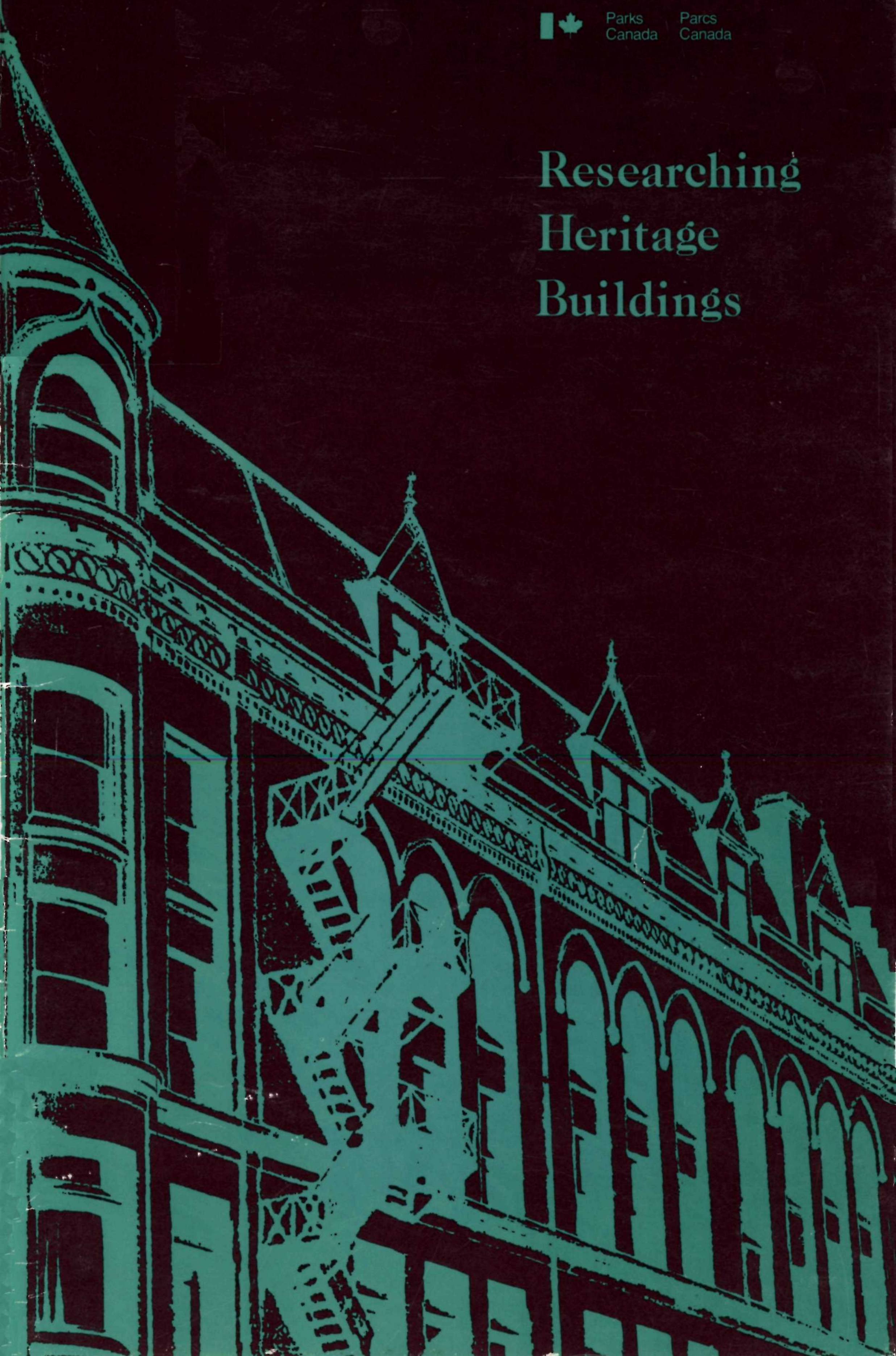
Parks Canada Parcs Canada

Researching Heritage Buildings



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Researching Heritage Buildings

Margaret Carter,
Canadian Inventory of
Historic Building,

Forward

This is the third of a series of Parks Canada booklets designed for those directly involved in classifying heritage buildings. The first booklet of this series *The Buildings of Canada* is a concise guide to Canadian architectural styles. The second booket *The Evaluation of Historic Buildings* presents guidelines for the evaluation of historic buildings. This third booket deals with the problems of researching heritage properties.

These booklets have been prepared under the sponsorship of the Canadian Inventory of Historic Building which was established in 1970 and subsequently developed into a major heritage resource centre.

This series is available, free of charge, by writing to the Canadian Inventory of Historic Building, Les Terrasses de la Chaudière, 10 Wellington Street, Hull, Quebec, Canada K1A 1G2.

RESEARCHING HERITAGE BUILDINGS
(Margaret Carter)

Introduction

This booklet has been written as a very basic guide to building research in Canada. It outlines a method for performing the research, and 10 of the most commonly used sources in Canadian building research today. It is intended as a starting point for the new researcher who is interested in learning something about the history of a specific building.

The information this booklet contains only touches upon a much larger subject area. Researchers who want to locate "everything that is available" will not find their answers here, nor will those with special problems. Such researchers should refer to M. Carter, *How to Research a Building in Canada* (Ottawa: Parks Canada, manuscript on file) for a more complete guide. Nevertheless, this booklet will provide the basics.

Tracing building research activities from the beginning to the end of a project is a relatively simple task. The researcher begins by asking questions about the building, then he locates historical sources and searches for answers. Once he has found the information available he analyses and evaluates it to produce a history of the building. With this completed, he writes a report on the findings. Each step of the process is described in this booklet.

Questions

The first step in researching a building is to decide what the researcher wants to know about the building. As this will affect how much time he spends doing the research and where he goes for answers, it is a very important stage. Most people are interested in researching buildings they know: buildings they own, live in, or grew up in, or buildings that are important in their communities. In each case, the building means something special to the researcher, and that "something" usually initiates questions about the building's history for which the researcher wants answers.

Some of the questions commonly asked are given in the list below under the general headings used for all building research. Once he has reviewed these, the researcher could choose some relevant questions and use them as a base to develop any special interest he has.

Commonly Asked Questions

Date of Construction
- When was the building built?
- Why was it built when it was?
- What problems were encountered while building it?

Alterations
- How has the building's appearance changed since it was built?
- When was each change made? and what was it?
- Why were these changes made?

Architect, Builder, and Craftsmen
- Who designed the building?
- Who built it?
- Why were these people chosen?
- Did they have any particular skills or training?
- Does the building show any evidence of their skill or lack of skill?
- What other buildings did they work on?

Style
- Where did the person designing the building get his idea for the design?
- What factors were important in choosing a design for the building?
- Does the building look like another building?

Owner
- Who was the original owner of the building?
- Who were the later owners?
- How long did each of these people own the building?
- Who were they?
- Why did each of them choose to own this particular building?

Occupants
- Who lived or worked in the building?
- For what time periods?
- Why did each of them choose this building?

Use
- How did different owners and occupants use the building?
- What served this function before this building was built?

Allocation of Space
- How did various owners and occupants arrange the interior space of the building?
- What did it look like when it was "furnished"?

Site
- Is this the building's original site or has it been moved?
- Were there other buildings on the same property?
- If so, what did they look like?
- Did the property have any special features that affected the design of the building?

Area
- What was the neighbourhood of the building when it was constructed?
- How has it changed?
- Is the building like any other building in the neighbourhood?

Materials
- What materials were used to build the building?
- What materials were used to alter the building?
- Where did they come from?
- What did they cost?
- Why were they chosen?

Construction Techniques
- Is the building assembled in an unusual way?

List of Canadian Archives

National

Public Archives of Canada
395 Wellington Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0N3

Provincial and Territorial

Provincial Archives of Newfoundland
Colonial Building
Military Road
St. John's, Newfoundland
A1C 2C9

Public Archives of Prince Edward Island
P.O. Box 1000
Charlottetown, Prince Edward Island
C1A 7M4

Public Archives of Nova Scotia
6016 University Avenue
Halifax, Nova Scotia
B3H 1W4

Provincial Archives of New Brunswick
Box 6000
Fredericton, New Brunswick
E3B 5H1

Archives Nationales du Québec à Montréal
100 est, rue Notre-Dame
Montréal, Québec
H2Y 1C1

Archives nationales du Québec
C.P. 10450
Sainte-Foy, Québec
G1V 4N1

Archives Nationales du Québec à Trois-Rivières
140, rue St.-Antoine, Suite 408
Trois-Rivières, Québec
G9A 5N6

Archives of Ontario
77 Grenville Street
Queen's Park
Toronto, Ontario
M7A 2R9

Provincial Archives of Manitoba
Manitoba Archives Building
Section B
Main Floor
200 Vaughan Street
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3C 0P8

Saskatchewan Archives Board,
Regina Office
University of Regina
Regina, Saskatchewan
S4S 0A2

Saskatchewan Archives Board
Saskatoon Office
Murray Memorial Building
University of Saskatchewan
Saskatoon, Saskatchewan
S7N 0W0

Provincial Archives of Alberta
12845 - 102 Avenue
Edmonton, Alberta
T5N 0M6

Provincial Archives of British Columbia
Parliament Buildings
Victoria, British Columbia
V8V 1X4

Provincial Archives of the Northwest Territories
Natural and Cultural Affairs
Government of the Northwest Territories
Yellowknife, Northwest Territories
X1A 2L9

Yukon Archives
Box 2703
Whitehorse, Yukon Territory
Y1A 2C6

City

Archives de la ville de Québec
C.P. 37
Hôtel de ville
Québec, Québec
G1R 4S9

Ville de Trois-Rivières
C.P. 368
Trois-Rivières, Québec

Ville de Montréal
Division des Archives
275 est, rue Notre-Dame
Montréal, Québec
H2Y 1C6

City of Ottawa Archives
174 Stanley Avenue
Ottawa, Ontario
K1M 1P1

City of Toronto Archives
City Hall
Toronto, Ontario
M5H 2N2

Borough of Scarborough
Central Records
Scarborough Civic Centre
150 Borough Drive
Scarborough, Ontario
M1P 4N7

Borough of York Archives
2700 Eglinton Avenue West
Toronto, Ontario
W6W 1C1

City of Winnipeg Archives
Archives and Records Control
380 William Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R7N 2K3

City of Edmonton Archives
Edmonton Parks and Recreation
10105 - 112 Avenue
Edmonton, Alberta
T5G 0H1

Vancouver City Archives
1150 Chestnut Street
Vancouver, British Columbia
V6J 3J9

Victoria City Archives
613 Pandora Avenue
Victoria, British Columbia
V8W 1P6

Where to Go to Find Answers

A creative researcher can find building information in many places including government offices, older residents of the community, businesses, industries, and the site of the building itself. More formal research collections are held by archives, libraries, museums, and historical societies. As the second group deliberately collects sources useful for building research, a researcher is well advised to begin there.

ARCHIVES

Archives are depositories created to hold papers from an earlier time. They may be operated by religious organizations, cultural groups, city or local governments, regional institutions, private foundations, universities, businesses, or provincial and national governments. Each of these archives was created to hold papers of a particular type; however, many of them contain related materials as well. Their specific holdings are outlined in Robert S. Gordon (dir.) and E. Grace Maurice (ed.), *Union List of Manuscripts in Canadian Repositories* (Ottawa: Public Archives of Canada, rev. 1975 and up-dated 1976, 1977-78).

