing shells was largely due to the innovations brought about by professional oarsmen demanding boats of a very high quality.

In the early years of rowing regattas, canoeing events were included on the programme, although they were usually regarded as novelty events.[371] The canoe of the late nineteenth century was a development of the craft of the native peoples of Canada; the seal-skin kayaks of the Eskimos, and the birch-bark canoes of the forest Indians of the eastern regions.[372] The canoes which Hugh Gray described in the first decade of the century were "of one solid piece of wood, a large tree scooped out, and formed in the outside something like a boat."[373] However, by the time the Canadian Canoe Association was formed in 1900, the modern canoe bore little resemblance to that described by Gray.

In 1849, a lighter, "cedar-board" canoe was built in Lakefield, Ontario, but it was not until 1870 that James Stephenson of Peterborough, who considered the "dug-out" or "log-canoe" too heavy for portages, and the "birch-bark" canoe too frail, produced what came to be known as the "Peterborough" canoe.[374] This canoe was constructed of thin basswood

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[371] Lindsay, op.cit., p.149; Cox, op.cit., pp.281-282; Howell and Howell, op.cit., p.123.

[372] John A. Stothart, "The History of Canoeing in Canada," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), p.3.

[373] Hugh Gray, Letters from Canada Written During a Residence There in the Years 1806, 1807, 1808. (London: Longman, Hurst and Brown, 1809), p.257.

[374] Ronald Borg (Editor), Peterborough, Land of Shining Waters - An Anthology. (Peterborough: The Centennial Committee for the City and County of Peterborough, University of Toronto Press, 1967), p.233.

fastened to a light framework. The success of this canoe was so great that Stephenson formed the Ontario Canoe Company.[375]

The American Canoe Association (A.C.A.), which was formed in 1880, often invited Canadian canoeists to join them for regattas and cruises at their summer headquarters at Grindstone, one of the Thousand Islands in the St. Lawrence, and some Canadian canoe clubs affiliated with this association.[376] Canoe Island in Lake George, New York, was another pleasant meeting place of the A.C.A., and six canoeists from Peterborough, Ontario, travelled by train to the annual meeting of 1881. Three new Stephenson-built canoes, which were constructed with a new outside ribbed principle, accompanied the travellers, and one was presented to the A.C.A. as a regatta prize.[377] Later, when cedar-ribbed canoes were manufactured, Stephenson's company serviced a demand for canoes from the Hudson's Bay Company, and individuals from all over North America.[378]

Canoes of many different shapes and designs were popular in the 1880's and 1890's and single-, double- and gunwale paddling events were included in canoe regattas, along with races for sailing canoes, although this was not a regular event during the last decade of the century.[379]

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[375] Ibid.

[376] Cox, op.cit., p.282.

[377] Globe, Toronto, August 14, 1881. A person named John S. Stephenson patented "improvements in boats" (ribs covered with paper, cotton or other textile fabrics) in 1879, and a keelless canoe in 1883 (Canadian Patent Office, Patents 10,063 and 17,681 (John S. Stephenson, Ashburnham, Ontario: 1879 and 1883). It was probable that this person was the canoe-builder at Peterborough.

[378] Borg, op.cit., p.233. "Peterborough canoe" races were included in canoe regattas in various parts of Canada (Daily Colonist, Victoria, August 13, 1892).

[379] Cox, op.cit., pp.384-285.

Recreational canoeing attracted many people, and a number of folding or collapsible canoes and boats were designed in an attempt to satisfy the demand for portable water-craft.[380] In Edmonton, Mr. F.A. Osborne produced a sporting boat which was hinged in the middle so that it could be "doubled up like a jack-knife."[381]

The open sea and the expanses of water on the lakes made sailing a natural activity for Canadians. Sailing regattas were held in the 1820's and clubs were also formed around that time period.[382] Boat-builders were soon pressed to manufacture sleeker and swifter yachts and sail-boats.[383]

For the 1845 Kingston Bay Regatta the classification of sailing boats was done by the "tonnage" system, with the maximum limit for the first, second and third class boats being fifteen, eight and five tons, respectively.[384] Only "pleasure yachts" and "naval boats" were allowed to enter, and sail boats had to fly a distinguishing flag.[385] Smaller boats, such as the bateaux, were also used in sailing matches,[386] especially after the middle of the century. These smaller boats provided much pleasure for middle-class people seeking recreation.[387] By the end

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[380]Canadian Patent Office, Patents 9,865; 9,906; 16,810; 24,738; 62,707.

[381]Edmonton Bulletin, July 23, 1890.

[382]Roxborough, op.cit., p.58; Novascotian, Halifax, July 20, 1826.

[383]Howell and Howell, op.cit., pp.47-48; Lindsay, op.cit., p.170.

[384]Montreal Gazette, September 2, 1845. [385]Ibid.

[386]Morning Chronicle, Quebec, September 4, 1862.

[387]Lindsay, op.cit., p.181.

of the century, small sail-boats were most popular, especially after a Canadian-designed boat defeated an American boat in 1896.

In 1896 George H. Duggan and Fred P. Shearwood designed the Canadian challenger, Glencairn, for the international competition for small sail boats sponsored by the Seawanhaka Corinthian Yacht Club of New York.[388] Brown[389] has stated that the Glencairn sailed at an average angle of between fifteen and twenty degrees, which gave the advantage of a longer water line when inclined than when upright. The boat was adapted from a canoe design, with very light construction, and this model became very popular among sail-boat enthusiasts. Another small sail-boat, the clinker-built sailing dinghy, was designed by J. Wilton Morse in 1898, and twelve, fourteen, sixteen and eighteen feet models were being sailed right across Canada by the turn of the century.[390]

The racing of large yachts remained the domain of the wealthy throughout the century, but as a spectator sport it was most popular. A number of changes to keels, centre-boards, and overall dimensions of yachts improved both the speed and spectacle of this aquatic sport.[391]

When winter came, the streams, rivers and lakes over most of Canada froze and suitable natural surfaces for curling were readily

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[388] J.J. Brown, Ideas in Exile - A History of Canadian Invention. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1967), p.167.

[389] Ibid.

[390] C.H.J. Snider, Annals of the Royal Canadian Yacht Club, 1852-1937. (Toronto: Rous and Mann Limited, 1937), p.275.

[391] For details of yacht racing in Canada during the latter years of the nineteenth century, see Snider, op.cit; L.F. Grant, History of the Lake Yacht Racing Association, 1884-1962 (Don Mills, Ontario: Lake Yacht Racing Association, 1962).

available. Curling began in British North America in the eighteenth century[392] and the first organized club in this country was the Montreal Curling Club, formed in 1807.[393] Instead of whin-or other stones, the original club-members curled with cast-iron objects, which varied in weight from forty-five to sixty-five pounds.[394] Many of the cast-iron stones used in Quebec were first made of wood and sent to the forges at Trois Rivieres to be completed.[395] Creelman[396] has stated that the use of irons originated in Quebec when the idea of melting down old cannon balls was put into practice because granite stones were not available. These curling irons were used for many years, but newcomers sometimes found them difficult to manage. John McTaggart, who spent three years in Canada in the late 1820's, wrote: "The 'curling stones', if I may use the expression, they have constructed of cast iron; but as iron is a great conductor of heat, they were not found to answer well, as they stuck into the ice."[397]

"Wooden" stones, shaped from blocks of maple or birch tree, with bands of iron around the outside to prevent them splintering and to give

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[392]Garald N. Bowie, "The History and Trends of Curling," (Unpublished Master of Science thesis, Washington State University, Pullman, 1962), pp.60-61.

[393]The Montreal Curling Club, 1807-1907. (Montreal: A booklet published by the Club, 1907), p.18. See Appendix H. for a copy of the original minutes of the Club.

[394]Ibid. Most of the stones were declared to be the property of the club as a body.

[395]W. George Beers, "Canada in Winter," The British American Magazine, V.2 (December, 1863), p.168.

[396]W.A. Creelman, Curling, Past and Present. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1950), p.137.

[397]John Mactaggart, Three Years in Canada, 1826-1828, V.2. (London: Henry Colburn, 1829), p.222.

them extra weight, were also used at this time.[398] Mr. Peter McArthur of Toronto was well-known around Toronto as a maker of these wooden curling stones from the late 1830's on.[399] An advertisement for his stones was inserted in the British Colonist in January, 1839:

Curling

> To Curlers - 'Geluque Flumina Constiterint Acuto' - Horace. - Curling stones may be had on application to the subscriber, who has taken pains to collect a number of blocks of the most excellent grain. Several members of the Toronto Curling Club have already been supplied, and specimens may be seen on the Bay on Playing Days, or on application to Mr. Macdonald, at the City Wharf, or to the subscriber at his residence, No. 16 New Street. The price of the stones is eight dollars per pair and upwards, according to the handles and finish.
> Peter McArthur.[400]

Other wooden curling stones were manufactured throughout the century, and some were more conducive to competitive sport than others. Bull[401] has stated that when the residents of Clarkson, Ontario, made their own stones, pieces of beech-wood log, with tin pie-plates as skidding bases, were used.

Granite or whinstone curling stones were made in the 1830's in

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[398] James Young, Early History of Galt and the Settlement of Dumfries. (Toronto: Hunter, Rose and Coy., 1880), p.127.

[399] J. Ross Robertson, Robertson's Landmarks of Toronto, V.2. (Toronto: J. Ross Robertson, 1896), p.757.

[400] Ibid. Robertson has added, "The Horatian quotation is from the Odes 1, 9, 3 and being translated means 'And the rivers are very fast set with nipping frost.'"

[401] Bull, op.cit., p.239. Bull has also stated that according to The Channel-Stane, 200 pairs of Ailsa Craig stones were shipped to Canada in 1829 (Ibid). Ailsa Craig was a mountain across the Firth of Clyde from which the granite for curling stones was taken. For details of this famous mountain and how curling stones are made, see Creelman, op.cit., pp.84-89.

Upper Canada. Kerr[402] has stated that in the shires of Lanark and Dumfries, especially, Scottish immigrants made their own curling stones from the ice-borne boulders which were scattered over the land. Numerous settlers in the township of Scarborough brought their own curling stones, and those who did not, shaped their own from field-stones, as curling was a popular activity in that community. Competitors in curling matches around the Scarborough area at that time had one stone each, which often had a specified name.[403]

Cast iron curling stones were more common. The probable reason for this was explained in a letter to the editor of the Montreal Gazette in 1841. The correspondent referred to a pamphlet produced by James Becket, Secretary of the Toronto Curling Club:

> It is stated, page 11, that At Quebec and Montreal, iron castings are used; because, from the intense cold, stones would be liable to break, on striking against one another. But the chief, if not the only reason is, that when the game was first played in these cities, no stones of the proper sort could be found in the country, nor is it certain that any yet are discovered; besides, there were no workmen that could dress and prepare them for playing. If iron stones are objectionable in some respects, they also possess advantages over real stones; in particular, they cannot be cracked or broken, and will last through many generations.[404]

Several references to the fact that granite rocks could not stand up to

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[402]John Kerr, Curling in Canada and the United States. (Toronto: Toronto News Coy., 1904), p.336.

[403]David Boyle, The Township of Scarboro', 1796-1896. (Toronto: William Briggs, 1896), pp.241-242. Boyle has stated that James Findlay's stone was known as "Loudon Hill" and John Torrance's as "Tinto". See Creelman, op.cit., pp.68-78 for the descriptions and names of other stones.

[404]Montreal Gazette, January 5, 1841.

the Canadian winters have been made by writers about the period[405] and it was not until after sheltered ice rinks were built that granite stones were used extensively.

Even by the 1880's, iron stones were used exclusively in parts of Canada because they were more suitable to the peculiar condition of ice surfaces in those regions. Quebec curlers used heavier iron stones which were "duller" and not suitable for playing against the "keener" granites used in Ontario.[406] In western Canada various types of stones were used,[407] but many clubs preferred the granites. The Edmonton Curling Club tried to sell their iron stones in 1889 in order to purchase the more suitable granite stones.[408]

Stones with a handle were used in curling matches in Canada, although the very early kuting type stones were made with holes and hollows on opposite sides of the stone for the thumb and fingers to be inserted.[409] The use of a handle made the stones heavier and necessitated a change in the style of delivery. The handle facilitated swinging the stone, and an "elbow-out" and "elbow-in" delivery for turn soon developed.[410]

Once the swinging delivery was introduced, some means of providing

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[405] In a letter written in 1865 to his wife in England, Mr. Alfred Townsend, a travelling lumber merchant, stated: "But I've broomed a few iron stones along the ice. Too cold here for granite. Cracks them." (Luella Creighton, The Elegant Canadians. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1967), p.63))

[406] Globe, Toronto, December 14, 1883. Iron stones in Quebec weighed up to 100 pounds.

[407] Creelman, op.cit., p.151.

[408] Edmonton Bulletin, August 10, 1889.

[409] Creelman, op.cit., p.65.

[410] Ibid., p.70.

a firm footing or brace was required. "Crampits", thin iron or steel plateswith serrated edges on the under surfaces,were strapped to the feet of curlers.[411] As crampits frequently damaged the ice-surface, "trickers", with fewer spikes than crampits, were used. The "hacks" of modern day curling could not be used because the thinness of the natural ice often did not permit holes to be dug.[412]

The early brooms used in curling were nothing more than wild grasses lashed to a wooden handle.[413] The base of straw brooms was wide and the handles were much longer than those used today.[414]

Ice-skating was a popular activity in Canada throughout most of the nineteenth century. Special footwear for this activity had been in existence for hundreds of years, and it was believed that the word "skates" came from the Dutch schaats,which was used at least as early as the sixteenth century to refer to ice skates.[415] The skates which were in use in Canada during the early part of the century consisted of wood with a broad iron blade set into the centre of them. They were fastened to the shoe by means of a screw into the heel of the shoe, and a leather strap around the front part of the foot.[416]

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[411] Ibid., p.81.

[412] Ibid.

[413] W.A. Hewitt, Down the Stretch, p.55.

[414] There was no major change from the "household" straw broom which was used for curling until the modern broom, with a central bunch of long fibres and an outer bunch of shorter fibres, was patented in 1958 by a Montreal inventor (Canadian Patent Office, Patent 554826 (Fernand Marchessault, Montreal: 1958)).

[415] Boot and Blade - The History of Skating. (Kitchener: Advertising Material of Bauer Skates, a division of Greb Shoes Limited, 1969), p.3.

[416] Templin, op.cit., p.264.

Plate 22. Advertisement for Ice-Skates, December, 1864.

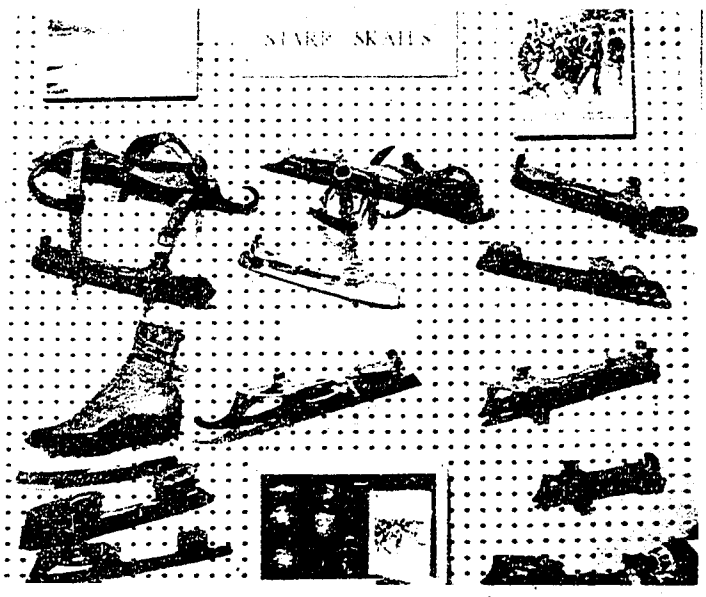

Plate 23. Skates of the Starr Manufacturing Company, Dartmouth, Nova Scotia.

Boot-skates, which eliminated the necessity of restrictive straps, were in use after the middle of the century. The Halifax Novascotian of January 24, 1859, published a description of a pair of boot skates manufactured for the Queen which were appropriately named "Victoria Skates":

> In lieu of straps across the insteps, each skate is provided with a patent leather boot. These boots are firmly attached by a grip of plated silver to the clogs which are of satin wood, highly polished. The skate irons terminate in front in the appropriate and graceful form of a swan.

Similar boot-skates were advertised in the Hamilton Times in 1862, and it was claimed the "feet are comfortable, and the circulation of the blood is not stopped as it is when straps are used."[417] At this time there were many advertisements for different types of skates: skating boots at the Metropolitan Shoe Store in Toronto were advertised for sale from $1.50 a pair;[418] Joseph Robinson and Company advertised imported English skates ranging in price from $1.50 to $3.50;[419] and English club skates were on sale at the Ottawa Skating Rink for $2.00 per pair, with

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[417] Hamilton Times, December 26, 1862. The skate, made by Thomas Lalor, was endorsed by W.H. Glassco: "I hereby certify that I have tried LALOR'S new Skates, and take pleasure in stating that I think them superior to all other Skates I have ever used."

[418] Globe, Toronto, December 24, 1863. During the last few days prior to Christmas in 1863, the Toronto Globe had many advertisements for skates within its pages. Some of the principal agents for skates in Toronto who advertised at that time were: Rochester Shoe Store; Thomson and Burns; Moloney and Company; Ridout Brothers and Company; E. Bryson and Company; Rice Lewis and Son; J.B. Ryan; P. Patterson and Sons; and Hewitt's Hardware Store.

[419] Ibid., December 16, 1863. These skates included" "Ladies and Misses English Skates, with straps and heel guards, $1.50-$2.00; Ladies Rosewood, patent leather straps, $3.50; Gentlemen's Best Rockers, with straps, $2.50.

straps.[420] Cheaper German and American skates were also available at that time.[421]

The greatest invention in skate design was that of John Forbes from Halifax, Nova Scotia. In October, 1863, Forbes patented the first "spring" skate which incorporated the use of a single lever to fasten, adjust and remove the skate.[422] Forbes' invention was such a success that many other modifications of this method of attachment were patented soon afterwards.[423]

Forbes' spring skate was manufactured by the Starr Manufacturing Company of Dartmouth, and over the remaining decades of the century, thousands of skates were manufactured.[424] Forbes patented several other models and one of the most popular was the Acme pattern which was produced in the early 1870's.[425] An item in the St. Andrews Standard of Charlotte County, New Brunswick, mentioned that skaters were enjoying themselves on Chamcook Lake, and that "Achmes [sic] were in demand, and

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[420] Ottawa Citizen, December 9, 1864. It was stated in the advertisement that "the English skates alone can be depended on not to turn on the edge, the steel being superior in temper."

[421] Ibid.

[422] Canadian Patent Office, Nova Scotia, Patent 116 (John Forbes, Halifax: 1863). For the complete text of this patent, see Appendix G.

[423] Ibid. For the early skate patents of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, see Appendix

[424] Quinpool, op.cit., p.79.

[425] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 1344 (John Forbes, Halifax: 1872). Forbes invented several types of skates and his patents, or those of the Starr Manufacturing Company, include: 30595; 30706; 44929; 46523; 49074; 64365. Henry Grist, of the Starr Manufacturing Company, also patented improvements in skates: 1348; 1423.

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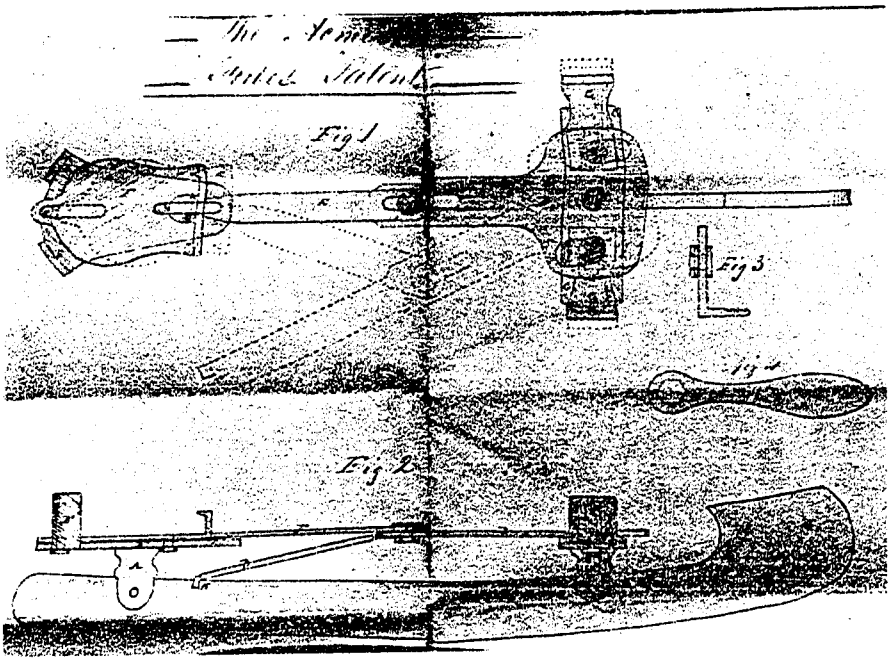

Plate 24. Canadian Patent No.1348, The "Acme" Skate, Forbes "Patent," 1872.

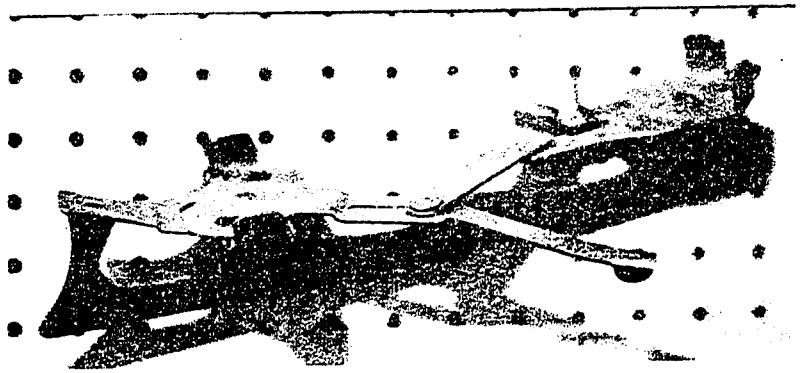

Plate 25. "Acme" Club Skate.

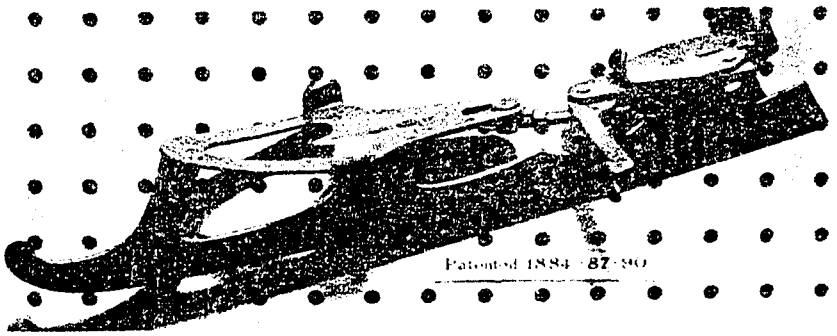

Plate 26. Skate manufactured by Starr Manufacturing Company, Dartmouth, 1884-1890.

those in use did good service."[426] Quinpool[427] has stated that the Encyclopedia Brittanica of 1875, in referring to skates, mentioned that "many kinds have been invented, but the Acme, first produced in Canada, is generally acknowledged the best."

James A. Whelpley was another inventor whose ideas contributed to the rapid improvement in skate design in this period. Whelpley patented a skate in February, 1874,[428] which was probably the same design as that mentioned in a news item a few months previously:

> AN IMPROVED SKATE - Mr. Whelpley, an employe [sic] in Messrs. Forbes' Acme Skate manufactory, Halifax,[429] has just completed a skate which he purposes patenting at an early date. He does away with the side clips and wrench, making it self acting. It is the most simple and at the same time complete article of this description that has ever been invented.[430]

Whelpley invented a special type of skate in 1887 which became known as "Long Reachers" because they were used by skaters to travel on the smooth river ice.[431] The blade of this skate was very long and it was

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[426] St. Andrews Standard, December 10, 1873. (Material supplied by Melvin A. Small, Canadian Patents Office, Ottawa - personal correspondence, October 26, 1969).

[427] Quinpool, op.cit., p.79.

[428] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 3122 (James A. Whelpley, Dartmouth, Nova Scotia: 1874).

[429] At this time Forbes' skates were being manufactured by the Starr Manufacturing Company at Dartmouth (Brown, op.cit., p.177; Quinpool, op.cit., p.79).

[430] St. Andrews Standard, December 10, 1873. (Material supplied by Melvin A. Small, Canadian Patents Office, Ottawa - personal correspondence, October 26, 1969).

[431] Brown, op.cit., p.177. Melvin Small has stated that a long straight stretch of the St. John River in Kings County is called "Long Reach", and that there is a Post Office of the same name in Kingston Parish within that county (Small, personal correspondence, October 26, 1969).

not unlike the racing skate of today, except it was fastened to a pair of ordinary shoes with straps.[432] Whelpley's skates were manufactured in Dartmouth, Nova Scotia; Greenwich, New Brunswick; and Keene and Marlborough in New Hampshire, United States of America, and some of his improvements on skates were patented in England and several other European countries.[433]

Improvements and modifications to skates continued throughout the remaining years of the century[434] and the concomitant outcome was an increase in the number of skaters as well as more skilful performers. As the quality of blades and attachments improved, more difficult manoeuvres were successfully attempted, and figure skating became an integral part of skating competitions. Jackson Haines, of New York, was known as the founder of the international style of figure skating, and following a visit to Canada in 1864, his "fancy skating" was emulated and adopted by Canadians.[435] Some of Canada's outstanding speed and figure skaters were Henry Sheppard, F. Perkins, Hugh McCormick, Louis Rubenstein and Harley Davidson.[436] The feats and accomplishments of

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[432] Brown, op.cit., p.177.

[433] Small; personal correspondence, October 26, 1969.

[434] The ice-skate patents filed at the Canadian Patent Office in Ottawa are too numerous to describe or include. Some of the patents awarded to Canadian inventors follow: 3788, 4168, 5680, 5694, 6221, 6262, 6327, 6958, 6961, 7093, 7094, 7095, 7293, 7922, 8460, 9514, 12361, 12399, 12714, 12745, 13026, 13685, 15374, 18935, 20601, 41594, 44513, 46866, 55381, 58764, 61300 and 64201.

[435] Nigel Brown, Ice-Skating: A History. (New York: A.S. Barnes and Company, 1959), p.87.

[436] Lindsay, op.cit., pp.59-61; Cox, op.cit., pp.249-262.

these athletes, as well as the enjoyment obtained by the ladies and gentlemen who skated for "fun", owed much to the development in skate design which occurred throughout the century. The cost of skates was most reasonable, and they could be purchased in various types of stores, or at skating rinks. Throughout the 1870's, Eaton's catalogues advertised skates produced by the Starr Manufacturing Company at prices ranging from 45 cents to $2.25 per pair.[437] Special racing skates of tubular steel, with the skate and boot attached, were advertised by the R.A. McReady Company of Toronto in 1895. The boot and skate weighed only fifteen ounces, and the price was ten dollars.[438]

Ice-hockey[439] had its origins in the games of bandy, hurley and shinty.[440] In the game of bandy, sticks ("bandies") which were bent and round at the end, were used to drive a small wooden object towards goals at either end of a playing area.[441] Rules for bandy-on-ice stipulated

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[437] T. Eaton and Company, Fall and Winter Catalogue, 1899-1900, p.225.

[438] Globe, Toronto, December 14, 1895.

[439] The date and location of the first instance of "hockey" in Canada have been the subject of several inquiries on the part of sports' historians. However, in 1942, the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association struck a committee comprised of W.A. Hewitt, George H. Slater and James T. Sutherland to establish hockey's heritage in Canada. The committee reported: "The first hockey was played by the Royal Canadian Rifles, an Imperial unit stationed at Halifax and Kingston in 1855; it is quite possible that English troops stationed in Kingston from 1783 to 1855 played hockey, as there is evidence in old papers, letters and legends that the men and officers located with the Imperial troops as early as the year 1783, were proficient skaters and participated in field hockey. It is more than likely that the pioneers played their field hockey in those early days on skates but it is not an established fact. The playing of games as early as 1855 in Kingston is certain." (Quoted in Henry Roxborough, The Stanley Cup Story (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1964), p.5).

[440] W.A. Hewitt, op.cit., p.175; Lindsay, op.cit., p.40; Roxborough, op.cit., p.137.

[441] Alice B. Gomme, The Traditional Games of England, Scotland and Ireland. (New York: Dover Publications Inc., 1964), p.16.

that the bandy stick could not be more than two inches wide at any part.[442] The name given to the Irish game, "hurley", was also derived from the stick used,[443] which was usually a thin piece of cordwood or branch, with a slight curve at one end.[444] A hurley was apparently in use near St. John, New Brunswick, in 1833, as a report in the Novascotian suggested that, as women were skilled in the use of a racquet, they would not have any difficulty in wielding a hurley when they became members of the skating club.[445] Indians from the vicinity of Dartmouth, Nova Scotia, were suppliers of sticks which were suitable for this activity on ice.[446]

Shinty, or "shinny", evolved from bandy or hurley played on ice and became a game in which the players wore skates and used sticks to strike a ball-type puck around the ice.[447] The sticks for this activity were also nothing more than crooked limbs, roots of trees, or "slightly curved boughs cut from trees in the summer and allowed to season."[448]

Although an organized game of ice-hockey was played at Montreal's

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[442]W.A. Hewitt, op.cit., p.175; Roxborough, op.cit., p.137.

[443]Gomme, op.cit., p.190. [444]Gale, op.cit., p.263.

[445]Lindsay, op.cit., p.42, cited from the Novascotian, Halifax, December 26, 1833.

[446]T.H. Raddall, Halifax, Warden of the North. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1948), p.281. Raddall has stated that "when the soldiers were transferred to military posts along the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, they took the game with them; and for sometime afterwards continued to send to the Dartmouth Indians for the necessary sticks."

[447]Hugh S.D. Hoyles, "The History and Development of Hockey," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968), p.6.

[448]Bull, op.cit., p.409.

Victoria Rink in 1875,[449] the sticks in use were not entirely suitable for the game. R.F. Smith, writing about a hockey match played at McGill University in December, 1879, has stated:

> My rules provided nine men to a side. But about thirty boys showed up and all who had sticks of any kind were permitted to get into the pioneer ice hockey combat... Our clubs were a motley collection. Some boys borrowed their father's walking sticks. Others used stripped lacrosse clubs, while the rest came on with broomhandles or branches cut from trees.[450]

For several years, the sticks were these local "close to nature" type,[451] or field-hockey sticks imported from England, which cost approximately four shillings.[452] The English field-hockey sticks were usually rounded on one side[453] but a stick which was flat on both sides soon evolved, and such a stick was used by Lewis Sharfe at McGill University in 1881.[454] The Ontario Hockey Association Rules of 1897 stipulated that "hockey sticks shall not be more than three inches wide at any part and not more than thirteen inches long in the blade."[455] There was no regulation regarding the length of the stick from the heel of the blade

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[449] Montreal Gazette, March 4, 1875.

[450] Cited in J.M. Gibbon, Our Old Montreal. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1947), p.237. Writing about hockey in the 1880's, Foster Hewitt has stated that "the sticks were not the carefully turned, second-growth hickory weapons of today, for canes, tree branches, knotted roots, field hockey sticks, or even broom handles were used." (Foster Hewitt, Down the Ice. (Toronto: S.J. Reginald Saunders, 1935), p.19)

[451] Foster Hewitt, Down the Ice, p.19. [452] Reed, op.cit., p.188.

[453] The handles of the hockey stick were only 3 feet long, and the blade 8 inches long and 2½ inches wide.

[454] Davidson has stated that this stick is on display at the McGill University Trophy Room (Stewart A. Davidson, "A History of Sports and Games in Eastern Canada Prior to World War I," (Unpublished Ed.D. thesis, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1951), p.69.

[455] W.A. Hewitt, op.cit., p.180, cited from the Ontario Hockey Rules, adopted December 4, 1897.

to the end of the shaft; consequently, hockey sticks to the end of the century varied in length. James Harrison, who was one of the first players to introduce organized hockey to St. John, has stated that prior to 1893 and the formation of the St. John Hockey League, only "hurley" with a curved stick cut from the woods was played.[456] Harrison's comment on hockey in the 1950's, as compared with that of the 1890's, was "today's game is very much faster and the sticks are longer."[457] R. Tait McKenzie wrote in a hockey article for the Dominion Illustrated Monthly in 1895 that "sometimes a player shortens his handle by a foot and attaches it like a policeman's baton to his wrist by a strap."[458]

By 1900, the sticks in use were not unlike the basic hockey stick of today as, over several decades, the handles had become longer and the blades flatter.[459] The construction of the stick had also improved to lessen the incidence of breakage. James A. Leggatt of Hamilton patented a stick in 1900 with a mortise through the lower curved part, so a tenon with the grain running obliquely to that of the stick could be inserted for added strength in the vital striking area.[460] A dis-

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[456]Evening Times-Globe, St. John, April 16, 1958. [457]Ibid.

[458]R. Tait McKenzie, "Hockey in Eastern Canada," Dominion Illustrated Monthly, V.3 (1895), p.61. McKenzie also stated the stick "nowhere exceeds one inch in thickness."

[459]Sticks of various periods are exhibited at the Hockey Hall of Fame, Kingston, Ontario. (Personal visitation, August, 1969)

[460]Canadian Patent Office, Patent 68,632 (James A. Leggatt, Hamilton, Ontario: September 7, 1900). Leggatt stated: "the objects of my invention, are first to provide a Hockey Stick which shall be very durable by the fact of the lower part being prevented from the possibility of splitting as is often the case, on account of the grain of the lower curved part being of a line, or parallel, with the upper stick part, and second, to add durability and strength to the lower wearing part of the stick, without increasing the weight thereof." (Ibid.) Several other patents, which supposedly strengthened the construction of the stick, were filed at this time.

tinct goal-keeper's stick did not appear until 1907 and, apparently, goaltenders used the same stick as the forwards and defencemen in the nineteenth century.[461]

Hockey sticks were readily available from retail stores in the 1890's at prices ranging from twenty-five cents to a dollar.[462] Harold A. Wilson Limited of Toronto had over twelve thousand sticks from which players could make their selection.[463] Successful teams in the more skilful leagues apparently had their sticks supplied free in return for publicizing the manufacturers of the sticks. Around the turn of the century, A.G. Spalding and Brothers produced some of their sticks with advertising on the blade. One advertisement stated: "Used exclusively by the Ottawa Team of Ottawa, Champions of the World."[464] On the reverse side of the stick was an endorsement: "The Spalding Hockey Sticks furnished our team have given perfect satisfaction and we use them exclusively."

The word "puck" is obscure, but P.W. Joyce has stated that "the blow given by a player with his 'hurley' is always called a puck (Irish poc)."[465] In the early games of bandy, hurley and shinty and "shinny"

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[461] Hoyles, op.cit., p.13. In 1907, Riley Hern, the goal-tender for the Montreal Wanderers, used a larger stick which was not unlike that used by goal-tenders in hockey today.

[462] Globe, Toronto, November 9, 1895. The P.A. McCready Company of Toronto had hockey sticks for 25, 35, 50 and 75 cents in 1895.

[463] Ibid., December 16, 1899.

[464] Hockey Hall of Fame, Kingston, Ontario. Personal visitation: August, 1969.

[465] Reed, op.cit., p.187, quoted from P.W. Joyce, English As We Speak It In Ireland (Longmans, 1910). Joyce has stated that it was logical that the term poc or puck, meaning a blow, should be transferred in time from the stroke itself to the missile or article which was struck.

various objects were used as pucks: leather balls stuffed with feathers; cricket, lacrosse and india-rubber balls; pine-knots; twine-covered barrel bungs; square blocks of wood, knee caps or knuckle bones of oxen or cows; and even the frozen dung of farm animals.[466] When hockey moved indoors a rubber ball was found to be unsuitable on the smaller area and even dangerous for spectators:

> Some fears have been expressed on the part of intending spectators that accidents were likely to occur through the ball flying about in too lively a manner, to the imminent danger of lookers on, but we understand that the game will be played with a flat circular piece of wood, thus preventing all danger of its leaving the ice.[467]

There are several theories as to how the first rubber puck came to be used. Roxborough[468] has stated that, in the sixties, two teams were playing hockey in Montreal's Victoria Rink and were using a solid rubber ball as the object to be struck. As it was hit and passed it often bounced up and over the low platforms which surrounded the ice area. After the ball had broken windows, the irritated rink manager, according to Roxborough, "asked for the ball, borrowed a sharp knife, cut the top and bottom sections off the ball and handed back the flat centre."[469] However, it was probably much later that this type of puck

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[466] Bull, op.cit., p.402: W.A. Hewitt, op.cit., p.178; Foster Hewitt, op.cit., p.19; Hoyles, op.cit., p.10.

[467] Montreal Gazette, March 3, 1875. After a game a few weeks later, it was reported in the Montreal Gazette that "every other minute the little circle of wood, whidh did duty for the ball, would get knocked close up to the spectators and in the frequent scrimmages to draw the game more toward the centre the spectators would get very liberally drenched." (Ibid., March 17, 1875)

[468] Henry Roxborough, The Stanley Cup Story. (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1964), p.72.

[469] Ibid. It was unlikely that a rubber puck would have been used in the 1860's as it was in 1875 that the use of a wooden puck was mentioned in the press (Globe, Toronto, March 3, 1875).

was used.[470] In 1885, in a game between the Royal Military College and Queen's University at Kingston, a lacrosse ball, cut to six flat sides but with some of its curved surface left, was used,[471] and this was probably the first rubber puck used in an organized match.[472] A regulation puck of vulcanized rubber, three inches in diameter and one inch thick, was incorporated into the 1891 rules of the Ontario Hockey Association.[473]

Until the 1890's, the goals had no nets at all but were merely posts, "crudely anchored in the ice"[474] and, even by 1897, the Ontario Hockey Association Rules merely stipulated that:

> A goal is placed in the middle of each goalline, composed of two upright posts, four feet in height, placed six feet apart, and at least five feet from the end of the ice. The goal posts shall be firmly fixed. In the event of a goal post being displaced or broken, the referee shall blow his whistle and the game shall not proceed until the post is replaced.[475]

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[470] R.F. Smith has stated that in 1879, he made a more suitable puck, which was not unlike that of today: "I decided that using a rubber ball would not do. It would bounce too much. So I cut out the core of a hard rubber ball, squared it off and ruled that it should be the official ice object." (Quoted in Gibbon, op.cit., p.237)

[471] D.D. Calvin, Queen's University at Kingston. (Toronto: Hunter-Rose Co. Limited, 1941), p.285.

[472] Hoyles has stated that no wooden puck was available for this match, so J.F. Booth, a Queen's University player, purchased a lacrosse ball and shaped it to make the hexagonal puck (Hoyles, op.cit., p.11).

[473] William McLennan, "Hockey in Canada," Harper's Weekly, V.39, (January 12, 1895), p.45.

[474] James T. Sutherland, "A Flashback to 1885-86," in Wilfrid V. Roche (Ed.), The Hockey Book (Toronto: McClelland and Steward Limited, 1953), p.2.

[475] W.A. Hewitt, op.cit., p.181, cited from the Ontario Hockey Association Rules, as adopted December 4, 1897. Even cross-bars were seldom used at that time. (Roxborough, The Stanley Cup Story, p.37).

The absence of nets resulted in disputes as to whether the puck actually passed between the uprights, especially when a fast shot travelled close to the posts.[476] Several individuals have been credited with the idea of using a net between the goals to assist in determining whether or not a goal had been scored.[477] However, the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association research committee of 1942 officially gave Francis Nelson recognition for this innovation.[478] W.A. Hewitt[479] has described the circumstances in which this idea was introduced:

> Mr. Nelson had recently visited Australia, and while in that country had observed a huge net which was used in catching fish. My friend had detected its possibilities as a real puck-catcher, and brought two nets back to Canada. There did not appear to be a suitable rink in Toronto for a good test, so the nets had been shipped to me in Montreal; and I arranged for them to be used in a game between Victorias and Shamrocks.