The list opposite gives the addresses of the national, provincial, territorial, and city archives in Canada which act not only as major depositories but also as clearing houses for archival information in their own geographical areas.

LIBRARIES

Although no list of Canadian public libraries has been published, these can usually be found in a telephone directory in the area concerned. Libraries with special research collections or particular types of holdings can be located in either the National Library of Canada's *Federal Government Libraries in Canada: A List* (Ottawa: Library Documentation Centre, 1977) or the National Library of Canada's *Canadian Library Directory: University, College and Special Libraries* (Ottawa: Library Documentation Center, 1976). These works contain both addresses and descriptions of the general contents of collections, and notations of published collection guides. Copies of these catalogues are available in the reference sections of most libraries, large and small.

MUSEUMS AND HISTORICAL SOCIETIES

Museums and historic sites organizations provide a focal point and often a headquarters for the activities of many historical societies. At the local level, museums and historical societies are the agencies most immediately interested in historical matters and artifacts in their neighbourhoods. They frequently have the best collections of local books, papers, photographs, and other artifacts. Citizens with knowledge and interest in the history of their communities are usually active in these groups and can be contacted through them.

The best index of museums and local historical societies is published by the Canadian Museums Association on a biannual basis. It is called the *Directory of Canadian Museums: Répertoire des musées canadiens* and is available in most public libraries.

What to Look For

Information on buildings is available in a wide variety of forms. It can be written, visual, verbal, or physical. No matter what it looks like, anything that provides evidence about some fact or event is called a "source." Ten of the most common sources used in Canadian building research are discussed on the following pages. They include directories and gazetteers, tax or assessment rolls, land titles, local newspapers, personal papers, historical visuals, fire insurance plans and atlases, bird's eye views, building plans and elevations, and datestones. They have been chosen because they contain information on most types of buildings across Canada. The researcher should not despair if he cannot find enough information in these sources, for many, many more exist.

The researcher is a "detective" who must not only locate information, but must also be able to evaluate it. One important factor in making this evaluation is the proximity of the person giving the evidence (i.e. writing the letter, or the book) to the event. If, for example, the researcher is using the daily diary of the head of a building committee to obtain information on the construction of a church, the evidence should be very reliable. Not only was it prepared by a person who witnessed the events that occurred at committee meetings, but the diary entries were written daily as the meetings happened. Such a diary would be more reliable than, for example, a "memoir" or book written by the same man many years later, for he may have forgotten some details in the intervening time. On the other hand, both of these would probably be more trustworthy sources than an account written by a church historian at a 50th anniversary celebration, for his account would necessarily be second-hand.

The "proximity" rule has to be applied with care, however, for the head of the building committee might have had opinions that no one else on the committee shared. The church historian may have investigated the other members of the committee and his account might better reflect the opinions of the whole group. In such a situation, the researcher must check all the sources used by the church historian - not only the diary of the head of the building committee - to see what evidence exists. Whenever possible, evidence that a researcher presents should be supplied by more than one source. More importantly, each piece of evidence should be assessed for credibility against its contemporary milieu. A researcher's ability to do this depends on his knowledge and understanding of the history of the time period and the subject area he is working in; this can only be gained by experience, reading, and training. An awareness of the limits of the source materials being used is also an asset, and so wherever possible, these are given in the summaries on sources that follow. Common sense is also a great help.

Whatever sources are used and whatever information is found, it is always important to remember that sources containing more accurate evidence may yet be discovered. This is a simple fact of research. *Any piece of research is only as good as evidence provided by sources available at the time the research was conducted.* For this reason, it is important to include footnotes, endnotes, or references in the text of any work that is prepared to indicate the origin of each piece of evidence. Although a researcher can be criticized for ignoring material available, he cannot be held responsible for missing evidence in sources undiscovered or inaccessible. Consequently, it is also important to date every piece of work that is completed.

The researcher might find it useful to develop a method of noting the title and other reference information (*see* "Writing") for each source as he performs his research.

DIRECTORIES AND GAZETTEERS

Directories and gazetteers are yearly publications produced to allow people or businesses to locate one another with ease. The most common type of directory or gazetteer was published for a town or city, although specialized versions were also printed for businesses, rural areas, or within a province or portion of a province. These works were usually compiled by private companies and sold either to subscribers or on the open market.

To some extent, directories did act as a vehicle of local boosterism. As well as giving the precise geographical and postal location of each centre they described, they usually contained information about the centre's founding, population, and economic development. Frequently, they identified the location of major public buildings in the areas, and they almost always described the construction of new public buildings in detail. Rural directories often printed maps which located land-owners on township plots. Most directories and gazetteers published local advertisements which are helpful in determining the type of construction materials or manufacturing facilities available in a neighbourhood. Many also included business listings by type of business enterprise. These provide a ready list of architects, construction companies, and building supply retailers, wholesalers, and manufacturers.

Most city or town directories and many gazetteers also contain detailed listings of residents by surname, address, and occupation. Although many omit either the address or occupational category, details from directory or gazetteer listings can be analysed to provide extremely useful information. When addresses are given, for example, it is possible to determine how many people are living in one building - in other words, a list of its occupants. This is also true of businesses occupying common quarters. Address information gathered from a series of directories over a number of years can permit the researcher to establish a clear pattern of building occupancy over a long period of time. It can also be used to establish a rough map outlining the use of buildings in particular parts of the town or city, for the information a directory contains will allow a researcher to "populate" a street survey map. The appearance of a new building can also be detected through the use of addresses.

Occupancy listings compiled from a directory can provide a socio-economic picture of the residents or businesses occupying a particular structure. A detailed breakdown of the information contained in such listings will also reveal the size of a

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Ryerson Margaret, wid Henry, h 36 Argyle
Rymes James, seaman, h 29 Gerrish
Rynhall Frederick, laborer, h Campbell road
Saddler Clement, laborer, h 50 Summer
Saddler Sophia, variety, 58 Duke, h do
Saddler William, laborer, 58 Duke
Sage James, clerk control department, h 111 Gottingen
Sage James, clerk, h 111 Gottingen
Saint John, seaman, h Kavanaugh's lane
Salem church, Argyle
Sallis Isaac, liquor, 52 Duke, h 50 do
Salmon Charles, engineer R.N., h 249 Creighton
Salt and Grain Measurer's office, Market wharf
Salter Arthur F., clerk, h 185 Pleasant
SALTER BENJAMIN W., agent O. M. I. association, 48 Bedford row, h 185 Pleasant
Salter John, barber, h 8 Duke
Salter Thomas, stevedore, h 78 and 80 Grafton
Salter William, master mariner, h 8 Duke
Salter William, jun., clerk, h 185 Pleasant
Salter William, jun., fireman tug Whitney, h Argyle
Salterio James, of Ruggles & Salterio, h 9 Granville
Salterio Thomas A., soliciting agent, h off 191 Lockman
Salterio Thomas L., bookbinder, h 187 Lockman
Sampson William, seaman, h 194 Creighton
Samson Samuel, shoemaker, bds 101 Argyle
Sanderson Emma, wid H. P., h 117 Pleasant
SANFORD GEORGE A., N. S. Steam Marble works, 82 to 86 Argyle, h 38 Sackville
Sargent Mary, wid John, h 194 Lockman

J. L. French, Carpenter & Undertaker, Buckingham, cor. Grafton St.

This page is taken from one of the most useful types of city directories. It lists each person, giving his occupation, name, and address. Other directories may give only occupation or address, or simply an alphabetical list of names. *(McAlpine, Everett & Co., pub, McAlpine's Halifax City Directory, 1874-75 (Montreal: Lovell, 1874), p. 304, Public Archives of Canada, C 114590.)*

business by supplying a list of its employees. Such a list can be extremely useful in determining the allocation of interior building space. Specific occupational listings will allow the researcher to trace quickly the career of an architect, builder, or craftsman within a centre - indeed a compilation of listings within one directory will provide a useful outline of the size of the building industry, and these can be compared from year to year to determine its composition. The same technique can be used for building material suppliers and manufacturers.

Despite all of the possibilities given above, the simplest and most useful application of directories and gazetteers remains the facility they provide researchers who are trying to track down "a name." "Names" can be easily located by the simple search for an alphabetical entry, and once they have been found they link the person with one or more buildings. This is the purpose for which directories, and gazetteers were designed, and they serve it admirably.

Limitations

Despite their obvious virtues, there are some research problems inherent in the use of gazetteers and directories. Some of them, for example, contain only the names of residents with no accompanying addresses or occupations. Other problems are not so readily apparent. The first is that such works were published once a year: this means that the information they contain was gathered at one point in time, and is only good for the day or series of days on which it was collected. Changes that occurred during the year were not recorded as they happened. The second is that information was often gathered at the end of the preceding year: this means, for example, that information for a city directory for the year 1865 was probably collected in November or December of 1864. It may not give an accurate picture in 1865 at all. Another limitation is caused by the fact that directories were not published as public services, but as commercial enterprises, and often people had to pay a subscription fee to have their names entered on the record. If they did not pay, they were not included, and therefore the record the directory gives is not complete. Even if inclusion in the directory itself was free, businesses usually had to pay to be listed in the business directory section for the year; consequently, the researcher will probably find more buildings of a particular use-type (e.g. sawmills) by flipping through the regular listing pages than by looking in the classified "business" portion at the back of the book. Householders also may not have been home the day the collector appeared to record the necessary information, and as a result their names could be missing.

Another frequent omission is secondary buildings such as commercial warehouses where no one lived or worked on a regular basis. If a resarcher compiles a detailed "map" of town space allocation and growth entirely from directory listings, there will be empty lots in crucial areas. Comparisons of such compilations with historical photographs for the same year reveal that "empty" lots were occupied by commercial warehouses or similar buildings. Furthermore, any researcher using a sequence of directories to trace a building should realize that street names and numbers frequently changed without notice. In such a situation it can be safer to rely on the names of the occupants to establish continuity than to depend on building addresses, although even this method is subject to error. When attempting to date a building using a directory or gazetteer, it is often a good idea to work backward from a certain date obtained from another source (e.g. a photograph) and use data on neighbouring buildings to double-check the findings. Frequently, historians will check directories at 5-year intervals for the consistency of building listings, then concentrate a more precise yearly search within the 5-year time span when changes occurred.

Dorothy E. Ryder has recently published a *Checklist of Canadian Directories 1790-1950/Répertoire des annuaires canadiens* (Ottawa: National Library of Canada, 1979). It lists all of the directories for Canadian centres known to be held in major Canadian libraries and other holding depositories.

TAX OR ASSESSMENT ROLLS

Tax rolls are the yearly accounts kept by the local clerk recording taxes levied and paid in this area. The clerk may be an agent of a town, city, township, or county - whichever is the lowest unit legally entitled to levy taxes. As municipal or city tax rolls are the most common form of assessment roll used in building research, and also the most complicated type of tax roll in the information they list, they have formed the base of the information given below. Tax rolls kept by other levels of government contain the same type of information in less detailed form.

Assessment rolls usually contain the name of the building's owner, often identified by an "F" for "freeholder" or an "O" for owner. They also give his address and/or occupation - information that is particularly useful in a case where the owner lives in a different city. If the building is run by an agent, is in an executor's hands, or is occupied by an agreement in which the mortgagor pays the taxes, this person or agency is listed as well, usually identified by a "c/o" which indicates that tax bills are to be submitted to the second person. In situations where a building is leased to a party who is responsible for paying the municipal taxes, the name of the responsible party is listed as well as his address and occupation. Sometimes, however, there is nothing to indicate that this person is a *tenant: if the researcher has reason to* suspect this might be the case, tax rolls should be cross-checked with land titles to determine ownership. On the other extreme, some municipal tax rolls include a complete list of building tenants and their occupations in addition to land-owners, whether the tenants pay taxes or not.

In such situations, tenants are often identified by a "T." It is often possible to determine the building's occupancy status and use more precisely from assessment information.

Tax rolls usually contain a column listing figures for any or all of the following categories.

Value of land - Assessed value of the land or physical space which the site occupies. (This is usually not the same as market value - a separate scale is established by the local government.)

Value of buildings and improvements - The value of the buildings on the land which is assessed according to assessment criteria stipulated locally (number of storeys, etc.).

Value of personal property - The value of the additional property the owner or tenant has on the land (furniture, machinery, etc.). This, too, is assessed according to a scale set by the local government.

Value of accessible income - This is the value of the taxable income of the owner that is related to his activities on the property. It does not appear in tax rolls after the First World War, when personal income taxes were introduced. During the time when this was a factor on tax rolls, however, tenants in industrial and commercial buildings are always listed.

Mill on the dollar - This is the percentage of tax paid on each dollar of assessed value. A mill is 1/1000 of a dollar, and each of the "values" listed above (land, improvements, personal property, accessible income) is usually taxed according to a different mill rate.

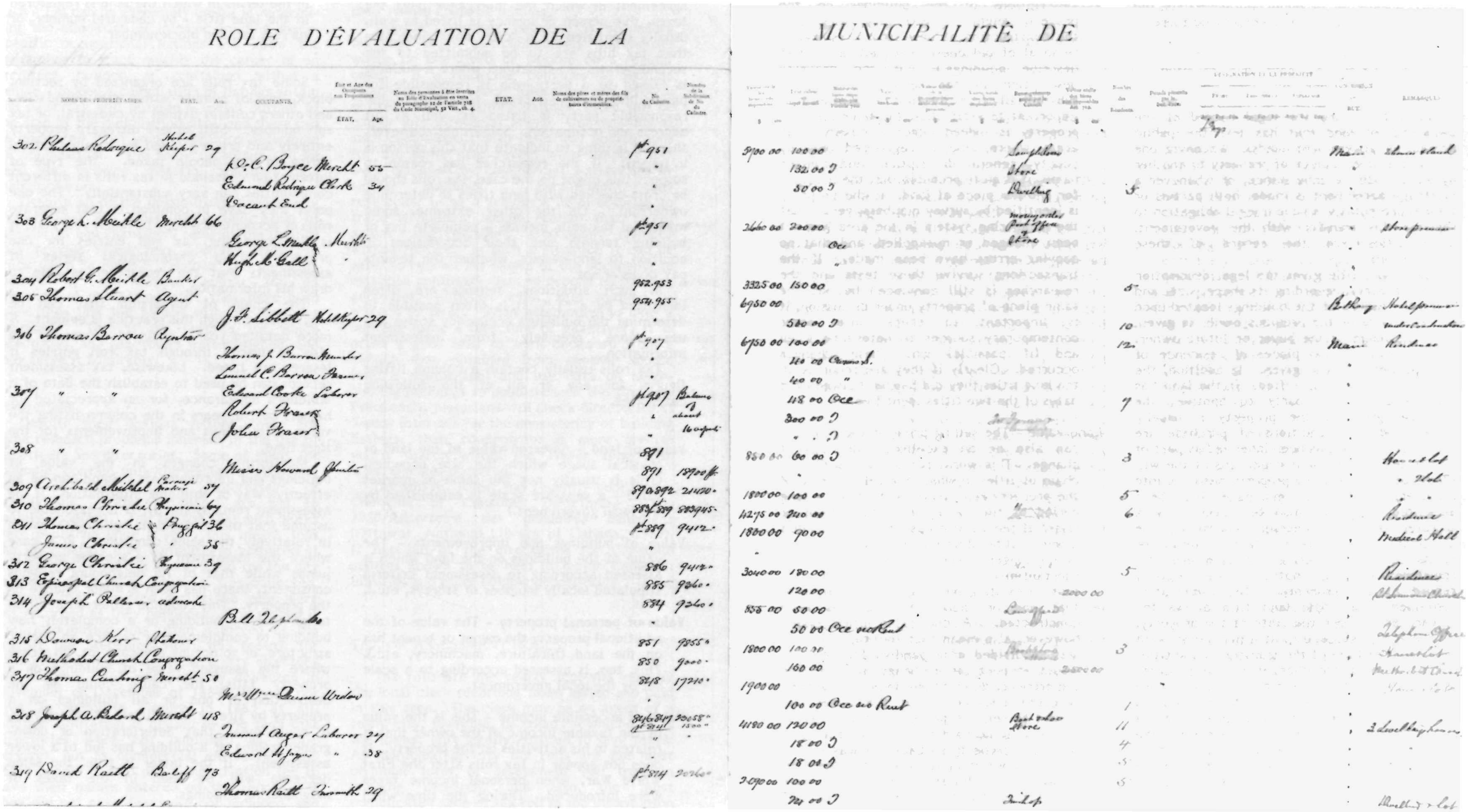
Description of the land - This is usually given in the terms in which the land is registered in the land title - by cadastral number, or survey, lot, and block number.

Some tax rolls are organized by section, block, and lot number within city boundaries, and others contain listings by cadastral, or tax roll number. Still others disregard property entirely and are organized by an alphabetical *listing of the people taxed. The type of* information contained in tax rolls in different communities can vary substantially. The one point they have in common is that separate rolls or accounts are kept for each year, and it is by comparing tax roll entries for one property in a chronological series of assessments that the researcher is able to draw his information.

The chain of ownership that can be established through this practice is evident. A more detailed yearly chain of occupancy can also be traced through tax roll entries if lessees are listed. Likewise, tax assessment records can be used to establish the date of a building's appearance, for an appreciated (or higher) cost appears in the column listing the value of buildings and improvements for the first time.

Monitoring changes in the value of buildings and improvements column can be an effective way of obtaining information. If the assessment remains steady, it is reasonable to assume that the land and its building(s) remain in relatively the same condition. In a case where the assessment of a specific property jumps while that of its neighbours remains consistent, there has been a major change on the property. This could be either an addition to an existing building or a completely new building to complement or replace an earlier structure, or to occupy a vacant lot. In a case where the assessed value of buildings on a property falls, the cause could be the destruction of one or all buildings on a property by fire or demolition. Alternatively, it could mean that deterioration or down-graded zoning of a building has led to a lower assessment. If the latter is true, the same decrease will be seen in the taxes of neighbouring buildings.

Tax rolls will register when a building has been abandoned, and they will also note when taxes on a property have not been paid. As the property reverts to the local government "in lieu" of taxes, tax rolls will provide evidence that this has taken place before such evidence can be found in land titles. Indeed, as the more immediate overseer of local events, tax rolls often contain changes of ownership before they are registered in land titles, particularly in parts of the country



These pages are from the assessment rolls of the city of Lachute, Argenteuil Co., Quebec, 1891. They are organized by cadastral number. (*Public Archives of Canada, MG 8 F 136, p. 14.*)

where land transactions are not always carried out on a formal basis.

It is important to remember that when tax rolls record the appearance of a building on a lot, they do not describe the building. The building may be a new one, but it could just as easily be an older structure moved onto the lot from another location. Furthermore, tax rolls do not include information on buildings owned by agencies that do not pay taxes such as churches or governments (of all levels).

Assessment rolls are local government documents; consequently, they are usually found at the municipal (township or county) clerk's office where the record originates. Current information in these files may be considered confidential. Old tax rolls may have been buried in dead storage areas where they are forgotten - or destroyed. If a city archives, museum, or public library exists, old tax rolls may also have been deposited there.

LAND TITLES

Land titles are the legal record of the ownership of land that has left the public domain (or government hands). Whenever one person transfers a piece of property to another by sale, lease, or inheritance, or whenever a mortgage agreement is made, both parties or their representatives have a legal obligation to register this transfer with the government. Land titles are the record of these registrations.

Each land title gives the legal description of the property, recording its shape, size, and often the nature of the buildings located upon it. The name of the previous owner is given, as is the name of the buyer or future owner. The occupations and places of residence of both parties are also given. In addition, the type of transfer is specified. If the land has been sold by one party to another, the purchase price of the property is usually listed, and the conditions of purchase are given. If the land has been inherited as part of an estate, the pertinent conditions of the will should be stated. If the property has gone into receivership or the mortgage has been defaulted, this will also be covered by a transfer of land ownership containing the circumstances. Any mortgages, liens, or rights of way affecting the land are also registered and duly noted on the registry record of the property. The information contained in a single land title allows the researcher to learn the state of the property, its ownership, value, etc. at a particular point in time - the time of the transfer. Land titles do not account for changes in the property while the property is held by the same owner; however, the changes that have occurred under one owner can be evaluated by a comparison of two land titles - one when the original transfer to the owner is made, and a second when he transfers the property to the next owner. Indeed, a review of a "chain of land titles" or list of the contents of all land titles for a particular property can give an overview of its development. Subjects that provide a base for such comparisons are property description and land value. A discussion and explanation of the most common variations in these areas follows.

Property description - If dimensions of a property change from one land title to another, more land may have been added to the original lot by an owner, or the land itself may have been subdivided. Descriptions of the buildings on the property might likewise vary, suggesting the construction of new structures and/or removal of old ones. (Not all land titles describe buildings.) If the property description in the second title varies substantially from the first description it is important to verify that the same piece of property is indeed under discussion. In areas where land is registered only by county, general description, and owner's name, it is quite probable that the listing is for another piece of land. If the property is identified by survey numbers, verify that the numbering system in the area has not been changed or misapplied, and that no copying errors have been made. If the transactions survive these tests and the researcher is still convinced he has the same piece of property under discussion, it is important to check into other contemporary sources to determine when and (if possible) why these changes occurred. Clearly if they are recorded in the land titles they did happen between the dates of the two titles identified.

Land value - The selling price of the property can also be an excellent indication of change. This works particularly well in a chain of titles in which the selling price of the property remains consistent for a long period of time and then either drops or rises. If the value drops, it is possible that a principal building that had existed earlier is no longer there. If the value rises substantially, this could be an indication that an existing building was improved, or that one or more new buildings were constructed. A change in price could, however, also mean that the property itself was subdivided or expanded, for this too would account for a change in value, and the property description should be checked. It could also mean that the owner was forced to sell the property at a price far below what he paid for it, or that a buyer wanted a property so badly he was willing to pay more than its value to obtain it. Inflation or deflation may also have occurred so that the price paid in fact had the same value even though the figures look disproportionate. Land values may have fluctuated in a similar way. The only way to cross-check either of these explanations is to check surrounding property values to see if the same conditions existed. As land titles do not give a running record of changes, but only conditions (and by comparison changes) that existed at the time of land transfers, chains of titles are often a useful way to isolate the time periods when changes occurred. When data remain consistent, change is unlikely. Periods where data have altered should be investigated more thoroughly in other sources.

Limitations

Land titles are an excellent source of information for research on privately owned buildings, but they are useless for public buildings because government property is usually held through the original reserve. This is often true of religious property located on original clergy reserves as well.