In November, 1899, the Toronto Globe stated that the advisability of using goal nets was to be considered at the annual meeting of the Ontario Hockey Association to be held the following month.[480] Although the matter of goal nets had been brought up the previous year by "Watty" Thompson, it was decided by the Association "to shelve the question for a year." Nevertheless, nets had been tried by various teams and their practicality was fully demonstrated.[481]

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[476]Goal umpires, without skates, stood on the ice and waved a flag if they thought the puck had passed between the uprights (Roxborough, The Stanley Cup Story, p.37).

[477]Charles L. Coleman, The Trail of the Stanley Cup, V.1 (Sherbrooke: National Hockey League, 1966), p.5; Reed, op.cit., p.189; Roxborough, The Stanley Cup Story, p.37; Foster Hewitt, op.cit., p.15; Maclean's Magazine (February 15, 1925), p.22; Whig Standard, Kingston, March 17, 1934.

[478]Hoyles, op.cit., p.22. [479]W.A. Hewitt, op.cit., p.33.

[480]Globe, Toronto, November 24, 1899. [481]Ibid.

The exhibition game between the Shamrocks and Victorias for the purpose of testing the goal nets was reported in the Toronto Globe of January 1, 1900. The goal nets were well received:

> Some improvements can be made in the form of the nets, those used tonight being fastened along the top to an iron cross-bar supported on brackets about six inches back from the line of the goal posts. At the bottom they are attached to wooden pegs driven into the ice. A stout rope encased in rubber tubing, so that a player knocked against it would not be cut, and a better arrangement at the bottom, will make the nets just about what is wanted.[482]

Representatives from five clubs in the league met after the game and decided that nets should be used in future matches[483] and they were soon in regular use.[484]

Protective equipment came into limited use during the last decade of the century. The uniforms of players consisted of knickers, stockings, and jersey; light padding on the legs was used by some players.[485] The players shunned the use of gloves for many years, but a thin leather covering to prevent cuts from the ice soon evolved into the use of padded gloves for greater protection.[486] Goal-keepers were

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[482] Ibid., January 1, 1900. [483] Ibid.

[484] Although the nets were rather crude affairs, they held the puck long enough for officials to be assured a goal had been scored (Roxborough, The Stanley Cup Story, p.37). Several patents for goal nets were awarded in 1912 which had features designed to retain the puck (Canadian Patent Office, Patent 139,387 (Percival St.H. Le Sueur, Ottawa, Ontario: March 26, 1912); Patent 143,416 (Edward Libby, Montreal, Quebec: October 15, 1912)).

[485] In 1892, the Toronto Daily Mail of March 7, reported that all members of the Ottawa team had the knees of their pants well padded (cited in Hoyles, op.cit., p.15). Padding consisted of magazines or light leather guards (Foster Hewitt, op.cit., p.26).

[486] Foster Hewitt, op.cit., p.26; McKenzie, op.cit., p.60. James Harrison has stated that in the St. John League, in the nineties, no protective armor for the hands or legs was worn: "I used a pair of white

allowed to wear protective equipment on the legs as long as the padding did not give them undue assistance in keeping goal.[487] Early goal-keepers stuffed clothing and caps down the front of their hockey pants and used ordinary leather gloves on their hands.[488] When G.H. Merritt, the goal-keeper for Winnipeg, played in the Stanley Cup against Montreal in 1896, he wore white cricket pads.[489] A drawing in a Canadian Magazine of 1898 depicted a goal-keeper in British Columbia wearing thin pads and still using an ordinary stick.[490] When pucks were being consistently lifted from the ice, goal-keepers began to wear chest protectors which were of the kind used in baseball, but these were not common until the twentieth century.[491]

Improvements in skates throughout the period have already been discussed, but there were some modifications in design to make the skate more suitable for the playing of hockey. Sutherland[492] has indicated that in the early years of hockey, spring skates were used; these skates sometimes released from the foot when the puck hit the fastener. However, it was not long before boots for hockey were introduced, and the

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kid gloves with the fingers cut down to protect my knuckles, but my knees still show the effects of bumps on the ice." (Evening Times-Globe, St. John, April 16, 1958)

[487] Foster Hewitt, op.cit., p.26.

[488] Coleman, op.cit., p.5. [489] Ibid.

[490] Thomas L. Grahame, "National Sport - Pastimes in British Columbia," Canadian Magazine, V.10, (No.5, March 1898), p.465. A goal pad was specifically designed for hockey in 1926 by "Pop" Kenesky of Hamilton when he introduced a pad twelve inches wide (Paul Rimstead, "Pop Kenesky Makes Every Save in the N.H.L.," Canadian Magazine, (November, 15, 1969), p.28).

[491] Sutherland, op.cit., p.2. [492] Ibid.

blades were fastened to them.[493] This gave the player more support and better protection.

The first toboggans were those the Indians used to transport articles and effects over the snow, and those used for recreation and sport throughout the century did not differ greatly in construction and function. Beers[494] described the toboggan of the 1880's:

> It is simply a piece of birch or bass-wood, a quarter inch thick, from five to eight feet long by one or two broad, but up in front like the dash-board of a sleigh, and braced by several cross pieces of hardwood a foot apart, and by two round rods, one on each side, on top of the cross-pieces, all fastened by cat-gut to the sleigh.... Grooves are cut on the under side of the tobogan [sic] to let the knots sink below the wood.

Some toboggans had the bases fitted with a sheet of copper to increase the speed.[495] Ash wood was also used and on larger toboggans with more than one person, a piece of wood was used for steering.[496]

Some refinements and improvements were made to toboggans towards the end of the century. Richard Gould of St. John, Quebec, patented a toboggan which was made up of two adjustable sections, and the rider could change direction by moving the front section.[497] Edgar[498] has

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[493]Hockey boots advertised at the W.T. Henry and Co. Store in Edmonton in 1894 cost $2.50 per pair (Edmonton Bulletin, December 24, 1894). The top-grade boot at R.A. McCready Co. Limited was priced at $4.50 per pair.

[494]W. George Beers, Over the Snow (Montreal: W. Drysdale and Company and J. Theo Robinson, 1883), p.32.

[495]Montreal Gazette, December 18, 1841.

[496]Francis E. Monck, My Canadian Leaves (Printed for private circulation in Dorchester: Dorset County Express Office, 1873. Reproduced by the University of Toronto Press, 1963), p.97.

[497]Canadian Patent Office, Patent 22361 (Richard Gould, St. John, Quebec: 1885).

[498]J.D. Edgar, Canada and Its Capital (Toronto: George N. Morang, 1898), p.130.

described a well-constructed toboggan used in Ottawa in the 1890's as having light rods running along the edges which served as handles, with cross pieces to hold the boards together. The under-side was polished and the upper part comfortably padded.

Although there were competitions in tobogganing[499] for which the quality of equipment was important, for most people, sliding on the frozen slopes was a spontaneous recreational activity and a variety of objects was used.[500]

Indians, early white hunters and garrison troops had worn snowshoes for trekking over heavy snowfalls for many years before they were donned for recreational activities and sporting competitions. The Montreal Snow Shoe Club, which was formed in 1840, promoted afternoon and evening treks and races.[501] Lighter snowshoes for racing were soon introduced and Narcisse, an Indian, wore a pair in 1844 which weighed only one and a half pounds.[502] Some races specified the type of snowshoes to be worn,[503] but in 1871 a convention was held in Montreal

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[499]Cox, op.cit., p.265.

[500]The price of toboggans usually varied according to length. A Toronto store advertised those which were 2½ feet in length to the arch, for 75¢, and those measuring 6 feet for $2.50 (Globe, Toronto, December, 12, 1898). Hand-sleighs and cutters which were also suitable for sliding, were advertised in Eaton's catalogues throughout the 1890's at prices ranging from 15 cents to $1.00 (T. Eaton and Company, Fall and Winter Catalogue, 1894-95), p.1021.

[501]Hugh W. Becket, The Montreal Snow Shoe Club (Montreal: Becket Brothers, 1882), pp.4, 10-11.

[502]Ibid., p.11.

[503]Montreal Gazette, February 22, 1867. Government snowshoes were used for some races. The early shoes measured from 2 to 6 feet in length, and from 13 to 20 inches in width (Beers, Over the Snow, p.21).

during which the size and weight of racing snowshoes were standardized.[504] Delegates from the Alexandra, Canada, Maple Leaf and Montreal clubs agreed that racing snowshoes should be no less than ten inches wide, and not less than one and a half pounds in weight.

Beers[505] has described a snowshoe which was in use during the 1880's:

> The shoe is made of one piece of light ash, about half an inch thick, bent to a long oval, and fastened closely with cat-gut where the two ends meet. A strip of flat wood is then fitted across the frame about four inches from the top, and another piece about two feet from the ends, to give it spring and strength. The interior of this frame-work is then woven with cat-gut, which allows it to press on the snow with your full weight with little sinking; a hole about four inches square being left behind the center of the front cross-bar for the partial protrusion of the toes in lifting the heel.

A number of patents were filed for snowshoe straps,[506] and Beers has referred to the importance of a suitable method of fastening the snowshoe to the mocassined foot of the wearer so that the heel was left free to rise and fall.[507]

The R.A. McCready store in Toronto emphasized that the snowshoes sold in their premises were hand-made:

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[504]Becket, op.cit., pp.222, 512. Becket has stated that some racing snowshoes in the period 1869-1871 weighed no more than 11 or 12 ounces, while those weighing less than 2 pounds prior to 1869 were a curiosity (Ibid., p.511).

[505]Beers, Over the Snow, p.19.

[506]Canadian Patent Office, Patent 22,608 (Edward J. Harkin, Three Rivers: 1885); 31,107 (Alexander T. Winter, Sherbrooke: 1889).

[507]Beers, Over the Snow, p.21. "The Montreal Club introduced a most ingenious tie, made of the one string by which the foot can be slipped in and out of the shoe in an instant, while at the same time the toe cannot slip forward or backward, as in the old tie."

> [Snowshoes] made from the best Indian tanned rawhide and selected well-seasoned hickory. They are not turned out wholesale by machinery, but each pair is carefully tested and guaranteed perfect before we accept them.[508]

In 1895, prices ranged from $2.50 for a pair of girls' or boys' snowshoes, to $3.50 for regulation racing size.[509]

Several pairs of woollen socks and moccasins were recommended foot-wear, as well as a good blanket suit, gloves and tuque. Good advice was offered to novice snow-shoers in Harper's Weekly in 1893: "Beginners should not attempt too long a trip at first, or else he may be laid up with mal de raquette, from which it takes days to recover."[510]

The first reference to skiing in Canada[511] appeared in the Canadian Illustrated News of February 8, 1879:

> Mr. A. Birch, a Norwegian gentleman of Montreal, has a pair of patent Norwegian snowshoes upon which he has taken a trip to Quebec starting Friday last. The snowshoes are entirely of wood, nine feet long, six inches wide and have a foot board and toe strap. He walks with the aid of a pole and crosses ice not buoyant enough to bear a good sized dog, so buoyant are the shoes in their action.[512]

Although skiing was not a popular sport in the early 1880's,[513] there were several reports of skiing, especially around Montreal, at that time.[514]

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[508] Globe, Toronto, December 14, 1895. [509] Ibid.

[510] Wakeman Holberton, "Snow-Shoes and Snow-Shoeing," Harper's Weekly, V.37 (February 11, 1893), p.129.

[511] Rolf T. Lund, "The Development of Skiing in Canada Prior to 1940," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1970), p.21.

[512] The woodcut illustration which accompanied the article depicted a skier with a long pole in one hand.

[513] H.P. Douglas, "Canadian Skiing," in R. Polmedo (Editor), Skiing, the International Sport (New York: The Derrydale Press, 1937), p.303.

[514] Lund, op.cit., p.23.

H.P. Douglas[515] has recalled that "It is well established that skis were first used in Montreal as far back as 1881, and in 1889, a group of McGill professors, headed by R.J. Durley, took up the sport actively, using the old Finnish-type of long ski with only a top-strap binding." Skiing was introduced in Ottawa in the 1880's but it had become so popular by the next decade that skis were manufactured in that city:

> They are long, narrow strips of tough wood, generally of soft maple, from three to four inches in breadth, and from six to eight feet in length, an inch or an inch and a half thick in the middle, but thinner towards the ends, and slightly curved up in the front. One is secured on each foot in such a way as to be easily cast off in case of accident. On level, or ascending ground the skilöber can propel himself with a sharp-pointed stick, but the highest enjoyment is when, standing on his ski, he rushes down a hill with the speed of a hurricane.[516]

Prior to 1900, several types of skis were used in Canada. The most popular were the imported Norwegian and Finnish skis, but the demand for ski equipment became so great that "crude copies" of the imported models were manufactured by local timber mills.[517] A single pole was sometimes used until the twentieth century, and although wax was not applied to their base, skis were often waterproofed by having turpentine or linseed oil applied to them.[518]

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[515] Charles M. Dudley, Sixty Centuries of Skiing (Vermont: Stephen Daye Press, 1935), p.120 quoted from H.P. Douglas, "Reminiscences," Canadian Ski Year Book (1934).

[516] J.D. Edgar, Canada and Its Capital (Toronto: George N. Morang, 1898), p.124.

[517] Lund, op.cit., p.37. An early pair of skis in Banff were hewn from a pine tree, with an additional piece of wood nailed to each ski for boot plates, extra strength and thickness. It was believed that the woodmen nailed the soles of the felt boots to the skis (Brad Kilb, "Sport in Banff Before 1914," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton), p.85).

[518] H.P. Douglas, My Skiing Years (Montreal: Whitcombe and Gilmour Ltd., 1951), p.19.

Clothing for skiing in 1900 was worn more for warmth rather than agility. Douglas recalled that "we wore high boots, riding breeches or heavy knickers, wollen underwear, sweaters and over all this, a gaily colored mackinaw, finished off with woollen or fur mitts and a pull down cap."[519]

Ice-boating was one of the most exciting sports of the nineteenth century. A description of an early ice-boat appeared in the Halifax Novascotian[520] in 1827:

> It is about 23 feet in length, resting on skates; one attached to each end of a strong cross bar fixed under the forepart, and the remaining one to the bottom of the rudder, which supports the stern of the vessel. Her mast and stern are similar to those of a common boat.

The speed of craft such as this at that time was estimated at being about twenty-five miles per hour.[521] John Geikie[522] also described the ice-boats he saw in the 1860's in detail, and some which were capable of carrying five or six people lying down or sitting on them travelled at a speed of nearly thirty miles an hour.

Speed was the essence of ice-boat sailing, and the craft were designed with this in mind. In a letter written to his wife from Canada East in 1865, Alfred Townsend stated:

> The boat is a kind of a floor, shaped in a triangle, set up on great iron skates. One of these skates at the stern is worked with a tiller; this makes a helm.... Maybe it's just tales, having me on, but they say that some have done five miles in five minutes, on one of these boats.[523]

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[519] Ibid., p.19. [520] Novascotian, Halifax, October 25, 1827.

[521] Ibid.; Gale, op.cit., p.273. Gale has described ice-boats which had two sails and were large enough to carry twelve passengers.

[522] John C. Geikie, Adventures in Canada, or Life in the Woods. (Philadelphia: Porter and Coates, 1864), pp.396-397.

[523] Quoted in Creighton, op.cit., p.64.

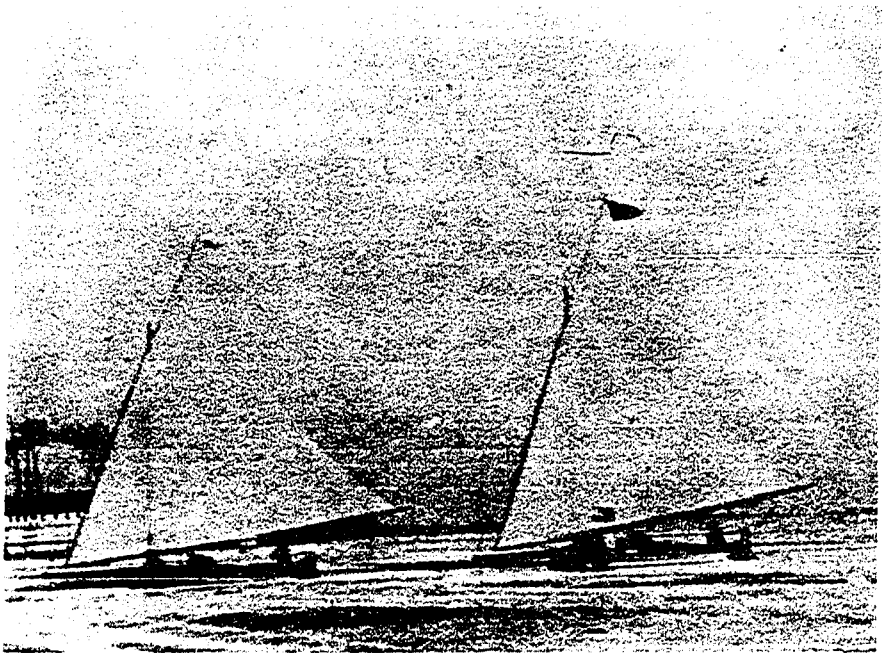

Plate 27. Toronto Ice Boats - Jessica and Islander, 1897.

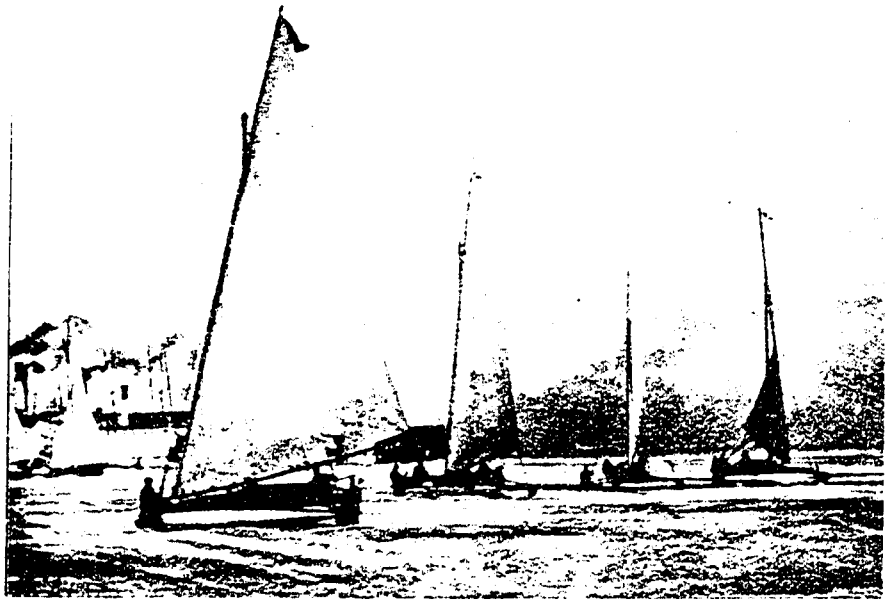

Plate 28. Toronto Ice Boats - Islander, Jessica, Let-Her-Be, and Old Sport, 1897.

An ice-boat regatta was held in 1872 and seven boats sailed around Toronto Bay in a twenty-five mile race.[524] Subsequent races were held, and an ice-boating club was formed at Trenton in 1878.[525]

Although the boats were expensive, the sport was of interest to those who could not afford to build or purchase one, as many of the races were exciting. In 1886, the Toronto Globe[526] included a lengthy feature on ice-boating and gave explicit details on how to build one. Speeds of sixty miles an hour were recorded, and the boats nearly always sailed on an even keel. There was a large fleet of the ice-boats on Toronto Bay,[527] and Kingston was also a centre for the sport.[528]

Throughout the nineteenth century measurement of speed and distance in sport became increasingly important. In competitive sporting events between two or more athletes (or animals) in the early part of the century, the major concern of the sporting public, apart from the manner in which the event was conducted, was with the order of placement at the finish. In these beginning stages of challenges and local competition, the precise speed, distance or height achieved mattered very little. But, with the spread of sporting events in which measurement was an integral component, there became a desire on the part of enthusiasts to know how fast, how far, and how much better one competitor was than another. Recording of performances to be retained for reference in future events was a significant aspect of sporting

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[524] Globe, Toronto, February 27, 1872. [525] Ibid., October 31, 1878.

[526] Ibid., March 12, 1886. [527] Ibid., April 3, 1897.

[528] Cox, op.cit., p.246. It was reported that Montreal had very little ice-boating (D. Sladen, On the Cars and Off (London: Ward, Lock and Bowden Ltd., 1895), p.99).

club organization and the stop watch, electric timer and measuring tapes became essential items of equipment.

The stop watch developed from the invention of a timing device by the English watchman, Graham, in 1720.[529] Later inventions by Rieussec, Winnerl, Nicole and Band, all European horologists of the nineteenth century, improved the reliability and versatility of the timing devices, or chronographs.[530] The first stop watches were marketed in the 1820's, but it was not until the 1880's that the pocket stop watch type was generally available.[531] The Heuer company of Switzerland started production of a series of pocket chronographs in 1882.[532]

Stop watches in the nineteenth century did not record time in tenths of a second, as this innovation was not developed until the second decade of the twentieth century.[533] However, all stop watches of the nineteenth century were of the "permanent motion" system, which gave the highest precision for this type of timer.[534]

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[529] Material supplied by the Omega Watch Company, Switzerland, through Hatch and Company Limited, Quebec (Personal correspondence, April 28, 1970).

[530] Ibid. "People generally called chronographs all chronometric apparatus equipped with a device facilitating, by the stop of a hand, the reading of elapsed time."

[531] Charles E. Heuer, Heuer-Leonidas S.A., Bienne, Switzerland (Personal correspondence, May 13, 1970).

[532] Heuer Timers and Chronographs, 1968-69 (Switzerland: Heuer-Leonidas S.A., 1969), p.2.

[533] Charles E. Heuer, op.cit.

[534] Ibid. Stop watches, which did not show regular time, and had at least one centre second hand as well as a small minute recording hand, were not as accurate as chronographs and chronometers.

A reference to the development of a split-second watch for timing appeared in the American Turf Register in 1829, when it was reported that Mr. Montandon of Washington, D.C., had developed a spring mechanism which not only divided a second into thirds but also acted a stop watch.[535]

Following the rowing match between Hamilton and Windsor in 1865, it was announced that the Hamilton crew had won the race by fifteen seconds:

> Our timekeepers on board the "Brush", watches in hand, made their stops, and the time was declared, with mathematical precision, to have been seventeen minutes, thirty-eight seconds and three quarters.[536]

Several patents for stop watches were filed in Canada;[537] one filed by Henry Lugrin of New York in 1877 had the quarter-second hand and its dial located on the top of the watch movement.[538] The Longine Watch Company claimed a "world first" when they marketed a chronograph with centre second hands in 1879.[539]

Electric timers were in use in the latter part of the century. At a C.W.A. bicycle meet in 1886 an electric timer capable of recording in hundredths of a second was used.[540] Professor McLeod, of McGill

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[535] American Turf Register, V.1 (September 1829), p.42 cited in John R. Betts, "Organized Sport in Industrial America," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Columbia University, New York, 1951), p.55.

[536] Hamilton Times, September 2, 1865.

[537] For stop watches, chronographs and timers patented in the United States, see George H. Eckhardt, United States Clock and Watch Patents, 1790-1890 (New York: Privately printed, 1960), pp.87-89.

[538] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 7660 (Henry A. Lugnin, New York: 1877).

[539] Longines Watch Company, "What is 'Longines?' (Unpublished mimeographed material, Montreal, 1969).

[540] University Gazette, McGill College, V.10 (No.1, October 22,1886),p.8.

University, developed the apparatus which, since it was connected with the starting pistol, started simultaneously with the signal to go. The results of races showed a discrepancy between the stop watches and the electric timer, as the latter recorded the races as being fractions of a second slower than the former.[541] The Scorers Report of the Thirteenth Annual Championship Meeting of the A.A.A.of C. in 1896, indicated that races were recorded by electric timers: "electric time recorded by the electrical movement of three (3) stop watches."[542] In that report, two times were recorded: the time as recorded by manual timers, and that recorded electrically, with the latter being always a slower time.[543] No reference to electric timers was made in earlier or later reports of A.A.A.of C. championships.[544]

Measuring tapes had been in use for many years and there were few changes in this item of equipment throughout the century. Spool tape-measures in cases, with a handle for winding, were in use toward the end of the century.[545] A non-elastic tape measure composed of a fabric impregnated and coated with rubber was patented in Canada in

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[541] Ibid. The report concluded with the comment: "The watches, therefore, give the actual time of the race perhaps closer than the electric apparatus, but the latter possesses the great advantage of being invariably accurate."

[542] Amateur Athletic Association of Canada, Thirteenth Annual Report, 1896. (Montreal: The Gazette Printing Company, 1896), p.9.

[543] Ibid., pp.10-12. The recorded times for the 220 yards final at this championship were: 24 seconds for the manual stop watch, and 24-2/5 seconds for the electric timer (Ibid).

[544] Ibid., Annual Reports, 1884-1898. For all A.A.A.of C. championships partial seconds were recorded in fifths.

[545] Canadian Patent Office, Patent 1384 (Frank M. Slagie, Alton, Iowa; 1885).

1878.[546]

Throughout the nineteenth century there were important changes in the equipment used for many recreational and sporting activities. Some equipment changed as the result of a slow, evolutionary process which kept pace with the minor variations in the style of the activity or play. Other sporting and recreational activities, such as roller-skating and cycling, were the outcome of inventions, and people could only participate in the activity after a certain degree of sophistication in the equipment had been reached. The introduction of protective equipment, such as for baseball, football and hockey, were the result, or sometimes the cause of changes in the style of play. Many of the changes in equipment facilitated an increase and improvement in the speed, skill and aesthetic grace of the movement on the part of the participants, and the interest, excitement, involvement and understanding on the part of the spectators: all factors which influenced the development of sport in the period.

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[546] Ibid. Patent 9004 (Asahel F. Ward, Philadelphia: 1878).

CHAPTER V

RECREATIONAL AND SPORTING FACILITIES

Along with the development of recreational and sporting equipment, there were also significant changes in facilities. In many cases the improvised facilities used in the early years of the century were transformed into suitable venues, fields, grounds, or rinks which would be used for both the participants and the spectators of various sports.

The number of participants and spectators increased significantly throughout the nineteenth century as a result of several related factors. The technological changes, resulting in the advent of urbanization and industrialization, altered the mode of living of many Canadians, especially in the latter half of the century. Improvements in the means of communication and transportation, and a general rise in the standard of living enabled Canadians not only to be more aware of what was happening in the sporting world, but to become more active as participants or spectators.

In general, working conditions improved as the century progressed; there was greater productivity in shorter working hours, which gave workers more leisure time in which to pursue their interests. Many people used this increased amount of leisure time to participate in, or observe, recreational and sporting events, so there was a subsequent need for more and better facilities to accommodate them.

Industrialization and the "factory" system made "working to the clock" more important. Efficient factory production required that employees work regular and stipulated hours, so it was desirable that

facilities for leisure activities be made available for use in the evenings as well as during the day. This became possible with improvements in artificial lighting; firstly gas and later electric arc and incandescent lighting.

The sources of lighting in the homes and buildings in the early years of the century were tallow, spermaceti, stearine and other types of candles.[1] Pan lamps, consisting of grease or oil in a shallow container with twisted fibres as wicks, and glass lanterns were also used during that period.[2] Around the 1830's, new types of lamps came to Canada. The astral, and sinumbra or shadowless lamp, which allowed the light to come down from the flame between the burner and the oil container, were considerable improvements in artificial lighting.[3] Several improvements in home lighting took place over the next few decades, such as the introduction of paraffin and gas lamps, but of greater significance was the development of gas lighting.[4] The larger cities had coal gas for heating and lighting in the 1840's, but prior to Confederation gas lighting was restricted to public halls, theatres and other buildings. The introduction of this source of fuel for lighting had a considerable influence on the development of sporting facilities, the use of which could be extended into the evenings.

The practical application of electricity had been seen in the field of telegraphy, but arc lighting, the incandescent filament lamp of Thomas Edison, and the invention of the dynamo, by Siemens, were all

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[1] L.S. Russell, Lighting the Pioneer Ontario Home (Toronto: University of Toronto Press and Royal Ontario Museum, 1966), pp.2-4.

[2] Ibid., pp.5-6.

[3] Ibid., pp.8-10.

[4] Ibid., p.16.

most important developments.[5] Electric lighting soon supplanted gas lighting in the last few decades of the nineteenth century,[6] and this innovation improved the versatility of recreational and sporting facilities.

Facilities throughout the nineteenth century also benefited from improved methods of construction and building materials. More and better use of glass resulted in proved natural lighting, and furnace and ducted heating systems were developed after coal gas was introduced as fuel.

As stated previously, the number of participants and spectators increased significantly in several sports. A necessary outcome of this growth was the construction of numerous and commodious facilities to accommodate the larger numbers of participants and spectators. Grounds, fields, tracks, courses, rinks and other sporting facilities were constructed, enlarged or modified in response to this demand. Many of the facilities of the nineteenth century were financed by enterprising businessmen who realized that sport was a good investment. Groups of sporting enthusiasts also banded together, either as a loose association or an organized sporting club, to finance and construct suitable facilities for the sport of their interest. In many cases, full time curators, groundsmen and caretakers were required to maintain the facilities in good condition because there was an increasing concern over the quality of the surface, or conditions under which a sport was

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[5] Carlton J. Hayes, A Generation of Materialism, 1871-1900 (New York: Harper and Row, 1941), p.94.

[6] For a discussion of the introduction of electric power and lighting into Canada, see J.J. Brown, Ideas in Exile - A History of Canadian Invention, (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1967), p.158. By 1900 there were nearly 300 electric light companies in Canada, and more than 11,000, and 683,000, arc and incandescent lamps, respectively (Canada, Department of Agriculture, Statistical Year Book of Canada for 1900).

played. These factors, and several others which were peculiar and incidental to particular sports, played a vital part in helping to develop pastimes and games into organized sports.

Stumps were pitched for cricket on the most level piece of ground during the first few decades of the century; this was usually a farmer's field. An announcement to the effect that matches would be played every Tuesday and Friday afternoon at four o'clock in the field at the rear of John Delisle's house in Montreal appeared in the daily press in June, 1831.[7] The Montreal Cricket Club was formed in 1843 following a meeting at "Fortier's Field", which was to be the venue for practises and games.[8] Even for these early cricket games, a small admittance fee was sometimes levied to help defray the expense of acquiring equipment, and for the maintenance of the ground.[9] In order to attract and collect money from those who would not otherwise come to view the sport of cricket, the social aspects of an afternoon's outing were emphasized. Refreshment marquees were often pitched, and military bands were occasionally in attendance to provide a pleasant setting;[10] aspects all designed to encourage spectators to return.

The schools of the larger towns usually had suitable playing surfaces for cricket. In 1846, a match was played between Lower and Upper Canada on the grounds at McGill College.[11] The area in front of the University College building at the University of Toronto was used for

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[7] Montreal Gazette, June 23, 1831. [8] Ibid., August 17, 1843.

[9] Ibid., July 28, 1841; July 20, 1865.

[10] Ibid. [11] Ibid., August 21, 1846.

growing hay, barley and potatoes until the 1870's. Reed[12] has stated that a gardener with a scythe periodically prepared the ground for cricket after that time.

Where suitable land was not readily available, keen cricketers often organized "clearing bees" to prepare a field. One successful venture was arranged by the Pioneer Cricket Club of New Westminster in 1861, when over two hundred soldiers and citizens turned out in force to make a cricket field.[13] The total amount from subscriptions collected that afternoon was in excess of five hundred dollars.

The inaugural meeting of the Pipestone Cricket Club of Saskatchewan, in 1887, was held at "Mr. Manners' Ground". Apparently this field was unsuitable for play, because the following was recorded in the minutes of the next meeting, a week later:

> The question of a ground was then discussed and it was decided to meet on the ground early on Saturday afternoon, the 18th inst., to select a piece of ground and have a team and breaking plough ready to break the seeding down.[14]

By the turn of the century, most of the larger towns had cricket ovals with suitable facilities and conveniences for spectators.

The Indians played baggataway on almost any type of terrain, and when the white settlers adopted the game, one of the advantages was that

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[12] T.A. Reed, The Blue and White - A Record of Fifty Years of Athletic Endeavour at the University of Toronto, (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1944), p.70.

[13] Barry Mather and Margaret McDonald, New Westminster: The Royal City, (Vancouver: The Keystone Press Limited, 1958), p.131.

[14] Pipestone Cricket Club, Minute and Account Book, 1887-1890 (Unit No.256, Saskatchewan Archives Board, Legislative Assembly, Regina). It was necessary to purchase seed for the ground from Winnipeg; the 15 lbs. purchased cost $3.00. The minutes of May 24, 1889, stated that the site of the cricket ground was to be moved to Section 35, near Mr. Williams' property.

it could be played on fields which required little or no preparation. This was one of the arguments the proponents of lacrosse used in their case for the sport being proposed as Canada's national game; cricket fields, they claimed, required special and careful preparation.[15] In the book, The Game of Lacrosse, George Beers wrote:

> The larger the field is the better, and where grass is short and no stones on the ground, it is always found the best. An even field would be much better than one otherwise, but this is not necessary;...[16]

Race courses and cricket grounds were often used in Montreal in order to accommodate the large crowds which attended the games.[17] On Dominion Day, 1867, the lacrosse match between the Caughnawaga Indians and the Montreal Lacrosse Club was "the great feature of the day."[18] The ground used on that occasion could not accommodate the crowd, despite the fact that "commodious stands" were erected.[19] It was later reported in the Montreal Gazette that the two hundred and fifty dollars surplus gate money, over and above expenses, would be used for securing a suitable lacrosse ground in Montreal.[20] Within a few years, both the Montreal and Shamrock clubs had their own lacrosse grounds on Sherbrooke and St. Catherine Streets, respectively.[21]

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[15] Montreal Gazette, August 7, 1867.

[16] W. George Beers, The Game of Lacrosse, (Montreal: M. Langmoore and Co., 1860), p.9.

[17] Montreal Gazette, August 10, 1850; October 5, 1860; September 29, 1866.

[18] Ibid., July 3, 1867.

[19] Ibid., July 1, and 4, 1867. [20] Ibid., July 4, 1867.

[21] Kathleen Jenkins, Montreal, Island City of the St. Lawrence. (New York: Doubleday and Co. Inc., 1966), p.414.

Plate 29. The Toronto Lacrosse Club on their Jarvis Street grounds, 1876.

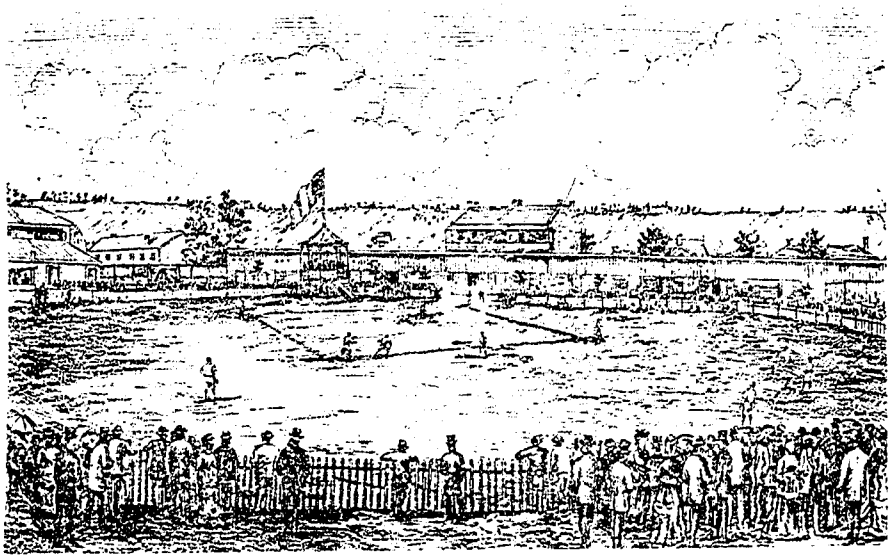

Plate 30. A baseball match between the Standards, of Hamilton, and the Tecumsehs, of London, played on the Crystal Palace Grounds, Hamilton, in 1876.

When the Toronto Lacrosse Club played the Six Nation Indians in September, 1867, more than three thousand spectators thronged to the Toronto Cricket Ground.[22] The enthusiasm of many spectators caused them to press closer to the activity, which resulted in their sprawling onto the playing area, as there were no fences. The Toronto Lacrosse Club used the Toronto Cricket Grounds until 1873 when they leased an area at the corner of Jarvis and Wellesley Streets, where they built the Toronto Lacrosse Grounds.[23] In 1883, some prominent members of the club organized a company called the "Toronto Athletic Grounds Company", and built athletic facilities at Rosedale where lacrosse, track and field, and bicycle races could be held.[24]

The introduction of the electric arc and incandescent lights had a profound effect on sport as they extended the amount of time that facilities, both indoor and outdoor, could be used. Roxborough[25] has stated that in 1880, long before night-lighting was introduced to other sports, two teams comprised of members from the Montreal Shamrocks, played a lacrosse match under electric light before a gathering of one thousand spectators. The success of this innovation was so great that the Shamrock Club organized a night tournament soon afterwards.[26]

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[22] Globe, Toronto, September 26, 1867.

[23] C. Pelham Mulvany, Toronto: Past and Present. (Toronto: W.E. Craiger, 1884), p.124.

[24] Ibid.

[25] Henry Roxborough, One Hundred - Not Out. (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1966), p.45.

[26] Allan E. Cox, "A History of Sports in Canada, 1868-1900," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), p.139 cited from Le Nouveau Monde, Montreal, March 17, 1880.

Lacrosse was so popular in the 1880's that most cities had several grounds for this activity. An estimated crowd of more than nine thousand attended a lacrosse match between Ottawa and Montreal in August, 1889, at the Montreal Lacrosse Grounds. The gate money was nearly two thousand dollars - the largest amount ever taken.[27] With the increased interest in the game that brought revenue from spectators, lacrosse facilities had improved considerably since Beers had written that any "even field" would be suitable.

When the game of baseball spread across the border from the United States, the early matches, like those of lacrosse in its infancy, were played on any field that was reasonably level. However, within a few years, lacrosse and cricket grounds were used because the playing surfaces were more suitable, and the large spectator attendance which this new sport had attracted could be accommodated.[28] When professional baseball came to Canada, large and commodious baseball grounds were built to hold capacity crowds because a large proportion of the gate receipts were used to pay the players.[29]

The Toronto Baseball Club originally played on the lacrosse grounds at the corner of Jarvis and Wellesley Streets. In 1886, however, the club built new grounds on Queen Street, near the Don River, which were hailed as being the "biggest in the world, except for Detroit."[30] The Toronto and

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[27] Ottawa Citizen, August 20, 1889.

[28] Daily Colonist, April 3, 1863; Montreal Gazette, August 19, 1869; Roxborough, op.cit., p.114.

[29] A semi-professional league comprising Toronto, Guelph, Markham, London, Port Hope and Kingston was formed in 1876, and for some games the crowds were in excess of nine thousand (Roxborough, op.cit., p.114).

[30] Globe, Toronto, January 25, 1886; Roxborough, op.cit., p.114.

Hamilton clubs were admitted to an eight club International Baseball League that year, and the attendance at league matches in both cities averaged nearly four thousand per match throughout the season.[31] The Hamilton club used the Crystal Palace grounds for many years.[32]

Baseball was the most popular bat and ball game by 1900 and most cities and towns had several baseball grounds to serve the many players and followers of this sport.