Even then, land titles are only successful as a source of building information when the owner has "played the game," i.e. registered the amount he actually paid for the property, or indeed registered the property at all. Canadian "handshake" deals were a common means of land transfer agreement outside (and even inside) many urban centres. As a result, Crown grants for property may exist, then no land titles will be registered for the next 50 - 100 years. Large gaps in titles may be found where one transaction is recorded naming two parties and another transaction appears 50 years later identifying the land clearly, but giving two completely different names as participants in the transaction. Once the legal thread has been dropped, it is possible for a person to obtain clear title to a piece of property by fulfilling some pre-conditions; however, these vary under different land jurisdictions in Canada.

How to Search Land Titles

Land is a provincial responsibility; consequently, land registries are located and kept according to provincially organized systems. Fortunately, the system used by the federal government to register territorial land does not differ substantially from that applied in some provinces. As a result, Canadian land registry systems can be subdivided into three general types, and each is handled below under the areas within which it applies.

British Columbia, southern Ontario, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland - As the registry of land in each of these provinces was a county responsibility while the province was still a colony under the British government, land titles are found today in county registry offices. (These are usually located in or near the county court-house, and listed in the local telephone directory. In some areas, land titles have been microfilmed by the Mormons and are available in provincial archives.) In the early days, not all counties within a single colony (or province) elected to record the same information in the same way; as a result land titles can vary substantially both in the type of information they contain and the way in which that information is filed. Fortunately, researchers have adopted a general method for working with these problems. In some provinces (and in some areas of provinces) titles have to be traced from owner to owner. In such a system, the researcher has to begin with a recent owner and work backwards looking for the previous owner cited on each title he finds. A researcher working within such a system must be extremely careful to check the property description to ensure that the same piece of property is concerned in each transaction, for a single owner can own more than one piece of land. Once the inquiry has "gone astray" in such a system the researcher can become hopelessly lost as files are often kept by transaction number without any regard for year. In some cases, it is possible to recover from such a tangle by locating the name of the original grantee of the property as he is named in the Crown grant. The first subsequent owner is then traced by thumbing through all of the land transactions bearing the "grantee's" name - a lengthy process if he is a developer -until the correct property description has been located. The researcher then works forward from this point using the name of each new owner. The same general system can be used in other provinces that file transactions according to property descriptions. These can be traced through indexes listing the names and numbers of the transactions concerning a particular piece of land.

Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, northern Ontario, Yukon, and Northwest Territories - As all of these areas except northern Ontario either are or were once administered under the Northwest Territories Act, they all evolved from the same basic system of organization established by the Canadian federal government. The government of Ontario also followed this framework in northern Ontario. The system itself divides the area into administrative districts; consequently, land titles can be located at the District Registry Office (this can be easily located by asking a local lawyer or consulting the directory for the central town in the area). Although systems of filing may vary slightly from one province to another (because provinces have the right to make any changes they require), most land titles in these areas are filed by survey designation (lot and site or section and segment). Yearly volumes usually contain indexes which list the properties for which transactions have been recorded. The researcher can consult these indexes until he finds years that record transactions for the property being investigated, and then search titles for those years. From time to time, indexes also exist that will list the dates of all transactions involving a particular piece of property. These, too, reduce the workload, for a researcher need only request the appropriate titles.

Quebec - Generally speaking the system of land registry used in Quebec after the mid-19th century is the same as the system described for British Columbia, southern Ontario, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland. Before this time, Quebec operated under property transaction rules established during the French Régime which employed private notaries in much the same capacity as government registrars.

Notarial papers or "greffes des notaires" include deeds, wills, marriage contracts, gifts, and other records which (among other things) concern land ownership. A "chain" of these documents can be compiled to determine the complete record of a building ownership. As a rule, notarial contracts describe the nature of a transaction between two parties and often give peripheral information such as their addresses or an explanation of why the transaction is necessary. When the transaction itself involves property, the notarial document frequently describes property size, the number and nature of buildings located upon it, other identifying features such as neighbouring lands or physical characteristics, and a precise notarial reference to the previous land transfer.

These property descriptions may be so precise that a researcher can determine that a new building, additions, or other repairs have occurred (although notarial contracts for these works may also be recorded). The researcher must watch for such description changes, for they are often unanticipated. One particularly important thing to remember in working with notarial records is that physical property descriptions must match, for pieces of land are not identified in any other way and one owner could own two or more separate properties at the same time.

Land Title Vocabulary

The definitions of some of the common land title terms follow. Except for sections indicated by parentheses, the definitions below have been excerpted from Datinder S. Sodhi, pub., and R.S. Vasan, ed.-in-chief, *The Canadian Law Dictionary* (Toronto: Law and Business Publications (Canada) Ltd., 1980). This work should be consulted for further references.

Bargain and sale - a contract for the sale of any estate or interest in land or chattels (other property) followed by the payment of the purchase price.

Consideration - some right, interest, profit, or benefit accruing to one party of a contract, or some forebearance, detriment, loss, or responsibility given, suffered, or undertaken by the other. (In building research, this usually means the "purchase price" in a bargain and sale contract.)

Deed - a writing on paper, vellum, or parchment, signed, sealed, and delivered whereby an interest, right, or property passes (from one party to another)....a conveyance of real estate.

Estate - the degree, quantity, nature, and extent of interest which a person has in real property. (This term most commonly occurs in building research when property is transferred from the estate of a deceased person to that of his heir.)

Grant - a deed of transfer or conveyance of land or any interest therein. (A grant does not include a payment in money or goods, although it is often made with conditions on occupancy, use, and/or improvement of the land which must be met before the grant is confirmed.)

Grantor - a person who makes a grant.

Grantee - a person to whom a grant is made.

Lien - any charge for a payment of debt or duty upon either real or personal property .... a form of security ... (which) can only attach to property which is or has been the subject of a transaction between the parties (i.e. a workman's lien against work he has performed on a building ensures he will receive payment for his work before the building is sold to another owner).

Mortgage - a conveyance of land or an assignment of chattels as security for the payment of a debt, or the discharge of some other obligation for which it is given; the security is redeemable on the payment or discharge of such debt or obligation. (In building research, this usually refers to a contract in which one party borrows money from another, using land and/or building(s) as collateral.)

Mortgagee - one who takes a mortgage as security for a loan.

Mortgagor - he who gives a mortgage as security for a loan.

Quit claim - a release of a person for or from any action, claim, right, interest, etc. which the releasor had or might have against him.

Right of way - a right to pass from one point to another across another person's land in a course defined either expressly in the grant or by implication according to the use to which it is to be put.

Abbreviations which commonly appear in land titles include the following:
w.o.l. - with all lands.
a.o.l. - all other land.
D.M. - discharged mortgage.
B.& S. - bargain and sale.
Q.C. - quit claim.

The key to locating information in the "greffes des notaires" is to know the name of the notary concerned. This can often be obtained in the seigneurial "terriers" (*see* "Personal Papers") where a list of the major transactions will also be given, or in indexes of names or property during a later period at the local registry office. When the researcher cannot locate the name of the appropriate notary in these files, he must search the papers of local notaries who might have been involved in the transaction until he finds the name of the appropriate proprietor. Needless to say, this process starts at the earliest rather than the most recent date because there are fewer documents to review. This is not usually a difficult search in a small geographical area; however, in large urban centres casting about for the appropriate notary can be a major task.

For further information regarding the use of notarial documents as a source, the researcher should consult Suzanne Bernier-Héroux, Monique La Grenade-Meunier, Barbara Salomon de Friedberg, and Henri-Paul Thibault, *Votre Maison ... ...son Histoire* (Gouvernement du Québec: Ministère des Affaires culturelles, 1977), Dossier 33, and Naomi Blanchard, *Methodology for Local History Research for Use in Municipal Planning* (Pointe Claire, Québec: Federation of Canadian Municipalities, 1978).

Problems

Computerized indexes of land titles are now being compiled in most provinces. In the meantime, however, some registry offices levy a charge for every title pulled. Searching chains of titles on several buildings can, therefore, be an expensive business. In addition, registry offices can limit the number of titles they will pull for any one researcher in one day. These things tend to discourage building reseachers from using an otherwise valuable source. Not all registries are so difficult to live with, however, and it is worth making a try before you decide land titles are a source that cannot be used.

LOCAL NEWSPAPERS

As local newspapers played the dual role of town booster and news informant, they sometimes recorded building and building-related information in minute detail. These journals promoted "public improvement" assiduously, and in its name chronicled the demolition of substandard, old-fashioned, or otherwise "unpleasing" buildings. Conversely, they viewed building construction as a sign of "progress," and would comment on the most obscure structures. Building starts were frequently totalled in annual special editions as a sign of community prosperity.

Public buildings provided ready copy on a regular basis. The first notice of a city hall or custom house could appear when the decision was made to erect it; a second might announce a competition for its design; others might discuss alternate designs; a further notice might announce the selection of the architect and publish his plans; another might award the contract to the builder; further progress reports were sometimes made as the building was under construction; a record of the cornerstone laying often appeared; and all this might be completed by several detailed descriptions of the building as it opened for operations. Public buildings were sometimes featured in annual special editions of the paper during the year of their construction, and sometimes at 10-, 25-, and 50-year anniversaries.

Aside from these very direct comments on specific buildings, information on factors affecting building construction was incorporated in local newspapers. Legislation regulating the materials that could be used for construction was reported as soon as it was passed. By-laws restricting the siting, shape, function, and contents of structures were also announced. Political controversies about building standards - the need to clean up unsightly areas, or erect brick and stone buildings to obtain insurance coverage - were featured items. These not only explain why buildings have the appearance they do, but also when they were probably constructed.

Fires, floods, and other natural catastrophes influencing building construction and repair were also reported. Articles on these topics usually included a clear definition of the area destroyed, and an estimate of the damages; from time to time they also contained a listing of the specific buildings, and notices on the owners' intentions to rebuild or relocate. Rebuilding of the area was reported as it took place. In addition, construction accidents and strikes in the building trades which explained delays in construction were carefully followed.

The newspaper also functioned as a public service information agency, and in this role it provides further evidence for building researchers. Personal announcements might contain information about building owners and changes in ownership. When they can be located, articles on particular citizens often mention their business and residential premises in addition to the architects who designed them. Marriage and death notices sometimes gave these addresses as well. Lists of people leaving town or arriving can also provide limiting dates for occupancy. Social and recreational announcements, or reports on events, might contain a description of the building in which the event was to take place. Reports on the function could also give an indication of the interior arrangement of the building, especially when a photograph or sketches were included. From time to time, public service notices also apeared requesting citizens to clear a certain street at a particular time of day while "Mr. X moved his house from one point to another." Curiosities in building materials or construction were noted as items of interest, but also as a means of informing the readership that a solution to a common problem had been found.

Business announcements might record the change in occupancy of a particular structure - usually noting both the proprietor's old location, and the site of his new premises. Other announcements stated that architects, builders, or tradesmen had arrived in the town to set up a business. These articles often described the extent of the facilities they intended to set up, and from time to time reports on business progress were given which mention previous contracts performed by the firm. When they appear, announcements of new industries manufacturing building materials, and descriptions of the capabilities of the industries that existed, are also a good source of information. The establishment or improvement of brick works, sawmills, stone quarries, sheet metal manufactories, building paper factories, etc. might be described to give an indication of the town's industrial capabilities and potential as well as to encourage consumers to buy locally. Some newspapers also printed regular reports on the meetings of building societies, or public investment companies involved in the mass construction of housing. As these companies often financed construction or dealt in property (and their records are not always readily available) the newspaper can provide an interesting insight into lower and middle class dwellings.

The announcements above are really articles, printed for public interest to encourage improvement as well as dispense information. They were printed for free as part of the newspaper's information function; consequently, they are distinct from the ads that abundantly sprinkled journal pages, providing the newspaper's major source of revenue. Advertisements of buildings for sale or rent might identify owners and building locations. As an added bonus to building researchers, they sometimes included a spatial description of the interior of the structure that gave the location of its rooms and listed its amenities. Notices of property or household contents auctions can also supply information on locations, residents, and life-styles. Purchases of new buildings were recorded from time to time, as new owners presented tenders for improvement contracts. Tenders for architects, contractors, and materials were usually advertised for public buildings, and sometimes appeared for private ones as well. These may also include specifications.

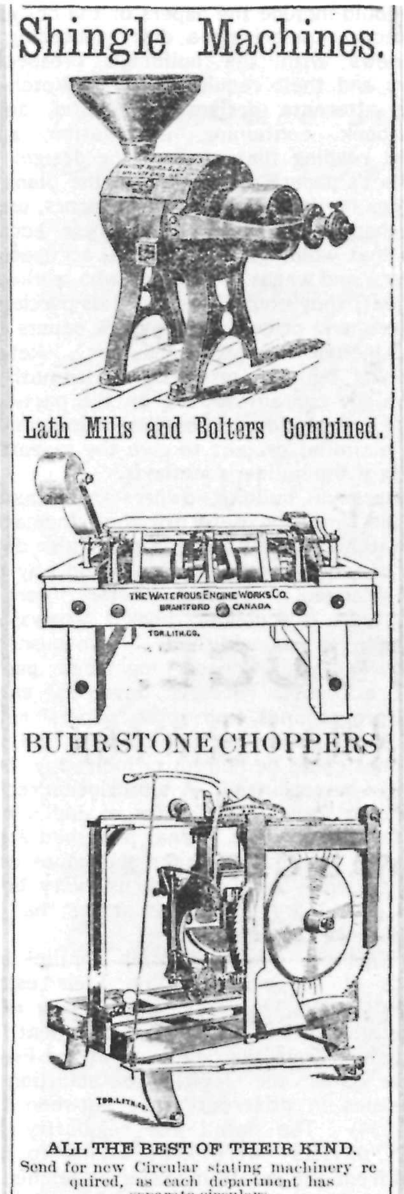
Architects, builders, carpenters, stone masons, plumbers, and other building tradesmen and professionals sought employment through newspaper ads. From time to time, such announcements would add a list of their previous achievements to attract prospective clients. Building suppliers would advertise materials they had for sale, often providing a list of manufacturers and graphic representations of the product. Firms manufacturing bulk construction materials such as new roofing materials or prefabricated buildings would also run ads in local papers. The occurrence of these ads can often help to identify the date of a particular structure by noting when its material appeared in the area.

Although all of these things and more appeared in local newspapers, they are seldom all found in one place. What has been presented above is a collection of the advantages to using the general source "local newspapers" as a tool in building research. Generally speaking, it is a valuable one, but this value varies from paper to paper.

Hints on Using Local Newspapers

One of the most important things to remember when researching in local newspapers is that the information they contain is not always 100 per cent accurate. Although subjects appear to be discussed in detail, coverage is not even, and very often topics that should be covered are just not there. This does not mean that an event did not occur; it usually means that the editor did not include it for reasons of his own. As a result, any conclusions the researcher may wish to draw about what is not in the newspaper must be carefully qualified. Dates, events, and factual occurrences are usually reliable when evidence is found in local journals, for these were reported regularly enough that it would be difficult to put them out of order. Names are often misspelled, however, and should be verified in a second source.

Without doubt, the biggest hazard in using local journals is their bias. Local reporters often got carried away with their role as civic boosters, and tended to exaggerate their claims about manufacturing facilities, the extent of new construction, the importance of owners and tradesmen, and the impressiveness



This ad was taken from one day's four-page *Moosomin Courier*. The newspaper and issue (December 11, 1890, Vol. VII, No. 10) were selected at random. At the time, Moosomin had a population of about 500. (*National Library, L9079.*)

of new buildings. In any type of political controversy, they usually stood on one side, promoting its interests and printing only the negative aspects of the opposition's case. The reader too often finds himself examining the evidence from the reporter's viewpoint, and missing material that would provide him with answers to his questions. A researcher must be careful about the way he treats this evidence, remembering always to stand apart from it and view the opinions being expressed (and often the facts being provided) as a contemporary point of view.

Another important part of newspaper research is selection of the edition of the newpaper that will provide the most pertinent information. Most journals operated from cities or town, in other words, metropolitan centres. They often issued several editions aimed at different audiences. If, for example, a journal issued a daily, a semi-weekly, and a weekly newspaper, the daily would probably be printed for an audience within the town or city of publication. It would contain the best evidence on building within the centre. The semi-weekly, on the other hand, would usually be intended for the mining, farming, or small-town areas that comprised the centre's hinterland. It would give better building-related information on these areas, while synopsizing developments in the centre. For this reason, the semi-weekly is better used for research in the peripheral areas. The weekly, on the other hand, usually contained a condensed version of major events. Its circulation list usually included exchanges with other newspapers publishing in the province, distant readers, and local readers who did not want to review a lot of detail. It is not the best source for information on any but major public buildings, and should be reviewed only when no other edition is available. Although not all newspapers were issued in these frequencies, and other forms such as bi-weeklies and tri-weeklies existed, this example serves to underline the importance of reading the various editions of a newspaper to determine the audience for which it was written before research is begun. The researcher must select the issue that will be most pertinent to the topic under investigation. This is often a trial, for newspaper material is so voluminous there is always the temptation to read the weekly instead of the daily - it is possible to travel across the time period so much more quickly!

Clearly, the other problem associated with newspaper research is the bulk of information the researcher acquires. Any item of interest, no matter how obscure, should be noted together with its location. This will ultimately save hours of time should hindsight bring late recognition of its true importance.

The newspaper is not the best place to begin building research. It is often too large and disorganized to yield commonly known information quickly. If possible, the researcher should attempt to locate dates in other sources which would limit the number of papers to be reviewed.

How to Locate Local Newspapers

Issues of many early Canadian journals are rare. Most depositories insist that fragile original copies be viewed by the researcher in controlled conditions within the holding depository itself. When the newspaper has been microfilmed, however, it can often be obtained on interlibrary loan by an archives or research library close to the researcher. If the researcher knows the name of a particular article he wants, it can often be photocopied when the journal itself is not available. Indeed, microfilm copies of journals with restricted circulation can be purchased by the researcher if he is willing to pay the price.

Most libraries and archives also have copies of general indexes which will assist researches in locating journals. The most recent of these, *The Union List of Canadian Newspapers held by Canadian Libraries* (Ottawa: National Library of Canada, 1977), is available in the reference section of most libraries. It lists the point of origin, dates, and issues of Canadian newspapers found in major public depositories, and is an excellent place to begin a search for local newspapers held in other communities.

This index does not list all early journals that have survived. This is particularly true of local newspapers, and reseachers should check libraries and museums in the community of origin for other copies. Newspaper offices may also hold early issues of their own papers or those of their predecessors. In fact, local private individuals may have copies of old newspapers as well.

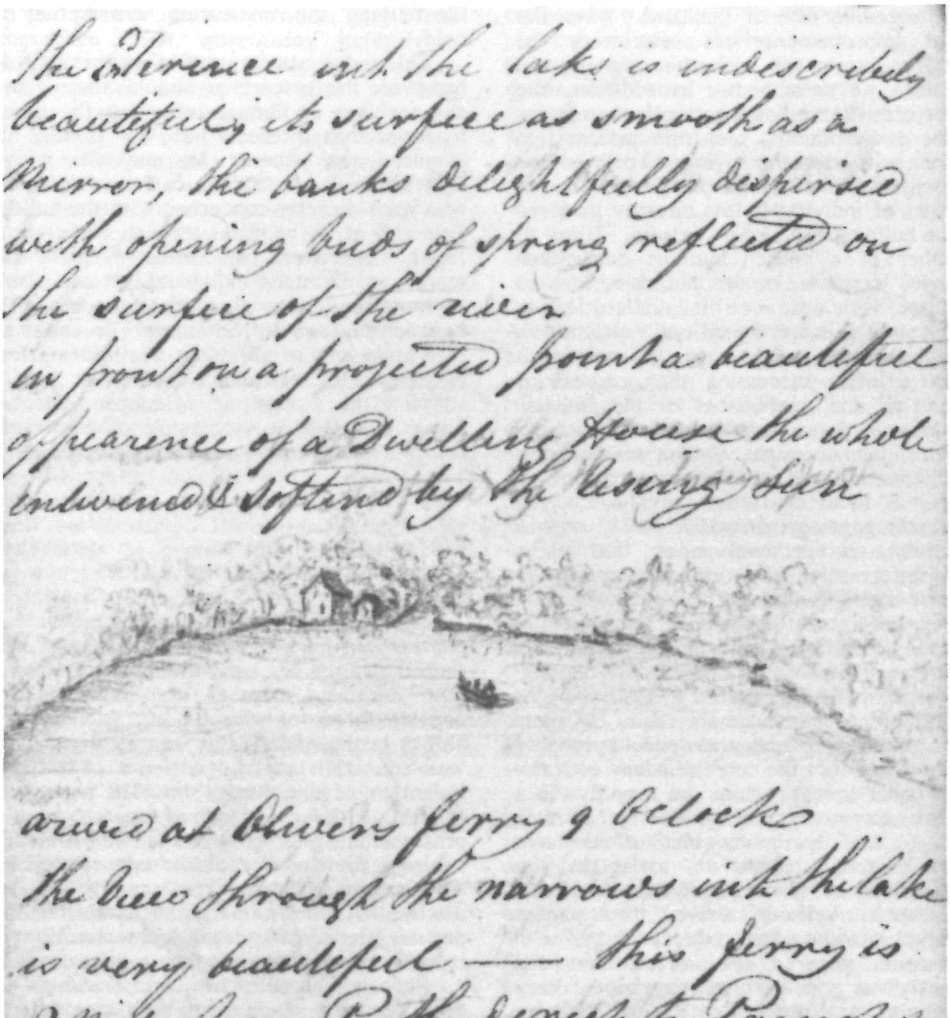
PERSONAL PAPERS

Personal papers are the written and graphic materials of a single individual as they have been collected at a particular point in time, usually his death. From time to time, they are also the collected papers of members of one family. Such papers can be located at an archives or other research depository, although they are also found in the homes of relatives, friends, or the individual himself.

The types of personal papers that might be useful to the building researcher are as many and varied as the individuals that have come into contact with the building under study. They could include the papers of the designing architect - comprising a diary recording his interviews with the building's prospective owners and their requirements, a sketch-pad giving alternate designs considered, and a letter-book containing information about current reading that inspired the design. An architect's papers might contain the plans for buildings he designed. Builder's papers, on the other hand, could hold receipts or account books that would give the names, occupations, numbers, and wages of the men who worked on a project; they could list materials purchased, suppliers, and prices. A builder's papers may also include photographs or sketches describing building progress. Alternatively, they might contain nothing on the particular building in question, but sufficient information about a similar project to give the researcher an idea of the builder's methods.