The first course of the Montreal Golf Club was at the head of Durocher Street, but later an area was developed near Duluth Avenue.[33] Fletcher's Field, the name given to the first course used by the club, was on the eastern side of Mount Royal. There were no holes; the object of the game was merely to hit the ball around the predetermined course.[34] Six holes[35] and packed sand "greens" were soon prepared, but the length of grass on the fairways was determined by the amount of grass the sheep in pasture could eat.[36]

Perhaps because urban Montreal was spreading out, the club pur-

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[31] Cox, op.cit., p.51.

[32] Marjorie F. Campbell, A Mountain and a City: The Story of Hamilton. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1966), p.130.

[33] The Royal Montreal Golf Club, 1873-1923. (Montreal: A booklet published by the Club, 1923), p.9.

[34] R. Bruce Forbes, "Golf, The Royal and Ancient Game," Merit News (Published by I.A.C. Companies, Montreal), V.17 (No.5, July 1965), p.2.

[35] The Royal Montreal Golf Club, p.12. This course had only six holes at first, and the Quebec Golf Club, formed in 1874, had twelve holes.

[36] Forbes, op.cit., p.2. Forbes has stated it was necessary to keep the sheep off the putting surface, so each "green" was surrounded by a moat to keep them away - a further hazard to the golfers.

chased land at Dixie in 1896, where a temporary nine-hole course was prepared and a club-house erected.[37] This course was later extended to twelve holes, the additional three to be used "for practice and on crowded days."[38]

The popularity of golf spread quickly, and enthusiasts of the game, which included women, used any available area as a course. A club was formed at Niagara in 1877, and members used the Fort Mississauga and, later, the Fort George Commons:

> The ladies generally played over the nine hole course, the full course presenting too many difficulties, such as a railway cutting to cross, a dry moat, cutting with water, tree right in the way, while the first nine holes bristle quite enough with hazards, a dyke, numerous roads, trails, rifle pits, long grass, exasperating enough sometimes and yet yielding a keen delight which none but the golfer know.[39]

Golf had been played on the outskirts of Toronto, mainly around Norway or the Woodbine, since the late 1860's.[40] The Toronto Golf Club was formed in 1876, and it occupied its own course on Norway Heights, north of Woodbine, from 1882 onward. In 1890, the course was still less than two miles, with the longest hole being 250 yards;[41] but in 1895 the links were expanded to the east, and the number of holes increased from nine to eighteen.[42] Several other clubs with courses were located in Toronto by 1900.[43]

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[37] The Royal Montreal Golf Club, p.18. [38] Ibid.

[39] Janet Carnochan, History of Niagara, (Toronto: William Briggs, 1914), p.269.

[40] Joseph T. Clark, "Golf in Canada," The Canadian Magazine, V.26 (No.1, November 1905), p.44.

[41] Globe, Toronto, May 17, 1890. [42] Ibid., April 18, 1895.

[43] Clark, op.cit., pp.44-45.

A club was organized in Hamilton in 1894, and seven holes were laid out on the grounds of the Central Fair Association, but following arrangements to use a farm on the outskirts of the city, Hamilton golfers relinquished this course and "threaded a way among cows."[44] The nine-hole course of the golf club which was formed at Stony Mountain in Winnipeg in 1889 must also have provided a challenge to the local golfers:

> The starting point, or in Golf phraseology, the teeing ground, is immediately opposite Col. Bedson's residence. The course is then due west toward the railway station; thence south along the line of the C.P.R. until you reach the fourth, or Joe's (Sabiston) hotel; then south east across the spur line, to the track hole, on to the brick-yards and Dr. Sutherland's cottage, where the course turns north. The last stretch of link; crossing the ditches and big ploughing, landing you [sic] at the eighth hole on the breast of the hill, the last drive being over boulders and badger holes, (pretty pronounced hazards) and down the same hill west to the first putting green.[45]

By the turn of the century, most cities across Canada had at least one golf course, but some were more hazardous than others.[46] Several prosperous clubs had club-houses with locker rooms and other amenities.[47]

When lawn tennis came to Canada in the 1870's, it was fashionable to have a court constructed on the estates of expensive homes.[48] Once

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[44]Centennial Sports Committee, Centennial Sports Review, (Hamilton: Al Macfarlane Enterprises, 1967), p.74.

[45]Winnipeg Free Press, May 24, 1889.

[46]Charles Hunter, "Golf in Canada," Athletic Life, V.1. (February, 1895), pp.61-65; and V.1. (March, 1895), pp.102-105; Roxborough, op.cit., p.107; Cox, op.cit., p.135; Edmonton Bulletin, October 15, 1896; Calgary Herald, September 22, 1898.

[47]Globe, Toronto, November 7, 1896.

[48]M. Ann Hall, "A History of Women's Sport in Canada Prior to World War I," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968), p.72; Phyllis R. Blakeley, Glimpses of Halifax, 1867-1900. (Halifax: Public Archives of Nova Scotia, 1949), p.149.

the sport became popular, clubs were formed, the first being the Toronto Lawn Tennis Club, which built courts on Front Street in 1876.[49] Tennis continued to be a most popular sport in Toronto, and the Toronto Athletic Club had fifteen lawn courts by 1894.[50]

Areas which had been cleared and prepared for croquet were sometimes used as tennis courts when that sport waned in popularity.[51] Some tennis clubs even incorporated other facilities when courts were laidout; the Ottawa Tennis Club, situated on the bank of the Rideau Canal, had a bowling green and areas for quoits, as well as six double tennis courts.[52]

Lawn tennis started in Winnipeg as it had in the east; through the building of private tennis courts. The Winnipeg Lawn Tennis Club organized its first tournament in 1884,[53] and the efforts of this club fostered tennis in that city. In addition to the annual membership subscription, tournament fees and fund-raising balls enabled this organization to provide excellent facilities.[54] Arrangements for extending the club-house were made in 1892 to the extent indicated in a letter to the secretary of the club from the contractors:

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[49] H.G. Mackenzie, "History of Lawn Tennis in Canada," Athletic Life, V.1. (January, 1895), p.16.

[50] Ibid., p.19.

[51] Roxborough, op.cit., p.70.

[52] The Dominion Illustrated, November 24, 1888, p.326.

[53] Cox, op.cit., p.170.

[54] Winnipeg Lawn Tennis Club, Correspondence 1891-1892, Accounts 1886-1891 and Minutes 1885-1888.

> We will extend present shed at Tennis Grounds, alter partition and false floor and put in 30 lockers with 2 hooks in each for $50.00. This price does not include painting nor locks for lockers.[55]

The playing surface was kept in good repair through the laying of waterpipes and periodic re-sodding. Arrangements had been made in 1885 for a curator to look after the tennis courts and the cricket oval, with both the tennis and cricket clubs to paying half of his wages through membership subscriptions.[56]

Tennis was not always played on lawn; some areas were more suited to clay or dirt, and the use of concrete for courts at Lethbridge was even considered.[57] In some regions, where the weather was not conducive to a long season for tennis, courts were sometimes marked on gymnasium floors.[58]

At the end of the nineteenth century, facilities for the sport of tennis were available for all classes across Canada, whereas, less than thirty years previously, the game had been limited to those wealthy members of society who could afford their own courts.

Although some Canadians had enjoyed the pastime of lawn-bowling for many years, it was not until later in the century that the sport spread.[59] In the 1830's, several Toronto gentlemen formed the Caer

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[55] Ibid. Letter to C.S. Richardson from J. and J. McDiarmid, Builders and Contractors, May 14, 1892.

[56] Ibid., Minutes of Committee Meeting, April 23, 1885.

[57] John E. Reid, "Sports and Games in Alberta Before 1900," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, 1969), p.52.

[58] Hall, op.cit., pp.75-76.

[59] Peter L. Lindsay, "A History of Sport in Canada, 1807-1867," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), pp.132-133; Cox, op.cit., p.161; George Elliott, "Bowling on the Green," The Canadian Magazine, V.14 (September 1902), pp.516-518.

Howell Bowling Club, the name being derived from the hostelry adjoining the rinks upon which they played.[60] The Toronto Lawn Bowling Club, of which many of the founding members were curlers from the Toronto Curling Club, was formed in 1876. This bowling club constructed a green adjacent to the curling rink on Adelaide Street.[61]

A level surface was desirable for skilful bowling, and such facilities were not easily constructed and maintained. Lawn-bowlers often affiliated themselves with tennis and other sporting clubs, where better bowling conditions were usually available.[62] Lawn-bowling was so popular in Winnipeg in the 1890's that the Winnipeg Lawn Tennis Club released two tennis courts for bowling because "there was a need."[63] The Royal Canadian Yacht Club in Toronto, and the Toronto Athletic Club also had bowling greens among their facilities for members.[64] Although lawn bowling was mostly played in Ontario by the end of the century, people in other parts of Canada were taking to the sport and either constructing or improving the facilities.[65]

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[60] Elliott, op.cit., p.517.

[61] Globe, Toronto, September 8, 1876; Roxborough, op.cit., p.69.

[62] Nancy Howell and Maxwell L. Howell, Sport and Games in Canadian Life, 1700 to the Present, (Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 1969), p.130. The Ottawa Tennis Club had facilities for bowling (The Dominion Illustrated, November 24, 1888, p.326).

[63] Winnipeg Free Press, April 8, 1898.

[64] Elliott, op.cit., p.523; J. Ross Robertson, Robertson's Landmarks of Toronto, V.2. (Toronto: J. Ross Robertson, 1896), p.1111. The Ontario Bowling Association held their annual tournaments on the Royal Canadian Yacht Clubs greens (Elliott, op.cit., p.523).

[65] There were 25 clubs affiliated with the Ontario Bowling Association by 1900 (Globe, Toronto, July 11, 1900), but "in the Dominion of Canada its devotees now number many thousands, and there are even a few female bowlers." (Elliott, op.cit., p.523)

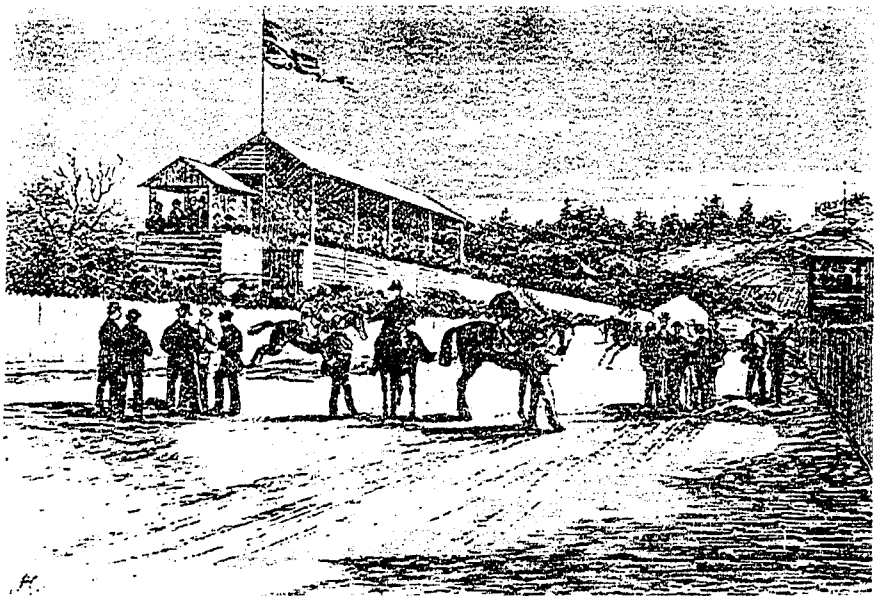

Plate 31. The Race-Course at Hamilton, 1876.

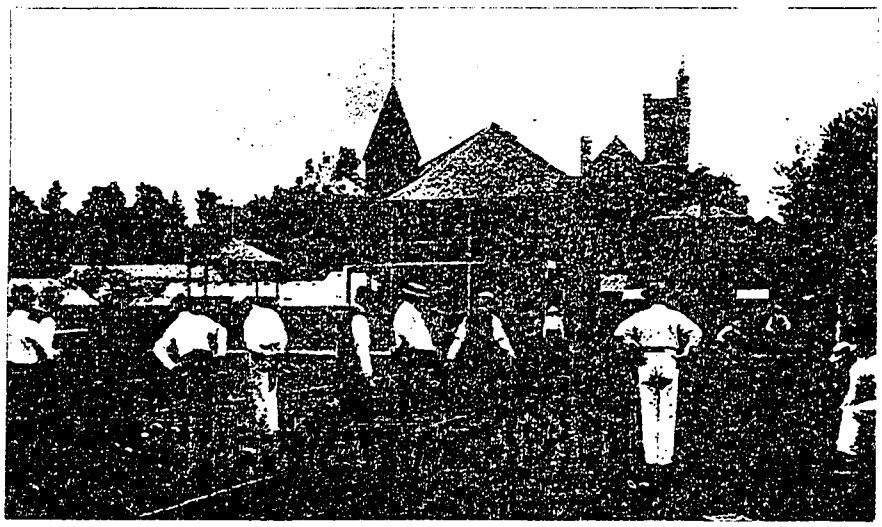

Plate 32. The Bowling Greens at Rosalea, 1898.

James Naismith has stated that the spread of basketball in Canada was not as rapid as in the United States because "Canada was so well adapted for outdoor winter sports that it did not feel the need for the winter game."[66] Nevertheless, Canadians did take to the game, and its spread throughout the Y.M.C.A's during the 1890's was considerable.[67] Indoor facilities which suited the game of basketball either existed in the Y.M.C.A's at the time of the game's introduction into Canada, or were built in the larger centres with the financial assistance of railway companies and other business enterprises.[68]

Athletic and sporting clubs, many of which had indoor facilities, were influential in promoting basketball. The Toronto Globe[69] reported in 1898 that basketball teams comprised of members of the Toronto Lacrosse Club, Toronto Bicycle Club, Bank of Commerce, Toronto Athletic Club, Toronto Rowing Club, the Argonauts, Calumets and Lornes were arranging a league. The large drill halls of military garrisons were also places where basketball could be played.[70]

Although basketball was mainly confined to the eastern and Maritime provinces prior to 1900, the sport soon spread in the early years of the new century, especially where suitable indoor facilities existed.

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[66]James Naismith, Basketball, Its Origin and Development (New York: Association Press, 1941), p.144.

[67]Barry E. Mitchelson, "The Evolution of Men's Basketball in Canada, 1892-1936," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968), pp.39-43.

[68]M.G. Ross, The Y.M.C.A. in Canada, (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1951), pp.233-236. The Grand Trunk and the Canadian Pacific Railways provided indoor facilities which promoted the game of basketball.

[69]Globe, Toronto, January 13, 1898.

[70]Mitchelson, op.cit., pp.73-74.

The early football grounds were not much more than grassed areas with objects placed at either end to be used as goals. Football was an activity played in the schools from around mid-century; games at Trinity College were played on a ground with goals which consisted of two short sticks or piles of clothing.[71] A rugby game was played at night under electric light in 1879 during a tournament held at Victoria College in Cobourg.[72] Rugby was popular in both the schools and communities in Ontario by the end of the century. In 1893, a three-tiered stand, which ran the full length of the rugby field, was erected at the University of Toronto,[73] which seemed to indicate that spectators were numerous.

Rugby and soccer football facilities in Vancouver were improved towards the end of the century as a result of general public interest in extending public recreation facilities. Until the grounds on Cambie Street were cleared and constructed in 1888, Hastings Park was the only grassed playing area in Vancouver.[74] Several civic-minded gentlemen were instrumental in securing the Cambie Street grounds as a public recreation park, and after the city of Vancouver contributed six hundred dollars for the project, suitable playing fields for rugby,

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[71] T.A. Reed (ed.), A History of the University of Trinity College, Toronto, 1852-1952, (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1952), p.269.

[72] Reed, The Blue and White, p.71. The football club affiliated with the M.A.A.A. were claimed to being the first in Canada to hold practices under electric light and it was reported as being a great success: "The members turn out better and more regularly, and every evening on practice nights from sixty to seventy men can be seen going through the different plays." (Montreal Amateur Athletic Association, Souvenir of the New Club House, (Montreal: M.A.A.A., 1905), p.xxx)

[73] Ibid., p.73.

[74] Douglas N. Sturrock, "A History of Rugby in British Columbia Prior to 1914," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1967)p.9.

soccer and lacrosse were constructed.[75] Upon the completion of the athletic grounds at Brockton Point in 1890, the rugby field there was regarded as the best.[76] Other suitable facilities were available at New Westminster, Victoria and Nanaimo.[77]

The several codes of football were still being played by the end of the century, and although the specific facilities for these games were found mainly in schools and colleges, footballers could use the lacrosse, athletic and cricket grounds of the communities for their matches. With the rise of Canadian football in the twentieth century, grounds designed for football became more numerous.

Track and field competitions were usually held on any suitable field or common in the early years of the century. Landing pits for the jumping events and special throwing areas were seldom used. Towards mid-century, more attention was given to the comfort of the spectators than to the athletes, as the organizers of the games used existing facilities which had grand-stands and other conveniences. The St. Pierre race course in Montreal was frequently used as it had several large grand-stands and defined areas for horse-carriages.[78] It was obvious from the description of the grounds for the Beauharnois Athletic Games which appeared in the Montreal Gazette of September 16, 1856, that they had been prepared for the convenience of the spectators:

> We then repaired to the ground set apart for the occasion, which was on top of the hill overlooking the village, the river St. Lawrence, and the country beyond. At the entrance stands the Scotch Presbyterian church, a

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[75] Ibid. p.10. [76] Ibid. [77] Ibid.

[78] Montreal Gazette, September 20, 1843; August 28, 1844. Admission to the stands and carriage areas for the athletic events was less than the charges for horse-racing events by a half.

> small stone building against the gable of which the grand stand was erected. About thirty feet in front of this was an enclosure about 150 by 200 feet, set apart for the gymnastic exercises. - At the end of this enclosure a platform for the band was erected, and about a quarter of a mile from the grandstand was the ground on which the celebrated Indian game of "La Crosse" was to be played.

Although the spectators in the grand-stand may have had trouble seeing the finer points of play in the lacrosse match, they were in a good position for the throwing, running and jumping events.

Challenge matches in track and field events attracted large gatherings, so many challengers and their enterprising managers made sure they attracted capacity crowds by staging the events in grounds which could accommodate them. When James McCabe, Montreal's outstanding athlete of the 1860's,[79] ran against Private John Dolman of the Grenadier Guards, more than five thousand spectators paid twenty-five cents each to witness the race over one hundred and fifty yards.[80]

Challenges in walking events were also common throughout the century. It was necessary to hold a fifteen mile walking match between J. McCormac of Pembroke, and George Irvine of Ottawa, at an indoor Ottawa skating rink in 1879.[81] The match, for one thousand dollars a side, had drawn over five hundred spectators. McCormac was leading at the thirteenth mile when the gas lighting was turned off and "the greatest confusion reigned for a time." McCormac won the race, but the friends of both athletes, who had no doubt supported their confidence in the walkers' abilities with wagers, charged one another with putting

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[79] Lindsay, op.cit., p.144.

[80] Montreal Gazette, May 30, 1862. This race was held on a Thursday afternoon.

[81] Ottawa Citizen, November 8, 1879.

out the gas in an attempt to nullify the race.[82] Despite this abusive use, the accrued advantages of the improved indoor lighting were well recognized.

Even by the turn of the century, there were no prepared jumping pits and throwing areas on most grounds used for track and field competition.[83] The Montreal Amateur Athletic Association, which had done so much in developing track and field as a sport since its formation in 1881,[84] did not provide a prepared pit for the high jump at their grounds in Montreal in 1900.[85] It was not until the twentieth century that facilities which were favourable to the athletes in field events were developed in Canada.

Bicycle riding was a popular pastime before organized road- or track-racing began. Many bicycle clubs were formed on a social basis and were the outcome of groups meeting to plan pleasant afternoon and evening rides. It was not until 1881 that organized bicycle racing competitions began,[86] but the following year the Canadian Wheelmen's Association was formed[87] and such events flourished.

A new cinder track was built at the Rosedale Athletic Grounds in Toronto for the Canadian Wheelmen's Association's second annual com-

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[82] Ibid.

[83] W.A. Hewitt, Down the Stretch. (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, Press, 1958), p.79.

[84] Globe, Toronto, September 1, 1881.

[85] Montreal Amateur Athletic Association, op.cit., p.viii.

[86] Cox, op.cit., p.58.

[87] Russell E. Coupland, "History of Cycling in Canada," (Unpublished material from the Canadian Wheelmen's Association, 1965), n.p.

petition in 1883, and the Toronto Globe[88] reported that it was being "rolled and watered" in preparation for the cycling events. The Montreal Bicycle Club, which was affiliated with the M.A.A.A., was instrumental in having a cinder track laid on the M.A.A.A's. new grounds at Westmount.[89] This track, "second to none on the Continent," gave a great impetus to all kinds of bicycle racing as the club had previously used tracks which were "very unfitted for dash work."[90]

The enthusiasm for cycling competitions had become so great by the 1890's that even smaller cities and towns had built cycling tracks. Sarnia, which had a population of less than seven thousand in 1891,[91] was the host town for a C.W.A. bicycle meet in 1893.[92] The slightly banked track at Bay View Park was one-third of a mile long, and was built of clay, cinders and salt.[93] Two thousand spectators watched the cycling events which had been well organized by the C.W.A. and the Sarnia cycling enthusiasts. The means of calling the competitors to the starting line at this meet was an interesting innovation:

> The racing men were accommodated in dressing tents in the infield, and to each of these ran an electric wire connecting with a push-bell at the judges' stand. A touch on the button rang a gong in each tent, warning the men to come to the scratch.[94]

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[88] Globe, Toronto, October 22, 1883.

[89] Montreal Amateur Athletic Association, op.cit., p.xxxii.

[90] Ibid.

[91] Canada Department of Agriculture, Census of Canada, 1890-91, V.1. (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1893), p.370.

[92] Globe, Toronto, July 3, 1893.

[93] This track was regarded as having been well built but was "not fast" (Ibid.).

[94] Ibid.

Tracks for cycling were built in most towns across Canada as the popularity of the sport, especially organized racing, developed. A cinder cycling track was built at Brockton Point, Vancouver, in 1891, and cycling meets in that city flourished from that time onward.[95] Soon after a bicycle club was formed at Medicine Hat in 1894, a fenced-in cinder track was constructed.[96] Many cyclists could not have been satisfied with this track because "Bicycle Park", with a new track, was opened in 1896.

> The path is one-quarter of a mile long, about thirty feet wide, and the turns and elevations are constructed on the latest designs of track making. The elevation raises from about three feet on the stretch to six feet on the turns.[97]

In 1896, races were to be held on this track, described as being the "most perfect track in western Canada", and as a large number of spectators was expected, the editor made a plea for a grand-stand to be erected to accommodate the crowd.[98]

Road racing competitions were also held,[99] but in some regions of Canada, especially the Maritimes, the roads were so bad prior to 1900 that longer "road races" were held on race-tracks.[100] However, by the turn of the century, cycling had developed into a major competitive sport and much of its progress had been the result of improve-

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[95] Daily Colonist, Victoria, May 27, 1891.

[96] Medicine Hat News, May 17, 1893.

[97] Ibid., May 28, 1896. [98] Ibid.

[99] Globe, Toronto, August 29, 1898.

[100] Reporter, Fredericton, June 22, 1898. The Century Bicycle Club's fifteen mile "road race" was held on the Fredericton driving park track.

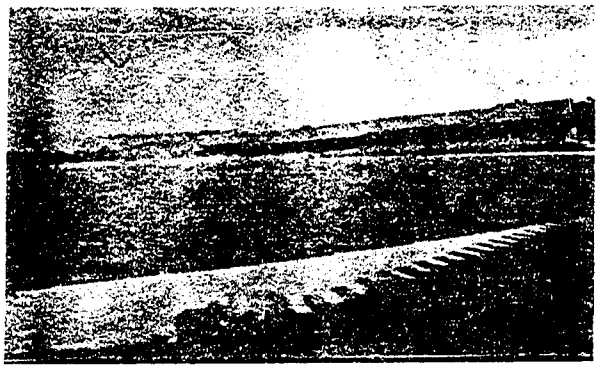

Plate 33. Grounds of the Toronto Lacrosse and Athletic Association, where the Toronto Bicycle Club meetings were held, 1892.

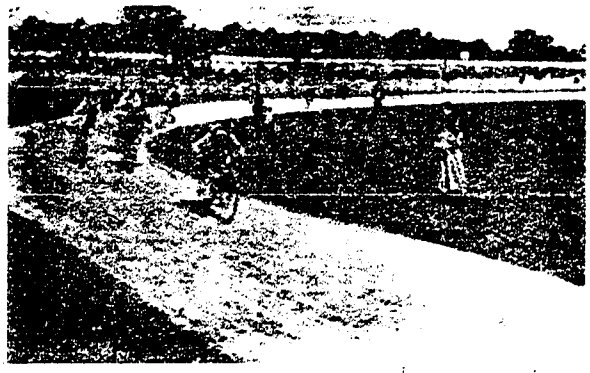

Plate 34. Toronto Bicycle Club - half mile handicap event, 1892.

Plate 35. Toronto Bicycle Club - third lap in the three-mile event, 1892.

Plate 36. Toronto Bicycle Club House, 1892.

ments in cycling facilities. Although speeds had been increased by technological improvements of the bicycle itself, especially after the advent of the "safety" bicycle, track construction and surfaces also contributed significantly to that increase in speed. Technology had not only improved the safety factor of track-racing through banked turns and stretches, but it had also made the sport of cycling more exciting for the spectators.

The roller-skate provided a novel means of locomotion, and following its introduction into Canada in the 1880's, many indoor rinks were built in response to the demand for suitable floor surfaces upon which to use them.[101] Wooden floors constructed from maple were often used,[102] and in many cities and towns existing buildings were converted or remodelled into venues for this new popular sport.[103]

Facilities for indoor bowling were in existence in British North America in the eighteenth century, but the popularity of the game was not widespread because of its association with gambling.[104] However, by the middle of the nineteenth century, bowling was regarded as much more respectable. At this time there were many bowling alleys, although the facilities were usually incorporated with some other enterprise:

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[101] Roxborough, op.cit., p.97; Earl G. Drake, Regina, The Queen City. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1955), p.57; Winnipeg Free Press, September 8, 1885.

[102] Hazel C. Mathews, Oakville and the Sixteen: A History of an Ontario Port, (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1953), p.405; Reid, op.cit., p.86.

[103] Lethbridge News, December 22, 1886.

[104] Lindsay, op.cit., p.270.

> Railroad Eating and Bowling Saloon!
> The subscriber begs to announce that he has recently laid Four Splendid Bowling Alleys in the New Building on Front Street, where he also has a Billiard Room.[105]

The bowling alleys at "Canada House" at Caledonia Springs were advertised in the Montreal Gazette as being "perfectly level."[106] Other summer resorts also had bowling alleys as an added attraction to prospective guests.[107]

Montreal had a large bowling establishment, the Empire Bowling Hall, on Craig Street by 1867,[108] and in Toronto, the city council received a considerable amount in revenue from bowling alleys, as proprietors were required to purchase a license which cost twenty dollars.[109] Faculty members and students of the University of Toronto formed a bowling club which entered the Toronto Bowling League in 1893.[110] A portion of the university gymnasium basement was used by this club as their bowling alley. Ten-pin bowling facilities were in great demand in Toronto throughout the 1890's:

> The American ten-pin game has taken a strong hold in Toronto this year, judging from the way the eight alleys are kept going in the Athenaeum Club and the armories....[111]

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[105] Roxborough, op.cit. quoted from the Daily Patriot, 1852.

[106] Montreal Gazette, August 9, 1850. Other facilities at this resort included hot sulphur baths, shower baths and billiard room. (Ibid.) From mid-century onwards, many hotels had bowling alleys incorporated in their facilities (Reid, op.cit., pp.86-87).

[107] Ibid., August 12, 1864. [108] Ibid., June 12, 1867.

[109] City of Toronto Municipal Council, By-Laws of the City of Toronto. (Henry Rowsell, 1870).

[110] Reed, The Blue and White, p.18.

[111] Globe, Toronto, March 21, 1898.

Few gymnasia were constructed in the first half of the nineteenth century, but by 1860 there were gymnastic societies in Montreal, Quebec, Toronto, Hamilton, Halifax and Victoria.[112] In 1843, a notice appeared in the Montreal Gazette[113] which stated that gentlemen were subscribing to the "Olympic Gymnasium." The facility was situated in an apartment over the St. Anne market, which had been "fitted up for gymnastic exercises."[114] Toronto's first public gymnasium was built in 1846,[115] and a private institution, "Mrs. Charles Hill's Academy for Dancing and the Calisthenic Exercises", was opened in 1850 in Toronto.[116]

At the end of the 1850's, the first "Gymnasium Club" in Toronto was formed in a rented hall on Church Street, which had been equipped as a gymnasium.[117] Toronto had another gymnasium by 1864 - an area on the top floor of the Toronto Baths, which had been "well fitted up for all kinds of athletic exercises."[118]

"Alloways Gymnasium" was opened in Montreal by 1860, and the proprietor announced in the Montreal Gazette[119] that he was prepared to enter into arrangements with schools. He offered them the use of the gymnasium facilities which included, as well as small portable items of equipment, "every other apparatus appertaining to Gymnastics."[120]

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[112] Lindsay, op.cit., pp.273-275; Reet Nurmberg, "A History of Competitive Gymnastics in Canada," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1970), pp.3-5.

[113] Montreal Gazette, November 1, 1845. [114] Ibid.

[115] Nurmberg, op.cit., p.5.

[116] Globe, Toronto, January 19, 1850. [117] Ibid., May 7, 1859.

[118] Ibid., June 17, 1864.

[119] Montreal Gazette, March 12, 1860. [120] Ibid.

Facilities for gymnastics improved considerably in Montreal after the Montreal Gymnastic Club was formed in 1860. This club took possession of a gymnasium on University Street in 1862, which had been built by McGill University.[121] In 1867, the Montreal Gymnastic Club made arrangements for a new gymnasium to be built; facilities for bowling and billiards were to be included in it.[122]

In some areas, where gymnasia had not been built, existing facilities were converted or adapted for gymnastic activity. Ottawa did not have a proper gymnasium in 1866, so a skating rink was used.[123] The gymnasium on Gore Street in Hamilton became too small for those desiring to make use of it, so the Gymnasium Society, which had been formed in 1861, made arrangements to move to larger premises on Merrick Street in 1862.[124]

Gymnasia were constructed in the Maritimes during the 1860's; Halifax in 1860,[125] and St. John in 1862.[126] A building on Northumberland Street, Fredericton was adapted for gymnastic exercises in 1865.[127]

Dashaway Hall, in Victoria, British Columbia, had a gymnasium added to the premises in the late 1850's.[128] A second gymnasium was

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[121] Ibid., January 24, 1862. [122] Ibid., April 17, 1867.

[123] Ottawa Citizen, August 28, 1866.

[124] Hamilton Times, September 29, 1862. Sixty persons had enrolled for membership at the first meeting in 1861, but there were nearly 180 members when the club moved to the Merrick Street gymnasium.

[125] Novascotian, Halifax, October 20, 1862.

[126] Reporter, Fredericton, August 7, 1863.

[127] Ibid., September 29, 1865. [128] Lindsay, op.cit., p.279.

built in Victoria in 1860, and the Excelsior Gymnastic Club was formed soon after.[129] New premises were opened at Alhambra Hall in 1869, and it was reported that "the gymnasts certainly have a splendid hall and plenty of elbow-room in their new premises."[130]

Many German immigrants brought with them to Canada the tradition of the Jahn Turnverein movement. From the 1850's on, settlers in Berlin (now Kitchener) met weekly for exercises on climbing and swinging apparatus.[131] A turner movement was active in Toronto by the 1860's, and their apparatus was established at an outdoor gymnasium on the corner of King and Yonge Streets.[132] A Turnverein was also in existence in Victoria by the 1860's.[133]

Some universities also had gymnasia included in their facilities; gymnasia were opened at McGill University in 1862, the University of Toronto in 1865, and Dalhousie in 1882.[134] A second gymnasium, Moss Hall, was built at the University of Toronto, and care was taken to maintain the excellent floor as several rules were enforced: "the wearing of rubber-soled shoes on the gymnasium floor was insisted upon, and smoking prohibited."[135]

Until late in the century, few schools had gymnasia. The first

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[129] Ibid. [130] Daily Colonist, Victoria, April 2, 1869.

[131] W.V. Uttley, A History of Kitchener, Ontario. (Waterloo: Chronicle Press, 1937), p.107.

[132] Globe, Toronto, September 14, 1861; November 22, 1887.

[133] Daily Colonist, Victoria, May 1, 1866.

[134] Nurmberg, op.cit., p.11.

[135] Reed, The Blue and White, pp.2, 15.

gymnasium built in a Normal School in Ontario was in 1862, but there were five collegiates in the province with gymnasia by 1865.[136] The Central High School of Hamilton had playgrounds and gymnasia for both girls and boys in the 1860's.[137] A new gymnasium was built at the Montreal High School in 1862, and, in 1892, Mr. C.B. Powter, a graduate of Springfield College, conducted gymnastic classes for the boys of the Montreal Protestant schools in a sixty feet by ninety feet gymnasium.[138] Similar developments occurred in other parts of Canada as efforts to provide gymnasia in schools of the Maritime and western provinces continued.[139]

Several public gymnasia were opened on the prairies toward the end of the century; at Winnipeg in 1876,[140] Calgary in 1885, and Lethbridge in 1891.[141] The Y.M.C.A's. also included gymnasia in their institutions across Canada, especially in the 1890's.[142] As the population and density of cities and towns increased throughout the latter years of the century, the need and demand for gymnasia became greater. Technological improvements in building materials, construction methods, lighting and heating throughout the period made these facilities more

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[136] Nurmberg, op.cit., p.11. The work of Egerton Ryerson in Ontario in promoting physical education and suitable facilities at this time was considerable (Frank Cosentino and Maxwell L. Howell, "The History of Physical Education in Canada," (A paper presented at the First Canadian Symposium on the History of Sport and Physical Education, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, May, 1970), pp.18-19).

[137] Cosentino and Howell, op.cit., p.19.

[138] Ibid., p.27.

[139] Ibid., pp.28-35.

[140] Howell and Howell, op.cit., p.215.

[141] Reid, op.cit., p.85.

[142] For the development of gymnasia in the Y.M.C.A's. throughout Canada in the nineteenth century, see Ross, op.cit.

attractive and appealing to urban dwellers.

Tracks and courses for horse-racing improved considerably throughout the nineteenth century. Even in the early years of the century, horse-racing had attracted large numbers of spectators,[143] and there were many race tracks in existence by mid-century.[144] Some of the courses were obviously not permanent,[145] but as an outcome of the growing interest, better facilities for horse-racing were constructed. By mid-century, efforts to make a day at the races more comfortable for patrons were obvious, although Day,[146] in comparing what he saw at the course on St. Charles Road, Quebec, with the courses of England, was not impressed:

> Contrasted with the English sport of a similar nature, the affair was most miserable. The course itself - enclosed with planks - was unsuitable, being but half a mile in circumference. In the centre was a small stand, shingle-roofed, designed for stewards and a few favoured individuals. Some yards apart stood the "grand stand", a rough and unsightly looking structure, one hundred feet long by perhaps twenty feet wide, partially filled with any but the elite of Quebec society.... On the grounds, - covered with debris left after the workmen, - were a few private vehicles, any number of calèches, and a solitary carriage and pair...

During this period there were several references to "rowdyism" and the

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[143] Montreal Gazette, August 12, 1811; September 24, 1829; June 14, 1836; Novascotian, Halifax, July 13, 1825; September 18, 1835.

[144] "By the end of the forties in Upper Canada, race tracks were in evidence at Peterborough, Aurora, London, Guelph, Whitby, Barrie, Niagara, Hamilton, Ottawa, Kingston, Chatham, Cobourg, and Toronto." (Lindsay, op.cit., p.208)

[145] Jesse E. Middleton, The Municipality of Toronto: A History. V.2. (Toronto: The Dominion Publishing Company, 1923), p.742.

[146] S.P. Day, English America, V.1. (London: T. Coutley Newby, 1864), pp.274-275.

presence of "undesirables" at race meetings,[147] and courses in some cities were moved away from the centre of urban locations.

Not all horse-races were held on prepared tracks, as some of the smaller towns had not constructed them. Lindsay[148] has stated that the Cacouna Races in the 1860's were always a spectator's delight, and the course ran "from Pelletier's Hotel along the road to O'Neill's, from there up to the church, round the square to the north of the church, and back to O'Neill's, the centre door of which was the winning post."

However, facilities improved considerably in the latter third of the century as new and better courses were built in most of the populated regions of Canada. In the west, "a very fine race ground of two miles or more in length" was in existence near Fort Edmonton;[149] and a new course, complete with stables and club-house, was completed near Calgary in 1886.[150] A half-mile race-track was advocated in Edmonton in 1881 to supplement the one which had existed since the 1850's on the river flats.[151]

Horse-racing was also a popular sport in Manitoba, and the Prairie Park course at Winnipeg was hailed by the Free Press as being

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[147] Day, op.cit., p.276; Lindsay, op.cit., pp.208-212.

[148] Lindsay, op.cit. - cited from Morning Chronicle, Quebec, August 11, 1862. Even in the 1870's at New Westminster, British Columbia, "horse-racing was usually limited to a Dominion Day meeting held on the main street of the city." (Cox, op.cit., p.352)

[149] Archibald D. MacRae, A History of Alberta. (Western Canada History Co., 1912), p.199.

[150] Reid, op.cit., p.32.

[151] Edmonton Bulletin, March 7, 1881.

"the best on the continent."[152] Brandon also had a good track by the mid 1880's.[153]

In British Columbia, horse-racing first centered around the Beacon Hill course, which was improved following a subscription of four hundred dollars from the Victorian Jockey Club in 1861.[154] The year after these improvements were made, more than two thousand spectators were comfortably accommodated at a race programme which included the annual Queen's Plate.[155]

Although horse-racing in the Maritimes, and more particularly Halifax, had been subject to criticism around mid-century because of the elements of gambling the sport attracted,[156] enthusiasm for the sport grew following the opening of new courses at the Riding Grounds and the Exhibition Grounds.[157]

Throughout Canada in the latter part of the century, facilities for horse-racing improved considerably as track surfaces became faster and more even, and better amenities for spectators were provided.

Trotting races were first held in conjunction with horse-race meetings,[158] so although the tracks may not have been ideal, there were usually satisfactory facilities for the spectators. "Driving parks" were constructed in various parts of Canada towards the end of the century; Toronto, Halifax, Fredericton, St. John and Charlottetown all

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[152] Winnipeg Free Press, July 7, 1882. [153] Ibid., September 6, 1885.

[154] Lindsay, op.cit., p.219. [155] Ibid.

[156] Novascotian, August 28, 1843; October 3, 1855; June 22, 1857.

[157] Blakeley, op.cit., p.152.

[158] Lindsay, op.cit., pp.217-218.

had special trotting tracks.[159] Night-trotting was held regularly in Fredericton in 1892 in response to public demand: "Yielding to the general desire of the public, the Park Association will shortly open the trotting Park again under the electric light."[160]

Trotting was also a popular winter sport, and tracks on ice were carefully prepared. After an ice-trotting meeting on the frozen St. Pierre River in 1835, it was reported in the Montreal Gazette[161] that "some calculations have been made as to the number of winter vehicles present, and we have heard them generally rated at about one thousand." Many winter trotting events were well organized; the Pembroke Trotting Club conducted a three-day meeting on the Ottawa River in 1864, on a special track prepared near the town.[162]

Early ice-trotting races were usually held on straight-mile courses,[163] but a horse-shoe shaped track, cleared of snow by horse-drawn scrapers, was common in the late 1870's.[164] The Ottawa Winter Trotting Club's track at Leamy's Lake was fenced in, and, according to the Ottawa Citizen in 1883, it was "the best in the Dominion."[165]

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[159] Cox, op.cit., pp.358-359; Reporter, Fredericton, August 3, 1892; Blakeley, op.cit., p.152.

[160] Reporter, Fredericton, August 3, 1892.

[161] Montreal Gazette, February 12, 1835.

[162] Ottawa Citizen, March 29, 1864.