Papers of building owners or occupants could be similarly useful for their indications of why things were built to a particular design or set of requirements, and when and why they were changed. Diaries, letters, personal photographs, account books, newspaper clippings, unpublished manuscripts, scrapbooks, wills, deeds, mortgage papers, rental accounts, receipts, invoices, calling cards, programmes, and other "papers" reveal much about the owner's personality and life-style that could be helpful in indirectly interpreting what occurred. A subscription receipt to a home journal would, for example, be a real discovery if the journal published a plan similar to the plan used for the house under investigation. Such evidence is every bit as useful as a diary entry that states "had the parlour plastered today."

In Quebec, the seigneurial families kept records of happenings within their estates called "terriers," which operated as a major organizational unit of land settlement and government from the beginning of the French Régime until the legislative abolition of seigneuries in different areas between 1821 and 1854. The detail and regularity with which "terriers" were kept seems to have varied from one estate manager or seigneur to another. At their best, "terriers" can be very complete and consistent records of property use and payment. The land on a particular estate or seigneury was allotted and developed according to terms established at the discretion of the seigneur, but in practice this occurred by agreement between himself and his tenant. (Such agreements obtained legal status when they were registered by notaries and the name of the notary will probably also be found in the "terriers.") When land passed from tenant to tenant - even from father to son - an entry was made. Property improvements such as the construction of



the Terrence with the lake is indescribably
beautiful, its surface as smooth as a
Mirror, the banks delightfully dispersed
with opening buds of spring reflected on
the surface of the river
in front on a projected point a beautiful
appearance of a Dwelling House the whole
entwined & softened by the rising Sun

arrived at Olivers ferry 9 oclock
the view through the narrows into the lake
is very beautiful —— this ferry is
8 Miles from Perth direct to Prescott &
Brockville — this is called the first narrows
6½ Chains wide ———
the water 16 feet deep —

Chance comments in diaries can often help to confirm the existence of a building. This is an extract from the diary of one Burrows, an engineer charged with building the Rideau Canal. (*Public Archives of Canada, National Map Collection, C 52897.*)

buildings or additions were likewise recorded, for in many situations these could affect the rents charged for use of the land. When the type of improvement was restricted, the restrictions originated with the seigneur and would also be described. In addition, the seigneur often served as a benevolent overseer of local developments, and this information together with accompanying receipts and agreements would also be kept.

Papers of individuals less directly involved with the building can also be helpful. Those of a member of a church building committee might, for example, record his objections to particular decisions, or his difficulties in carrying out the duties specifically assigned to him. Those of a neighbour might contain a copy of a letter discussing the progress of construction and impressions of the finished structure and its new inhabitants. The papers of a local banker might discuss his "off the record" impressions of the owner, architect, or builder. A local capitalist may have saved expired mortgage agreements.

In short, any personal papers that might provide information about the community in which a building is located during its life span (or even beforehand) should be reviewed in case they contain relevant information. Locating such papers can be difficult because the letters are often situated in the papers of their recipients rather than those of their authors. On the surface, there would probably be little to connect the correspondent with the subject under investigation: he may live in a different community or even in another country. Luckily, many institutions have indexed personal papers to assist in the identification of correspondents, but even where such indexes exist the papers themselves must be consulted.

Personal papers are often not as informative as a researcher may hope. Very few people carefully collected and guarded their "papers" for posterity. Indeed, few individuals even record most of the things they see, do, or think - and even when they do, they do so with a personal bias. As a result, the information contained in personal papers is largely "hit and miss," and the researcher should not be too elated by the discovery that the papers of an architect or building owner exist until he has managed to review their contents.

How to Find Relevant Personal Papers

The most comprehensive guide to personal papers and other manuscripts held in Canadian institutions is Robert S. Gordon (dir.) and E. Grace Maurice (ed.), *Union List of Manuscripts in Canadian Repositories* (Ottawa: Public Archives of Canada, rev. 1975 and updated 1976, 1977-78). It contains a brief description of each collection of papers in addition to identifiying the institution where they are held.

This index can be used as an overall guide; however, the researcher should also write to any archives or library collecting the type of material that interests him, for it may have acquired new papers. He may also wish to locate families, relatives, or friends of people who were directly concerned with the building. This can often be done through architectural firms, churches, or other organizations associated with the individual. It can also be accomplished through acquaintances in the community, and by newspaper or radio ads. One other way of obtaining this information is to write to everyone holding a relevant surname in a city or telephone directory. Sometimes this is successful; other times it brings a "lead" which must be pursued further.

HISTORICAL VISUALS – SKETCHES, PAINTINGS, AND PHOTOGRAPHS

Sketches, paintings, prints, and photographs have retained an important visual record of Canada's early buildings. Before the 20th century, sketches and paintings were popular forms of visual description, for the ability to draw and paint was a talent for the well-educated lady or gentleman. Eastman's invention of the Kodak in 1888 changed all this. Although cameras were used by professional photographers in the mid-19th century, the Kodak could be operated without any special expertise. Once it had been discovered, the camera became the most popular medium of visual communication, and it has retained that role even today.

Photographs, sketches, and drawings have each been the medium of both amateurs and professionals in their time, and it is interesting to note that the reasons they have been produced are remarkably similar.

Travel Depictions

Emigrants who have left their "native soil" like to send pictures to friends and relatives at home to illustrate their prosperity in their new land. Undoubtedly thousands of unknown amateur pen and ink, charcoal, or water-colour sketches were produced for this reason and then enclosed in letters (sometimes even in the body of the letter) and dispatched home. Travellers, too, often passed time "sketching" and returned with books of pictures which they could use as a base for describing their adventures to interested audiences. Often they published books about their experiences and included these efforts as illustrations.

Talented amateur photographers made much the same use of their skills. They often photographed their adventures extensively then duplicated copies not only for relatives and friends at home, but also for the companions who participated in the journey with them. Photographs had one big advantage over sketches for this purpose - the same view could be reproduced several times over; consequently, the camera buff did not need to be as selective about his recipients. Amateur photographers also wrote books about their adventures and used their own photographs to illustrate them. In addition, they frequently gave public lectures about their trips, or the strange places in which they had lived, and embellished them with "lantern slides" that could be projected on a wall. Later, when movie cameras appeared they were used for the same purposes.

As the public appetite for good pictures was considerable, professionals entered the "travel" market early. They prepared etchings and woodcuts of popular topics, reproduced them, and sold them to both travellers and new settlers. Many early postcards are just such drawings. From time to time, the work of one artist was collected into a booklet or book of views which was itself sold to a similar audience.

Professional photographers did much the same thing. Aware that fellow travellers would pay to buy photographs of their new surroundings to send home, they obligingly used their cameras to capture topics requested by those they met, and charged for the task. Independently they also photographed popular views and set up stands from which to sell them. It is interesting to note that many of the travellers who bought pictures taken by these professionals sent them home as their own - an innocent misrepresentation which later also occurred with travel slides. From time to time professional photographers also produced postcards, or "souvenir albums" that contained a collection of views, and could be purchased as keepsakes or sent to interested friends or relatives.

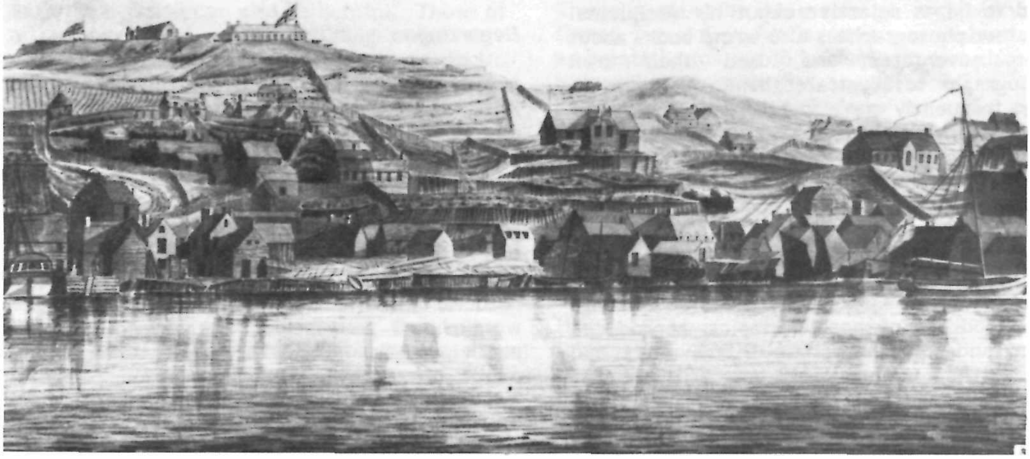
As buildings were considered a measure of "culture" and development, they were often the subject of such pictures. In addition, unfamiliar climatic and economic conditions often caused the construction of "strange" buildings made of unusual materials: this "freakish" aspect also made buildings a topic of general curiousity. In addition, sketches or photographs of other subjects may have incidentally captured useful views of buildings. A picture of a waterfall, for example, could have a building in the background. These "incidental" building pictures are often more difficult to locate, as their holders (whether institutions or private individuals) seldom think of the photograph or sketch as containing a building. On the other hand, such pictures are often the most rewarding, for the person who composed the picture did not deliberately note the building as a subject; consequently, he may have picked up details of the rear, repairs being completed, or another peculiar attribute of the building not normally the subject of a photograph.

Reporting

Lithographic illustrations first began to appear in Canadian newspapers in the 1860s. After that time many major journals hired professional artists (or later, photographers) to provide pictures. At first, these artists were retained on staff in another capacity and co-opted to make illustrations whenever they were necessary - for example, depictions of the construction of major public buildings as part of a complete report to interested readers. Journalists with artistic abilities were hired as special correspondents to participate in major expeditionary forces or public crazes like gold rushes, and provide well-illustrated reports on their findings to a fascinated readership. These accounts frequently contained sketches or pictures of early buildings in an area - depicting their use of local materials and their construction techniques. They are, therefore, quite a rare source of information.

The form of visual "reporting" most valuable for building research purposes comes from quite a different source. It occurs in an organization whose administration (shareholders or board of directors) is located at a distance from its development activity. Such "organizations" can include religious or governmental bodies, or commercial or industrial companies. In each case, reports sent from the field often include detailed visual depictions of on-site activity. If the project involved construction of a building, the visual record often includes photographs or sketches to describe major building phases or to monitor construction at regular time intervals. As a result, it is sometimes possible to obtain a detailed account of a building throughout its construction.

Once simply operated cameras were available, engineers or supervising architects took them to building sites to record building progress. Professional photographers were often hired as company employees for the duration of an extensive project for just such a purpose. At an earlier date, the Royal Engineers responsible for many of Canada's public works were trained in draftsmanship so that they could report to British superiors by sketch. When they left the military service



A sketch of St. John's, Newfoundland, drawn by H.P. Brenton in 1789. Such sketches are sometimes the only evidence of a building's date of construction. (*British Museum, K CXIX 106.*)

these Royal Engineers carried both their skills and their reporting practices with them; consequently, in-progress sketches do exist for some private early Canadian buildings. They were undoubtedly used by company principals as proof of progress to attract more capital.

These sketches and photographs contain a wealth of building detail. They give structural and material information that would be difficult to locate elsewhere. They depict the site surrounding the building at the time it was constructed to give an idea of its environment. They also capture architects, builders, craftsmen, and labourers in the course of their duties. In addition, an indication of the difficulties encountered in constructing the building also emerges from these depictions - as does the point at which actual construction departs from plans. Such evidence is rare enough, but the fact that these visual records are often complemented by written reports makes them an exceptionally rich research source.