[163] Globe, Toronto, February 16, 1854; February 16, 1868; W. Perkins Bull, From Rattlesnake Hunt to Hockey. (Toronto: The Perkins Bull Foundation, George J. MacLeod, 1934).

[164] Cox, op.cit., pp.366-367.

[165] Ottawa Citizen, December 19, 1883.

> Here is presented to the spectator one unbroken view of the mile course. It is impossible for a horse to make a skip that cannot be seen.[166]

Heavy rollers were used to level the track, and then it was thoroughly flooded in anticipation of a good cold spell.[167]

Montreal and Toronto were active centres for ice-trotting. In Montreal, a track was prepared in January, 1888, opposite Jacques Cartier Square,[168] and races were held at Fleetwood Park, Toronto, under electric light.[169] Ice-trotting tracks were also prepared for events at Dunnville, Collingwood, Welland and Prescott in February and March of that same year.[170]

On several occasions, existing race tracks were flooded and used for ice-trotting. Evidence that records of performances were kept may be seen from the following comment which appeared in the Toronto Globe of February 18, 1895:

> Unlike most performances on ice, the new records announced at the Hamilton race meeting last week are accompanied by the assurance of accuracy. The average winter track laid out on some bay or river, and cut to fit its surroundings, may be a full mile, but that is seldom guaranteed by a survey. The records at Hamilton were made on the flooded trotting track of the Hamilton Jockey Club, and the horses went the full distance.[171]

The Globe also mentioned that there were heated facilities for spectators on that occasion.

Ice-trotting, which had begun as a pleasant pastime in the early

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[166] Ibid., p.127. [167] Ibid., December 28, 1883.

[168] Globe, Toronto, January 31, 1888. [169] Ibid., February 6, 1888.

[170] Ibid., February 2 and 3; March 2, 1888.

[171] The mile record set on that occasion was 2 minutes, 22 seconds by Mr. C.F. Smith's gelding, Sheriff.

years of the century, was a well-organized sport by 1900 with regular competitions organized by clubs and associations with their own tracks and facilities, which included heated premises for the comfort of spectators.

When polo first began in Canada, any level or slightly undulating ground was used, but once interest in the sport developed, many "polo grounds" were constructed. Polo grounds were laid out in Halifax along the Quinpool and Chebucto Roads in the 1870's, but with the formation of the Halifax Polo Club in 1889, the enclosed Riding Grounds were also used: "a gang of men soon converted the rough turf into a splendid polo field, resembling a lawn in its smooth greenness."[172] Although the open range on the prairies was first used for polo when it was introduced, polo grounds were soon built in the newly settled areas of what is now Alberta. Although fair grounds were often used,[173] Calgary had excellent polo grounds north of the Bow Marsh bridge by the 1890's.[174] An annual "Irish versus The World" match was played on these grounds throughout the 1890's, during which vehicles of every description would line both sides of the field.[175] The sparsely populated area of High River had a permanent polo ground by the turn of the century; Mr. Colin Ross bought ten acres of land one mile south of the river, where polo grounds and a pavilion were built in 1898.[176]

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[172] Blakeley, op.cit., p.151. [173] Calgary Herald, October 26,1955.

[174] High River Pioneers and Old Timers Association, Leaves from the Medicine Tree. (Lethbridge: The Lethbridge Herald, 1960), p.156.

[175] Eleanor G. Luxton, "History of Polo in Western Canada," (Unpublished papers prepared for the Glenbow Institute, Calgary).

[176] Ibid.

Not all polo players were ranchers or cowboys; many polo enthusiasts were members of the commercial or professional classes in the rapidly developing towns who sought to participate in an active sport during their leisure. Many of the spectators and supporters of the sport were also towns'-folk who enjoyed the excitement of the activity itself, as well as the social events associated with it.

Although oceans, lakes or rivers were usually in close proximity to the settlements, in the early years of the century the colder climate and short summer season were not conducive to swimming becoming a popular activity. Other factors, such as the modesty of the Canadian woman and the lack of a suitable costume, were also in evidence, but the major factor which restrained the development of swimming was the lack of suitable facilities, especially in the more populated areas.

The role of the periodical press in promoting the construction of suitable bathing facilities has previously been considered.[177] Nevertheless, it may be emphasized that, as a result of the community agitation, much of which was reported in the newspapers, swimming facilities improved considerably throughout the period.

As bathing in the natural waters around towns and cities was often illegal in many parts of Canada,[178] it was desirable that suitable public bathing facilities be built for the use of residents in larger communities. Floating baths in the St. Lawrence River at Quebec,[179] and

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[177] Supra., pp.88-90.

[178] City of Montreal Council, By-Laws of the City of Montreal (Montreal: n.p., 1842), p.115; City of Toronto Municipal Council, op.cit., p.46; City of Halifax Council, Laws and Ordinances Relating to the City of Halifax. (Halifax: James Bowes and Sons, 1876), p.208; Mathews, op.cit.p.309.

[179] Morning Chronicle, Quebec, July 27, 1849.

in the harbour at Montreal[180] were the earliest types of public swimming facility.[181] As stated previously, these facilities could only be used for a few months each year because the low water and air temperatures made swimming under such conditions unpleasant.

Indoor pools were built in Toronto in 1864; the Toronto City Baths on Adelaide Street had two indoor heated pools in which patrons could swim.[182] Each pool was five feet deep, and the gentlemen's pool was twenty feet by forty feet in measurement, while the ladies' pool measured eighteen feet by twenty-seven feet. The baths were well patronized throughout the opening season, especially during the winter months as the proprietors installed "stoves and hot-air registers" through the building to make a visit more appealing.[183]

Despite public pressure and agitation, the construction of suitable swimming facilities in the towns and cities across Canada was slow.[184] The facilities which were built were mostly financed by private enterprise,[185] although some city councils did offer support towards the end of the century.[186] Although the floating baths off Morris Street or

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[180] Montreal Gazette, April 12, 1850; August 8, 1850; August 17, 1863.

[181] Indoor heated "baths" were advertised in Montreal and Toronto newspapers in the 1830's and 1840's but it was probable that these were not designed for swimming. "Hot, Cold and Shower Baths may be had at all hours" (Montreal Gazette, May 24, 1830); "... the Toronto Baths have been re-opened and are now ready to receive the Public Every Day from seven in the morning to Ten o'clock in the evening..." (Globe, Toronto, May 3, 1848).

[182] Globe, Toronto, June 17, 1864.

[183] Ibid., November 21, 1864. [184] Ibid., April 25, 1875.

[185] Ibid., May 26, 1875; September 2, 1882; Montreal Gazette, April 12, 1850; May 26, 1874.

[186] Montreal Gazette, August 17, 1876.

Freshwater, Halifax, and the baths at Sandy Cove, Dartmouth, had been in use for many years, it was not until 1898 that swimming facilities were constructed by the Halifax City Council.[187] A grant of eight thousand dollars was used to build public swimming baths at the north and south ends of the city.

Although there was an improvement in bathing facilities towards the end of the century, organized swimming clubs were not a widespread feature of sport in Canadian life.[188] The facilities which did exist were well-patronized by the town and city-dwellers, but mainly on a recreational basis.

The facilities for the aquatic events of rowing and sailing were simply the natural harbours, lakes and waterways of Canada. On some occasions, and at some locations, grand-stands for spectators were constructed, although steamboats often accompanied the boats or yachts during many regattas.[189] The Toronto Globe[190] reported the preparations for the Halifax Regatta of 1871, which included sailing, rowing and swimming events:

> Two Grand Stands to accommodate one thousand persons each have been erected near the Yacht Club house, and two on the opposite side of the harbour, being the most eligible places to view the regatta and special contests.

These preparations indicated the following which aquatic sports had in

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[187] Blakeley, op.cit., p.155.

[188] Cox has stated that it was not until the twentieth century that swimming clubs outside Montreal and Toronto were formed (Cox, op.cit., p.332).

[189] Supra, pp.24-30.

[190] Globe, Toronto, August 23, 1871. A grand-stand was also erected for the Lachine Regatta of September, 1870 (Montreal Gazette, September 15, 1870).

the Maritimes at that time. Perhaps the organizers felt they should provide suitable facilities for viewing the regatta from on land because they did not permit any steamer to accompany the boats over the course on that occasion.[191] A grand-stand which was capable of seating four thousand spectators was erected outside the Northern Railway Station at Barrie for the regatta in 1878 at which Ned Hanlan rowed.[192] On some occasions barges were moored close to the rowing course, and steamboats conveyed spectators to and from these vantage points.[193]

Rowing and yachting clubs were aware of the value of public support to a sport's development, so many provided suitable and comfortable amenities in order to attract spectators to the events.

The development of the winter sports of curling, skating and ice-hockey was influenced by improvements in building construction, artificial lighting and heating. When curling moved indoors, enabling participants to escape the bitter wind and freezing temperatures, the sport flourished, but it was not until mid-century that covered rinks became practicable.

Although the Montreal and Quebec curling clubs had been formed in 1807 and 1821, respectively, the sport of curling was not widespread. Perhaps this was because, as Mactaggart[194] explained after his period in Canada in the 1820's: "The weather is too cold even for the keenest curler to endure; and the ice is generally covered deep with snow." Despite the lack of covered rinks, the number of curling clubs did in-

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[191] Globe, Toronto, August 23, 1871.

[192] Ibid., August 10, 1878. [193] Ibid., June 30, 1873.

[194] John Mactaggart, Three Years in Canada, 1826-1828, V.2. (London: Henry Colburn, 1829), p.222.

crease over the next few decades.[195]

One of the earliest covered curling rinks was that of the Thistle Club of Montreal, which obtained a convenient site on Craig Street and constructed an enclosed rink in 1844.[196] When clubs did not have their own rinks, curlers sought the best ice available. Members of the Montreal Curling Club "played wherever good ice could be obtained on the river, in front of the city, near Victoria Bridge, on the canal basin, in flour sheds or Harbour Commissioners' sheds."[197] The Montreal club did acquire their own covered rink in 1870, "a shed on Lord Mount-Stephens property, near the corner of Mountain and St. Catherine Streets."[198]

The advantages of covered and enclosed rinks were obvious:

> [The Toronto Curling Club].. have obtained possession of two sheds in rear of the public building. The floors have been "puddled" and banked, and were fitted with water to the depth of six inches by the Hose company on Saturday. By obtaining those covered Rinks, the Club will be able to enjoy the "roarin' game" in all weathers.[199]

The expense involved in erecting covered and enclosed rinks was

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[195] Lindsay, op.cit., pp.26-30. Several curling clubs in Ontario and Quebec were formed in the twenty years from 1830 to 1850; few had covered rinks.

[196] Montreal Gazette, December 5, 1844. Guillet has stated that the Montreal Curling Club constructed a sheltered rink in St. Ann in 1836 (Edwin C. Guillet, Early Days in Upper Canada. (Toronto: Ontario Publishing Company, 1933), p.362). No other reference has indicated that the Montreal club had an indoor rink at that time.

[197] The Montreal Curling Club, 1807-1907. (Montreal: A booklet published by the Club, 1907), p.36.

[198] Ibid. After moving to a new rink of their own on St. Catherine Street in 1889 for a few years, the club eventually acquired a comfortable rink and club-house on St. Luke Street in 1892.

[199] Globe, Toronto, December 27, 1859.

a prohibitive factor in their development. The expanse of ice used for curling was of considerable dimensions, and it was not until there was a firm sense of organization within clubs that commitments to finance such facilities were undertaken. The Ottawa Curling Club erected a rink on Metcalfe Street for the cost of one thousand dollars in 1867; the facilities included two sheets of ice (156 feet by 37 feet) and dressing rooms.[200] It was planned that the building would be used for roller-skating, bowling, and archery in the summer.

An indication of the extent which club members would commit themselves in the best interests of their sport was seen in the undertaking of the Halifax Curling Club to construct a rink. The editor of the booklet produced upon the occasion of the club's centenary has stated:

> The Dartmouth Lakes, Forman's Pond, the Hospital Pond, Chocolate Lake, and other ice-bearing sheets of water were used by our enthusiastic curling fore-fathers...; but in view of the vicissitudes of our climate the call for a covered rink became general, and in April, 1872, the Halifax Club was incorporated and given power to hold real estate to the value of $10,000. This was the first step towards the much needed building, but it was not until 1874 that construction began of a rink located on the west side of Tower Road, just south of South Street, ... The original estimates of cost were greatly exceeded, owing chiefly to the excessive amount of fitting in that was found to be necessary, and bonds to the extent of $4,000 had to be issued.[201]

Whether or not a covered rink existed was not necessarily related to the

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[200] Ottawa Times, December 14, 1867.

[201] Halifax Curling Club, 1824-1924. (Halifax: A booklet produced by the Club, 1925), n.p. The rink, described in the Halifax Herald as "the finest in the Dominion," was formally opened on January 9, 1875 (John Kerr, Curling in Canada and the United States. (Toronto: Toronto News Coy., 1904), p.86). In 1899, the Halifax Curling Club, Limited, was incorporated, and a building large enough for three rinks and a triple bowling-alley was built for a cost of $7220, land included. The club leased the building from this company (Kerr, op.cit., p.87).

size of a town or city, but rather depended upon the enthusiasm for curling within towns and cities. Scarborough had a covered rink in 1863,[202] and Galt, with a population of less than five thousand, opened a covered rink in 1876.[203] The rink at Galt had two sheets of ice for curling (80 feet by 156 feet) on either side of a skating area, which was 136 feet by 40 feet.[204] Cox has stated that quite a few curling clubs solved the problem of mortgage payments by providing separate facilities for skating. In many cases, however, patronage of the curling rinks provided sufficient revenue; the Lindsay Curling Club, which opened an indoor rink in 1877, promised shareholders ten per cent on their stock.[206]

Curlers in Toronto, although relatively slow in obtaining covered rinks, had several magnificent structures by the turn of the century. In 1877 the Toronto Club erected a large rink, but in the 1880's and 1890's new covered rinks were built by the Granite, Caledonian, Prospect Park, Parkdale and Lakeview clubs.[207] With the addition of the Queen City Club's rink which was built in 1902, Toronto had "eight covered rinks for curling, erected at a cost approaching $300,000, with space for thirty-nine sheets of curling ice kept up in the finest condition."[208]

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[202] David Boyle, The Township of Scarboro', 1796-1896. (Toronto: William Briggs, 1896), p.247.

[203] Globe, Toronto, December 26, 1876.

[204] Ibid. The facilities at this rink, which was situated near Dickson Park, included dressing rooms for men and ladies.

[205] Cox, op.cit., p.219.

[206] Cecil R. Blackburn, "A History of Curling in Canada," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1970), p.14.

[207] Kerr, op.cit., pp.341-342.

[208] Ibid., pp.342-343.

Plate 37. Opening of the Toronto Club Rink, February 1877.

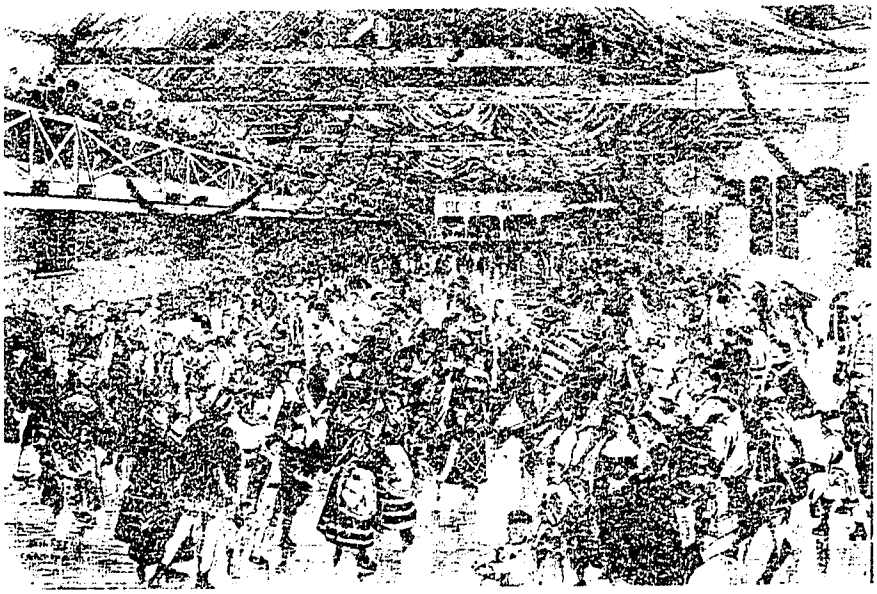

Plate 38. Masquerade on the Toronto Curling and Skating Rink, March 1877.

Curlers were just as enterprising in the west; Winnipeg curlers secured sufficient subscriptions to erect their own open-air rink in 1876,[209] and it was possible to play at night the following year, as a gas-lamp reflector system had been installed.[210] In the younger town of Edmonton, curlers were keen and sought the most suitable ice available. No indoor rink had been erected by 1884, when the Edmonton Bulletin[211] reported the activities of curlers:

> The warm wind of Saturday and Sunday last ruined the curling rink in the Hudson's Bay fort, but by flooding the surface of the river, which froze Monday night, it made grand curling there... Games have been played during the week in the early mornings and in the evenings, lanterns being used.

A curling club was organized in Calgary in 1885, and plans were made to form a joint stock company and sell shares to finance the erection of an enclosed rink.[212] The facilities at the Star skating rink were used until the new rink was completed in 1890. The rink had two sheets of ice, a clubroom, and a gallery for spectators. Large windows made curling in the day time pleasant, and the installation of the electric light enabled curlers to play in the evenings under excellent conditions.[213] The Edmonton Curling Club secured a covered rink by similarly forming a joint stock company in 1889. Their rink was opened in November, 1889;

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[209] W.A. Creelman, Curling, Past and Present. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1950), p.143.

[210] Cox, op.cit., p.218, cited from the Winnipeg Free Press, March 21, 1877.

[211] Edmonton Bulletin, February 9, 1884.

[212] Calgary Herald, January 9, 1889. The stock company was registered as the Alberta Rink Company.

[213] Ibid., October 1, 1890. The building was 175 feet by 73 feet (Ibid.) Electric lighting was installed during the construction of a curling rink at Lethbridge in 1895 (Lethbridge News, January 9, 1895).

it had two sheets of ice, an enclosed well and pump, twenty-two large windows for good lighting, and a clubroom.[214] Both the Edmonton and Calgary clubs rented the use of their facilities from the respective stock companies.[215]

Curling in British Columbia was confined to the inland towns as the mild climate of the coastal towns of Victoria, Vancouver and New Westminster hindered curling until artificial ice rinks were developed early in the twentieth century.[216] Rossland was reported as having the finest curling facilities west of Winnipeg, and had consistently good ice because of its high altitude.[217]

By 1900, there were many enclosed rinks[218] with electric lighting; features which enabled curlers to participate in their sport under almost any weather conditions, and for extended hours. The preparation of the ice surfaces of these indoor rinks received a considerable amount of

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[214] Edmonton Bulletin, November 9, 1889. The Edmonton construction was 153 feet by 38 feet, and had rooms for both curlers and skaters.

[215] The Edmonton and Calgary clubs rented the rinks for $100 and $400 a year, respectively (Edmonton Bulletin, November 9, 1889; Calgary Herald, October 1, 1890).

[216] Artificial means of making ice were known early in the nineteenth century, but Ferdinand Carré did not invent the first commercial ice-making machine until the 1860's. A scene in a French catalogue which depicted skating on artificial ice in Manchester in 1877, marked the period when the manufacture of ice by artificial means became commercially possible on a large scale (S. Giedion, Mechanization Takes Command. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1948), pp.599-601). No artificial skating or curling rinks were constructed in Canada in the nineteenth century, although the Toronto Globe reported in 1867 that Mr. W. Notman had patented his invention of an artificial rink at his studio, which enabled him "to photograph persons in the act of skating." (Globe, Toronto, February 2, 1867)

[217] Creelman, op.cit., p.151.

[218] In his book, which was published in 1904, Kerr has included the statement "Throughout the Dominion, all curling is now done under cover, in large sheds called rinks...." (Kerr, op.cit., p.344).

care and attention. Kerr[219] has included a detailed description of the meticulous preparation:

> In preparing the ice-bed for a curling rink the first thing demanding attention is the thorough drainage of the sub-soil, for if even a small quantity of water lodges in it, within the scope of frost, it will freeze in severe weather, and thaw out in mild weather, thereby affecting the ice sheet, making it uneven and unfit for curling.
>
> In the best-constructed rinks, the soil is taken out to a depth of about 2 feet, and the bed thus formed is levelled accurately; then cedar sleepers, about 6 inches in thickness, are laid on it, and on them are placed 10-inch joists, the spaces between which are filled, up to the level, with ashes, well rammed, which makes a solid foundation for the flooring, and lessens the roaring sound of the curling-stones as they move along the ice. The flooring is from 1¼ to 1½ inch in thickness, is tongued and grooved, and laid in white lead, to prevent leakage; and as a further precaution against this serious evil, a good coating of oil is given to the floor, in rinks, at the beginning of each curling season.
>
> ... As soon as a term of settled frost seems assured, a thin coating of water is sprayed over the wooden floor, and is followed by others, as soon as each successive coating becomes frozen, until the sheet of ice thus formed is thought to be water-tight, when sufficient water may be put on to cover freely the entire ice surface, so that the water may come to its natural level before freezing; it is safer to do this by two or even three successive floodings of moderate depth, than by one of greater depth, so as to avoid the danger of the water finding "a way of escape" through the thin sheet of ice already formed, before it is solidified by the frost.

Curling was a sport in which the improvements in facilities greatly influenced the development of the sport on an organized basis. Prior to the introduction of enclosed rinks, regular competition was always in doubt because the weather governed whether or not the matches

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[219] Kerr, op.cit., pp.345-346. For further details of the construction of rinks and ice-surfaces, see pp.107-109; 347-349.

would eventuate. This factor became less important when curling was conducted indoors. Enclosed rinks also facilitated the preparation of better and more consistent ice-surfaces. Improvements in architecture and construction resulted in better natural lighting through the larger windows, and the technological innovations of gas lighting and heating, and later, electric lighting, allowed curlers to make use of the excellent facilities for longer hours. As stated previously, the existence of such facilities towards the end of the nineteenth century depended upon the enthusiasm for curling within a community, and the size of the town was a lesser criterion. By 1900 there were many excellent curling rinks across Canada from the Maritimes to British Columbia.

The development of facilities for skating throughout the century was not unlike that of curling for there was a general increase in the number, and size, of indoor rinks, with better natural and artificial lighting, and improved ice surfaces.

It was at mid-century that skating began to increase in popularity, but in those years most of the skating was done on the frozen rivers, lakes and ponds. Lindsay[220] has stated that, in the 1860's, skating became the winter equivalent of the summer evening stroll along the esplanades, and women as well as men sought better facilities for this social recreation. The demands for smoother ice-surfaces and more comfortable amenities were sometimes satisfied by skating enthusiasts banding together to prepare suitable ice-surfaces, or by gentlemen with a keen business sense who constructed rinks at convenient locations

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[220]Lindsay, op.cit., p.51.

within communities.

Members of the Montreal Skating Club prepared a skating rink on the corner of Craig and Alexander Streets in 1850, and charged ten shillings for subscription memberships.[221] On some occasions the preparation of rinks was much simpler and cheaper. The Montreal Gazette of January 3, 1863 announced an area where "free skating" was available:

> ...firemen with a stream from the hydrant at the corner of Dorchester and Cemetery Streets were flooding the hollow at the back of the Old French Cemetery. We anticipate for "the million" great sport there after the first "cold spell".

As heavy snowfalls periodically interrupted and prevented skaters using outdoor rinks, indoor facilities were the best solution. Enclosed rinks were expensive to build, so such facilities were usually constructed by business-minded gentlemen who solicited public subscriptions. The covered rink in Quebec in 1852, built through public subscription by private enterprise, was probably the first in the world:

> The gentlemen of Quebec intend erecting a shed on the ice opposite the Ordnance wharf in that city so as to secure a good place for skating, and in order to prevent the ice being covered with snow; it is to be 120 feet long by 60 feet wide.[222]

Montreal did not have a covered rink until 1860, and, perhaps because the editor of the Montreal Gazette extolled the advantages that such a facility would bring,[223] several rinks were built throughout the 1860's.

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[221] Montreal Gazette, December 23, 1850.

[222] Novascotian, Halifax, January 5, 1852.

[223] Montreal Gazette, February 21, 1860. The editor wrote: "The money [the wealthy people of Montreal] plant in the skating rink will bloom on their daughters' cheeks; and young men breaking down with the droning drag of weary office or counting room labor, will acquire from an hour or two per day passed upon the rink, fresh and continuous supplies of elasticity of muscle and of spring." (Ibid) The rink was

Plate 39. Winter activity on Montreal's river front, probably after 1850.

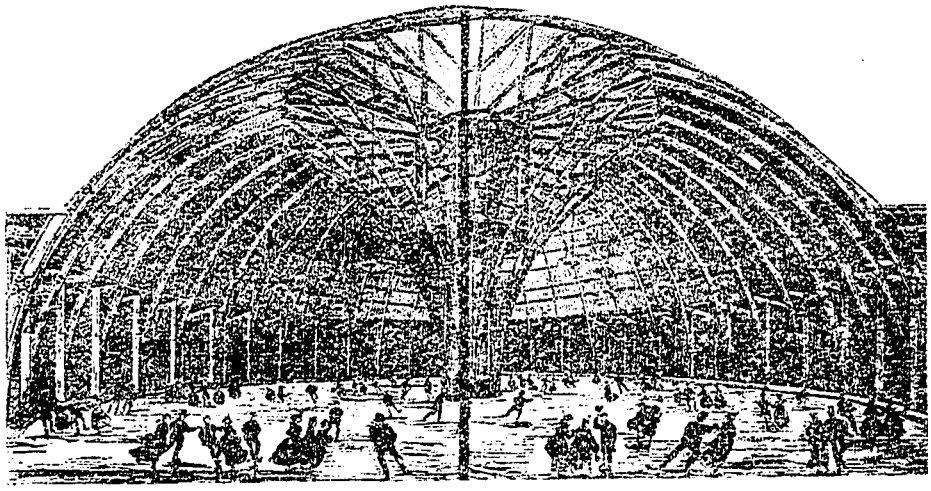

Plate 40. Interior of a skating rink at St. John, New Brunswick, 1870.

The Victoria Rink, which opened on Christmas Eve, 1862,[224] remained the largest in Europe and America for many years.[225] The ice surface, an area of ten thousand square feet, was surrounded by an elevated promenade, and a large gallery was located at one end so that spectators could watch the skaters perform under the brilliant light emanating from five thousand gas jets.[226] The success of this commercial enterprise was assured after the first year:

> The aristocratic Victoria rink, for being a member of which costs $10 a season, and applicants have to undergo a close scrutiny as to character and position in society, and one black ball rejects them, is a great success. Over 600 have applied for tickets this winter. Last year the company made $2,690 of profit.[227]

Another privately-owned skating area in Montreal was that of Mr. Guilbault, who converted his gymnasium into a rink.[228] This venue received good patronage because, as a newspaper report indicated, "the moderate rate which he proposes charging, will place the advantages of his rink

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200 feet by 40 feet, and was "well-lighted from the roof by an immense quantity of gas burners, and must be very profitable to the stock holders of the gas company." (Ibid., May 1, 1861)

[224] Ibid., December 26, 1862.

[225] Norman Murray, Murray's Illustrated Guide to Montreal and Vicinity. (Montreal: Norman Murray, Publisher, 1892), p.25. An advertisement in the Toronto Globe of January 3, 1882 stated that Moss Park Skating and Curling Rink was "the largest rink in the Dominion," but no dimensions were given.

[226] Edgar A. Collard, Montreal Yesterdays. (Toronto: Longmans Canada Limited, 1963), p.163. The rink was 250 feet by 100 feet, with a ceiling elevation of 50 feet at the apex (Lindsay, op.cit., p.56). Jenkins has stated that the dimensions of the ice-surface were 80 feet by 200 feet, but this is larger than what Collard has stated (Jenkins, op.cit., p.407; Collard, op.cit., p.163).

[227] Globe, Toronto, December 14, 1863.

[228] Montreal Gazette, November 12, 1863.

within the means of many respectable persons who cannot afford the high charges expected in the more exclusive rinks."[229]

A considerable number of open-air rinks were built in the 1860's,[230] and enclosed rinks in cities other than Montreal were also built. Halifax, St. John, Hamilton and Toronto all had indoor skating facilities by Confederation.[231] The Toronto Skating Rink, which was under the management of the Toronto Curling Club, had elaborate dressing-rooms and was "brilliantly lighted with gas until 10 p.m."[232] Many outdoor rinks were also well-lighted for skating in the evening; the Globe Skating Rink in Quebec often had tar-barrels strategically located on the ice for illumination.[233] The proprietors of this rink, Messrs. Hutton and Chevalier, transformed an extensive area of the ice-field on the St. Lawrence into a rink which could accommodate more than one thousand skaters. The area must have been enlarged for a carnival in February, 1866, as there were nearly five thousand spectators at the rink, which was located between the Napoleon wharf and the Champlain market.[234]

In the communities on the prairies, where the winter temperatures

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[229] Ibid.

[230] Lindsay, op.cit., p.53. "Each city contained such a multiplicity of rinks that many of them were named. In Toronto, there were rinks known as Royal, West End, Toronto, Victoria, Yorkville (later Clover Hill), Maria Street, plus the Military rink. Quebec rinks were named St. Michael's Cove, Royal Victoria, National, Imperial, Grand Allee, Union, St. Louis Road, Stadacona, Globe, Prince of Wales, and Rentiers. All the centres of population from Victoria to Halifax promoted skating rinks, each capable of accommodating several hundred people."

[231] Ibid., p.56. [232] Globe, Toronto, December 23, 1863.

[233] Morning Chronicle, Quebec, February 28, 1866. [234] Ibid.

were much colder than in many of the eastern townships, and the wind chill so bitter, the introduction of indoor rinks was welcomed by skaters. Messrs. Wilson and Bryson opened a covered rink at Winnipeg in 1874,[235] and a second one, the Victoria Rink, was built the following year.[236] Plans for a large skating rink in the southern part of Winnipeg were announced in 1882; the dimensions were to be approximately 200 feet by 80 feet, and it was to be illuminated by electric light.[237]

In the territories, indoor rinks were built in the latter decades of the century, although indoor facilities were not used until the 1890's. "Ramsay's rink" in Regina had waiting rooms and huge bonfires to illuminate the rink, as well as to warm the patrons,[238] and in Medicine Hat two outdoor rinks were built in 1885, one by Mr. Winnett and the other by Mr. McCutcheon.[239] Several outdoor locations were used for skating in Edmonton in the 1880's and 1890's,[240] but it was not until 1892, when the facilities of the curling club were made available

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[235] Winnipeg Free Press, November 16, 1874.

[236] Ibid., November 25, 1875. This rink, which was 150 feet by 50 feet, was larger than the one built the previous year, which was 120 feet by 45 feet.

[237] Ibid., September 25, 1882. [238] Drake, op.cit., p.27.

[239] Mr. Winnett's establishment was the Royal Rink; the Assinaboine Rink, built by Mr. McCutcheon, was 30 feet by 110 feet. Mr. McCutcheon advertised that "a team will convey patrons from the rinks to their homes at 10 p.m. (Medicine Hat Times, December 3, and 10, 1885).

[240] There were many references to skating in the Edmonton Bulletin: "... good skating on the river now..." (December 6, 1884); "...a second skating rink is to be cleared on the river near the lower mill..." (December 13, 1884); "The skating rink will be ready by Monday. Teams have been hauling water all week to flood it..." (December 10, 1887); "City Skating rink 50 x 100 Frazer Ave. adjoining Lauder's bakery. Skating guaranteed all winter. Comforable cloak rooms. West and Fulton, Proprietors." (December 17, 1887).

to them, that skaters could enjoy the conveniences of indoor ice-skating.[241]

The skating rinks became a popular centre for winter activity. Lavish balls and masquerade carnivals were held in brilliantly lit and gaily decorated rinks. Mrs. Frances Monck has described a rink ball she attended in the 1860's:

> When we arrived, I was struck with the very pretty and novel sight; the rink was lit with gas and decorated with flags and ornaments; there were tables with refreshments on the ice, and the 25th band was playing.[242]

Such gala occasions were popular from the 1850's onward; there were even two fancy dress carnivals held on the same evening in Toronto in 1882, one at the Adelaide Street rink, the other at the Granite Rink.[243] It was reported in the Toronto Globe that "the brilliant glow of the electric light made the scene as vivid and much more striking than if witnessed by day."[244]

The rinks were also the venues for skating competitions which were, at first, challenge matches or tournaments in speed skating.[245] As interest in the competition aspect of skating increased, smoother ice surfaces became of considerable importance. Speed skating was becoming a distinctive sport by the 1880's, and there were frequent com-

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[241] Edmonton Bulletin, November 28, 1892.

[242] Luella Creighton, The Elegant Canadians (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1967), p.56, quoted from Frances E. Monck, My Canadian Leaves.

[243] Globe, Toronto, January 20, 1882. [244] Ibid.

[245] Novascotian, Halifax, February 28, 1859; Montreal Gazette, March 6, 1875.

petitions in many parts of Canada which attracted many competitors as well as spectators.[246] The sixth annual championship meeting of the Amateur Skating Association was held on the quarter-mile track of the M.A.A.A. grounds in 1894, in order to accommodate the anticipated crowd. After the event, the Toronto Globe[247] reported:

> The grand stand (capacity 5200) was packed, and hundreds unable to get a seat were turned away. Hundreds of others stood in the snow all afternoon, while the adjoining buildings were black with spectators. It is estimated that over 7000 people saw the races.

The M.A.A.A. facilities for skating were the headquarters of the Montreal Toboggan and Skating Club, and were opened in 1890.[248] The ice surface was 330 feet by 150 feet, with the quarter-mile track for racing on the perimeter. The rink was illuminated by six electric arc lamps, but the biggest operating expense was the periodic flooding it required, as the water had to be supplied by the St. Antoine Water Works Company, which charged by the meter.[249]

Figure or fancy skating also demanded good ice conditions, and the most consistent surfaces were found in the prepared rinks. Like speed-skating, this facet of skating had a considerable following after Confederation,[250] and the high degree of skill and co-ordination this

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[246] For further discussion on speed-skating as a sport in this period, see Cox, op.cit., pp.252-254.

[247] Globe, Toronto, February 5, 1894. Roxborough has written about this occasion and has indicated that "while nine thousand spectators did get in, over two thousand others observed from tree tops, roofs, fences, and along railway tracks." (Roxborough, op.cit., p.82)

[248] Montreal Amateur Athletic Association, Golden Jubilee Edition. (Montreal: M.A.A.A., 1931), p.37.

[249] Ibid.

[250] Cox, op.cit., pp.252-262.

activity required, made the preparation of level and smooth ice-surfaces imperative. By 1900, the quality of ice-skating facilities in Canada was world-renowned, and recreational and competitive skaters made excellent use of them.

The development of facilities for hockey was closely associated with those for skating, as hockey-players made use of existing public skating facilities throughout the last third of the nineteenth century. However, the nature of the sport required boards of a substantial height around the edge of the ice-surface to reduce the number of occasions the object to be struck went over the edge.

The reason why a ball was discarded in favour of a puck has already been discussed,[251] but even the flat, rubber puck sailed over the low boards during the early games.[252] James Sutherland has stated that planks which were one foot high were used to keep the puck in play,[253] but the boarding became higher as the game progressed.[254] The puck was not intentionally lifted from the ice very often until the 1890's,[255] and the boards had become slightly higher by that time.

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[251] Supra., p.247.

[252] Foster Hewitt, Down the Ice (Toronto: S.J. Reginald Saunders, 1935), p.23. "A lot of scrimmages occurred and the puck was continually out of play, on account of the bad edges to the rink." (Edmonton Bulletin, January 3, 1895)

[253] James T. Sutherland, "A Flashback to 1885-86," in Wilfrid V. Roche (Ed.), The Hockey Book. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1953), p.1.

[254] Henry Roxborough, The Stanley Cup Story. (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1964), p.8.

[255] William McLennan, "Hockey in Canada", Harper's Weekly, V.39 (January 12, 1895), p.45. "Lifting the puck is a trick that has only been acquired comparatively recently, and today it is readily seen that

Good lighting was important as the puck was difficult to see under dim conditions. Coal oil lamps did not illuminate the rinks to the desirable extent, but those with electric lighting were usually appropriate for night games. Sutherland[256] has recalled that a rink in Kingston in the early days of hockey was lighted by two large arc lamps suspended above the goals on telegraph poles. Many players took advantage of the fact that the lights had to be positioned at a relatively low height above the ice in order to provide enough light.[257] At the Banff rink there were electric lights down the centre of the ice, and Mr. Fred Moorhouse[258] has indicated how these were used to advantage:

> We had no such thing as a backhand or slap-shot. We used the 'lift shot' to score goals. We would shove or flip the puck up into the air, above the lights into the darkness, so that it would drop just in front of the goalie and bounce in.

The importance of bright lighting for hockey games was realized[259] and

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no advantage could be obtained by "swiping", but only in driving or lifting with the stick as near the puck as possible."

[256] Cited in Roxborough, The Stanley Cup Story, p.7. This rink was owned by Captain Dix. An earlier rink belonging to Captain Dix, which had been used for hockey, had a bandstand in the centre. This presented a problem to the hockey players as "the defenders were never sure whether the attack would come from the left or the right; they were confident however that it wouldn't be a central charge." (W.A. Hewitt, op.cit., p.178)

[257] Charles L. Coleman, The Trail of the Stanley Cup, V.1 (Sherbrooke: National Hockey League, 1966), pp.5-6.

[258] Brad L. Kilb, "Sport in Banff Before 1914," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1967), pp.64-65 from personal interviews with Mr. Fred Moorhouse, June 30, 1967; July 1, 1967.

[259] For the first game of hockey to be held at night in Edmonton, extra lighting was installed: "The Skating Rink has been outfitted with

by the 1890's most of the league matches were played at night,[260] which suited both the players and the spectators.

In several locations, hockey players had problems in obtaining the use of skating rinks to play their games as it prevented recreational skaters from an evening's activity.[261] However, once the excitement of the game had been experienced, this problem was overcome, as members of curling and skating clubs became supporters of the sport. The Toronto Daily Mail of January 23, 1888 wrote about the progress of the game in that city:

> About two weeks ago the Toronto Athletic Club authorized Secretary Orr to make whatever arrangements were possible for the introduction of hockey to the citizens of Toronto, and as a direct result of his negotiations, the Caledonian Curling Club agreed to permit members of the athletic and lacrosse clubs to practice in their rink, and two very good practices have taken place on that excellent rink. The Caledonian rink having taken the initiative, the next step towards the goal of a public exhibition of this excellent winter game was the formation of the Granite Hockey Club...

Agreements between commercial skating rinks and hockey clubs were often drawn up and signed, and they were usually of mutual benefit to both parties. Contracts between the St. John Hockey League and Mr. Ernest C. March of the Singer Rink[262] throughout the 1890's, stated:

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thirty-eight lights, double the number formerly on the rink. Hereafter all hockey matches will be played at night." (Edmonton Bulletin, (January 31, 1898)

[260] R. Tait McKenzie, "Hockey in Eastern Canada", Dominion Illustrated Monthly, V.3 (1895), p.57.

[261] Foster Hewitt, op.cit., pp.23-24.