Portraits and Artistic Works

Portraits of a building or a streetscape of buildings provide another excellent source of information. Professional artists (including photographers) were often commissioned by homeowners or businessmen to depict their houses, stores, or factories. Streetscapes and public buildings were frequently drawn or photographed by professionals at the request of merchants and Chambers of Commerce for advertising and promotion purposes. Serious artists of the brush, pen, or camera also considered architecture a worthy subject for their talents.

These representations often depict buildings that no longer exist. They contain building information, particularly on the use of materials, structural members, and ornamentation, unavailable elsewhere. In addition, they portray signs which can indicate the uses of buildings, or captions which assist in building occupancy or dating inquiries. They are also useful as an indicator of the environment (other buildings, etc.) that surrounded a building at a particular point in time.

Another type of deliberate artistic depiction that can provide information about buildings is one that incorporates buildings - either deliberately or accidentally - as part of the background. Family portraits situated

This photograph was taken by Thomas Fuller, a young architect with the federal Department of Public Works. It was sent to Ottawa with his reports as evidence of his progress on the first building he built in the Klondike. (*T.G. Fuller, Ottawa.*)

outside houses often contain good window, porch, or door details, whereas those located on the inside can reveal fireplaces, mouldings, or other fine interior elements. Formal portraits of societies are often taken outside their halls. Depictions of ceremonies or parades sometimes accidentally capture more historically useful detail in the background than they deliberately include in the foreground.

Although their efforts were usually less skillful, amateurs too participated in the deliberate portrayal of buildings with results that are equally useful to the building researcher.

Cautionary Notes

One of the major problems using any "historical visual" as a source is distortion. An artist can stylize building features in a sketch or painting that drastically change a building's appearance. If he so desires, he can add an extra storey or a porch to "make the building look better." This is regarded as artistic licence. A photographer can do much the same thing using a wide-angle lens. Such a lens can make buildings look low and wide if it is used horizontally, or tall and thin if used vertically. It can add the appearance of extra floor space or an extra storey. The proportions in a photograph taken with a wide-angle lens are distorted: objects at the centre of the image appear "ballooned out" whereas those on the margins decrease in size very quickly. The researcher must be aware of these distortions when trying to match wide-angle photographs with others taken with a normal lens, for the same building can look like two different structures.

Every historical visual used should be checked for possible distortion. The best way to do this is to compare it with other pictures of the building produced about the same time period. Another useful technique (especially when verifying a painting or sketch) is to cross-check the information contained in the visual with written evidence in other sources to see if the signs and details depicted actually did exist. (This information should

This ceremony, showing the dedication of Halifax's Sebastapol monument, offers evidence that the Halifax Court House (on the far right) did have a cupola for a time. It also provides a date from which the researcher can begin to investigate. (*Public Archives of Nova Scotia.*)

come from reports on the completed building and not from plans - for plans might have been changed during construction.) Details surrounding the building can also be noted to verify the extent to which they have been "stylized." Once the degree of licence taken by the artist has been established on some details, it is probable that it has been continued in the depiction of others.

Photographs, etchings, and woodcuts can (especially in the hands of an amateur) represent a scene backwards. Written work printed on the work will draw attention to the problem quickly; however, when these do not exist the researcher should check building details carefully. Reversed pictures have sometimes been ignored by people familiar with an area because the perspective deceives them.

No researcher should rely heavily on the label on an historical visual for content identification. The label on a picture may have been put there as a library or archival cataloguing tool: it may be an identification made by relatives, editors, or friends who know little about the depiction's contents. An artist's note written on the back in later years or at the time the picture was made may prove a more reliable source; however, it is often impossible to tell when the author wrote the caption or whether his memory was accurate. Even a note by the artist etched on a photographic development plate or into a woodcut or engraving can be altered while making later prints: a caption painted or printed on a sketch can be painted over and changed. Generally speaking, although labels become more reliable the later they appear on the above list, it is important to remember that the problems described commonly occur. The researcher should critically examine the contents of a picture in the context of other evidence collected before accepting its label as correct.

How to Use Historical Visuals as a Source

Until recently, historical photographs, sketches, paintings, etc. have been regarded merely as illustrative material. In fact, they can also be a source of new information if the researcher using the pictures knows how to work with them. The first step is to evaluate the work for distortion, or any other obviously misleading traits. Next the researcher can set to work with a magnifying glass to extract

Photographs like this one of a building in Prince Rupert cannot only provide evidence of a building's occupants, but also offer leads that allow the researcher to trace the occupants through a directory to give a date of construction for the building on the left. (*Public Archives of Canada, National Photography Collection, PA 95-79.*)

minute as well as more obvious types of information.

In the photograph of the Halifax Court House, for example, the existence of a cupola cannot be denied. Clearly, the cupola is in the photograph, and the date of the photograph is established by the ceremony that is the major subject of the picture - and its date in turn can be verified in other sources. The information provided by this photograph is, therefore, indisputable - a cupola existed at a particular date, and it looked just as it does in the photograph. Interpreting the evidence given in this figure would have been much more difficult if the foreground had not been occupied by a ceremony which conveniently provided a date. Without this specific tie, a researcher would only have been able to say that a cupola existed at *some* time and what it looked like.

This is the case with the business block in the figure above. To turn this photograph into useful evidence, it is necessary to establish exactly when the photograph was taken. There are two options for accomplishing this: the signs on the front of the building may contain ownership information that will establish "not earlier than" and "not later than" dates for the photograph, or other features in the photograph might offer a more precise clue. If, for example, the researcher is able to date the building under construction at the far left of the picture in other sources, he has also determined the time range within which the photograph was taken.

Alternatively, a photograph might depict a structure that the researcher knows was demolished at a particular date, and another whose date of construction has been established earlier through written sources: again this situation allows the researcher to establish outside "poles" for the time of the picture. Of course, other evidence presented in a picture can be used to date it as well: seasonal events, clothing, automobiles, the appearance of street lampposts, etc. are all possible indicators. Once the visual itself has been dated, it can often be used to answer questions about construction dates and alterations, building sites and landscapes, the comparative skill of architects, builders, and craftsmen, and building uses. Historical visuals can be very useful sources because they often contain more information than their authors intended.

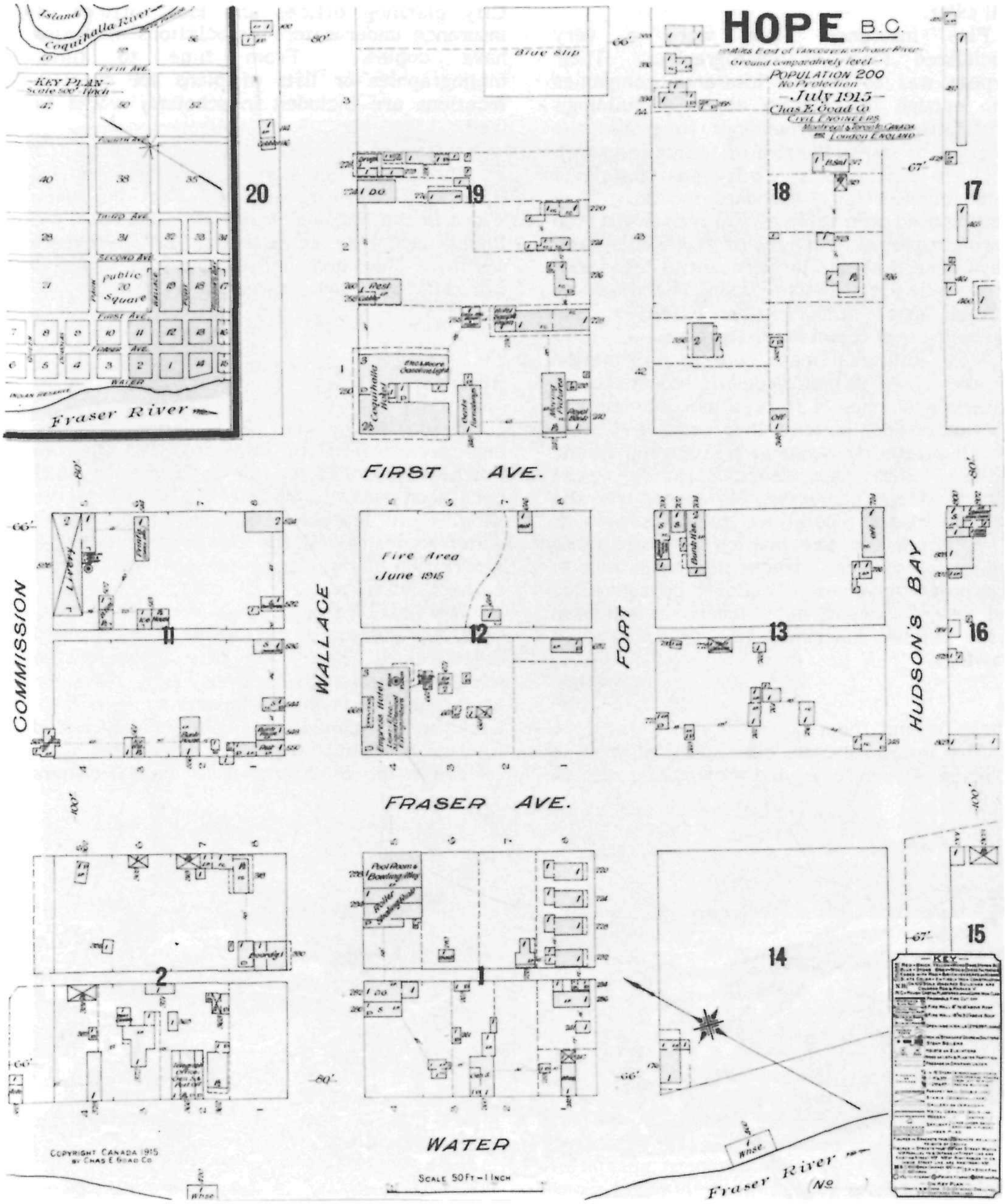
How to Locate Historical Visuals

One useful guide to historical photographs is Alain Clavet, co-ordinator, *Guide to Canadian Photographic Archives* (Ottawa: Public Archives of Canada, 1979). Most archives and research libraries collect historical photographs and prints, as do local museums and historical societies. Many of these institutions will reply to public requests for information on a particular town or city, although the researcher will usually have to travel to the institution to view the illustrations. Older families in a community often have early photographs and sketches of the area, as do local postcard, rare book, and photograph collectors. Most books that discuss the area will contain pictures as well.

FIRE INSURANCE PLANS AND ATLASES

Fire insurance plans were prepared to provide background information to companies selling fire insurance in Canadian cities. The first such Canadian plans were produced early in the 19th century; the last were completed in 1975. In the interim, Canadian fire insurance plans were prepared by diverse firms including the Chas. E. Goad Company, Cosgrave and Co., Swan and Fudger and Co., D.A. Sanborn, the Underwriters' Survey Bureaus of Canada, Western Canada, and British Columbia, and other associations and specific insurance companies. These plans were issued irregularly before 1911 when the Canadian Underwriters Association undertook to co-ordinate preparation; consequently, they often do not exist for a particular Canadian city prior to that date. Even after 1911, access to fire insurance plans was rigorously restricted to insurance agencies who were required to return their old plans for destruction once they had received updated versions. As a result, there is no guarantee that many plans which were once produced

This is the type of detailed insurance plan required for industrial coverage. It shows A. Savage and Sons, Montreal, and was prepared by Chas. E. Goad in 1885. (*Public Archives of Canada, National Map Collection, C 85206.*)



This fire insurance plan of Hope, B.C., was prepared by the Chas. E. Goad Co., July 1915. It was a section of a much larger plan: the portion covered here is marked in the upper left-hand corner. (*Public Archives of Canada, National Map Collection, C 67183.*)

still exist.