[262] Fred Magee, Papers (St. John Hockey Club; St. John Hockey League). Manuscripts from New Brunswick Museum, Archives Section, St. John. On some occasions the contracts were restrictive. When Fred Magee was Honorary Secretary of the Canadian Winter Port Hockey Club,

Agreement made between Ernest C. March, and The Saint John Hockey League the seventh day of December, A.D. 1896.
Ernest C. March agrees as follows:-
1st. That he will furnish tickets to eight members of each team, represented in the league, free of charge, giving all privileges of Rink.
2nd. That a comfortably heated room will be provided for the use of players.
3rd. That the umpires chosen for each game be admitted free of charge.
4th. That eight tickets may be issued to each club for its members in addition to above tickets, entitling the holder to privilege of admission at League games, and for the purpose of practise with their teams.
This ticket can be cancelled on application of Captain of a club, and a new one issued on payment of one dollar additional. (no rebate allowed on cancelled ticket)
5th. That two benefit nights will be given to League, on dates to be agreed upon, one to be in regular schedule of games.
6th. That one afternoon a week be reserved between the hours of five and six for practise, it being understood that this is not to interfere with Rink's other engagements.
7th. The Referee will be given a regular season ticket, which will be transferable onapplication, from the Executive Committee of the League.
8th. That hours of practise will be provided as follows:-
(Choice of nights as agreed on with Committee)
9th. That it is understood that this agreement contemplates that at least four clubs will play in league.
10th. The League agrees to play all league games in the Singer Rink.

[Signatures]

Hockey was a major activity on the ice-rinks of Canada by the turn of the century. The improved facilities, especially the increased number of indoor facilities, and the presence of electric lighting, greatly influenced the development of this sport.

Tobogganing was enjoyed throughout Canada wherever there was snow or ice on a natural slope or hill, and there were many "favourite"

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the Wanderers Club of Halifax telegraphed a message to him which stated they could not oblige his club with a game because "Wanderers can only play Clarke's Rink under agreement...." (Magee, op.cit., Telegram, January 24, 1898).

locations which tobogganists used. However, many of the participants of this activity preferred the faster slopes of artificial toboggan runs, and a considerable number of these were built in communities, especially after mid-century. Mrs. Frances Monck[263] described the toboggan slide which was constructed at Spencer Wood in mid-1860:

> The slide is a raised wooden platform with an inclined plane placed on top of a hill upon which the snow falls, and when rolled and frozen over, you slide down on a toboggin [sic], which is a flat piece of birch bark curled up at the end to receive one's feet.

The Tuque Bleue Toboggan Club, which consisted mainly of members of the Montreal Snowshoe Club, was formed in 1883,[264] constructed two natural, and two artificial slides on the site of the lacrosse grounds on Sherbrooke Street. One of the slides was over a thousand feet in length.[265] Competition events were conducted at the facilities from 1885 on, and the membership of the club had surpassed four hundred at that time.[266] The Mountain Park Club in Montreal was formed in 1883, and members had arranged for their 600 yard-long slide to be illuminated by electric light for the following season.[267]

A four hundred feet-long slide was erected on Wilkinson Hill in Brampton by the Toboggan club which was formed in that community in 1885.[268] Membership was free for ladies, but gentlemen paid a two-

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[263] Monck, op.cit., p.97.

[264] Roxborough, One Hundred - Not Out, p.37.

[265] W. George Beers, Over the Snow (Montreal: W. Drysdale and Company, and J. Theo. Robinson, 1883), p.49.

[266] Roxborough, One Hundred - Not Out, p.37.

[267] Globe, Toronto, January 4, 1884. [268] Bull, op.cit., p.256.

dollar fee. The Taches Hill Sliding Club in Ottawa was organized in 1884 by young men who decided to share the burden of labour, and the expense incurred by Mr. Taché in making and keeping the toboggan hill in repair.[269] Two slides, with stairways to ascend them, and a club house were erected. The slide itself was two-thousand feet long and consisted of a chute hollowed out of a natural hill on the bank of the Rideau River.[270] A new slide of the Riverdale Park Club of Toronto was opened in December, 1886; it was three-hundred feet long, and dropped seventy-five feet.[271] Tobogganing was also popular in western Canada, on both natural and artificial slopes.[272]

Although the natural slopes of hills, mountains and river banks were certainly suitable for tobogganing, many tobogganists preferred the thrills and excitement of the artificial slides as, in many cases, they were steeper and had a deep trough. Ascending to the top of these man-made slides by steps was also easier, and allowed for more frequent "runs" than trudging up long, steep hills and embankments. Competition events in tobogganing within and between clubs were usually held on this type of slide because a run which was standardized gave some basis for comparison of speeds and distances over a period of time. Edgar[273] has indicated that the artificial slides provided "perfection in tobogganing."

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[269] Ottawa Citizen, January 5, 1884.

[270] Globe, Toronto, February 9, 1886. [271] Ibid., December 27, 1886.

[272] Drake, op.cit., p.58; Howell and Howell, op.cit., p.110; Winnipeg Free Press, January 28, 1886.

[273] J.D. Edgar, Canada and Its Capital (Toronto: George N. Morang, 1898), p.130. "The perfection in tobogganning [sic] is found on the artificial slides which are raised to a dizzy height with a wide, deep, trough, created with now and ice, pitching toward the ground at a fearful angle."

Snowshoeing was done over the snow-covered terrain of Canada and special facilities were not required. However, when clubs formed and competition began, snowshoers often used race-courses, lacrosse and athletic grounds as venues for the events because of the existing facilities for spectators at those locations.[274] On one occasion at least, the number of the spectators was so great that the grand-stand could, literally, not hold the crowd:

> The attendance was large, several hundred ladies and gentlemen occupying the stand which afforded a good view of the races. Before the sport commenced the centre portion of the platform sank under the weight of the crowd upon it, but fortunately without doing worse than changing their position from an upright to a recumbent posture and scaring a few nervous persons of both sexes.[275]

Skiing facilities were not well developed in the nineteenth century. Mount Royal, in Montreal, was used as a slope for skiing in the early 1880's,[276] and other natural declines were also utilized:

> On Saturday evening a few ubiquitous athletes attacked the Priest's farm near the Montreal toboggan slide with the ski, or "Norwegian Snowshoe." The start was from the highest point on the other side of Cote des Neiges Road. ... After many adventures they returned home exhibiting their newly acquired skill on St. Catherine Street under the full glare of the street lights, to a large and appreciative audience.[277]

The streets of Montreal were also used for skiing, usually during the

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[274] Montreal Gazette, February 6, 1845; Globe, Toronto, February 12, 1900. Competitions were also held in cross-country tramps.

[275] The occasion was the Aurora Snow-Shoe Races of 1863 (Montreal Gazette, March 2, 1863).

[276] H.P. Douglas, "Canadian Skiing," R. Polmedo (Editor), Skiing, the International Sport, p.303.

[277] Montreal Gazette, February 10, 1887.

late evening.

In British Columbia, Red Mountain, near Rossland was a popular skiing area and the Toronto Globe of April 16, 1898 described the first annual winter carnival which included skiing as one of the activities.[278] However, the excellent slopes of many of Canada's mountains were not utilized to any extent until the twentieth century, when packed runs and tows were introduced.

The improvement of facilities for recreation and sport which occurred throughout the nineteenth century influenced the development of sport considerably. The growing number of participants and spectators in various sports necessitated the construction of more facilities with a greater capacity for accommodating large crowds. The advent of competition and the concomitant pursuit of excellence in various sports also required that the facilities be improved in terms of surfaces, lighting and dimensions.

More indoor facilities were able to be utilized for longer hours each day as technological innovations improved artificial lighting. Architectural and constructional advancements also permitted the use of glass to a greater extent, which subsequently lowered the costs of fuel and power for artificial lighting. Larger floor and rink areas were designed and constructed, without the hindrance of massive pillars; and ducted heating made these structures more appealing for use, especially in the winter months.

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[278] Lund has stated that skiing tournaments on this mountain had been organized since 1888 (Rolf T. Lund, "The Development of Skiing in Canada Prior to 1940," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1970), p.40). The first ski club in British Columbia was formed at Revelstoke in 1891 (Ibid).

Enterprising gentlemen, sporting clubs and, to a lesser extent, provincial and local governments, financed the construction of suitable facilities in response to the increasing demand of Canadians. The technological changes which had altered the way of life of Canadians throughout the nineteenth century, also served to provide the people with the desirable facilities for recreation and sport. The change from a predominantly rural economy in the first part of the century to one with many facets of urbanization and industrialization in the later decades, resulted in a subsequent change in the way Canadians made use of their leisure.

CHAPTER VI

URBANIZATION AND INDUSTRIALIZATION

Characteristic features of town or city life may be termed "urban", and are the result of "urbanization" or an "urban process".[1] A number of conditions are necessary for urbanization to occur. Firstly, population concentration, which is a dimension with two aspects: that of an increase in the proportion of population dwelling in urban areas, and an increase in the number of urban centres - "the multiplication of points of concentration and the increase in size of individual concentrations."[2] A second condition, the economic or technological dimension, involves the extension of those activities which demand or encourage the concentration of manufacturing establishments and workers into a confined area.[3] However, such manufacturing activities should be more than merely food processing and production, as urbanization is more a shift to a

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[1]Leroy O. Stone, Urban Development in Canada. (Ottawa: Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1967), p.4; Leo F. Schnore and Gene B. Petersen, "Urban and Metropolitan Development in the United States and Canada," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, V.316 (March 1958), p.61; Hope Tisdale, "The Process of Urbanization," Social Forces, V.20 (March 1942), p.311; David Popenoe, "On the Meaning of 'Urban' in Urban Studies," Urban Affairs Quarterly, V.1 (September, 1965), pp.29-30. Popenoe actually defines "urbanization" as "the aggregation of people in relatively large, dense and heterogeneous settlements," and states that this is not the same thing as the "urban process". However, this appears to be a problem of semantics and, in this study, the terms "urbanization", "process of urbanization" and "urban process" may be regarded as synonymous, as such usage is not contrary to the definitions of Stone, op.cit., Schnore and Petersen, op.cit. or Tisdale, op.cit.

[2]Tisdale, op.cit., p.311. Population density, or the number of individuals in a population relative to space, is also an important aspect of population concentration.

[3]Stone, op.cit., p.4.

non-agricultural mode of economic organization.[4] The socio-cultural dimension, a third condition of urbanization, involves a diffusion of "those cultural values, customs, behaviour patterns and styles of living that seemed to be nurtured mainly in cities."[5] In summary, urbanization represents the process by which urban areas emerge and develop out of the interaction of economic, technological and socio-cultural influences.[6]

Several factors determine the extent and density of urbanization. Cudmore and Caldwell[7] have stated four main factors:

> (1) the fertility of the soil upon which it lives, the life-sustaining efficiency of its ordinary products and the usual level of its production and standard of living;
> (2) the transportation facilities available to bring food to that population from outside, this ordinarily involving a corresponding obligation upon that population to produce commodities that may be exchanged for the foods which it secures from outside;
> (3) the normal maintenance of law and order both internally within the society, and externally between it and other societies, so as to assure the safe and continuous operation of such transportation facilities;
> (4) the relative economic advantage or disadvantage, under the conditions prevailing in a particular society, of the concentration of manufacturing production, commerce and administrative activities in the most populous communities.

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[4]Schnore and Petersen, op.cit., p.61. "Economically defined, the city is a settlement the inhabitants of which live primarily off trade and commerce rather than agriculture." (Max Weber, The City. Translated and edited by Don Martindale and Gertrud Neuwirth, (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1958), p.66)

[5]Stone, op.cit., p.4.

[6]Paul Meadows, "The City, Technology, and History," Social Forces V.36 No.2 (December 1957), p.143.

[7]S.A. Cudmore and H.G. Caldwell, Rural and Urban Composition of the Canadian Population. 1931 Census Monograph No.6 (Ottawa: King's Printing, 1938), p.17.

It was evident that few cities had the necessary determinants for urbanization to occur prior to mid-century. In 1790, Montreal and Quebec had populations of 18,000 and 14,000, respectively. In 1825, the populations of Montreal and Quebec had increased to 31,516 and 22,101, respectively, and York's (now Toronto) population numbered 1,677.[8] Upper Canada's population increased considerably, but it still had only one city, Toronto, in 1841.[9]

The 1851 census, the first of a regular decennial census of the country, indicated that, for the first time, Upper Canada had a larger population than Lower Canada.[10] The largest cities were Montreal (57,715), Quebec (42,052), Toronto (30,775) and Hamilton (14,112).

The population growth in the Maritimes was also considerable in the first half of the century. The population of St. John was 12,073 in 1834, and Halifax had 14,148 people in 1838.[11] In 1851, citizens of Halifax numbered more than 20,000, while St. John had approximately 22,000. These two cities were the only large urban centres in their respective provinces, although Fredericton had a population of over 4,000 in that year.[12]

Urbanization in Canada, then, was a slow process until the middle

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[8] Ibid., p.31.

[9] Ibid. The population of Upper Canada was 455,688; and that of Toronto, 14,249.

[10] Ibid. The populations of Upper and Lower Canada were 952,004 and 890,261, respectively.

[11] Ibid., p.32. New Brunswick's population in 1834 was 119,457, and that of Nova Scotia in 1838 was 202,575.

[12] Ibid.

of the nineteenth century.[13] Even in 1867, the population of the new Dominion of Canada was only approximately three and a half million people of which, by 1871, less than twenty per cent lived in either towns or cities.[14] However, the increase in urban population over rural was most marked in the first fifteen years following Confederation,[15] and in each of the intercensal periods from 1851 to 1901, the urban rate of increase was at least twice as high as that of the rural population.[16] Some of the factors contributing to this urbanization in Canada were technological changes of production and manufacture, transportation and communication improvements, and general economic growth. Urban areas continued to develop both in number and size, and the new economic structural changes and opportunities associated with such population concentration further facilitated and encouraged industrialization in the last third of the century.[17] By 1901, the percentage of the population which lived in towns and cities had increased to thirty-five.[18]

Technological changes which occurred in Canada brought about the

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[13]Approximately nine per cent of the population lived in urban areas with a population of over 5,000 (Cudmore and Caldwell, op.cit., p.33).

[14]Stone, op.cit., p.29.

[15]Ibid., pp.15,28. Up until 1951 in the censuses of Canada, the distinction between "rural" and "urban" population was based upon whether or not a city, town or village was incorporated. (Personal correspondence from J.J. Lefebvre, Census Division, Dominion Bureau of Statistics (March 12, 1970).

[16]Stone, op.cit., p.126. [17]Ibid., p.20.

[18]Ibid. The actual figures in 1901 were: rural, 3,296,141; urban, 1,537,098. Canada, Department of Agriculture. Fourth Census of Canada 1901, V.1 (Ottawa: King's Printer, 1902), p.18.

distinct phenomenon of urbanization, especially during the latter half of the nineteenth century. Furthermore, the relationship and interaction between sport, and the physical and social features of the cities and towns, significantly influenced the development of pastimes and games into organized sports. Mumford[19] has epitomized the characteristic features of urban areas, and these were forces which did influence sport:

> The city, as one finds it in history, is the point of maximum concentration for the power and culture of a community. It is the place where the diffused rays of many separate beams of life fall into focus, with gains in both social effectiveness and significance. The city is the form and symbol of an integrated social relationship: it is the seat of the temple, the market, the hall of justice, the academy of learning. Here in the city the goods of civilization are multiplied and manifolded; here is where human experience is transformed into viable signs, symbols, patterns of conduct, systems of order. Here is where the issues of civilization are focused; here, too ritual passes on occasion into the active drama of a fully differentiated and self-conscious society.

The 1871 census[20] indicated there were twenty cities and towns with over five-thousand inhabitants, with the largest urban areas being Montreal (115,000), Quebec (59,699), Toronto (59,000), St. John (41,325) and Halifax (29,582). The only other urban areas with more than ten thousand were Hamilton (26,880), Ottawa (24,141), London (18,000) and Kingston (12,407). By 1901, not only had the number of cities and towns with more than five-thousand residents risen to sixty-two, but twenty-four of them had a population of more than ten thousand.[21]

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[19]Lewis Mumford, The Culture of Cities. (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1938), p.3.

[20]Canada, Department of Agriculture, Census, 1901, op.cit., p.22.

[21]Ibid. Generally, throughout the period, the distinction between villages, townships and cities as municipal institutions was based on population. A population concentration of over 750 constituted a village,

The technological changes and improvements in transportation and communication, and the influence which they had on sport, have already been considered.[22] Nevertheless, it must be emphasized that the development of transportation and communication was an important factor in bringing about urbanization and industrialization.

Although urbanization and industrialization can be independently variable,[23] they are associated in so many ways that the two processes supplement each other. At the time of Confederation most manufacturing in Canada was of a local handicraft nature requiring very little capital, and most of the country's trade was based on farm, fishing and timber products.[24] From 1870 on, Canadian manufacturing received an impetus from the "second industrial revolution of steel and railroads," and "more advanced technology, corporate organization, and low-cost transport (freight rates fell by nearly fifty per cent) combined to foster a

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over 2,000 a town, and over 15,000 a city. Canada, Department of Agriculture. Statistical Year Book of Canada for 1900 (Ottawa: Government Printing Bureau, 1901), p.29. However, the separate provinces did not always distinguish municipal institutions on the population basis, as indicated above. Responses to letters written to all Provincial Departments of Municipal Affairs indicated that "incorporation" of villages, towns and cities was not uniform across Canada. Nevertheless, for this study, the criteria established by the Government of Canada for the Statistical Year Book has been accepted.

[22] Supra., Chapters I and II.

[23] Wilbert E. Moore, "Industrialization and Social Change" in B.F. Hoselitz and W.E. Moore (Editors) Industrialization and Society (The Hague: UNESCO - Mouton, 1963), p.334.

[24] D.H. Fullerton and H.A. Hampson, Canadian Secondary Manufacturing Industry - Royal Commission of Canada's Economic Prospects. (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1957), p.11. The occupations of more than fifty per cent were in the general categories of farmer, fisherman and lumber-jack (Ibid). In 1870, the average capital invested per establishment was only $1,900 (Canada, Report of the Royal Commission on Dominion-Provincial Relations. Book 1 (Ottawa: King's Printer, 1939), p.26).

unified market and a factory-based system of specialized mass production to serve it".[25] Towards the end of the century, many of the urban centres in Canada could provide the principal factors which determined the success of manufacturing industries: an adequate supply of skilled and unskilled labour; an efficient transportation system for the movement of raw materials to the industrial centres and the distribution of the manufactured products; and a source of energy and power.[26] The "factory system"[27] in Canada soon became the efficient means of production, and its development may be seen from the following statistics of the decade 1881-1891 in Toronto: from a total number of 932 industries and 13,245 workers in 1881, the corresponding figures for 1891 were 2,401 and 26,242, respectively.[28] As well as the manufacturing of products associated with lighter industry, heavy industry was developing in the cities in connection with railway manufacturing and maintenance shops, and the development of the iron and steel industry.[29] Indus-

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[25] Ibid., p.12. Employment in the period 1871-1896 increased from 140,000 to 310,000.

[26] B.S. Scott, "Industrial History of London since 1850," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Western Ontario, London, 1926), p.25.

[27] This term implies "the substitution of the machine for hard labour, the introduction of mechanical power for human power, and the assembling of all these forces under one roof." (John W. Oliver, History of American Technology. (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956),p.158)

[28] Donald C. Masters, The Rise of Toronto, 1850-1890. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1947), p.174. The value of products at factory were $19,562,981 and $44,963,922 in 1881 and 1891, respectively.

[29] Canada, Report on Dominion-Provincial Relations, pp.26-28; Kathleen Jenkins, Montreal, Island City of the St. Lawrence. (New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1966), p.393; Mary I. Innis, Unfold the Years - A History of the Y.W.C.A. in Canada, (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1949), p.21; Hamilton Times, August 28 and 29, 1863. In 1870,

trialization was becoming an important factor affecting Canada's economy towards the end of the nineteenth century.[30]

As stated previously, industrialization required a labour force of both skilled and unskilled personnel, and this was available in the urban centres. However, the workers of these urban areas, whether they were miners, textile hands, white-collar clerks or retail salesmen, were not prepared to work the unlimited hours such as the farmer might have done. Labour unions were formed, and, along with other social reformers, urged for better working conditions[31] and shorter working hours. A notice was inserted in the Montreal Gazette of June 7, 1853, by the Montreal Early Closing Association to remind the merchants who signed the "Early Closing Requisition" they that they were expected to observe their agreement. Further agitation for "early closing" was publicized by the press,[32] but progress was slow. In a letter to the editor of the

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the total value of iron and steel products produced was 15.7 million dollars, and in 1900, the value was 29.8 million dollars (M.C. Urquhart and K.A.H. Buckley, Historical Statistics of Canada. (Toronto: The Macmillan Company of Canada Ltd., 1965), p.491).

[30]The total values of primary and secondary manufacturing in Canada in 1870 and 1900 were 93.4 and 245.2 millions of dollars, respectively. (Urquhart and Buckley, op.cit., p.490). Almost 15 per cent of the male work force in Canada, and 30 per cent of the female work force, were classified as being employed in manufacturing occupations in 1901. For a comprehensive analysis, see Canada. Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Occupational Trends in Canada, 1891-1931. (Ottawa: King's Printer, 1939), pp.6-11.

[31]For details of factory working conditions and the use of female and child labour, see the Report of the Royal Commission on the Relations of Labour and Capital in Canada. (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1889). An earlier commission (1882) advocated a ten-hour day for adults, but the 1889 Commission's recommendation was reduced to nine hours.

[32]Globe, Toronto, August 25, 1868; February 27, 1872; Daily Colonist, Victoria, September 26, 1888; Winnipeg Free Press, July 4, 1900; G.P. de T. Glazebrook, Life in Ontario - A Social History. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1968), p.188.

the Morning Chronicle,[33] "An Employer" wrote:

> Although from the nature of their business the large retail stores cannot join in the Saturday half holiday movement, there would, I think, be no difficulty in doing what is done in other cities, and in several stores in Quebec, i.e. let half the young men leave on Saturdays at noon, in their turn, thus enabling them to take daylight exercise in skating, snow-shoeing or rifle-shooting, a boon they would thankfully appreciate during the winter months.

In 1875, an editor of the Halifax Citizen[34] reported that "the Saturday half-holiday has become almost an institution, and no one adopting the system has yet had cause to regret it." In 1886, Timothy Eaton began giving all Eaton employees a paid holiday on Saturday afternoons during the months of July and August, and by 1890, Eaton's closed at 6 p.m. on weekdays.[35] Timothy Eaton was a pioneer in this regard, but other retail firms began to shorten working hours, thereby giving the clerks

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[33]Morning Chronicle, Quebec, January 15, 1867. A letter to the editor of the Mainland Guardian, New Westminster, May 22, 1872, expressed similar sentiments: "Closing of the stores on Saturday afternoon is a great step in the right direction and I trust the agreement as made, will be strictly adhered to by all parties. It will be a few weeks perhaps, before the advantages of this arrangement will be manifest - But when once the settlers and the Indians become aware of the change, all business will be transacted before 2 o'clock on Saturday afternoon and our young men and merchants will have a chance for some wholesome recreation. In all the communities elsewhere, Saturday half holiday is strictly observed; why should we be an exception? It only requires all our tradesmen to do their best to carry out their agreement. Our stores have been opened from 7 a.m. to 8 p.m. the week round, and are kept open sometimes till 10 or 11 p.m. on steamer nights. The result is that, the young men in the fine summer months are debarred from all enjoyment, cricket, boating, etc. and by the time the stores are closed nothing remains for them but the billiard and bar-room."

[34]Halifax Citizen, June 29, 1875.

[35]William Stephenson, The Store That Timothy Built. (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1969), p.33.

and sales personnel more time for leisure and recreational pursuits.[36] The Winnipeg City Council passed early closing in 1900, and although some stores had been closing at six in the evening anyway, this time became mandatory.[37] Plumbers attempted to secure a half-day holiday for all workmen on Saturday afternoon in British Columbia in 1888.[38]

It was natural that such a transformation in the working conditions which urbanization and industrialization produced would change the general way of life of urban dwellers. Living in urban areas had many advantages. Throughout the latter half of the century, amenities such as paved roads, street service, sidewalks, water supply, sewerage, street-lighting, telephone, police force, fire brigade, and the like gradually became more common.[39] With civic taxes, money could be raised for civic improvements which citizens could enjoy. There was a greater diversity in recreational activities because commercial enterprises, sporting clubs and, to a lesser extent, municipal corporations provided more facilities. The more regular working hours of the urban labour-force made regular sporting competitions and leagues more practicable.

However, urban living also necessitated certain restrictions. Time and space became important factors governing sport, and it was not always possible for sporting enthusiasts to indulge in their favourite

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[36] Globe, Toronto, July 18, 1887. "The Saturday half-holiday is now generally observed, and those who favour Sunday playing no longer have the excuse that Sunday is the only time hard worked clerks, mechanics and businessmen have to witness baseball games."

[37] Winnipeg Free Press, July 4, 1900.

[38] Daily Colonist, Victoria, September 26, 1888.

[39] It was obvious that these amenities were not present in all towns and cities, but the larger urban communities usually acquired them before the smaller centres.

activity whenever and wherever they wanted. Municipal councils generally had a favourable attitude toward recreation and sport, although to some sports minded people, the by-laws related to the restricted use of facilities and Sunday observance were irksome.

Swimming was a recreational activity about which there were many council debates, and the areas and hours of bathing were carefully stipulated in by-laws. As early as 1842, a City of Montreal by-law restricted swimming in some public places:

> ... no person or persons shall swim or bathe in the river opposite or adjacent to the said city, or in the canal, or other waters adjacent to any of the bridges or avenues leading into the city, so as to be exposed to the view of the inhabitants, under a penalty of ten shillings for each offence.[40]

In Halifax, the penalty for illegal bathing was between one and twenty dollars, or jail for up to ten days should a person "swim" or bathe in the waters of the harbor near to any open wharf, slip or dock, or to any street or road in the city, or otherwise in such a situation as to be exposed to the view of spectators.[41] A similar by-law was enforced in Toronto at that time.[42]

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[40]City of Montreal Council, By-Laws of the City of Montreal. (Montreal: n.p., 1842), pp.115-116.

[41]City of Halifax Council. Laws and Ordinances Relating to the City of Halifax (Halifax: James Bowes and Sons, 1876), p.208.

[42]City of Toronto Municipal Council, By-Laws of the City of Toronto (Toronto: Henry Rowsell, 1870), p.46. In 1870, a Toronto by-law stated "that no person shall bathe or swim along or near the piers, wharves or shores, of the said City, between the Rolling Mills on the east and the Queen's Wharf on the west, from the hour of seven o'clock in the morning to nine o'clock in the evening." (Ibid.) The Oakville Municipal Council also had stringent by-laws related to swimming prior to 1876. By-law number 2 stated: Whereas, the Inhabitants have suffered much annoyance from persons Bathing in Public Places, and in view of Private Dwellings and it is necessary to prevent same, Be it therefore enacted...that...Bathing in Public Places is hereby prohibited, and

Municipal by-laws also prohibited play activities and games on public thoroughfares. The City of Montreal by-laws of 1842 stipulated:

> That whosoever shall hereafter at any time play at foot-ball, or the game commonly called shinty, or shall throw stones or snow-balls in any street, square, or lane of this city, shall forfeit and pay for each offence a sum not exceeding ten shillings currency, or shall be subject to an imprisonment not exceeding twenty-four hours.[43]

Montrealers were also prohibited from racing on horseback or in carriages, and could not even let their horses gallop, or go at a quicker rate than a moderate trot in any square, street or lane."[44]

During the winter, many cities and towns prohibited tobogganing and skating,[45] and for good reasons. The Montreal Gazette of February 22, 1867 reported an incident where two boys were warned for sleigh-riding on the sidewalks, and the editor defended the by-law in effect:

> It was only the other day a merchant coming down [Beaver Hall] hill, slipped on the ice formed by the sleighs of the boys rushing down, and met with such a hurt that he has been lying on his back for four or five days.

However, on some occasions and in many areas, tobogganing and skating around the city was encouraged. The Toronto Globe reported in 1863 that the Mayor had filled a field close to the Victoria Rink for skating,

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also in view of Private Dwellings during daylight." This by-law was repealed in 1876 by another which prohibited bathing in The Sixteen at any time but permitted it in the lake between the hours of 8 a.m. and 10 p.m. (Hazel C. Mathews, Oakville and The Sixteen: A History of an Ontario Port. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1953), p.309).

[43]City of Montreal, 1842, p.120.

[44]Montreal Gazette, January 4, 1840.

[45]Kathleen Jenkins, Montreal, Island City of the St. Lawrence. (New York: Doubleday and Co. Inc., 1966), p.316.

and that "every little mud hole in the neighbourhood of the city was a point of attraction."[46] Citizens often had to get permission from municipal councils to play games in public parks and grounds.[47]

Bowling alleys and billiard-rooms had to be licensed in most cities,[48] as were other venues of public amusement. The Winnipeg City Council levied a two hundred dollar license fee on roller-skating rinks in 1885, but some members of the council sought a re-assessment, as licenses in St. Paul and Minneapolis were only seventy-five dollars.[49]

Although there had been suggestions that the early velocipedes be prohibited on the streets when they were first introduced,[50] the cyclists themselves were putting political pressure on the municipal councils of some towns and cities towards the end of the century for road improvements. Good roads were important to cyclists; evidence of this fact was seen in the report of the London riders who cycled to Goderick: "The paths and streets of Goderick are said to afford the finest riding in Canada, and were duly appreciated by the wheelmen."[51] Cyclists found that the introduction of the street-car railways gave them the opportunity of a "smooth ride" on the asphalted strip between

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[46] Globe, Toronto, December 14, 1863.

[47] City of Toronto, 1870, p.8."No person shall play at football, or throw stones, or snowballs within any of the public squares, parks or grounds or shoot with or use a bow and arrow, or play any game therein, without permission of the said committee." (City of Toronto, 1870, p.8)

[48] Ibid., pp.100-101.

[49] Winnipeg Free Press, September 8, 1885. [50] Supra. p.127.

[51] Globe, Toronto, August 22, 1882.

the rails,[52] and they became perturbed when this area was heavily watered, or not maintained in good repair.[53] The Toronto Globe reported that cyclists recommended that the trolley watering carts "lightly sprinkled" the tracks and area in between, but more frequently.[54]

Winnipeg cyclists were also demanding good roads, and it was even advocated that all owners of bicycles be taxed a dollar per year to raise revenue which would be used exclusively for the construction and maintenance of bicycle roads.[55] Had this plan been implemented the annual revenue would have been considerable, as it was reported in the Winnipeg Free Press in June, 1898, that bicycle sales "so far this season" were in excess of two thousand.[56]

The Canadian Wheelmen's Association often attempted to exert influence, especially throughout the 1890's. The total number of cyclists in Canada affiliated with the C.W.A. was 6,511 in 1896,[57] so the demands of this association reflected a considerable amount of

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[52] Ibid., March 9, 1896. One regulation pertaining to the operation of the Halifax City Railroad Company stipulated that "the pavement or other surface of the roadway to be kept always in thorough repair by the company within the track and three feet each side thereof, under the direction of such competent authority as the city council may designate." (City of Halifax Council, 1876, p.193)

[53] William Stephenson, "When the World Went Bicycle Crazy," Maclean's Magazine V.69 (July 21, 1956), p.25. Stephenson has stated that "In Toronto at least one mayor was deposed for not ordering his streetwashers to leave dry the space between electric trolley tracks. This brick-paved area known as "the devil-strip" was the only place racing cyclists could safely practice.

[54] Globe, Toronto, March 9, 1896.

[55] Winnipeg Free Press, June 18, 1898. A by-law had been passed in 1882 to the effect that bicycles were not to be ridden on in the city limits (Ibid., March 19, 1883) but apparently this was repealed.

[56] Ibid., June 11, 1898. [57] Globe, Toronto, March 9, 1896.

public feeling and opinion. In 1898, the Toronto Globe[58] reported that "Aldermen who have affronted the board will have their 'Council aspirations punctured' if the wheelmen are strong enough to sway the vote." The C.W.A. members offered their support in the municipal elections to those civic representatives willing to take a certain position with respect to the construction and maintenance of roads, bridges, and cycle-paths, as well as the enforcement of city by-laws related to bicyclists.[59]

Legislation prohibiting games and sports from being played on Sundays in Canada dates back into the eighteenth century,[60] and the concept of what constituted "desecration of the Sabbath" changed very little throughout the nineteenth century. The more concentrated urban populations necessitated stringent legislation and by-laws in order to maintain Sunday observance. The City of Montreal by-laws of 1842 clearly stipulated that there could be no Sunday amusements of any kind in taverns, streets, lanes, or public squares.[61] In 1845, the legislature of Upper Canada supplemented the Imperial Statutes relating to

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[58] Ibid., Toronto, December 20, 1898.

[59] Ibid. The C.W.A. in Toronto wanted such things as the following: "for sanitary and economic reasons no cedar block pavements to be constructed... the procuring for cyclists of improved access to and from the Island cycle path... the erection of a sixty-foot bridge over the Don (River) at Queen Street... reconstruction of a thoroughfare from east to west, through to the Exhibition Park, other than King or Queen Streets, to be placed in a proper condition for all kinds of traffic other than car-lines... upholding and enforcing the bicycle by-law particularly with reference to scorchers and right of way."

[60] An ordinance was passed in 1797: "All perfons keeping Billiard tables, Ball-alleys, or other public places of diverfion, and permitting perfons to play thereat on Sunday, thall pay a fine of forty fhillings ..." (Montreal Gazette, May 1, 1797).

[61] City of Montreal Council, 1842, p.116.

the Lord's Day with "An Act to prevent the Profanation of the Lord's Day, commonly called Sunday in Upper Canada."[62] The act forbade labour, business, or work (except of charity or necessity), and public political meetings; and declared sales and purchases, or contracts and agreements for sale or purchase made on Sunday null and void.[63] The following regulations related to recreation and sport were stipulated:

> ... nor shall it be lawful for any person or persons to play at Skittles, ball, foot-ball, racket, or any other noisy game, or to gamble with dice or otherwise, or to run races on foot, or on horseback, or in carriages, or in vehicles of any sort on that day,...[nor] bathe in any exposed situation in any water within the limits of any incorporated City or Town, nor within view of any place of Public Worship or private residence, on the Lord's Day.[64]

Reports in the Toronto Globe[65] have indicated that the Sunday observance laws were upheld. The Globe of Monday, November 2, 1863 reported:

> Two little boys... were arrested yesterday, playing at "hurly", on Simcoe Street. They were taken to the Police Station and afterwards dismissed. Twenty-four

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[62] Statutes of Canada, 1845 (Montreal: Government Printer, 1845), pp.263-264.

[63] S.D. Clark (editor) Urbanism and the Changing Canadian Society (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1961), p.81.

[64] Statutes of Canada, 1845, pp.263-264. Edmison has included a selection of the provisions of the 1862 By-Law No.XIII of the United Counties of Peterborough and Victoria which were concerned with Sunday observance. (J. Alex Edmison, "Law and Order in the Good Old Days," in Ronald Borg (editor), Peterborough, Land of Shining Waters - An Anthology. (Peterborough: The Centennial Committee for the City and County, University of Toronto Press, 1967), pp.460-461). Legislation related to Sunday observance in other provinces was similar (Prince Edward Statutes, 1868: cap.14; 1892: cap.29; British Columbia Revised Statutes, 1897: cap.177; Manitoba Statutes, 1898: cap.27; 1900: cap. 24; Nova Scotia Statutes, 1891: cap.32; North West Territories Statutes, 1888: No.39; 1893: No.15; 1898: cap.91.).

[65] Globe, Toronto, October 12 and 13, 1863; March 28, 1864.

> hours in the cells would be a good means of stopping boys from practices of this kind on the Sabbath.

The Halifax Citizen of July 24, 1875, included within its pages an advertisement that an excursion trip to Bedford was being organized for Sunday, July 25, of that year. The day following the excursion, the editorial of the Citizen reported that the Evangelical Alliance group was to meet to urge for legislation to prevent "profanation of the Christian Sabbath."[66] The editor, in his preface to commenting upon this action, stated, "It is only when the proposal is made to interfere with such matters by legislation that we consider ourselves called upon to take up the discussion of the subject." The editor continued:

> The civil authority has a right to see that no body of Christians desirous of observing the Sabbath religiously shall be hindered in their devotions by disorderly gatherings or notorious conduct... [but they have] no right to go beyond that.[67]

The by-laws of the city of Halifax, which were published the following year, did not make any specific reference to Sunday excursions, but they did state that it was a violation to carry on "any game, play, or pastime, to the annoyance of their neighbours or the public."[68]

An interesting precedent was set in 1895 when a High Court judge ruled that the playing of golf on Sundays did not contravene the Lord's

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[66] Halifax Citizen, July 26, 1875.

[67] In 1885 the Ontario legislature passed an act which forbade Sunday excursions. From 1891 to 1897 even street cars did not run on Sundays in Toronto, but in May, 1898, the public voted in favour of them operating on Sunday (Clark, op.cit., p.83). Excursion and street car regulations were explicitly stated in the Ontario Revised Statutes, 1897, pp.3033-3035.

[68] City of Halifax Council, 1876, p.32. In 1906, a Dominion statute, the Lord's Day Act of Canada, reinforced provincial statutes which were in effect (Clark, op.cit., p.83).

Day Act. Four golfers on the links in East Toronto were summoned by two county constables to appear before a magistrate.[69] The magistrate subsequently fined them five dollars plus costs, but the case was appealed in the High Court, where it was claimed that, firstly, golf was a game of clubs and not ball, and secondly, that there was no noise, and in this respect the law should not put golf under the ban.[70] The judge reserved his decision for a few days until he had considered the evidence, but he eventually ruled in favour of the golfers, and stated:

> This game of golf is not a game within the meaning of the law. It is not noisy. It attracts no crowds. It is not gambling. It is on a parallel, it seems to me, with a gentleman going out for a walk on Sunday and, as he walks, switching off the heads of weeds with his walking stick.[71]

Cox[72] has stated that from that time, golf was one activity which could be openly played on Sundays. However, there was little indication of leniency of the law towards other activities; the New Brunswick Reporter[73] reported that six boys were fined one dollar each for "playing ball" in Queen's Square in July, 1896. In 1899, the members of the Rossland Curling Club carried the motion "that no matches under the auspices of the Club be played on Sundays,"[74] which was probably an indication of the stringency of the Sunday observance laws in that community.

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[69] Globe, Toronto, October 7, 1895. [70] Ibid.

[71] W. Perkins Bull, From Rattlesnake Hunt to Hockey (Toronto: The Perkins Bull Foundation, George J. MacLeod, 1934), p.183.

[72] Cox, op.cit., p.135.

[73] Reporter, Fredericton, July 22, 1896. The editor commented that "Sabbath breaking will not be tolerated."

[74] Rossland Curling Club, Papers 1897-1946. Manuscripts from Rossland Historical Museum and Archives, Rossland, British Columbia. Members of the General Meeting, November 8, 1899.

Throughout the nineteenth century the Lord's Day Act exerted a restrictive influence on the development of recreation and sport. In the urban centres, where the act was more rigorously enforced, Sunday became a day of inactivity. T. Hadley McGinnis' description of Sundays in Toronto was published in Canadian Notes:[75]

> Religious rule has made Sunday a terror to the poor, unless one happens to enjoy going to church, walking about the quiet streets, reading, or sleeping. If one is poor, no opportunities for pleasure are had. If one is rich, however, he may drive about in a carriage.... Few persons are seen on the street, except in going to or coming from church. On Sunday a Canadian city appears deserted of inhabitants. One may stand on a street corner looking in four directions without seeing a living person or animal.
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> Most persons disappear for the day, as in a shell, and as completely as if the earth had opened and swallowed them up. How they contrive to do so is a mystery. This is considered, especially in Toronto, 'the proper caper.'

Despite the negative influence which the Lord's Day Act had on sport, other socio-cultural characteristics of urbanization and industrialization had very positive effects on the development of sport within Canadian society. The most prominent of these were a growing awareness of the importance of one's town or city, and a degree of sophistication amongst urban-dwellers that caused them to develop a sense of involvement in the sports facilities and teams of their community.[76] Pride in the sporting achievements of athletes or teams which were representative of towns or cities certainly became a feature of nine-

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[75]Quoted in Clark, op.cit., p.83, from a quotation in John Gray, "They're Fighting to Save What's Left of Sunday," Maclean's Magazine (February 15, 1955), p.32. In 1896, the Toronto Methodist conference announced that it was against bicycle riding on Sundays (Edmonton Bulletin, June 19, 1896).

[76]The changing attitude towards sport as depicted in the periodical press has been discussed in Chapter III.

teenth century sports.

In rowing regattas between St. John and Halifax, the citizens' pride in the achievements of their oarsmen was most obvious.[77] After a St. John crew was defeated in a race against Halifax oarsmen in 1857, a public meeting of citizens took place at St. John, and one thousand pounds was subscribed to finance a crew to challenge Halifax to another boat race.[78] The distinguished committee responsible for organizing this venture included the Mayor of St. John, the Honourable J.H. Gray, a former Attorney-General, and James A. Harding, Speaker of the Assembly.[79] A selected and well-trained crew subsequently won the next race against Halifax.[80]

The citizens of St. John supported the sport of rowing in a tangible manner. The Head Quarters of Fredericton on June 20, 1866, included the following despatch from St. John:

> Boat Racing - A meeting of gentlemen who take an interest in this manly sport was held on Tuesday evening last to take into consideration the propriety of sending a four-oared boat and crew from this city to take part in the Regatta to be held on the Charles River, Boston on the 4th July next and once more assert the supremacy of our St. John oarsmen over those of the United States. The meeting was most unanimous, a crew and boat were selected and it was resolved that subscriptions be solicited to defray the expenses of the men while in training.[81]

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[77] Supra., p.91. [78] Novascotian, Halifax, August 3, 1857.

[79] Ibid. [80] Ibid., August 17, 1857.

[81] The report concluded: "...we are confident that after the race is over we shall have the satisfaction of announcing that our oarsmen are still Champions of America, and that a St.John-built "lapstreak" (built by Christopher Coyle of Sand Cove) can compete successfully with the fastest "shells" of the United States." (Head Quarters, Fredericton, June 20, 1866.)

Several crews were sent to the regatta in Boston, and two of them placed first and second.[82]

The provincial government of New Brunswick willingly donated two thousand dollars to the subscription fund to raise a sufficient amount of money to send a St. John crew to Paris in 1867.[83] The rest of the money was raised by public subscription,[84] and the contributors from New Brunswick, and St. John in particular, no doubt felt considerable pride when they heard of the victory of the "Paris crew".

In an attempt to regain rowing supremacy, the provincial government of Nova Scotia offered a special prize to the first Nova Scotia crew to finish in the four-oared races at Halifax in 1871, which was hailed as being for the Championship of the World.[85] The Halifax City Council offered an annual prize to be awarded to the champion in boat-racing in Halifax harbour,[86] which was a further indication of the extent to which the city promoted rowing. This prize, which became known as the "Cogswell Belt",[87] was first awarded in 1859. George Brown,

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[82] Lindsay, op.cit., p.307, cited from St.John Daily News, July 9, 1866.

[83] Reporter, Fredericton, April 26, 1867.

[84] Ibid. It was estimated that the total expenditure would be $6000.

[85] Globe, Toronto, August 28, 1871; Supra., p.120. For a further indication of the enthusiasm the citizens of Halifax had for rowing, see Appendix C.

[86] City of Halifax Council, 1876, p.263.

[87] Ibid. The donor was Charles Cogswell, a former Alderman. In addition to the champion's belt, six pounds was to be awarded to the winner.

the Halifax sculler, who became the "Champion Oarsman of America", won the belt many times.[88]

After the cabled news that Ned Hanlan had beaten John Hawdon in a sculling race in Newcastle, England, in 1879, the Toronto Globe reported the exuberance of Torontonians:

> The good tidings soon spread, and by ten o'clock the whole city was acquainted with the fact of Hanlan's latest victory. Flags were shortly afterwards flying from many buildings in honor of the event, and throughout the day the race was the topic of conversation on the streets.[89]

Rowing was only one of many sports which captured the enthusiasm as well as received the support of the urban public. During the festivities of an aquatic regatta, which included yachting, canoeing and rowing, in 1890, an estimated gathering of sixty thousand thronged to vantage points along the waterfront of Toronto.[90]

Lacrosse was another sport which was most popular among urban-dwellers, and there were frequent allusions to the advantages accrued from participation in this activity. Following a lacrosse match in which Montreal defeated Ottawa, the editor of the Montreal Gazette[82]

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[88]Halifax Citizen, July 10, 1875. George Brown died at the peak of his career and all Halifax mourned; flags on all public buildings were at half mast, as were those on many private stores and ships in the harbour, on the day of his burial at Herring Cove (Ibid). A few days later, the Halifax Rowing Club accepted an offer from the visiting Cameron's Circus to hold a benefit performance in order to raise funds for a monument to George Brown (Ibid., July 13, 1875).

[89]Globe, Toronto, May 6, 1879.

[90]Ibid., July 3, 1890. "Those who had invitations made for the club houses; others took the ferries for Island Park and Hanlan's Point, many sought out unoccupied wharves and elevators, some paid twenty-five cents to get on the boat-house wharves, and others still secured admission to the roofs of buildings along Front and Esplanade Streets."

[91]Montreal Gazette, September 29, 1866.

stated:

> It furnishes proof of two or three things interesting for Canadians to know, - that the luxury of town life in the chief city of British North America has not demoralized Canadians - even when their competitors were the (supposed) back-woodsmen of Ottawa our Montrealers have proved victors - Montrealers have not proved a Capua to Canadian youth - a fact with which our military authorities may feel satisfied.

Lacrosse matches throughout the latter half of the nineteenth century received considerable support from town- and city-dwellers.[92]

The few cited examples of civic endeavour in supporting sports, and the obvious pride in achievement have indicated, to some extent, the social importance of recreation and sport in urban life.

Recreation and sport was also advocated by many to maintain "health and vigour", and to withstand "the tendency to physical degeneration which always threatens the dwellers in towns."[93] The bicycle became a part of suburban living;[94] a paragraph in the Toronto Globe in 1896 indicated that those who used the bicycle as a means of transport in the city and suburbs of London, Ontario, numbered at least two thousand.[95] Many people regarded the bicycle as the salvation of some of the problems which urban living had brought:

> As a means of pleasurable recreation the wheel has proved one of the greatest inventions of this inventive age. Thousands whose lives are passed in the offices,

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[92] Supra., pp. 269-271. [93] Globe, Toronto, April 8, 1899.

[94] Stephenson, Maclean's Magazine, p.38. Stevens has stated that by 1892 there were 10,000 bicycles on the streets of Toronto, and they had begun to affect the street-car passenger traffic (Stevens, op.cit., p.125).

[95] Globe, Toronto, June 3, 1896. It was also stated that in local London bicycle clubs there were more than 600 gentlemen members, and 200 ladies (Ibid). The population of London at that time was approximately 33,000.

> warehouses and workshops of the great cities of the land have comparatively few opportunities of open air exercise. They can only reach the country by long and exhausting walks or by expensive means of transportation, but with the bicycle they can soon leave far behind them the miles of monotonous streets, and breathe the exhilarating air of the open country, where "away from the madding crowd," they can bowl along the rural highway, listening the while to the music of nature in all its native sweetness and gazing on the beauty of the ever changing scene.[96]

Schools and universities were almost always located in the urban areas where there was the concentration of the population to be educated in such institutions. Games and sports were popular in the schools, and when students left to become a part of the urban labour force, or continued on to university, they maintained their interest in physical activity. The early private schools, such as Upper Canada College, Toronto, and Trinity College School, Port Hope, were staffed by Englishmen who tended to influence the sports which were played by the boys.[97] Cricket, Association football, English rugby, tennis, hockey, and track and field were all played at Upper Canada College throughout the century.[98] Other private schools, such as St. John's College, Winnipeg and the Corrig school in Victoria, had similar sports programmes.[99]

The number of state-operated schools increased in this period,

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[96] Ibid., October 22, 1892. Mr. A.J. Balfour, in an address to the National Cyclist Union in England, stated: "The greatest invention is the bicycle. It supplies a means of counteracting the worst results of a highly developed civilization - the concentration of a vast population in immense cities, and the tendency to physical degeneration which always threatens the dwellers in towns." (Ibid., April 8, 1899)

[97] G.G.S. Lindsey, "Cricket in Canada," Concluding Paper. The Dominion Illustrated (January, 1893), p.160.

[98] George Dickson and G. Adam, A History of Upper Canada College, 1829-1892. (Toronto: Rowsell and Hutchinson, 1893), pp.268-278.

[99] Cox, op.cit., pp.394-395.

although even by 1900, only one in every twenty pupils were in secondary grades.[100] The few high schools which were in existence participated in several organized sports, especially in cricket and association football, and played in competition against other schools, universities and community teams.[101] Institutions of higher learning, such as the University of Toronto, McGill University, Queen's University, University of Ottawa, Royal Military College, Victoria College, Acadia University, Dalhousie University and Manitoba College also fostered recreational activities and sporting competition within their programmes of learning.[102]

The socio-cultural and educational influences associated with urbanization and industrialization had a considerable effect on sport in many different ways. Recreation and sport were becoming recognized as a necessary part of urban life.

As the century progressed, the increasing number of urban residents required recreational and sporting equipment. The concomitant progress in industry enabled this demand not only to be met, but as a result of improvement in manufacturing, many items and articles of sporting equipment became cheaper and standardized.

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[100] F.H. Johnson, A Brief History of Canadian Education (Toronto: McGraw Hill Company of Canada Limited, 1968), p.87.

[101] T.A. Reed, The Blue and White - A Record of Fifty Years of Athletic Endeavour at the University of Toronto. (Toronto: The University of Toronto Press, 1944), p.129. "The fall of 1884 was the beginning of another era of glory for Association Football around Varsity. It was in that year that the players, trained at Galt High School, Berlin High School, Woodstock College, Seaforth High School and other western football centres, began to matriculate and enter upon their university courses."

[102] Cox has stated that "the influence of Canadian universities on the national sports scene during the nineteenth century, particularly through its initial leadership in rugby football, hockey and track and field, was abundant and long lasting." (Cox, op.cit., p.406)

The manufacture and sale of sporting equipment was not a large industry in Canada in the nineteenth century. Nevertheless, when all types of equipment, such as individual items used in various sports, and those necessary for the building of grand-stands, swimming pools, tennis courts, and the like, were demanded, the industry was of some significance. An indication of the types of equipment and facilities used throughout the nineteenth century has been given.[103] For some sports, the extent to which the equipment was manufactured was of greater importance to its development than it was to others.

The production of ice-skates in Canada from the mid-1860's onward was considerable. Following the invention of the spring-skate by John Forbes,[104] the Starr Manufacturing Company of Dartmouth, Nova Scotia, produced thousands of skates which were sold in many parts of the world. In 1877, one hundred thousand pairs of skates from this factory were marketed.[105] The Starr Manufacturing Company was the leading producer of skates, and although the mass-produced Acme models were cheap,[106] they did market custom-made models too, which were expensive. The company exhibited an elaborate display at the Nova Scotia Centenary Exhibition in 1876:

> The Starr Manufacturing Company have prepared for the Centennial a handsome case of Acme Skates. The case is a hexagon, made of walnut wood, inlaid with electroplate,

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[103] Supra., Chapters IV and V. [104] Supra., p.237.

[105] John Quinpool, First Things in Acadia. (Halifax: First Things Publishers, 1936), p.79. Blakeley has stated that the company produced almost 100,000 pairs of skates in 1876. The factory also manufactured nails, bolts, railroad spikes, iron roofs, shovels, and other hardware (Phyllis R. Blakeley, Glimpses of Halifax, 1867-1900. (Halifax: Public Archives of Nova Scotia, 1949), p.32).

[106] Supra., p.242.

> and with electro-headed screws. The upper part of the hexagon contains some wintry views, which are seasonable accompaniments to the skates. Of the six sides of the case, two are devoted to polished steel skates, two to silver gilt, one to plain gilt, and the other to ornamental gilt. The whole are very lightly finished, and present a very handsome appearance. Each side contains a complete set of its kind, from 8 inch up to 12 inch. In the ornamental case the runners are longer than the common skates, and of various lengths - in each case the toe is ornamented with some device such as a bird, or animal's head gilded. This side of the case is particularly handsome, and whole case in one of which the company may be justly proud.[107]

James Whelpley of New Brunswick was also a leading skate manufacturer throughout the latter decades of the century. Whelpley was a former employee of John Forbes,[108] and he manufactured skates at his factories in Greenwich, New Brunswick,[109] Dartmouth, Nova Scotia, and Keene and Marlborough in New Hampshire, United States of America. Thousands of skates from his factories were produced and sold on the North American and European continents.[110]

Census figures for the production of skates from 1871 onward have indicated that the production of skates was considerable. A skate-factory in Nova Scotia returned information which was included in the 1870-71 census.[111] There was a $45,000 capital investment in the factory, and the total value of products was $90,000.[112] Seventy men

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[107] Halifax Citizen, March 14, 1876.

[108] St. Andrews Standard, December 10, 1873. (Material supplied by Melvin A. Small, Canadian Patents Office, Ottawa - personal correspondence, October 26, 1969).

[109] Small; personal correspondence, October 26, 1969.

[110] Evening Times-Globe, St. John, October 14, 1937.

[111] Canada Department of Agriculture, Census of Canada, 1870-71, V.3. (Ottawa: I.B. Taylor, 1873). It was probable that this factory was the Starr Manufacturing Company of Dartmouth, Nova Scotia.

[112] Ibid., pp.462-463.

and three women worked in the establishment.[113] The 1881 census returns have indicated that a skate factory in the King County district of New Brunswick was producing goods with a total annual value of $9,000.[114] There were two factories solely producing skates in 1891,[115] and three in 1901,[116] but there were also manufacturers who produced other goods as well as skates.

Mass-production was also important in reducing the cost of bicycles, thereby making them more accessible to Canadians in the 1880's and 1890's. Throughout these two decades, a highly efficient bicycle industry evolved. The H.A. Lozier Company in Toronto was only one of many companies which became highly mechanized; they were producing 250 Cleveland cycles daily in their factories .[117] In 1899, the Toronto Globe[118] published an extensive article on the efficient production methods of this company:

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[113] Ibid. Twenty-five of the seventy males were under the age of sixteen years. The total yearly wages was $30,000.

[114] Census of Canada, 1880-81, V.3. (Ottawa: Maclean, Roger and Co., 1882), pp.494, 516-519. It was probable that this was one of Whelpley's factories. No other factory was included in this census, although, undoubtedly, the Starr Manufacturing Company was still producing skates. At this time, the Starr Manufacturing Company was producing other iron and steel products (Blakeley, op.cit., p.32), so perhaps the census figures were included under another section.

[115] Canada. Department of Agriculture, Census of Canada, 1890-91, V.3. (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1893), p.311.

[116] Canada. Department of Agriculture, Fourth Census of Canada, 1901, V.3. (Ottawa: King's Printer, 1902), p.x.

[117] Globe, Toronto, April 2, 1896. This company was owned by Americans. Uttley has stated that in 1897, Mr. Arthur Pequegnat built a four-storey block in Frederick Street, Kitchener, and "turned out thousands of wheels." (W.V. Uttley, A History of Kitchener, Ontario. (Waterloo: Chronicle Press, 1937), p.314)

[118] Globe, Toronto, March 24, 1899.

> The firm uses 26 automatic machines which feed, cut, back off, tap and drill the different parts at the same time. The automatism is so complete that one man can attend to seven machines while in operation.

As an indication of the extent to which the manufacturing of cycles had increased, the Toronto Globe[119] published figures of the number of imported and exported bicycles for 1897 and 1898. Imports from England had decreased from 948 in 1897, to 46 in 1898. Bicycles imported from the United States only increased slightly in 1898 from the previous year: 23,818 in 1897, to 27,262 in 1898. However, Canadian manufacturers exported more than 6,000 bicycles in 1899, and there were over thirty manufacturers in Toronto alone.[120]

The formation of the Canada Cycle and Motor Company in 1899 had a considerable effect on the production of bicycles in Canada. Until the 1890's, very few of the components of the bicycle (steel tubing, bearings, rims, and tires) were manufactured in Canada, so many bicycles were imported from Britain or the United States, and sold under the name of the original manufacturer, or a local brand name.[122] These imported bicycles were subject to a high Canadian tariff, which resulted in a considerable increase in cost.[123]

Throughout the 1890's, Canadian manufacturers began to produce more parts, and in order to protect the flourishing industry from the

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[119] Ibid., November 10, 1879. [120] Ibid.

[121] Merrill Denison, C.C.M. - The Story of the First Fifty Years (Weston, Ontario: C.C.M., 1946), p.20; Globe, Toronto, March 24, 1899.

[122] Denison, op.cit., p.21.

[123] The tariff in effect in 1890 was: vehicles costing less than $50 each - $10 and 20%; costing between $50 and $100 - $15 and 20%; costing $100 and over - 35% (Denison, op.cit., p.21).

American companies, the leading Canadian bicycle manufacturers amalgamated to form the Canada Cycle and Motor Company Limited in 1899.[124] The Toronto Globe of September 5, 1899, published details of the merger, and indicated the nature and extent of manufacture:

> The bicycle industry is one of great importance and magnitude in Canada. The constituent Companies are the leaders in the trade. Their Trade Marks and Brands are everywhere popularly known, and by reason of their world-wide reputation for unrivalled excellence some of the Companies enjoy a large and growing foreign trade which offers a favourable field for development, and which this Company proposes to extend.
>
> The Companies give employment to about 1,700 men. Their outputs for the past year aggregated about 38,500 bicycles. The plant and machinery are of the latest and best equipment, and capable of twice that production with but small additional outlay in tools. The factory sites to be acquired by the Company are especially adapted for manufacturing purposes; have advantageous shipping facilities, and will permit of ample extensions to the existing buildings.

The combined net profits in the bicycle and bicycle parts business of the amalgamated companies were also published: in 1896, the net profit was $190,914; 1897-98 - $304,907; and in 1898-99 - $330,115.[125] It was estimated that the production of bicycles for the C.C.M. Company would exceed forty thousand annually.[126]

The details of bicycle production included in the censuses of 1891 and 1901 have shown the progress of this industry. In 1891, the total value of articles produced exceeded $97,000,[127] but in 1901, that figure

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[124] Denison, op.cit., p.24. The companies were H.A. Lozier and Co. (Toronto Junction), Goold Bicycle Limited (Brantford), Welland Vale Manufacturing Co. Limited (St. Catharines), and the bicycle divisions of the Gendron Manufacturing Co. Limited (Toronto) and Massey-Harris Company Limited (Toronto).

[125] Globe, Toronto, September 5, 1899. [126] Ibid., November 10, 1899.

[127] Canada, Census, 1891, V.3, p.25.

had increased to $550,606,[128] despite a decrease in the actual cost of bicycles.[129] The improved methods of manufacture had not only resulted in a significant decrease in the cost of the bicycle, but also contributed a substantial amount to the national economy.

New commercial enterprises in the urban areas resulted from the manufacture of the bicycle. Wholesale and retail outlets for bicycles often offered additional benefits to attract customers, many of which helped develop the sport of cycling.[130] One outcome of the increased competition between bicycle manufacturers was the advent of the "riding school."[131] The Griffiths Cycle Corporation Limited of Toronto, which had their factory and offices all within the one establishment on Yonge Street in 1897, offered this additional benefit:[132]

> Beginners and others desirous of securing a wheel have here the opportunity to learn how to control and

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[128] Ibid. Census, 1901, V.3, p.252. The census statistics have also indicated that there was a significant increase in the number of employees in bicycle factories. In 1891 there were 88 employees (all men), and, in 1901, there were 512.

[129] Supra., pp.188-189.

[130] Denison has stated that "in the fierce competition for sales, rival manufacturers established branches in every town and city of the country, sponsored bicycle racing meets, tours and runs, offered prizes, maintained teams of racers and record breakers, published touring guides, urged country hotel keepers to improve their accommodations, agitated for good roads, and generally moved heaven and earth to sell more wheels than the other fellow." (Denison, op.cit., pp.23-24.)

[131] Supra., p.192.

[132] This company also stocked a large range of sporting equipment, and it would seem that the bicycle shop was the store most like the sporting goods store of the twentieth century: "... They boast of carrying the largest stock of sporting goods of any firm in the country. The third floor is handsomely stocked with guns, ammunition, tennis, cricket, golf, athletic, and other sporting goods, including the wholesale stock of cycles and cycle accessories." (Globe, Toronto, April 3, 1897)

Plate 41. Advertisement for the Gould Bicycle Co. Ltd., 1896.

Plate 42. Advertisement for the Cleveland Bicycle Riding School, 1897.

> best manage a wheel, for the second floor of these commodious quarters is fitted up and specially adapted for a riding school. Everyone who has had the pleasure of a spin on a wheel knows how important it is to gain confidence before risking a run in the crowded streets or even in the less frequented highways and byways.[133]

Toronto had at least three other large riding schools at that time: those of Messrs. McDonald and Wilson; H.A. Lozier and Company; and Hyslop Brothers.[134]

Many other sporting goods were produced in factories,[135] although none to the extent of skates and bicycles. Factory produced items tended to be cheaper, and the standardization and uniformity of equipment which this type of manufacturing facilitated, was influential in the establishment of regulations relating to equipment size and specification.

During much of the nineteenth century many of the basic commodities were home made; marketing in this setting was very rudimentary.[136] However, as the influences of industrialization and urbanization spread, marketing became a more important feature of the towns and cities. More retail outlets for goods became available within the communities and many "hardware" or "general" stores stocked sporting goods equipment. In remote areas, where there were few shops, "catalogue" buying from

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[133] Globe, Toronto, April 3, 1897. This was an assembly plant for stock imported from England.

[134] "The Women's Pages," Athletic Life, V.3 (April, 1896), p.169.

[135] For information pertaining to equipment for particular sports, see Chapter IV.

[136] M.S. Moyer and G. Snyder, Trends in Canadian Marketing. 1961 Census Monograph - Dominion Bureau of Statistics. (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1967), p.7. "The farm of the period was a miniature factory or combination of factories." (Canada, Report of Royal Commission on Dominion-Provincial Relations, Book 1, p.27)

city stores was possible. During the last decades of the century, T. Eaton and Company, and later the Robert Simpson Company, both of Toronto, had sporting equipment available through their catalogues.[137]

Urbanization and industrialization also affected the role and status of women in society. Hall[138] has stated that the 1880's and 1890's "saw a whole host of sweeping changes in all the relations of the sexes - conjugal, political, legal, educational, and industrial." The technological changes which had occurred throughout the century had created conditions in the environment whereby women could perform a multiplicity of tasks more expertly than men. Women assumed the role of shop assistant, clerk, and office-girl, but it was the invention of the typewriter, and its emergence as an indispensable item of office equipment, which sustained their efforts toward emancipation.[139]

It was during this period that the Canadian woman really became active in sport:

> The Canadienne has, as a rule, magnificent health, the reward (as is much of her beauty) of her fondness for the open air. She is as happy on the tennis court or golf ground, as in the ball room; as much at home in the canoe, or the saddle, as in the opera box or at five o'clock tea.[140]

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[137] Eaton's Fall and Winter Catalogue for 1889-1890 stated: "The large increase in our mail-order retail trade during the last year has necessitated our enlarging and further developing the facilities of this important branch of the retail-trading system. It's a science which can only be grasped through long experience and exact observation. To claim complete success would be self-deception; but our confident belief that we are working the best mail-order department yet created, is founded upon a large series of tests and comparisons, impartial, except that we have discriminated sharply against ourselves."

[138] M. Ann Hall, "A History of Women's Sport in Canada Prior to World War I," (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968), p.58.

[139] G.R. Stevens, The Incompleat Canadian - An Approach to a Social History. (Canada: G.R. Stevens, 1965), p.209.

[140] Reginald Gourlay, "The Canadian Girl," The Canadian Magazine, V.7 (October, 1896), p.509 - quoted in Hall, op.cit., p.59.

The new active role of women in the urban life necessitated a change in dress. Shorter dresses for tennis and golf, and special clothing for cycling[141] were all a part of the Canadian woman's new outlook on life.[142]

As the size and number of manufacturing, retailing and commercial enterprises increased, and working hours became more regulated, sporting teams comprised of employees of various establishments emerged. Athletic contests and games were often included during company excursions and picnics. More than fifteen hundred people travelled by train from Hamilton to Waubuno, about six miles east of London, for the Great Western Railway picnic in August, 1867.[143] Cricket was played, along with other activities. The Grand Trunk Railway sponsored snowshoe, cricket and rowing clubs,[144] annual bicycle races throughout the 1890's,[145] and, through the Y.M.C.A. railway centres, they encouraged basketball:

> At a meeting which was held in the Railway Y.M.C.A. last evening a basket ball league was organized composed of the following shops:- Machine, blacksmith, car and

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[141]For an indication of the changes in the items of women's clothing see Chapter IV.

[142]Katharine B. Brett, "Notes on Fashion in Costume," in G.P. de T. Glazebrook, Katharine B. Brett, Judith McErvel, A Shopper's View of Canada's Past - Pages From Eaton's Catalogues, 1886-1930. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1969), p.x. For a discussion of the role of women in sport during the latter years of the nineteenth century, see Hall, op.cit., pp.58-112; Allan E. Cox, "A History of Sports in Canada, 1868-1900," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), pp.375-389.

[143]Hamilton Times, July 29, 1867.

[144]Hugh W. Becket, The Montreal Snow Shoe Club (Montreal: Becket Brothers, 1882), p.112; Montreal Gazette, February 22, 1867 and September 17, 1885; Globe, Toronto, December 16, 1880; G.G.S. Lindsey, "Cricket in Canada," Part 3, The Dominion Illustrated (November 2, 1892), p.619.

[145]Globe, Toronto, November 10, 1896.

> erecting shops. The first of a series of games was played between machine and blacksmith shops after the meeting and resulted in an easy victory for the former....[146]

A manufacturer's baseball league in Toronto in 1886 found it necessary to divide the league into two divisions: a "shop" section to include individual shops and a "trades" section to include amalgamated shop teams.[147] In Winnipeg that same year, a printer's baseball club was formed, and they expressed a desire to play an editor's team or any other non-profressional team.[148] In Edmonton near the turn of the century, there was much interest in the baseball challenge matches between doctors, lawyers, accountants and other professions.[149] There was an organized "financial league" in Toronto by 1900, with teams from the Canada Permanent and Mortgage Corporation, Bank of Toronto, Standard Bank, Toronto General Trust Company, Imperial Bank, and the Bank of Commerce.[150]

Two prominent rowing crews in Winnipeg in the 1880's were oarsmen from the Hudson's Bay Company and the Custom House.[151] The Grand Trunk Railway Rowing Club of Montreal was one of the initial member-clubs of the C.A.A.O.[152] In Toronto in the 1890's, there was a strong banker's

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[146] Ibid., December 20, 1898.

[147] Ibid., March 3, 1886. The "shop" section teams were Gooderham and Worts, J.P. Wagner, Cobban Manufacturing Company, Ewing and Co., Cooper and Smith, J. and J. Taylor, American Watch Company, and the Singer Company. The trades section teams were made up of confectioners, printers, lathers, boot and shoe manufacturers, and some other trades.

[148] Winnipeg Free Press, May 18, 1886.

[149] Edmonton Bulletin, June 12, July 3, 10, 1899.

[150] Globe, Toronto, August 4, 1900.

[151] Winnipeg Free Press, September 12, 1887.

[152] Globe, Toronto, December 16, 17, 1880.

hockey league[153] and a mercantile league at least by 1897.[154] An Association football commercial league was also in existence in the 1880's, and and in the season's championship in 1889, employees of the wholesale house of Messrs. John Macdonald and Company played those of Caldecott, Burton and Company and Goulding and Son.[155]

Sporting teams, clubs, and leagues associated with manufacturing and commercial enterprises were only a segment of the organized sporting associations within Canadian society towards the end of the nineteenth century. The origin of the "club" system of sport,[156] and the subsequent higher levels of organization, was largely a phenomenon of urbanization and industrialization resulting from an uprooting of the traditional rural approach to recreation. Urban living imposed different restrictions on individuals, and yet, at the same time, it also offered more opportunities for individuals with common interests to congregate together and organize competition amongst themselves. Whereas the leisure and recreational activities of many rural communities were of an informal, loosely-structured nature, the restrictions of space and the regulation of time imposed upon the urban dweller caused him to adapt his sporting pursuits to fit in with this different mode of living. It was in the latter years of the nineteenth century that local clubs, and town, city, regional, provincial and national leagues and associations

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[153] Globe, Toronto, January 14, 1891; March 12, 1895. The participating banks were the Dominion Bank, Bank of Hamilton, Bank of Toronto, Trader's Bank, Imperial Bank and the Bank of Montreal.

[154] Ibid., February 27, 1897. [155] Ibid., November 21, 1887.

[156] This may be loosely defined as a grouping together of individuals with a common interest in a particular activity in order to organize regular competition under established rules (Supra., p.12).

began to emerge and govern sport.

The formation of the first organized sporting club in British North America, the Montreal Curling Club, was the result of a desire within several curlers to pursue their activity on a regular basis, and under constituted rules.[157] Competition was between members within the club itself at first, and in order to ensure that there would be regular play, the following regulation was incorporated in the constitution:

> The Club is to meet every Wednesday at 12 o'clock to play till 3 and no member shall absent himself, without giving a sufficient excuse one day before, to The Secretary of the Club, that the party may otherwise be made up under the penalty of Two Clubs.[158]

Intra-club competition continued until after the Quebec Curling Club was formed in 1821, and then inter-club matches began. However, the time and distance of travel restricted regular competitions, and it was not until mid-century, when several clubs were in existence in towns and cities, and travel was easier, that regular inter-club competition began.

Evidence of the desire for further organization of the sport was seen in 1852 when a Canadian branch of the Royal Caledonian Curling Club was formed.[159] Many clubs in Upper and Lower Canada joined this association and competed for the Royal Caledonian Medals presented by

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[157] The initial rules and regulations of this club, which was formed in 1807, have been reproduced in Appendix H.

[158] The Montreal Curling Club, 1867-1907. (Montreal: A booklet published by the Club, 1907), p.19.

[159] Montreal Gazette, April 9, 1852.

this organization.[160] A Nova Scotia branch of the Royal Caledonian Curling Club was also instituted in 1852[161] and this association encouraged regular competition between the clubs affiliated with it.

Inter-provincial competition in this sport began in 1858 when the first bonspiel between Canada East and Canada West was played at Burlington Bay.[162] Thirty-two rinks competed and there were forty-two at the bonspiel held on the Don River at Toronto the following year;[163] an indication of the success of such competition. A letter written by "A Curler from the West" to the Hamilton Times stated:[164]

> ... You can not have forgotten that the Grand Bonspiel upon a large scale between the East and the West was originated and played last year in Hamilton, the success of which induced the curlers to propose an annual one, in accordance with which determination the one of yesterday took place.

International competitions also became popular in the 1860's. Individual clubs had played against teams from the United States,[165] but in 1865 a successful bonspiel was held at Buffalo. The rink from Toronto showed evidence of strong club organization as they were all dressed in a bright red uniform, which earned for them the name, "Red Jackets."[166]

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[160] John A. Stevenson, Curling in Ontario, 1846-1946. (Toronto: Ontario Curling Association, 1950), pp.29-31.

[161] Lindsay, op.cit., p.34. [162] Globe, Toronto, February 19, 1858.

[163] Hamilton Times, February 9, 1859.

[164] Ibid., February 10, 1859. The writer referred to the bonspiel as "this friendly reunion of curlers by all the Clubs of the Province."

[165] Globe, Toronto, January 26, 1864.

[166] Edwin C. Guillet, Pioneer Days in Upper Canada. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1968), pp.213-214. There were 23 rinks from Canada at this bonspiel (Ibid). Lindsay has stated that an outcome

After Confederation, the number of curling clubs in towns and cities increased considerably, and there was further evidence of organization within the sport. More clubs became affiliated with the Canadian branch of the Royal Caledonian Curling Club, which had its headquarters in Montreal, and a separate Ontario branch of this parent association was established in Toronto in 1875.[167] The Ontario Curling Association had become completely independent of the Royal Caledonian Curling Club by 1883, and organized its own regular competitions.[168] The Maritimes Curling Association was formed in 1885,[169] and the Manitoba Curling Association was organized three years later; both of these organizations promoted curling in their respective regions.[170]

At mid-century, when skating first became a popular activity, clubs began to form in many regions of Canada. Most of these clubs were formed when prepared ice surfaces became available, and it was not long before competition in speed- and figure-skating began. The aims of the Amateur Skating Association of Canada, upon its formation in 1885, were to "perfect, perpetuate and establish on a firm basis, speed, art and science skating."[171] At the inaugural championship meeting at the Victoria Rink in Montreal, there were plans for competitive events in speed- and figure-skating. The Governor-General, Lord Lansdowne, who

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of this international bonspiel was the presentation of the Thomson-Scoville gold medal as a prize for the annual competition (Lindsay, op.cit., p.301.).

[167] Globe, Toronto, November 20, 1875. [168] Cox, op.cit., p.222.

[169] Globe, Toronto, April 14, 1886.

[170] Winnipeg Free Press, December 7, 1888.

[171] Globe, Toronto, January 21, 1888.

was patron of the association, offered a prize in the novice figure-skating competition.[172] The annual championships of this association became so popular, and attracted such crowds, that the Montreal Amateur Athletic Association grounds were used to accommodate them.[173] Canada received the acknowledgement of being one of the leading speed-skating countries in the world when the World Championships were awarded to Montreal in 1897.[174] The sport had become most popular by the turn of the century, and the level of competition in Canada had become so high that Canadian skaters were among the best in the world.[175]

After the Amateur Hockey Association of Canada was formed in Montreal in 1886,[176] the sport of hockey became more organized, and many clubs formed into leagues with regular competition. Ontario formed its own association in 1890, and the affiliated clubs included military and educational teams, as well as community sporting clubs from Ottawa, Kingston, Lindsay and Toronto.[177] The rough play of several of the Toronto teams had indicated the need for rules and regulations to be established.[178] A meeting was called for November 27, 1890:

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[172] Ibid. Louis Rubinstein won the "fancy skating" championship and Abraham Rubinstein won the Governor-General's cup (Ibid., February 25,1888).

[173] Supra., p.318. [174] Globe, Toronto, February 6, 1897.

[175] Ibid. For the performances of individual skaters in Canada in the latter part of the century, see Cox, op.cit., p.260.

[176] Charles L. Coleman, The Trail of the Stanley Cup, V.1 (Sherbrooke: National Hockey League, 1966), p.v.; Toronto Daily Mail, December 4, 1886.

[177] Cox has stated that the delegates at the meeting represented Queen's University, Royal Military College, "C" Company Royal School of Infantry, Athletic Lacrosse Club of Toronto, Osgoode Hall, Granites, St. George's, Victorias, Bowmanville and Rideau Rebels (Cox, op.cit., pp. 232-233).

[178] Henry Roxborough, One Hundred - Not Out (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1966), p.143.

> On motion, Mr. J.A. Barrow, M.P., was elected Chairman. Mr. Barrow, on taking the Chair, said that the meeting had been called for the purpose of organizing a Hockey Association for the Province of Ontario. This he believed was very necessary, as he had found on his visit to Toronto last winter with the Vice-regal and Parliamentary teams, that the clubs in Toronto played too roughly, probably because they had no knowledge of the rules.
>
> That in the opinion of this meeting of hockey people it is desirable in the interests of the game to form an association for the Province of Ontario, to be known as the Hockey Association of Ontario.[179]

The rules for hockey which were drafted by the Association and accepted in December, 1891, were of considerable importance to the development of organized hockey in Ontario, and Canada in general, because they encouraged uniformity of play.[180]

By 1900, the Ontario Hockey Association had several leagues established under their auspices, including senior, intermediate and junior divisions.[181] The association earned commendation from the editor of the Globe in 1892: "A couple of seasons ago the game was unknown here, but it has sprung into wonderful popularity this winter - the Ontario Association and the Bank league series have brought out a lot of fine players."[182]

Lord Stanley, the Governor-General of Canada from 1888-1893, donated a cup as the prize for the best hockey club in Canada. In offering the cup, he made reference to "the importance of games fairly

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[179] Toronto Daily Mail, November 28, 1890.

[180] The Toronto Daily Mail published these rules in their entirety on December 24, 1891, see Appendix I.

[181] Toronto Daily Star, January 4, 1900.

[182] Globe, Toronto, February 22, 1892.

played under generally recognized rules,"[183] and the challenge matches for this coveted prize did much to standardize the sport of hockey throughout Canada by 1900.

Several snowshoe clubs in Quebec and Ontario were formed around mid-century, and organized races, which included sprinting, hurdling and steeplechase events, began soon afterwards. The use of snowshoes of varying lengths and weights was not conducive to harmonious competition, so several clubs met in Montreal in 1871 to standardize snowshoes for racing.[184] The delegates determined that racing snowshoes should be at least ten inches wide, and no lighter than one and a half pounds. Clubs were formed in many parts of Canada in the latter decades of the century,[185] many representatives of which were competitors at the first Canadian snowshoe championships held at Quebec in 1894.[186] Although many urban residents enjoyed snowshoe tramps across the snow-covered countryside, organized races were also very popular.

Cricket was played in most parts of Canada throughout the nineteenth century, and scheduled games were a feature of this sport. International matches against the United States, England and Australia stimulated enthusiasm for the sport, as well as providing an incentive

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[183] Roxborough has cited a portion of the letter: "I have for some time been thinking it would be a good thing if there were a challenge cup, which could be held from year to year by the leading hockey club in Canada. There does not appear to be any outward or visible sign of the championship at present, and considering the interest that hockey matches now elicit, and the importance of having the games fairly played under generally recognized rules, I am willing to give a cup that shall be annually held by the winning club." (Roxborough, op.cit., p.143)

[184] Becket, op.cit., p.222. [185] Ibid., pp.330-390.

[186] Globe, Toronto, February 5, 1894.

to perform better. After a cricket match in New York in 1853, the Montreal Gazette included a report from the New York Albion:

> ... We trust soon to see not only one Canada and United States match played in the year, but to have clubs of various towns playing annual "home and homes" together - the St. George's and Montreal - New York and Toronto - or Newark and Coburg [sic].[187]

The need for an association of cricket clubs was recognized and advocated through the pages of the Toronto Globe in 1878.[188] Shortly afterwards the Ontario Cricket Association was formed,[189] and, in 1892, the Canadian Cricket Association became the controlling body for the sport across the country.[190]

A principal reason for the rapid spread of baseball following its introduction into Canada at mid-century was because the enthusiastic players of the game organized clubs very quickly.[191] Within a few years of the first game being played in Hamilton in 1859,[192] that city hosted the first baseball convention. The outcome of this meeting was the

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[187] Quoted in the Montreal Gazette, September 2, 1853.

[188] Globe, Toronto, October 10, 1873. "... an association of some kind should be organized not only to promote social and business intercourse between clubs, but to preserve a record of all matches of any importance played in the Province, or by Provincial teams abroad, so that the performance of each player could be summed up and properly estimated at the end of the season."

[189] Ibid., April 3, 1882.

[190] Ibid., April 20, 1892. A major purpose of the Association was to control and foster cricket through the various provincial associations. Members of this Association were elected from the following areas: Victoria, Winnipeg, London, Hamilton, Toronto, Montreal, St. John and Halifax.

[191] Lindsay, op.cit., p.80. In Hamilton alone there were seventeen local baseball clubs, some with several teams, by Confederation.

[192] Lindsay has stated that a friendly game between Hamilton and Toronto was played on the Queen's Birthday, 1859 (Lindsay, op.cit., p.79 - cited from Hamilton Times, May 26, 1859.)

brief formation of the Canadian Base Ball Association.[193]

As baseball was indigenous to America, the rules and procedures of play in Canada closely followed those of the United States. When the Canadian Baseball Association (C.B.A.) was formed in 1876, the new Association adopted the playing rules of the International Association of Baseball Clubs.[194] The C.B.A. stipulated that there were to be separate professional and amateur leagues for the 1877 season, and professional teams from Guelph and London were represented in an international professional league in 1878.[195] Toronto and Hamilton had teams in an International League comprised of eight clubs,[196] and the success of these teams swelled the enthusiasm for baseball in many parts of Canada. Many amateur, professional, and semi-professional leagues were formed throughout the remaining years of the century, and this type of organization helped to make baseball the most popular bat-and-ball sport in the urban communities of Canada.

Lacrosse developed as a sport following the formation of the Montreal Lacrosse Club in 1856,[197] and the progress of its development over the next decade was considerable. A review of the recent develop-

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[193] Hamilton Times, October 3, 1864. Samin has stated that "the appearance of imported professionals into "amateur" clubs was later to cause argument, necessitating the formation of separate professional and amateur organizations." (Jeffrey R. Samin, "A History of Baseball in Canada," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1970), p.3)

[194] Globe, Toronto, April 6, 1877. [195] Samin, op.cit., p.7.

[196] Globe, Toronto, February 19, 1886. London had a team in this league the following season. This league disbanded in 1891, but an international Eastern League was organized in 1895 and Toronto was represented by a professional club (Samin, op.cit., p.12).

[197] A. Weyand and M. Roberts, The Lacrosse Story (Baltimore: H. and A. Herman, 1965), p.14.

ments in the sport was published in the Montreal Gazette on November 14, 1867:

> We are warranted in saying that no popular game ever attained so sudden and so general prosperity. On the first of June there were only a half dozen clubs in Canada, but one outside this city. No rules for the government of the game were in existence. Now, five months after, we have in Canada nearly 80 clubs and 2,000 members. The game has been reduced to a science; its rules have been framed by delegates from all parts of Canada, and its interests are watched over by a national organization.

The National Lacrosse Association of Canada was formed at Kingston in 1867, and its control of the sport helped lacrosse to spread. In 1882, this Association decided to promote amateur lacrosse only, so it was renamed the National Amateur Lacrosse Association.[198] It revised the rules of the game, and introduced regional championship leagues in parts of Quebec and Ontario.[199] By 1885, the N.A.L.A. membership included more than sixty clubs and over ten thousand players.[200]

The Canadian Lacrosse Association, Manitoba Lacrosse Association, British Columbia Amateur Lacrosse Association, and the Western Canada Lacrosse Association were all formed prior to 1900,[201] and did much to

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[198] Globe, Toronto, June 3, 1882.

[199] The report of the council of the Association included the following: "We are glad to be able to report a decided improvement in the scientific development of the game throughout the country, which fact is calculated to make it more popular wherever it is played.... This result has in no small measure been brought about by the wise legislation on the laws of the game passed by the Association during the past two years. The effect of these changes has been to make the game less rough and more gentlemanly and scientific, and as a consequence more popular.

[200] Mike Law, "The Development of Lacrosse in Canada," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1969), p.6.

[201] Cox, op.cit., pp.143-155.

develop the sport within their respective regions.

Various codes of football were played in Canada throughout the nineteenth century; soccer, English rugby and Canadian rugby were the main ones. One of the reasons for the diversity of football was the lack of organization within the sports while each was developing. When the Montreal Baseball Club decided to include football as a part of its activities in 1865, there was no clear indication of what type of football would be played: the club was to be "guided by Eton Rugby or American rules, which the President kindly offered to procure."[202]

Many of the clubs playing "football" gradually organized into associations,[203] and attempted to standardize the rules of play for each code. At a meeting called in January, 1883, to form the Ontario Rugby Football Union, the new Secretary, Mr. R.D. Ross, commented that "each club was beginning to put its own interpretation on the rules, which rules were themselves often indistinct and deficient."[204] This comment

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[202] Montreal Gazette, August 1, 1865.

[203] Some of these associations and the dates of their formation included the following: Soccer - Dominion Football Association (1878), Western (Ontario) Football Association (1880), Manitoba Provincial Association (1884) and an inter-college association (1895) which formally became the Canadian Inter-Collegiate Association Football Association in 1904; English Rugby - British Columbia Rugby Union (1889), New Brunswick Football League (1895), and the Manitoba and North-West Territories Rugby Union; Canadian Rugby - Quebec Rugby Football Union (1882), Ontario Rugby Union (1883), Canadian Rugby Union (1884-1886, reorganized 1891) and the Canadian Inter-Collegiate Rugby Football Union (1897). For information regarding the importance of these associations to the development of the respective codes of football, see Cox, op.cit., pp.94-127; Frank Cosentino, "The Development of Football in the United States and Canada From the Game of English Rugby," (Unpublished paper, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1968); Frank Cosentino, Canadian Football - The Grey Cup Years. (Toronto: The Musson Book Company Limited, 1969).

[204] Globe, Toronto, January 8, 1883. Fourteen clubs were represented at this meeting.

was indicative of the general feeling that there was a need for a constituted organizing body.

Although there was still some confusion between many of the clubs and several associations regarding the rules of their respective codes of football, the efforts of these organizations had resulted in a clear distinction between soccer, English rugby and Canadian rugby by 1900.

There were many discrepancies in the track and field meetings and competitions held in Canada,[205] and it was not until associations were organized that regular, well-conducted meets were held. The Caledonian societies had helped to promote the sport from the mid-century on, but the formation of the Montreal Amateur Athletic Association in 1881, and the Amateur Athletic Association of Canada in 1883, gave the most impetus to its development.[206] One of the objects of the A.A.A.of C. was to regulate certain athletic sports, "especially amateur competitions on the cinder path."[207]

Many of the early rowing events were the result of challenges for which "articles of agreement" were drafted prior to the competition.[208]

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[205]For details of the lack of standardized equipment, see Supra., pp. 175-180.

[206]W.H. Whyte, Montreal Amateur Athletic Association - A Literary Souvenir of the M.A.A.A. Fair. (Montreal: A booklet published by the Association, 1886), p.vii.

[207]Amateur Athletic Association of Canada, First Annual Report, 1884. (Montreal: A.A.of C., 1884), p.6.

[208]The report stated that "the Canadian Cricket, Lacrosse, Rowing, Foot-ball and Wheelmen's Associations cover these various branches of athletic sports already." However, many amateur sporting clubs were encouraged to become affiliated.

These "articles" usually established the conditions for the races, but the dimensions of the boats to be raced were seldom stipulated. In many cases the boats were vastly different, and in at least one race there was a different number of oarsmen per boat.[209] After its formation in 1880, the Canadian Association of Amateur Oarsmen discussed the question of regulating the dimensions of racing shells,[210] as well as ways in which the sport could best be promoted.[211]

Similar discrepancies related to dimensions of racing yachts were factors prompting the formation of some yachting associations in Canada. Several early yachting races were sailed in accordance with the rules of the Toronto Yacht Club.[212] In 1884, the Lake Yacht Racing Association was formed with "the purpose of establishing certain rules and by-laws to govern the several regattas on the lakes so that all would be under the same measurements and regulations."[213] The constitution of the Association defined its objectives:

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[209]At a Queen's Birthday regatta in 1872, 8- and 10-oared boats raced in the same event (Mainland Guardian, June 1, 1872).

[210]At a meeting of the C.A.A.O. in 1884, the Executive Committee discussed the regulating of skiffs: " [a]string measurement will probably be adopted, and the length, number and width of laps will be limited. The rules as adopted were ordered to be printed and distributed to the number of 500 copies." (Globe, Toronto, July 29, 1884)

[211]Globe, Toronto, December 10, 1880. The work of this Association was such that, at a meeting in 1886, it was moved that the Secretary appoint an assistant who would be the active "working officer of the club." As he was a full-time, paid employee, it was noted that he was eligible for membership as an amateur oarsman (Ibid., February 9, 1886).

[212]Montreal Gazette, July 1, 1865.

[213]Globe, Toronto, May 11, 1885.

> The object of the Association shall be to encourage yacht building and yacht racing, and to enforce uniform rules for the government of all races in which the yachts of two or more clubs take part.[214]

The Toronto Sailing Skiff Club also helped to standardize rules and regulations for yachting by dividing sailing skiffs into three classes according to length.[215]

Although there were no swimming associations prior to 1900, there were several clubs. These helped to encourage the sport of swimming and, towards the end of the century, water polo. A swimming club had been formed in Montreal in 1850,[216] but apparently this was inactive by 1876 because in that year Lt. Col. Labranche and Mr. A.G. Lord formed a club of the same name.[217] The club was very progressive and positive in its attitude for it employed instructors for several years,[218] and conducted many swimming races. This club organized a water polo tournament in 1887, and a league started in Montreal in

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[214]L.F. Grant, History of the Lake Yacht Racing Association, 1884-1962. (Don Mills, Ontario: Lake Yacht Racing Association, 1962), p.3. This association adopted the "Seawanhaka Rule" for classifying racing yachts: the rule was that "the racing length was half the sum of the waterline length and the square-root of the sail area."

[215]Globe, Toronto, April 16, 1886. Although there were other regulations, the length of a sailing skiff was 18 feet 6 inches for first class, 16 feet 6 inches for second class, and 23 feet for the special class.

[216]Montreal Gazette, April 12, 1850.

[217]Stewart A. Davidson, "A History of Sports and Games in Eastern Canada Prior to World War I," (Unpublished Ed. D. thesis, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1951), p.84.

[218]Ibid., p.85. Jack Williams was paid $4.50 per week in 1878 to give swimming instruction to members of the club at a cost of 12 lessons for a dollar. (Ibid.) Mr. Clement Chagnon taught for the club in 1877, and Mr. Arcand was employed in 1880 for lessons and water safety instruction (Le Nouveau Monde, Montreal, June 26, 1877; June 8, 1880).

1891.[219] The game was played in Winnipeg in 1889, although there was no reference to a club having been formed:

> In addition to the races on Saturday between the picked fours, there will be a novelty in the form of aquatic polo. It is a swimming game. There are two goals, a distance apart; and opposite sides of swimmers strive to put a rubber ball through them.[220]

Several other sports had associations of affiliated clubs prior to 1900. These included the Canadian Wheelmen's Association (1882),[221] Maritimes Lawn Tennis Association (1889),[222] Canadian Lawn Tennis Association (1890),[223] Ontario Lawn Bowling Association (1890),[224] and the Canadian Canoe Association (1900).[225]

The organization of sporting clubs into leagues and associations was a distinct phenomenon of the second half of the nineteenth century. The technological changes which produced improvements in transportation and communication, and led to urbanization and industrialization, ultimately influenced the development of many sports. Sport became highly structured and organized; many clubs had intra- and inter-urban competitive leagues, and several had regional, provincial and national associations which promoted and controlled the clubs affiliated with them. R. Tait McKenzie has described this phenomenon of sports organizations:

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[219] Davidson, op.cit., p.92.

[220] Winnipeg Free Press, July 9, 1889.

[221] Russell E. Coupland, "History of Cycling in Canada," (Unpublished material from the Canadian Wheelmen's Association, 1965), n.p.

[222] Cox, op.cit., p.171.

[223] Globe, Toronto, July 4, 1890. [224] Ibid., August 23, 1890.

[225] Ibid., May 14, 1900. Many Canadian canoe clubs had affiliated with the American Canoe Association which had been formed in 1880.

> The prominence given to rules and regulations in Athletic Games is one of the most marked characteristics of the last decade.
>
> Scarcely ten years ago there were few games with a fixed code of rules, or played in the same way by clubs in different parts of the country. Inter-collegiate or club contests between different cities were rare and the interest in amateur sports was to those taking part, and their immediate friends who were, perhaps, much more interested in the players than in the game played.
>
> All is now changed. Learned committees, composed of delegates from distant cities have "sat upon" rules and constitutions and by-laws and amendments and foot-notes, till now, every game worthy of the name, has its code with definition of terms and its memoranda.
>
> Match games are under the strict legal supervision of the referee, who, in his domain, is as absolute as the Czar of all the Russias; against his edict of banishment to the Siberian solitude of the dressing room the unfortunate sinner has no appeal.
>
> There is no game that has shown this development of law and order more clearly than Hockey; the result appearing in its wonderfully rapid progress in favor both with player and spectator.[226]

Life in many urban-industrial centres demanded economy of time, and this could be utilized in codifying the rules of sports in such a manner that the duration of the activity became certain.[227] Changes in lacrosse rules exemplified this concept.

In 1867 the rules of lacrosse[228] stipulated that "a match will

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[226] R. Tait McKenzie, "Hockey in Eastern Canada," The Dominion Illustrated, V.3 (1895), p.57.

[227] Although there were many other factors which influenced the decline of hunting, Harrison has stated that the uncertainty of duration led to the decline in the pursuit of animals as leisure activity (B.H. Harrison. This view was expressed during a discussion session at the Seventh Past and Present Conference in London, July, 1964, which has been summarized in "Work and Leisure in Industrial Society," Past and Present (No.30, April 1965), p.101; Personal correspondence from B.H. Harrison, March 31, 1970).

[228] Montreal Gazette, July 17, 1867.

be decided by winning three games out of five", and a "game" occurred each time a goal was scored. Consequently, the actual duration of a game could have been short, which did not suit the spectators, or, as occurred on some occasions, had to be postponed because of darkness.[229] In 1888 the National Amateur Lacrosse Association fixed a time limit for matches, and, in 1894, the N.A.L.A. changed all the association matches to the majority of games in two hours.[230] In 1900, the Canadian Lacrosse Association ruled that the duration of play for matches in leagues under their control would be ninety minutes in duration - two periods of forty-five minutes.[231]

The rise of organized sport occurred as the outcome of the overall social changes of the nineteenth century. Much of the success of the sporting clubs depended upon the support of urban citizens, the spectator as well as the participant. Betts has stated that "urbanization brought forth the need for commercialized spectator sports, while industrialization gradually provided the standard of living and leisure time so vital to the support of all forms of recreation."[232]

Baseball, cricket, football, lacrosse, track and field, bicycling, curling, skating, hockey, snowshoeing, tobogganing, ice-boating, ice-trotting, horse-racing, trotting, polo, rowing and yachting were all sports which attracted large crowds. This spectator support increased

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[229] In 1880, Toronto was defeated by the Montreal Shamrocks who scored the required three goals in 6 minutes, 25 seconds. Nancy Howell and Maxwell L. Howell, Sports and Games in Canadian Life, 1900 to the Present. (Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 1969), p.72.

[230] Globe, Toronto, April 14, 1894. [231] Law, op.cit., p.9.

[232] John R. Betts, "The Technological Revolution and the Rise of Sport, 1850-1900," Mississippi Valley Historical Review, V.40 (1953)p.233.

generally throughout the latter half of the century, as faster transport and more comfortable accommodation made sports outings more appealing.[233]

The willingness of the urban public to attend and support the various sporting competitions and events inevitably led to professionalism in some sports. In the first half of the nineteenth century there were few sports in which the competitors could be classified as professionals, although "challenge" matches and competitions for stakes were occasionally held. Very few communities could support professional teams of any kind until urbanization and industrialization increased the size of towns and cities. However, as urban areas became larger, and the residents more prosperous, professional sport began to emerge.

The shorter and more regular working hours enabled sports enthusiasts to attend commercial sports. Enterprising groups of businessmen invested money in professional players because they could see that city-dwellers were prepared to pay to watch performers of high calibre. The total salaries of the Toronto professional baseballers who played in the Canadian League in 1885 amounted to more than $4,000, but the receipts were more than double that amount.[234] Professionalism was also evident in lacrosse, hockey, rowing, cycling and, to a lesser extent, football, skating and track and field.[235] The rise of commercial sport

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[233]The importance of developments in transportation, communication, sporting equipment, and sporting facilities, and their effect in attracting spectators to various sporting activities has been discussed in Chapters II - V of this study.

[234]Jesse E. Middleton, Toronto's One Hundred Years, 1834-1934. (Toronto: The Centennial Committee, City of Toronto, 1934), p.116.

[235]For details of the extent of professionalism within these sports, see Howell and Howell, op.cit; Cox, op.cit; Roxborough, op.cit..

improved the standard of performance and provided communities with improved sporting facilities.

There were attempts by sporting clubs and associations to control professionalism within sport so that the amateur could participate on more equal terms. Distinctions between amateurs and professionals were incorporated in the constitutions of some organizations. The Canadian Association of Amateur Oarsmen was one of the first to define the difference:

> An amateur is one who has never assisted in the pursuit of athletic exercises as a means of livelihood, who rows for pleasure or recreation only and during his leisure hours, and does not abandon or neglect his usual business or occupation for the purpose of training for more than two weeks during the season.[236]

The Montreal Amateur Athletic Association also saw the need to control the relationship between professionals and amateurs in organized sport, and, in 1883, the executive sent a letter to many amateur sporting clubs in Canada advising them of the intention of forming a "Canadian National Amateur Athletic Association."[237] The circulated letter was favourably received, and the Amateur Athletic Association of Canada was subsequently formed on December 14, 1883.[238] This organization made significant contributions to the development of organized amateur sport in Canada; it organized the annual Canadian Track and Field Championships, and processed applications from former professionals who desired to be reinstated as amateurs.[239]

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[236] Globe, Toronto, July 10, 1892.

[237] Amateur Athletic Association of Canada, First Annual Report, 1884, p.1.

[238] Ibid.

[239] Ibid. Annual Reports, 1884-1898.

Despite the efforts by several amateur organizations to abolish professional sport,[240] it was an aspect which many urban residents enjoyed and supported. Cox[241] has stated that "there was no general agreement, amongst the community as a whole, that amateurism was 'good' and 'professionalism' was bad"; sporting enthusiasts usually supported both.

A feature of the larger cities was the "athletic club" or multi-sports organization. When the Montreal Amateur Athletic Association formed, five clubs already in existence affiliated with it: the Montreal Lacrosse, Snowshoe, Bicycle, Football and Tuque Bleue Toboggan Clubs.[242] These sporting clubs had individual autonomy, but there were also others connected with this association by 1888: the Montreal Fencing, Hockey, and Baseball Clubs.[243] One of the many advantages of being affiliated with such a large organization was the excellent facilities which could be provided. The M.A.A.A. building included a gymnasium, club meeting rooms, reading-room, a billiard room with twelve tables, two bowling alleys, and a shooting gallery.[244] The athletic ground on Sherbrooke Street was the home of the Montreal Lacrosse Club from 1868; facilities there included a pavilion, dressing rooms, lockers and bathrooms, a grand stand capable of seating five thousand people,

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[240] Ibid. Annual Report, 1892, p.8. The A.A.of C. advocated the "absolute necessity of having at least one [affiliated] club in each province, from Prince Edward Island to British Columbia, in order to facilitate the working of the Association, especially in the endeavours to abolish everything in the shape of professionalism from athletic sports."

[241] Cox, op.cit., p.417.

[242] Athletic Leaves. Montreal Amateur Athletic Association, (September 25, 1888), p.12.

[243] Ibid.

[244] Ibid., pp.24-25.

and a cinder track. The new grounds constructed in 1887 at the west end of Dorchester Street surpassed the old facilities, and were built for the cost of forty-five thousand dollars.[245] Members could have free use of all these facilities in return for an annual payment of ten dollars.[246]

The Toronto Athletic Club building in College Street was opened in January, 1895,[247] and among the sporting clubs associated with this organization were the Toronto Bicycle, Fencing, Lawn Tennis clubs, the Osgoode Hall Athletic Clubs, and some members of the Toronto Lacrosse Club.[248] The facilities included a gymnasium, swimming pool, fencing room, bowling alleys, and a billiard room. The club's grounds exceeded two acres in area,and included thirteen tennis courts, two lawn bowling greens, and a clay-cinder bicycle track. Robertson[249] estimated that "the membership would exceed fifteen hundred by 1897":

> No young man - or old man, for that matter - whose moral character is good, need fear the disqualifying black ball. The club has been erected for the betterment of athletics, and the social line is not held to be of paramount importance.

The many technological innovations of the nineteenth century transformed parts of Canada, into thriving urban and industrial centres, during the latter decades. The new social forces brought about by

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[245] Ibid., p.27.

[246] The total membership in 1888 was 1400; members were scrutinized and the name of a prospective member had to be publicly displayed on a notice-board for one week (Ibid., p.28).

[247] J. Ross Robertson, Robertson's Landmarks of Toronto, V.2 (Toronto: J. Ross Robertson, 1896), p.1110. Robertson has stated that the total cost was estimated at $72,000 but the completed structure was considerably more.

[248] Ibid., p.1111.

[249] Ibid.

urbanization and industrialization were more pronounced as life became more organized and structured. Whereas in the early decades of the century there were very few sporting clubs, by 1900 sport revolved, and was primarily controlled by the organized clubs and associations within the community. Recreation and sport, as an integral part of these rapidly developing urban-industrial communities, were being continually exposed to, and influenced by, technological advancements.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The development of sport in Canada was influenced by many factors, but one of the most profound was the effect of technological changes. Sport reflected the changes in society caused by invention and technological innovations related to advancements in transportation, communication, urbanization and industrialization. Directly related to sport were the improvements in sporting equipment and facilities which advancements in technology helped to produce.

Transportation improved considerably with the introduction of the steamship, steam locomotive and electric streetcar. Canadians became more mobile as the duration of travel decreased between neighboring villages, towns and cities, and journeys to compete with individuals or teams from other towns became more practicable. At first it was only the very wealthy who could afford the time and expense to travel for inter-community competition in sport, but as the century progressed, the relative cost of transport by steamboat and railway was reduced considerably, thereby encouraging many more excursions for sporting competition. Steamers and trains also became more comfortable, so the sportsmen were able to rest or sleep while travelling, and be ready for physical activity upon arrival at their destination.

Many steamboat and railway companies encouraged sporting teams to use their respective modes of transport by offering special concessions, and this was of mutual benefit; it facilitated more frequent exchanges for sport between communities, and the companies attracted more passengers. The steamboats were also excellent vantage points at

aquatic regattas as they allowed the spectators to be amidst the activity. The railways were frequently used to convey spectators to and from the venues of sporting events within cities until the advent of the streetcar railways.

Horse-drawn streetcars were used in urban areas after the mid-century and were in demand when major sporting events were being held. Several cities had electrically-operated street-railways by the late 1880's and 1890's, which made transportation to and from athletic events even faster and more efficient. Many recreational and sporting facilities were built on street-railway routes in order to encourage the urban residents to attend. The streetcar also gave cyclists the opportunity of a "smooth ride" on the asphalted or macadamized strip between the rails. Longer inter-city electric railways were constructed in the 1890's; one of the busiest was that of the Quebec Electric Railway which ran to Montmorency Falls.

Vehicles powered by steam, electricity and, to a lesser extent, the internal combustion engine, were used for public transportation by 1900, and the introduction of all these conveyances helped to promote travel to other communities for organized competition on a more frequent and in many cases regular basis.

Apart from physical communication or transportation, the technological improvements in the communication of ideas and information were also factors which influenced the growth of sport. The postal service and the press were the only means of communication for many years. The efficiency of the postal service was dependent upon the available means of transportation. However, the periodical press became an important influence as the means of news gathering and dissemination improved throughout the century.

The early wooden-framed, hand-operated press used at the beginning of the century was in marked contrast to the steam- and electrically operated presses which could produce twelve-page newspapers at the rate of 24,000 per hour. While the mechanical means of printing were so time-consuming, only basic and important news items, government notices and advertising were included in the daily press. The few references to pastimes and games which did appear were usually those connected with the wealthy; cricket, fox hunting and horse-racing were the most frequent in the first few decades. However, the press had assumed a more important role in community life by Confederation as a result of important changes in the printing industry. Mechanized improvements such as the iron-press, type-casting and steam-powered presses made the industry more efficient by increasing the speed of production. Daily newspapers appeared in Montreal and Toronto in 1833 and 1835, respectively; an indication of the need for this means of communication in the growing towns.

The introduction of the overland telegraph in the mid-1840's hastened news gathering from other regions. This innovation, together with more efficient printing methods which facilitated the inclusion of a wider variety of news items, engendered more frequent and comprehensive coverage of sporting events from many parts of Canada. Such use of the telegraph produced a greater awareness and interest in sport among the public than if the details of a game, race or event were several weeks old. From a mere "social" report in the press of the first decades of the century there developed, from public demand and public interest, a more comprehensive coverage of sport in the newspapers of Canada.

The technological advancements of the post-Confederation era were considerable; faster and cheaper type-setting methods and printing presses were developed, the cost of newsprint declined, and the use of the telegraph became more widespread. Other developments, such as the Atlantic and Pacific oceanic cables, the typewriter, the camera and the telephone all contributed in making the impact of the periodical press on the daily lives of those whom it reached greater.

Whereas in 1867 there were just over two hundred newspapers in the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, by 1900 there were more than twelve hundred in Canada. Several daily newspapers had regular sporting columns in the last years of the century. The "magazine" was also an important addition to the periodical press during this period, and several publications included articles on recreation and sport, many with accompanying line-drawings and photographs. Journals devoted exclusively to sport were well received by the public, especially from the 1880's onward.

A most important aspect of the periodical press, and especially those daily newspapers with a wide circulation, was the general attitude of editors. On most occasions, editors encouraged and promoted sport, and so the message of approval was conveyed to the general public. The notion that "physical activity was good" did much to influence the development of recreation and sport in Canadian society. The press reflected the public's pride in the achievements of teams and individual athletes, and served as a means through which citizens could voice their discontent about the inadequacies of recreational and sporting facilities. This media was also used to extol the virtues of particular sports, such as hailing lacrosse as "Canada's National Game", and as a means for

disseminating information about the rules, procedures and organization of various sports.

Whereas all arrangements for sporting competition between various teams in villages, towns and cities took several days, or even weeks, by mail, the introduction of the telegraph and telephone facilitated faster and better organization. The overall advancements in the technology throughout the nineteenth century had a substantial influence on the development of organized sport in Canada.

Factors contributing to the urbanization and industrialization which occurred in Canada throughout the latter half of the century included the technological changes of transportation and communication, the improvement in the means of production and manufacture, and general economic growth. Although urbanization and industrialization were very gradual processes in Canada, they, nevertheless, had a substantial influence on the transformation of the pastimes and games of Canadians into structured and highly-organized sports.

By the turn of the century the percentage of the population who lived in towns and cities had increased from less than twenty per cent in 1871, to thirty-five per cent in 1901. There were over sixty towns and cities with a population of more than five thousand, twenty-four of which had more than ten thousand inhabitants.

Prior to Confederation, production was of a local handicraft nature, and most manufacturing was connected with food-processing. Throughout the latter decades of the century, however, the "factory system" had proven itself the most efficient means of production, and industrialization became an important phenomenon; it engendered a general rise in the standard of living, and its effect on the social

life of Canadians was considerable.

The combined processes of urbanization and industrialization brought about many social changes which ultimately affected the development of sport. The workers in urban areas were not prepared to work unlimited hours, and the agitation of employees, as well as some wise and benevolent employers, resulted in shorter and regular working hours. By the 1880's, the Saturday half holiday had become more than a dream, and six o'clock closing on weekdays enabled workers to enjoy several hours of recreation in the evenings. The prosperity in urban and industrialized centres was evident in the public utilities such as paved roads, streetcar service, sidewalks, water supply, sewerage, street lighting, telephone, police force, fire brigade and the like. Also present were improved facilities for recreation and sport, which were usually financed and constructed by private enterprise. The stress and strain of urban-industrial life resulted in their increased utilization by the public.

Urban-living required an adjustment on the part of an individual, as freedom was restricted in many ways. To varying degrees employers and municipal councils imposed limitations on an individual's mode of living. However, these tended to channel urban residents into organized sports. In many cases, it was no longer possible for a person to swim, skate, toboggan, play ball games, or run races whenever and wherever he or she desired. Municipal by-laws restricted such activities to defined locations, and between delimited hours. This tended to bring sports enthusiasts together at the recreational facilities; a factor which facilitated the organization of interested people into "sporting clubs."

The mere existence of one sporting club in a community was usually sufficient to generate enthusiasm to bring about the formation of others. In many rural areas, and certainly in most urban centres, there arose a sense of local involvement in the sporting facilities and teams within a community. Civic and community pride was extended to the achievements of athletes and teams, and many individuals expressed their desire to be associated with such feats. Many people sought active membership in sporting clubs; some with the desire to emulate the performances of others, but for most, it was because they enjoyed the opportunity of regular physical activity in a structured situation. Other less active people showed their approval by becoming associated with sporting clubs as supporters or spectators.

The school-boy's enthusiasm for sport was carried over into the adult community. The organizational aspects of sport which graduates of educational institutions had experienced was invaluable to the development of organized sport in communities. The number of sporting teams and clubs associated with manufacturing and retailing enterprises grew, and there were many commercial leagues in various sports by the turn of the century.

One of the most profound effects of technological changes on sport was the development of the "club" system and its subsequent extension into more complex and encompassing levels of organization. The technological advancements which engendered improvements in transportation and communication, and resulted in urbanization and industrialization, were also the causes of the uprooting and transformation of the traditional forms of rural recreation into sports which were highly-structured.

In the early part of the century, the pastimes and games in many communities were of an informal, loosely-structured nature, but the restrictions of space and the limitations of time imposed upon town- and city-dwellers caused them to adapt their sporting interests. Local clubs, and town, city, regional, provincial and national leagues were a predominant feature of sport in Canada towards the end of the nineteenth century.

At mid-century there was no organization or association which governed or controlled the teams or clubs which had formed to play a particular sport. Many of the clubs had constituted rules of organization, as well as defined rules and regulations for playing procedure. Much of the physical activity and competition was between members within the same club, and on the many occasions when inter-club competition did take place, there were disputes over how the competition, event or match should be conducted. However, situations such as these did not deter the sporting clubs from continuing inter-club competition; on the contrary, it was evident that exchange visits between clubs increased in number. Nevertheless, it became more practicable for a number of clubs to congregate for discussion over how the sports should be conducted.

Throughout the latter half of the century, a number of associations and organizations emerged to promote and control various sports. The first sport to establish a governing body was curling. In 1852, a Canadian branch of the Royal Caledonian Curling Club was formed, and many clubs from Upper and Lower Canada became affiliated with this association and competed for the Royal Caledonian Medals. A Nova Scotia branch of the parent Scottish club was also formed in that year. Other

sports which had regional, provincial or national associations by 1900 included baseball, cricket, lacrosse, English rugby, soccer, Canadian rugby, lawn bowling, lawn tennis, cycling, canoeing, rowing, curling, skating and hockey. Other associations, which incorporated and fostered several sports, were also formed; the Montreal Amateur Athletic Association, the Toronto Athletic Club, and the Amateur Athletic Association of Canada.

Many of the alterations in the rules and procedures for playing various sports were caused by the need to economize time; a factor engendered, to a considerable extent, by urbanization and industrialization. The pattern of urban-industrial life had become more regulated and the time for recreation and leisure was delimited. It was necessary for organizers to not only arrange sporting events at a suitable starting time to attract spectators, but also to assure them that the spectacle they had come to observe would be neither too short nor too long. These factors were substantial influences which brought about changes in the objectives of many sports.

The criteria for determining "winners" and "losers" in several team sports changed throughout the period. Whereas the team to first score a predetermined number of goals or points had been declared the victors in some earlier games, towards the end of the century the result of a lacrosse, football, basketball, polo or hockey match was dependent upon the number of goals or points scored at the end of fixed duration of time. The rules of play of the Ontario Hockey Association of 1891, as an example, stipulated the following:

> Each side shall play an equal time from each end. The duration of the Championship matches shall not be less than one hour, exclusive of stoppages. The team scoring the greater number of goals in that time shall

> be declared the winner of the match. If at the end of that time the game is a draw, ends shall be changed and the game continued until one side scores.

In other sports, such as curling, lawn and indoor bowling, cricket, baseball, golf and tennis, the procedure of play and method of scoring were sometimes adjusted to fit the time available. Promoters and organizers of tournaments, championships, regattas and other sporting events, planned the programme of the day, or for several days, to suit the convenience of the prospective spectators. For sports such as rowing, sailing, canoeing, swimming, cycling, track and field, gymnastics, roller- and ice-skating, snowshoeing, tobogganing, ice-trotting and horse-racing, this was particularly evident.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, Saturday afternoon became the time when most sports were played. Increasingly throughout the period, the Monday issues of the daily press published a greater number of sports results than any other day of the week. The Saturday half-holiday, which was an outcome of urbanization and industrialization, became the most suitable time for sport. However, the long summer evenings, and the improvements in indoor facilities, also resulted in more sport throughout the week, especially in the latter decades of the century, when early closing was introduced.

The improvements in sporting facilities and equipment also affected the development of sport. Many of the improvised facilities used in the early years of the century were transformed into suitable gymnasia, fields, grounds or rinks which were appropriate for skilled athletes and comfortable for spectators. The general rise in the standard of living was reflected in the archiecture and edifices within society; technological advancements had resulted in a more extensive

use of glass, which improved natural lighting, and the use of coal-gas and electricity improved artificial lighting to the extent that indoor sporting events could be conducted under excellent conditions. The presence of furnace and ducted heating systems encouraged participants and spectators to utilize the facilities, especially in the cold months of winter.

Outdoor facilities also improved; playing and running surfaces were levelled and drained, and many race-tracks were designed for speed and safety towards the end of the period. Clay and cinder cycling and running surfaces were introduced in the pursuit of faster and more spectacular races; golf courses were designed to challenge the golfer; and several rinks and courts for lawn bowling and tennis were nurtured until they became as smooth as billiard tables. It was evident that many other sports facilities were not only designed to accommodate large crowds, but were also constructed and maintained in a manner which was conducive to performances of high calibre. Full- and part-time curators and maintenance workers were employed to keep the facilities in good repair, and in the peak of condition for major events.

The advent of competition between organized clubs, and the concomitant pursuit of excellence in various sports, also necessitated an improvement in the design and construction of items of sports equipment. Many of the changes in sporting equipment were gradual, and involved only minor refinements; but others were more distinct and were regarded as inventions worthy of patent.

In some cases, the equipment for the activity, and the activity itself, were inter-dependent variables; a change within one subsequently caused a change in the other in order to facilitate the continued

development in the skill, speed, efficiency of movement, and aesthetic appeal of the sport. For example, the lacrosse stick used by the Indians was rounded at the end and laced with deerskin thongs, but the pocket formed by the crossed thongs varied in size from a foot across, to one which was just large enough to hold the ball. When the British North Americans began to play the game they favoured only a slight pocket at the hooked end of the stick to facilitate passing; this was a deviance from the Indians' style of play, as their game of baggataway usually emphasized running, rather than the passing. The laws of lacrosse as accepted by the National Lacrosse Association of Canada in 1867 stipulated that the strings of the crosse had to be flat when the ball was not resting on them; a design which was conducive to the passing style of play.

Equipment used in other sports also changed in design, function and quality. Sticks, clubs, bats, racquets and other implements used for striking were refined, as were the objects to be struck. Balls, bowls, pucks, curling stones and throwing implements were often made with precision by the end of the century. Clothing was designed for comfort and ease of movement, and the team or club uniform became important for purposes of identification. Special footwear for indoor, grass, cinder, snow and ice surfaces was developed, and the basketball-shoe, football boot, running spike, snowshoe, ski, roller- and ice-skate were only a few of the specialized items developed. The introduction of protective clothing, which included gloves and shaped padding for various other parts of the body, was important to the development of some sports.

Technological improvements transformed the clumsy velocipede into

the efficient safety-bicycle, and the introduction of the pneumatic-tire improved the performances in cycling and trotting. The invention of the strand starting-barrier decreased the probability of unfair and false starts in horse-racing events. Modifications in the shape and construction of rowing shells, and the introduction of the outrigger design and sliding seat, all contributed to faster performances by oarsmen. There were fewer questionable decisions in lacrosse and hockey matches when goal nets were incorporated as a part of the equipment. In the sporting events in which speed was an integral component, the improvement in stop watches and electric timers brought greater accuracy to the recording of times. Towards the end of the century, when sporting enthusiasts were desirous of knowing how fast, how far, and how much better one competitor was than another, the recording of performances for future reference became an important aspect of organized sport. These, and other improvements in sporting equipment, many of which were the direct result of invention and improvements in methods of manufacture, did much to improve the skill of the participating athletes, and to make many sports interesting and exciting spectacles for the onlooker.

The desire on the part of individuals in society to excel in sport, and the enjoyment this striving for excellence brought others, was another factor in the development of organized sport in Canadian society. The aspirations of many Canadian athletes engendered development within sports. The outcome was an increase in the level or degree of skill, speed, dexterity, aesthetic grace and fitness. The organizing and governing bodies in sport responded to these characteristics by ensuring that the rules and procedures of play were mutable, and in

many cases the changes in style of play led to corresponding changes in the rules and regulations of the sport. These alterations and modifications, which brought about an improvement within the sport itself, were usually greeted with approval by the supporters and spectators of the sports.

It was this desire on the part of the observer to see "the best" which made professional sport so popular. Very few communities could support professional teams of any kind until after mid-century, when urbanization and industrialization led to an increase in the size and prosperity of towns and cities. The shorter working hours and the improved standard of living enabled individuals to attend sports events and watch skilled athletes in action.

Many pastimes and games which existed in Canada, or were introduced throughout the nineteenth century, were transformed into highly organized and structured sports by the beginning of the twentieth century. Although there were several other factors which affected this development, the most profound influences were the technological changes which occurred in society. The technological innovations connected with transportation, communication, urbanization and industrialization, as well as those specific developments directly related to the improvements in sporting facilities and equipment, not only affected the role of organized sport in Canadian society, but also engendered developments within the sports themselves.

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Mr. Frank Faulkner, Advertising Journalist, A.G. Spalding and Bros., Inc., Meadow Street, Chicopee, Massachusetts, 01014, U.S.A.: February 13, 1970.

Mr. Jas. M. Fraser, Canadian Director, The Watchmakers of Switzerland Information Center of Canada Limited, Suite 725, 20 King Street West, Toronto 1, Ontario: March 16, 1970.

Professor Brian H. Harrison, Department of History, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, U.S.A.: March 31, 1970.

W.L. Hayhurst, Q.C., 111 Richmond Street West, Toronto 1, Ontario: May 22, 1969.

Mr. Charles E. Heuer, 8, chemin des Bourguinons, 2500 Bienne, Switzerland: May 13, 1970.

Mr. Jack W. Heuer, President Heuer-Leonidas S.A., 2501 Biel-Bienne, 18, rue Vérésius, Switzerland: March 23, 1970.

Mr. Gordon S. Hollywood, Director of Public Relations, Wilson Sporting Goods Company, 2233 West Street, River Grove, Illinois, 60171, U.S.A.: February 9, 1970.

Mr. Alene E. Holt, Chairman, Public Relations Committee, City of Peterborough, Ontario: January 29, 1970.

Mr. Clarence T. Hubbard, 194 Wood Pond Road, West Harford, Connecticut 06107, U.S.A.: February 12, 1970.

Mr. A.M. Laidlaw, Commissioner of Patents, Patent and Copyright Office, Ottawa, Ontario: June 3, 1969; June 26, 1969.

Omer S.A. Lavallee, Supervisor, Speakers Bureau, Public Relations and Advertising, Canadian Pacific, Windsor Station, Montreal, Quebec: January 19, 1970.

Mr. Francois Mathieu, Director, Legal Department, Department of Municipal Affairs, Quebec, P.Q.: April 21, 1970.

Mr. R.D. Mauheur, Passenger Traffic Manager, Canadian Pacific, Windsor Station, Montreal 101, Quebec: June 23, 1969.

Mr. A. May, Manager, Advertising and Sales Promotion, C.C.M., 2015 Lawrence Avenue West, Weston, Ontario: February 3, 1970; February 17, 1970.

Mrs. Judith McErvel, Company Archivist, The T. Eaton Company Limited, College Street Store, Toronto 1, Ontario: September 17, 1969.

Mr. John L. McKeen, Director, Municipal Services Branch, Department of Municipal Affairs, Fredericton, New Brunswick: March 20, 1970.

Mr. Frank E. Pasteur, Marketing Director, The Watchmakers of Switzerland Information Center, Inc., 608 Fifth Avenue, New York, 10020, U.S.A.: April 17, 1970.

Mr. G. Payette, Assistant Registrar of Trade Marks, Department of Consumer and Corporate Affairs, Ottawa: June 17, 1969.

Mr. T. Rogers, Sales Manager, Gruen Watch Company of Canada Limited, 58 Connie Street, Toronto 15, Ontario: March 3, 1970.

Mr. J.E. Scott, General Manager, Meylan Stopwatch Corporation, 264 W, 40th Street, New York, 10018, U.S.A.: March 6, 1970.

Mr. F.W. Simons, Assistant Commissioner of Patents, Patent and Copyright Office, Ottawa, Ontario: June 17, 1969.

Miss F.W. Skinner, Hatch and Company Limited, Omega House, 425 Grand Allee East, Quebec City, 4, P.Q.: March 18, 1970; April 28, 1970.

Mr. Melvin Small, Examiner, Canadian Patent Office, Ottawa, Ontario: October 2, 20, 28, December 27, 29, 30, 1969.

Mrs. Shirlee A. Smith, Librarian, Hudson's Bay Company, Hudson's Bay House, 79 Main Street, Winnipeg, Manitoba: September 17, 1969; October 8, 1969.

Mr. Don South, Director, Department of Municipal Affairs, Regional Planning Division, Parliament Buildings, Victoria, British Columbia: March 24, 1970.

Mr. Stanley T. Spicer, Educational Materials Consultant, Fitness and Amateur Sport Directorate, Department of National Health and Welfare, Ottawa, Ontario: June 30, 1969; July 2, 1969.

Mr. C.C. Johnson Spink, Publisher, The Sporting Goods Dealer, 1212 N. Lindbergh Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri, 63166, U.S.A.: February 24, 1970.

Mr. F.J. Thorpe, History Division, National Museum of Man, Ottawa, Ontario: June 16, 1969.

Mr. E.B. Thorseth, Director, Municipal Advisory Services and Statistics, Department of Municipal Affairs, Regina, Saskatchewan: April 21, 1970.

Mr. Robert Walker, Baker Instruments Limited, 185 Davenport Road, Toronto 5, Ontario: February 16, 1970.

Miss B.A.B. Weatherhead, Librarian, Department of Municipal Affairs, Toronto 5, Ontario: March 26, 1970.

Mr. George Zimmerman, Hatch and Company Limited, Omega House, 425 Grand Allee East, Quebec City 4, P.Q.: March 6, 1970.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SHOOTING THE LACHINE RAPIDS*

The visitor must not leave Montreal without paying a visit to the Rapids, and coming over or "shooting" them, as it is called. For this purpose he must take the early train to Lachine, take one of the boats that touch there at about eight a.m., and having accomplished his object, he finds himself again in Montreal by nine, with an appetite for breakfast improved by his morning's outing. The sensation of shooting the Rapids being associated with danger, may deter invalids or nervous persons from attempting the feat; we therefore give a description for the benefit of those who cannot enjoy the scene themselves:-

After taking passage on the steamer at Lachine, the best position the traveller can take is on the upper deck, beside the wheel-house, as being able to view from thence, without being set by the spray, the whole scene. The steamer will lie to opposite Caughnawaga for two or three minutes, waiting for an Indian pilot to come on board. As great nerve and force and precision are required in piloting, few but Indians can be had willing to undertake the perilous task, which, however, is to them a matter of every day occurrence; use is second nature, and so with them; the hawk's-eye glance of the pilot, when at his post, and the stern determination on his features, are a picture that want the pen of a Cooper to describe. As soon as the vessel feels the influence of the rapids, in an increased swiftness, steam is shut off, and she is carried onwards by their force alone. Suddenly a scene of wild grandeur bursts upon the eye; waves are lashed into spray and into breakers of a thousand forms by the submerged rocks which they are dashed against in the headlong impetuosity of the river. Whirlpools, a storm lashed sea, the chasm below Niagara, all mingle their sublimity in a single rapid. In an instant you are in the midst of them. Now passing with lightning speed within a few yards of rocks, which, did your vessel but touch them, would reduce her to an utter wreck before the crash could sound upon the ear; did she even diverge in the least from her course - if her head were not kept straight with the course of the rapid, she would be instantly submerged and rolled over and over. And here is shown the necessity of enormous power over her rudder. Before us is an absolute precipice of waters; on every side of it breakers, like dense avalanches, are thrown high into the air. Ere we can take a glance at the scene, the boat descends the wall of waves and foam like a bird, and in a second afterwards you are floating on the calm unruffled bosom of "below the rapids." Unlike the ordinary pitching and tossing at sea, this going down hill by water produces a peculiar sensation, which, as the vessel glides from ledge to ledge of rock, feels like settling down. The traveller who runs the rapids for the first time, is almost sure

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*John Taylor, The Canadian Handbook and Tourist's Guide. (Montreal: M. Langmoore and Co., 1867), pp.72-74.

to involuntarily hold his breath at this feeling. Occasionally, too, the vessel seems to be directly running on a ledge of rocks, and you feel certain she will strike; but the skilful hand at the helm suddenly whirls you into a different channel, and in an instant more it is passed in safety. Such is "shooting the rapids;" but no words can convey a fitting idea of the thrilling excitement that is felt during the few moments of the passage. It is one of the sublime experiences which can never be forgotten, and never adequately described. It is in the highest degree creditable to the skill and care of all connected with this branch of river navigation, that no accident of any consequence has ever happened, nor has a single life been lost in this beautiful but dangerous spot.

APPENDIX B

A NEWSPAPER REPORT OF THE PRESENTATION TO JAMES PRYOR, HALIFAX BOAT-BUILDER, 1857.*

THE PRESENTATION TO JAS. PRYOR, ESQ.

Took place on Wednesday evening, 24th inst. Although the rain descended in torrents, quite a crowd assembled at Temperance Hall. His Worship the Mayor took the Chair, and expressed his regret that the state of the weather prevented many from attending especially the Ladies.

His Worship reminded the audience of the boat race with St. John in which we were not victorious and the recent contest in which Halifax was successful. The object of the present meeting is to present a splendid testimonial to a merchant of this City, who laying aside his avocations for a time undertook to construct such a boat as would enable our oarsmen to beat the St. John club and thus secure the Championship of the Continent. His Worship spoke of the enthusiasm which characterized the last contest, among all classes, and more ample testimony to the good faith and love of fair play on the part of our opponents. His Worship here amid great cheering introduced Mr. Pryor, and stated that he felt great pride in presiding over the meeting. His Worship now introduced the Hon. Joseph Howe, who was greeted with reiterated rounds of applause.

Mr. Howe, addressing himself to Mr. Pryor, said he had been selected by the citizens to present this piece of plate, and assured him that no previous public duty ever afforded him more pride and pleasure. Here were no conflicting interests. Mr. Howe next alluded to the unsullied integrity and uprightness which have characterized the House of which the recipient of the testimonial is a junior partner, during the past half century. It has stood the test of all commercial storms and financial difficulties, which often agitate every mercantile community. The venerable head of the firm is passing down to that bourne which all are approaching - full of years and honors - and must feel a thrill of gratification in the consciousness that he leaves behind him such sons, steady in their avocations, with a wholesome amount of public spirit, for which they are respected by the community. And it gives us pleasure to present this testimonial on another account. Because it is patent to every body that you have not wasted your time in frivolous pursuits, but have employed your leisure in scientific enquiries and experiments which lie at the foundation of the prosperity of your country. It may seem a light matter to win a boat race and a piece of plate. It might be so in some countries; but not in Nova Scotia; not only that we cannot afford to lose our credit abroad, but because perfection in nautical art lays at the root of our prosperity as a commercial people.

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*Novascotian, Halifax, January 6, 1857.

Attention to the construction of boats enables the hardy fisherman to pursue his calling with a greater chance of success. The fishermen of the Province comprised 10,000 to 12,000 men, and our seamen 4,000 to 5,000 more. Mr. Howe believed that the maritime interests of the Province generally felt grateful to Mr. Pryor for fostering these pursuits which are identified with the success and happiness of our people. Mr. Howe next alluded playfully to the pretensions of the sister province, - that notwithstanding all their advantages, he never could discover that they as a people were in any way superior to the Novascotians. He repudiated the crowing which sometimes was heard across the Bay.

But, Mr. Pryor, I may say that this victory was achieved by your exertions alone. Mr. Howe here spoke of the trained condition of the St. John oarsmen in contrast with our fishermens' inattention to this important particular, and gave some sound advice as to the manner of selecting a crew for future trials. New Brunswick can afford to be beaten in a boat-race; we cannot; because the inferiority might be assigned to those who man our vessels, and earn a living on the high seas. New Brunswick throws a great part of her population into the woods - they are principally engaged in lumbering - while ours are employed in an open Fishery, and from this fact and because our southern harbors are almost all clear of ice the year round, we consider nautical pursuits are those in which we ought to take a Provincial if not a National interest. It is my duty, therefore, Mr. Pryor, to thank you in the name of this community, for having enabled our Fishermen successfully to compete with the best oarsmen of the other Province. Our Fishermen are comparatively poor, but the young men of Oxford and Cambridge almost constantly practise at the oar on the Cam and the Thames. There is scarcely a day in which the gentlemen of England do not practise rowing, racing, or hunting, because they develope [sic] the physical powers by manly exercise in the open air, and Mr. H. hoped that the same course would be pursued in this country also.

As regarded the testimonial gentlemen can see for themselves that it is worthy of the donors, and of the recipient to whom it is now presented; and, added Mr. H., I think you will feel, as you look upon it day by day, a warmer impulse to still cultivate the manly art, and deserve the good wishes of the community in which you reside. Those who attach no value to the good opinion of the public mistake most sadly. This is a trophy won by your enterprise, produced by the spontaneous response of the community; and what must render it more acceptable and valuable is, that it is evidently the free will offering of the whole city of Halifax. I hope that New Brunswick will continue to compete with us in manly sports, and that good sense, high honor, and mutual respect will actuate the competitors on both sides.

Mr. George Drillio being called upon read the inscription on the Cup, as follows:-

P R E S E N T E D

TO

JAMES PRYOR, ESQ.,

By a number of his FELLOW CITIZENS in appreciation of his laudable exertions whereby our hardy Oarsmen were enabled to recover their lost laurels, and to regain their position in the

VAN OF AQUATIC SPORTS

Also, in commemoration of the

Great Race, on the 28th. June, 1856.

In Halifax Harbour,

Between the New Brunswick Gig pulled by the

CREW OF THE UNION CLUB,

and the

Four-Oared Gig Quick Step,

Built and owned by Mr. Pryor

CREW OF "QUICK STEP."

Jerry Holland, M. Fitzgerald,
Richard Beazley, Thomas Beazley,

Mr. Howe regretted that the four noble fellows who pulled the boat were not present. Mr. Pryor made every exertion to get them up, but the storm prevented it. They are four good specimens of the 12,000 men who live on our shores, and draw their living from the depth of the ocean. Mr. Howe paid a handsome tribute to the social virtues of the shore people, among whom he had spent many pleasant days. The number of these, families included, could not be less than 30,000 to 40,000 souls, maintained by the hook and line. Mr. Howe here alluded to the fact of its being Christmas eve, and that many were preparing to fill the children's stockings; but he believed that no more beautiful or valuable present would be made than the testimonial which he had the honor to give on behalf of the citizens of Halifax. The presentation was greeted with enthusiastic applause.

Mr. Pryor rose amid most enthusiastic cheering and, after the applause had subsided, replied as follows:- Mr. Chairman and Fellow Citizens -

I sincerely thank you for the high and unexpected honor you have done me.

This splendid testimonial of your approval of my services, accompanied with the very eloquent and flattering address to which I have just now listened, has almost deprived me of the power of giving utterance to my feelings, of gratitude and thankfulness.

My chief and great object, by repeated trials, to obtain a boat of superior model and speed, was for the purpose of giving to our experienced Boatmen (our Fishermen) an opportunity of retrieving as well as maintaining their character as first rate oarsmen - and, sir, I feel that the credit of success belongs to them as well as to myself; for alone I could do nothing, but with their co-operation we succeeded - a pleasure, immeasurably enhanced by this noble mark of your approval. - And, sir, in accepting this costly offering, my greatest pleasure arises from the conviction that there is not a Fisherman on our shores who will not feel that by thus honoring me you are honoring them, and I believe, sir, that there is not a young Boatman from Cape Sable to Cape Canso, who will not hereafter feel, as he handles his oar, that he will be, and ought to be, in that leading Boat, so beautifully depicted on that beautiful Vase. And as regards myself, sir, I have only to add that you have over estimated my services and for which I once more beg of you to accept my best thanks.

Three cheers were given for Mr. Pryor - three for Hon. Mr. Howe - and three for the Mayor. The thanks of the meeting were conveyed to the Mayor for his able conduct in the chair. After which the audience dispersed.

APPENDIX C

RETURN OF OUR CHAMPIONS*

Gorgeous Reception - Immense Success - Illuminations and Bonfires -- Our Citizens on their Muscle.

The crew who won the International four-oared race at Philadelphia and had been unanimously declared Champion Oarsmen of the World, returned last evening to the city from which they hail and for which they have done so much to maintain that sterling honest integrity for which Nova Scotians are renowned all the world over. They have shown the world what stuff "the men who live beside the sea" are made of. They have shown the Mother Country that our little colony can at least in one department claim to be the "mistress of the seas" and Halifax, Nova Scotia, is proud of them. The city all day yesterday was in holiday garb, and last night our citizens were wrought up to the furore of enthusiasm - cheer upon cheer resounded from within and without the ranks of the procession; every body cheered. Halifax was on its muscle. The crew, who had been stopping at Bedford during yesterday, came to the four mile house at six o'clock in the evening, where they were met by the mayor and corporation of Halifax, the Warden and Town Council of Dartmouth, members of the Local Government and House of Assembly, and representatives of the press.

The crew were seated in a handsome team of Casey's, holding their oars aloft decorated with blue ribbons, with their spare man, Flemming, on the front seat, and their trainer Jerry Holland, and the members of the Rowing Association who were with them at Philadelphia, in another carriage. The other followed in carriages and the start was made for the town. The houses along the road, big and small alike, were brightly illuminated. The drive from the Four Mile House was dull, however, made more so by the rain which had just begun to fall, but did not in the least dampen the enthusiam [sic].

At the Mother House, the inmates have gathered - the house is lighted from garret to basement, and hearty applause is given as the barouches pass by, and at the Three Mile House another ovation awaits the heroes - large numbers of citizens have footed it out, while an almost equally large number have come in vehicles or on horseback. At length the Kempt Road is reached and there the crowd who have patiently waited since sundown now greet the crew with immense applause. THE PROCESSION was formed. The Firemen are quickly formed into line either side of the barouches and then the forward is ordered, the band of the 63rd H.V.B.R. in Robinson's gorgeous band waggon, drawn by six

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*Halifax Citizen, September 16, 1876. An account of the reception awarded to the four-oared crew ("Our Boys") which represented Halifax at the international rowing competitions at Philadelphia in September, 1876.

horses, heads the line, and the Union Protection Company, several of the athletic clubs, including the Phoenix cricket club, the Atlanta and Resolute baseball clubs, the Red Cap Snow Shoe Club and several juvenile clubs, all dressed in their gay uniforms, with torches, and waggons decorated with transparencies and Chinese lanterns, rapidly fall in behind and the cavalcade BEGINS TO MOVE. From one end of the line to the other is a perpetual blaze of torches, which reflects along the dark road, and shows off the uniform of the firemen, cricketers, snow shoers, etc., to perfection. These last are in four horse teams, and carry their torches and banners high in the air. The snow shoers, with their very wintry but handsome blanket dress look particularly fine and attract much attention going along. They evidently spared neither expense or trouble in getting the thing up, having hired Robinson's handsome circus waggon, and provided themselves with fireworks sufficient to keep constantly going during the whole of the long route. _____ And now the proposed route through the city is carried out. The streets traversed are North Brunswick, Jacob, Argyle, Buckingham, Granville, George, Hollis, South, Pleasant, Morris and North Park to the Common.

There are ever so many bands and drum and fife corps, which make noise enough to satisfy anybody and everybody appears to be satisfied. Scattered through the procession were men carrying handsomely painted banners bearing devices, such as 'Welcome to our boys,' 'The champions of the world,' etc., and several waggons had effigies of the referee hanging from the gallows, with sarcastic and decidedly libellous mottoes, calling in question the integrity, impartiality and general good character of that gentleman.

On Park Street they were stopped in front of Mr. A.H. Crowe's residence, and five little girls, attired in white, stepped forward and each presented to one of the crew a beautiful bouquet of flowers, while a little boy handed one to the trainer. In making the presentation one of the little girls said it was made on behalf of the little girls of Halifax to the champion oarsmen of the world. At other points along the route they were made the recipients of handsome bouquets.

THE SPEECHES. On arriving at the North Common the crew in their carriage, stopped on a fairly dry spot and were surrounded by the crowd and the carriages. The first gun of oratory was fired from the Mayor's carriage, in which were His Worship the Mayor, the Attorney-General, and Mr. James Dwyer, the very energetic President of the Fishermen's Rowing Association. His Worship proposed three lusty cheers for 'Our Boys' which were given with right good will. Then His Worship (who had been unwell for some days, and whose exposure of himself was an act of generosity worthy of notice) proceeded to make a few remarks. He said that one word which would express his feelings, and he thought those of all around him, and that was, 'Welcome to Our Boys.' They had won the championship of the world, though the reward, to which they were justly entitled, had been given to the English crew, who had gained it, not by that prowess for which the English nation is noted, but by a trick which, while it did not rebound to their honor, did not detract from that of our crew. They had behaved themselves in an honest, straight-

forward manner throughout, and were respected for it.

Hon. Attorney General then delivered a very enthusiastic address, and three cheers were given for Her Majesty the Queen, the band playing, 'God Save the Queen', three for the Mayor, three for Jerry Holland, to whom so much of the success which attended 'Our Boys' is due, and three hearty ones for the Fishermen Crew.

Mr. C.J. McDoaald [sic]*, on behalf of the crew, responded to the speeches, and returned thanks for the kind reception they had received. He said the hope had been expressed that the time would come when they might be again matched against their English opponents. That time would never come. They had challenged them to row in waters where superior knowledge of the tricks of jockeying would be of no avail against pluck and muscle. That challenge had been declined, and so would any other attempt to have a fair race with them prove futile. Mr. McDohald [sic] sat down amid loud and prolonged cheering, and the assemblage broke up, the crew going into the Halifax Hotel, where they were entertained at supper by Mr. Hesslein.

THE ILLUMINATIONS during the evening were excellent. Bonfires of tar-barrels, on an immense scale, burned on the harbour. All the windows on the route were lit up, and THAT REFEREE was burned, hung, shot, etc. in effigy all over the city. Among the illuminations some of those more particularly noticed were those of Messrs. Clayton's clothing store on Jacob Street, the Colonial Hotel in Argyle Street; and as the procession moved into Granville Street attention was attracted by the really magnificent display in the shops of Sircom and Marshall, John Silver and Co., Peter Grant and Co., Buckley and Co., and many others. The transparencies in P. Grant and Co's. establishment seemed particularly good. They represented our crew after the race waiting the decision, the Englishmen entirely played out, but whispering to one another, 'we are all right with the referee' and a large size head of the referee with the word "FOUL" burning between his teeth. An old hen was hanging from a pole in the procession with the same illuminated inscription. On Hollis Street, the Old Provincial Building was illuminated with candles in every window, which contrasted with the dark stone beautifully. A large fire ball also appeared over the main entrance. Messrs. Forsyth and Co., M. T. Eagar and others showed some exceedingly handsome lights, Mr. Eagar taking particular pains with his, which were very fine and lasted a long time. A giant effigy of the referee, hanging from the window of the 'Holly Tree' restaurant, fell to the ground and was immediately jumped on by the crowd, and picked up in a flattened condition. A doctor was sent for, who examined the patient, and pronounced him a dead referee. The effigy was then carried into the house and with mock solemnity laid out and waked. One of the windows of Messrs. S. Sichel and Co.'s with an illuminated pump kin head was also particularly admired. From Hesslein's Hall and the Halifax Hotel were set off fine displays of fireworks. The latter building

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*The person referred to was Chas. J. McDonald, a representative of the Halifax crew.

was illuminated by strings of Chinese lanterns, hung from the lamp posts in front and a large and handsome transparency on the front of the building. The Albion Club was also handsomely illuminated. The cable STEAMER 'FARADAY' fired a gun at 8 o'clock, and sent up rockets at short intervals for the next hour and a half which shows the good feeling of honest, manly Englishmen toward us. Altogether the affair was about the best of its kind ever witnessed in our city and is long to be remembered.

The following is the order of the procession:-

Four Marshalls on Horseback - George Sanford, T.W. Casey, John O'Sullivan and P. Hurley.
63rd Band
Mayor, Corporation and President Fishermen's Rowing Association.
Carriages with press representatives
The Champion Crew
The above all in Carriages
Jockeys in costume
St. Patrick's Brass Band

Union Protection Company
Red Cap Snow Shoe Club in Robinson's Circus Waggon.
Cricket and Base Ball Clubs in costume.
St. Joseph's Band
Citizens and societies on Foot
Citizens on Horseback
Citizens in Carriages

The Firemen with Torches lined the Procession on both sides.

The Marshals deserve much credit for the painstaking and efficient manner in which they carried out the programme.

A GOOD HIT. One feature of the procession, which we did not observe, but are informed, formed a part, was a wretched looking dog with a placard round his neck bearing the inscription CUR(I)TIS a rather clever hit on the name of referee - Curtis.

APPENDIX D

LACROSSE OR CRICKET AS CANADA'S NATIONAL GAME, 1867.

Letter to Montreal Gazette, August 7, 1867 from "Stumps":

"I have observed that your notices of Lacrosse are headed The National Game. I object to this, and wish to say a few words against its adoption, ere it can plead use and want in its favour.

A National Game should be one in which all classes of the nation can join - the old, or at least, the middle-aged as well as the young. Now, this is not the case with Lacrosse. The exertion it requires is manifestly too severe to be endured by any but very young men - there is too little skill and too much rough and tumble about it. A game which must necessarily be confined to boys, and those but a few years older, can scarcely deserve to be called a National Game.

A National Game should be one common to the whole nation - whereas Lacrosse is confined to a few places - indeed I may say chiefly to Montreal - and not likely to extend its limits. Local is opposed to national; and a game which is purely local can scarcely deserve to be called national.

There is but one such a game, and that, I need hardly say, is cricket, played throughout the length and breadth of the British Empire, from north to south and from east to west - played by all classes, from the lad of fourteen to the man of forty, - it, and it alone, is entitled to be called "The National Game." I have witnessed with pleasure the activity displayed by the dusky Indian in what may be his national game - but I look with much greater pleasure on the skill and science of the brotherhood who, against the best bowling, can successfully defend their wickets, and elicit the applause of spectators by a good leg hit for four.

Cricket is our national game. As such it should receive moral encouragement from the young men of Montreal, and I call upon you, sir, to use the influence of our widely circulated and well read columns to restore it to its proper place."

Stumps.

Letter to Montreal Gazette, August 8, 1867, in reply to "Stumps" from "W.G.B."*

As I believe I was first (in 1859) to propose through the press, and in 1860 in the "Games of Lacrosse" then issued, the acceptance of Lacrosse as our National Field Game, and for months previous to Confederation had published letters to the same effect in many papers

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*W. George Beers.

of the Dominion, I beg leave to reply to the objections of "Stumps" in this morning's Gazette, and I think, en passant, he would find Cricket flourish more among its admirers if the only ground we have in the city was not so monopolized and controlled by the military players.

The objections to Cricket, and some of the reasons it cannot be established in Canada as our national game, are as follows:-

It requires a prepared ground, needs too much practice to make even an ordinary player and is very expensive compared to Lacrosse. The worse player you are, the less you get to do: there is a discouraging amount of fielding and staring at the grass in expectation. It is too exclusive, and makes many of the fielders no more than spectators. The best of the game is always monopolized by the few extra good men who make the largest score, and a single ball may send a man out with a duck's egg. It takes too long to play a game to give every man his innings, and cannot hold a candle to Lacrosse for interesting the spectators. When the English residents at Boulogne played cricket before the Duchess de Berry, she sent one of her retinue, after some half dozen innings were over, to ask when the game was going to begin as "Madame la Duchesse etait terriblement ennuyee." The Duchess had taken two hours of hard fielding and batting for mere preliminary play. I do not undervalue the glorious English game, but it has its faults, and too many it seems to me to make it as popular in Canada as Lacrosse.

The claims of Lacrosse as the national field game of our Dominion are as follows:-

1. It is peculiar to our country, and originated here like snow-shoeing and tobogganing; and just as we claim as Canadian the rivers and lakes and land once owned exclusively by Indians, so we now claim their field game as the national field game of our Dominion and we are glad to say that the Press in Canada favor the idea.

2. It is simple, and yet scientific, and the Montreal Club is bringing out its science more and more every day by the laws of the game which they recently formed, and by cultivating a superior kind of play to the rough and tumble style of mere amateurs.

3. Every man has his innings, so to speak, at the same time; there is no tedious; every player can have as much or as little exercise as he wants, and the game itself is full of variety, amusement and fine exercise.

4. The ground needs no rolling or preparation, and the materials for play are very cheap.

"Stumps" says it is confined to Montreal and "not likely to exceed its limits". Why, my dear fellow, they are playing it now in every city in the Provinces of Quebec and Ontario; Nova Scotia and New Brunswick have sent up for sticks and the laws to start lubs and the Montreal Club are introducing it into the United States and England.

He complains it is confined to very young men, but that isn't the fault of the game, for it can be played by old and young, and I would suggest the organization by some old retired players of the Montreal Club, of a club composed solely of men not under thirty or thirty-five. They would develop a kind of play suitable to their years, and I think our impetuous play would be benefited by their calmer style. But all games are mainly kept alive by young men; how many "middle-aged" men in Canada play Cricket, except occasionally in matches?

It is a poor way of showing the merits of Cricket to depreciate Lacrosse, but the unparalleled success of the latter is the best proof of its attraction and suitableness. That field game which can give the largest number of players the same enjoyment and exercise, and which can interest spectators to the degree never known in any other, is, I conceive the best; and when all cricketers in Montreal cannot muster more than half a dozen men for practice, while the twelve Lacrosse clubs in Montreal, and the other clubs in Canada each turn out on an average not less than twenty every day in the week, it is but fair to acknowledge that Lacrosse is the most popular, and the most popular should certainly become, especially with its recommendations, our national field game. We believe that we can consecrate our sports as well as our talents, to the advantage and benefit of our country; that we can develop manhood as well as muscle in a club and cultivate patriotism among us by making Lacrosse our national game; and as Englishmen can whip all creation at cricket, we hope, no matter how our game spreads, to be able to whip all creation at Lacrosse, as we have done - pardon the boast! - at boating. As cricket, wherever played by Britons, is a link of loyalty to bind them to their home, so may Lacrosse be to Canadians; we may yet find it will do as much for our young Dominion as the Olympian games did for Greece or cricket for the motherland.

W.G.B.

APPENDIX E

THE INTRODUCTION TO THE FIRST ISSUE OF ATHLETIC LIFE*

INTRODUCTORY

It is astonishing that in such a country as Canada, and more especially in such a city as Toronto, the very nursery of athletic pastimes, no effort has ever been made to establish a high-class journal devoted to the fostering of pure sport.

We launch our fledgling with perfect confidence that amongst our hardy northern race we are sure of support, not only sufficient to nourish our infant in a healthy and wholesome manner, but to give it that increase of wisdom and stature, as will render it a happy and useful member of our world at its more mature growth.

Our aim is to have a complete record of all games and pleasures, authenticated and under their proper heading, and to assist and encourage their development. In this we have been fortunate enough to secure the co-operation of recognized authorities in the different branches of sport, and with their assistance we shall seek to encourage all correspondence, under its own heading, as will serve to discuss various modes of procedure or suggested improvements. With this object in view, we have sought and obtained the sanction of some of the most influential clubs, to publish, under "their auspices" and as their "official organ." To those who have acceded to our request we tender hearty thanks. To those clubs which have not yet received our letter we say that you can help your favorite cause forward immensely if you will communicate with us and assist us in making Athletic Life your official announcer to the rest of the world.

We propose to devote sufficient space, under the various headings, to publish information as to club meetings, officers, notices, etc., etc., as will be interesting to the participators in that particular game, and what the officers want to say to their own club members, or what they want to say to the other clubs devoted to the same sport, they can say through these columns.

To this, by special request, we have added a "MILITARY DEPARTMENT," the objects of which will be found fully set out under its heading.

Pure, wholesome sport develops both body and mind, it is good for both old and young, its use is for male and female, it develops morality and raises the standard of mankind generally. Of one and all therefore, we ask support.

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*Athletic Life, V.1. (No. 1, January, 1895), p.1.

Not only do we hope to assist thus in the physical education, but it will be our aim to provide pleasant amusement by publishing with each number some good tale of fishing, shooting or sporting adventure.

THE EDITOR.

APPENDIX F

EARLY NOVA SCOTIA AND NEW BRUNSWICK PATENTS RELATED TO SPORT*

NOVA SCOTIA

No. 116. Forbes, John, of Halifax; Improvement in Skates, or Method of Attaching Skates to Boots; Oct. 23, 1863.

No. 135. Bateman, Thomas Wallace, of Halifax; Skate and Method of Attaching same to Boot; Dec. 29, 1864.

No. 139. Bayers, Rufus, of Halifax; Device for Fastening Skates to Boots; Jan. 30, 1865.

No. 171. Forbes, John, of Halifax; an Improved Skate, or Skate attached to the Boot without the aid of Straps or Plates; June 11, 1866.

No. 210½. Hodson, John Henry, of Bedford; A Safety Skate; Oct. 7, 1868.

No. 223. Grant, George, of New Glasgow; A Velocipede; April 16, 1869.

No. 229. Fenerty, E. Lawson, of Halifax; a New Skate; March 31, 1869.

NEW BRUNSWICK

No. 117. McKelvie, Thomas, and Smith, John G. (assignees of Thaddeus Hodgson, of Amherst or River Philip, N.S.), of Sackville; Improvement for the Fastening of Skates to Boots and Shoes; Sept. 23, 1865.

No. 136. Berryman, Campbell G., and Gallagher, Bernard, of Saint John; Improved Skate, or Improvement in the Apparatus for Fastening Skates to the Boot; Feb. 8, 1867.

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*From the files of the Canadian Patent Office, Ottawa, - personal visitation, 1969.

APPENDIX G

NOVA SCOTIA PATENT NO. 116 - JOHN FORBES, 1863.*

Province of Nova Scotia
Halifax

I John Forbes of the City of Halifax and Province of Nova Scotia Machinest do swear that I am the true inventor of a "new and improved mode of attaching skates to the feet" for which I solicit Letters Patents, and that such invention has not been known or used in this Province or any other country.

John Forbes

Sworn to before me
at Halifax this 23rd
day of October
A.D. 1863.

[Signature]

Commissioner of Supreme Court

Claim for improved mode of attaching skates to the feet.

I do not claim as part of my invention the clipping pieces for pinching the soles or heel of the Boot.

Nor do I claim the mode of drawing such clips or pinching pieces together, viz. by the means of a diagonally slotted plate, as both of these devices have been known and used before.

But what I claim as new, and the Invention I desire to secure by letters Patent is -

The mode of securing the runner to the body or foot rest, viz: by a hinge either at the heel or toe, or under the ball of the foot, and also the use of a link or togle connecting the runner with a sliding plate for communicating motion to the clips before mentioned the runner acting as a lever for moving the said sliding plate through the medium of the togle or link before mentioned. The whole constituting a simple efficient and extremely convenient arrangement for securing the skates to the feet without the use of straps or screws to be manipulated when on the ice, also being so arranged as to admit of adjusting to various sizes of boots and requiring no previous preparation of the boots with plates or other fittings.

John Forbes

Witnesses John Starr
Charles A. Clarke

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*Canadian Patent Office, Nova Scotia Patent No. 116 (John Forbes, Halifax, Nova Scotia: Improvement in Skates, or Method of Attaching Skates to Boots, October 23, 1863).

APPENDIX H

THE FORMATION OF THE MONTREAL CURLING CLUB, 1807*

- Curling Club -

Foot fair, draw to a hair,
Your stone being well directed,
You'll hit your aim and win the game
If you miss be not dejected.

Rules and Regulations to be observed by the Members.

1st. The Club is to meet every Wednesday at 12 o'clock to play till 3 and no member shall absent himself, without giving a sufficient excuse one day before, to The Secretary of the Club, that the party may otherwise be made up under the penalty of Two Clubs.

2nd. The Club shall meet at Gillis on Wednesday every fortnight at 4 o'clock to dine on Salt Beef and Greens. The Club Dinner and Wine shall not exceed seven shillings and six pence a head and any member infringing on this rule under any pretext whatever shall be liable to a fine of Four Clubs.

3rd. Each absent member shall pay his proportion of the Dinner only, and each member shall preside at table in rotation.

4th. No member shall ask a friend to dinner except the President and Vice President for the day, who may ask two each, but it is understood that gentlemen assisting in the game may be asked to dine at the expense of the Club.

5th. The Club shall not consist of more than twenty members, and in case of any member leaving the country, or wishing to retire from the Club, another may be elected by a majority of the other members.

6th. The Loosing [sic] Party of the day shall pay for a Bowl of Whisky Toddy to be placed in the middle of the table, for those who may chuse [sic] it.

Montreal, 22 January 1807.

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* Montreal Curling Club, 1807-1907. (Montreal: A booklet published by the Club, 1907), pp.19-21.

APPENDIX I

ONTARIO HOCKEY ASSOCIATION -

RULES OF PLAY, 1891*

1. The game is played on ice by teams of seven on each side, with a puck made of vulcanized rubber 1 inch thick all through and three inches in diameter. Hockey sticks shall not be more than three inches wide at any one part.

   A goal is placed in the middle of each goal line, composed of two upright posts, four feet in height placed six feet apart and at least five feet from the end of the ice. The goal posts shall be firmly fixed. In the event of the goal post being displaced or broken, the referee shall blow his whistle and the game shall not proceed until the post is replaced.

2. Each side shall have a member of his team act as Captain, who before the match shall toss for choice of goals.

   Each side shall play an equal time from each end. The duration of the Championship matches shall not be less than one hour, exclusive of stoppages. The team scoring the greater number of goals in that time shall be declared the winner of the match. If at the end of that time the game is a draw, ends shall be changed and the game continued until one side scores.

3. There shall be only one referee for a match, and in no case shall he belong to either of the competing clubs. He shall enforce the rules, adjudicate upon the disputes, or cases unprovided for by the rules; appoint the goal umpires; keep the time and the score; and at the conclusion of the match declare the result. The puck shall be considered in play until the referee stops the game, which he may do at any time, and which he must do at once, when any irregularity of play occurs, by sounding a whistle. His decision shall be final.

4. A goal shall be scored when the puck shall have passed between the goal posts from in front and below an imaginary line drawn across the top of the posts.

   Goal umpires shall inform the Referee when a goal is scored. Their decision shall be final.

5. The game shall be started and renewed by the Referee calling play after having placed the puck on its larger surface on the ice, between the sticks of two players, one from each team, who are to face it.

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*Reproduced from the Toronto Daily Mail, December 24, 1891.

6. A player is off-side if he is in front of the puck or when the puck has been hit, touched, or is being run with, by any of his own side behind him i.e. between himself and his goal line.

A player being off-side is put on-side when the puck has been hit by, or has touched the dress or person of any player of the opposite side, or when one of his own side has run in front of him, either with the puck or having played it when behind him.

If a player when off-side plays the puck or annoys or obstructs an opponent, the puck shall be faced where it was last placed before the off-side play occurred.

7. The puck may not be stopped by the hand except by the goal keeper (see rule 9) but may be stopped, but not carried or knocked on by any other part of the body. No player shall raise his stick above his shoulders. Charging from behind, tripping, collaring, kicking, cross-checking, or pushing shall not be allowed. And the referee may at his discretion, rule a player, who has infringed the above rule, off the ice for the game in progress or for the whole of that match.

8. When the puck goes off the ice behind the goal line it shall be brought out by the referee to a point five yards in front of the goal line on a line at right angles thereto from a point at which it left the ice, and there faced.

When the puck goes off the ice at the side, it shall be similarly faced three yards from the side.

9. The goal-keeper must not during play lie, sit or kneel upon the ice; he may, when in goal, stop the puck with his hands, but shall not throw or hold it.

10. No change of players shall be made after a match has commenced, except by reason of accident or injury during the game.

11. Should any player be injured during a match and compelled to leave the ice, his side shall have the option of putting on a spare man from the reserve to equalize the teams. In event of any dispute between the Captains as to the injured players fitness to continue the game, the matter shall be at once decided by the referee.

12. Should the game be stopped, the Referee by reason of infringement of any of the rules, or because of an accident or change of players, the puck shall be faced at the spot where it was last played before such infringement, accident or change of players shall have occurred.

It was further ruled that the Casby Challenge Cup shall be competed for by clubs in and under the regulations of the Association. No player shall play for the Cup for more than one club in the same association year, except in case of a bona fide change in residence....

The entrance fee to the Association was faced at two dollars and the annual subscription at three dollars. Clubs whose members average in age under fourteen years will not be admitted to membership, and all clubs in the Association must be composed of at least ten members (players). Any club being convicted of having in its membership professionals of any kind shall forfeit its membership in the Association.

An amateur was defined as- a person who has not, since 1882 (the date of formation of the Amateur Athletic Association of Canada) competed in any open competition, or for a stake, public or admission money, or entrance fee, or competed with or against professionals for a prize; who has never, at any period in his life taught, or assisted in the pursuit of any athletic exercise or sport as a means of livelihood; whose membership of any hockey clubs was not brought about or does not continue because of mutual agreement or understanding whereby becoming or continuing a member of such hockey club would be of any pecuniary benefit to him, either directly or indirectly, received any payment in lieu of loss of time while playing as a member of any hockey club, or any money considered whatever for any services rendered as a player except his actual travelling or hotel expenses.

APPENDIX J

SOURCES OF ILLUSTRATIONS

PLATE

1. Guillet, Early Life in Upper Canada, p.466.
2. Ibid., p.431.
3. Lillywhite, op.cit.
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid.
6. Ibid.
7. Glazebrook, et.al., op.cit., p.59.
8. Canadian Patent 2910 - author's file.
9. Ibid., 3107 - author's file.
10. Ibid., 47644 - author's file.
11. Ibid., 51452 - author's file.
12. Glazebrook, et.al., p.14.
13. Canadian Patent 3276 - author's file.
14. Ibid., 66649 - author's file.
15. Ibid., 36126 - author's file.
16. Ibid., 22608 - author's file.
17. Globe, Toronto, May 25, 1896.
18. de Volpi, The Niagara Peninsula. Plate 98 - from Canadian Illustrated News, July 12, 1873.
19. Globe, Toronto, April 10, 1897.
20. Durant and Bettman, op.cit., p.27.
21. An exhibit at the Ottawa Rowing Club - author's file.
22. Globe, Toronto, December 28, 1864.

23. Dartmouth Heritage Museum - photograph supplied by Peter Lindsay, Department of Physical Education, Dalhousie University, Halifax.

24. Canadian Patent 1348 - author's file.

25. Dartmouth Heritage Museum - photograph supplied by Peter Lindsay.

26. Ibid.

27. Globe, Toronto, April 3, 1897.

28. Ibid.

29. de Volpi, Toronto. Plate 100 - from Canadian Illustrated News, March 25, 1876.

30. de Volpi, The Niagara Peninsula. Plate 113 - from Canadian Illustrated News, July 12, 1873.

31. Ibid. Plate 98 - from Canadian Illustrated News, July 12, 1873.

32. Bull, op.cit., p.222.

33. Globe, Toronto, October 22, 1892.

34. Ibid.

35. Ibid.

36. Ibid.

37. de Volpi, Toronto. Plate 105 - from Canadian Illustrated News, February 10, 1877.

38. Ibid. Plate 106 - from Canadian Illustrated News, March 17, 1877.

39. Jenkins, op.cit. Plate 12.

40. Creighton, op.cit., p.30.

41. Globe, Toronto, July 28, 1896.

42. Ibid., April 3, 1897.

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