Fire insurance plans were a very specialized form of cartography. Their purpose was to provide insurance companies with enough information about a building's construction and surroundings to enable the company to assess the risk of selling insurance to the owner. As a result, most insurance plans follow a fairly standard format. They are prepared on a scale of 100 feet to the inch - or multiples or fractions of this scale - and they incorporate a large quantity of detail through the use of colour coding. Each map or set of maps includes an extensive key explaining how it can be interpreted.

Most insurance maps contain information on the size, shape, type of construction, materials, number of storeys, use, lot size, and location of each building they cover and these are all plotted to scale in relationship to one another. Such maps also indicate the street widths, street numbers and names, and the location of fire protection facilities such as alarm boxes and fire hydrants. These maps and atlases were frequently updated to incorporate changes in building configuration and new construction by means of coloured tissue patches superimposed over the original drawings.

Where to Find Them

Fire insurance plans can usually be located at university, private, and provincial archives. City planning offices and local offices of insurance underwriters' associations may also have copies. From time to time, bibliographies or lists of plans for specific locations are included in scholarly works as well.

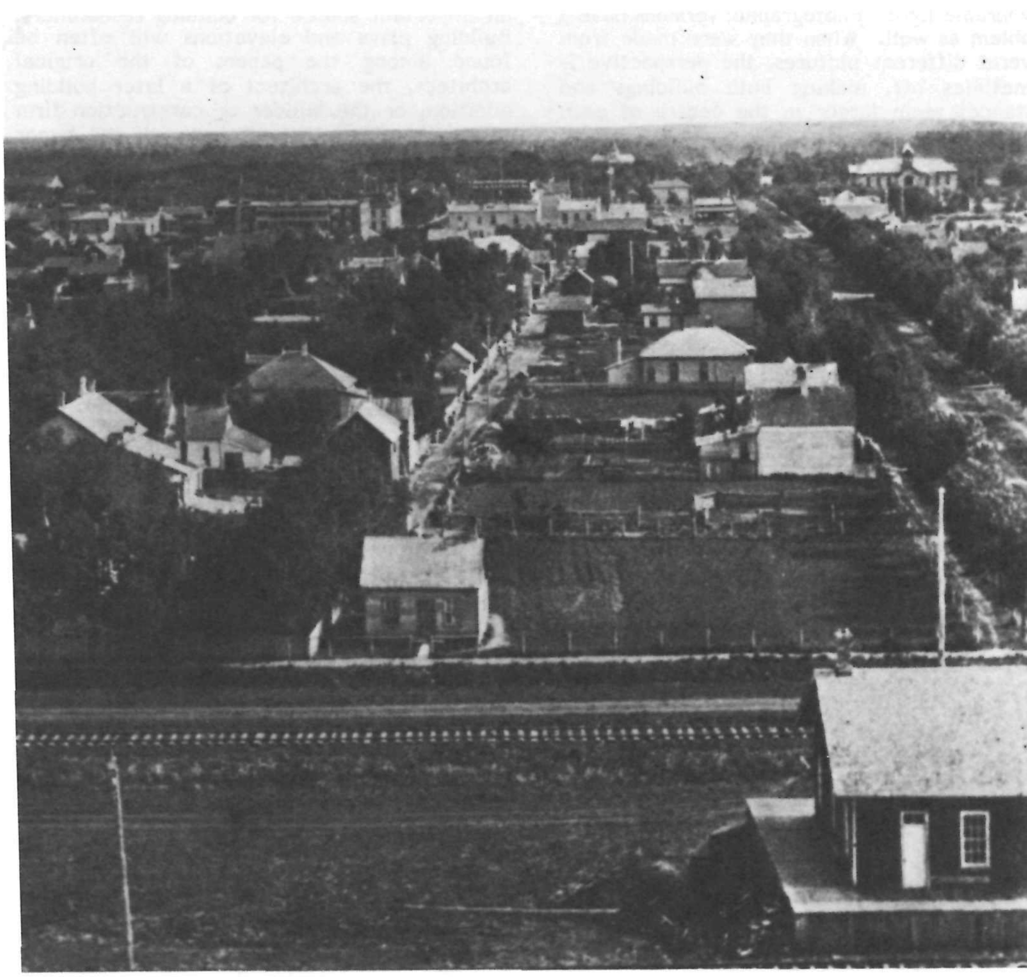
A list of fire insurance plans held by the Public Archives of Canada was published by Robert J. Hayward entitled *Fire Insurance Plans in the National Map Collection* (Ottawa: Public Archives of Canada, 1977, revised 1979). This book also contains a useful introduction to fire insurance cartography.

BIRD'S EYE VIEWS

A bird's eye view is a large one-page depiction of a city or town produced from an overhead perspective - or as if the city had been seen through the eye of "a bird on the wing." It features buildings, streets, and water routes, all of the things essential to a description of the city, in perspective, in their correct locations.

The first bird's eye views were lithographs, carefully measured and sketched by trained draftsmen. These men often incorporated lifelike details such as trees, logs, rafts, or horses and carts in the streets to give their work some immediacy. They also added inserts of public buildings, businesses, and residences drawn accurately to scale if owners

Lithographic bird's eye view of St. Hyacinthe, Quebec, 1881. *(Séminaire de Saint-Hyacinthe, Public Archives of Canada, C 18088.)*



Photographic bird's eye view of Portage La Prairie, Manitoba, ca. 1910. *(W.A. Martel and Sons, Portage La Prairie (Winnipeg: The Telegram Printing Co., n.d.), p. 5.)*

or city officials were willing to pay for the work. Like the county maps and atlases popular in eastern Canada during the late 19th century, they sometimes included directories of major businesses in the town as well.

Bird's eye views were popular in the 1890s and early 1900s. They were made at a time when western as well as eastern Canadian cities were developing, and they are available for use as a source of information about centres across Canada. Photographic techniques were also available at this time, and were later used in the preparation of bird's eye views. As a result, some "views" incorporate photographic rather than lithographic inserts. Later still, photographers (both professional and amateur) borrowed the concept of "view from above" from the original cartographic format, and produced completely photographic bird's eye views.

Photographic bird's eye views were frequently taken in towns and cities where a mountain or tower existed from which an overview could be obtained. Often, they comprised a combination of several overlapping or consecutive photographs taken from a single viewpoint. They seldom included the inserts or subscription lists found in the lithographic bird's eyes views; nevertheless, they were sold by professional photographers and printed in souvenir books. Amateurs, too, seem to have been enamoured with the idea.

Both types of bird's eye views provide very accurate building information at the time they were prepared. When using lithographic views, the researcher should be aware that buildings (particularly those in inserts) were often "cleaned up" to make them appear in a more favourable light. Photographic versions have a problem as well. When they were made from several different pictures, the perspective is sometimes off, making both buildings and distances seem larger in the centre of each photograph used. As a result, the composite photograph can be a little wavy.

Bird's eye views form a part of most archival and library photograph and map collections. Unfortunately, no one has yet taken time to index exactly what is available and where it can be found.

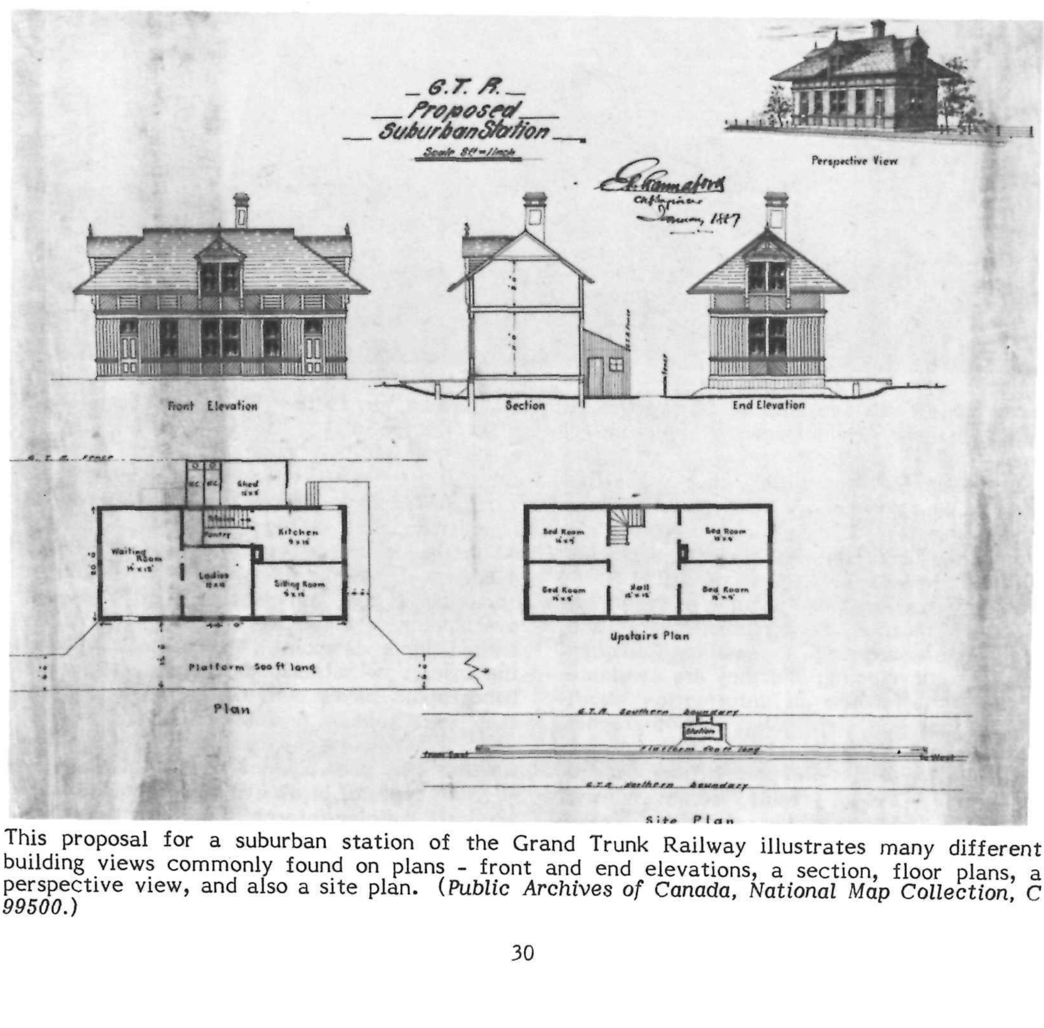
BUILDING PLANS AND ELEVATIONS

Building plans and elevations are an architect's medium of describing a building or an idea for a building. The architect can use them to explain his thoughts to others or to record them for his own reference. They are an essential tool of his profession, and because that profession is designing buildings, they are an important source for building researchers. Building plans and elevations will often be found among the papers of the original architect, the architect of a later building addition, or the builder or construction firm responsible for either of these. If the owner of the building is a government agency, plans and elevations will invariably be located in the files of the appropriate Department of Public Works, city engineer, or archives. One of the building's owners may also have copies (original, present, or one in between).

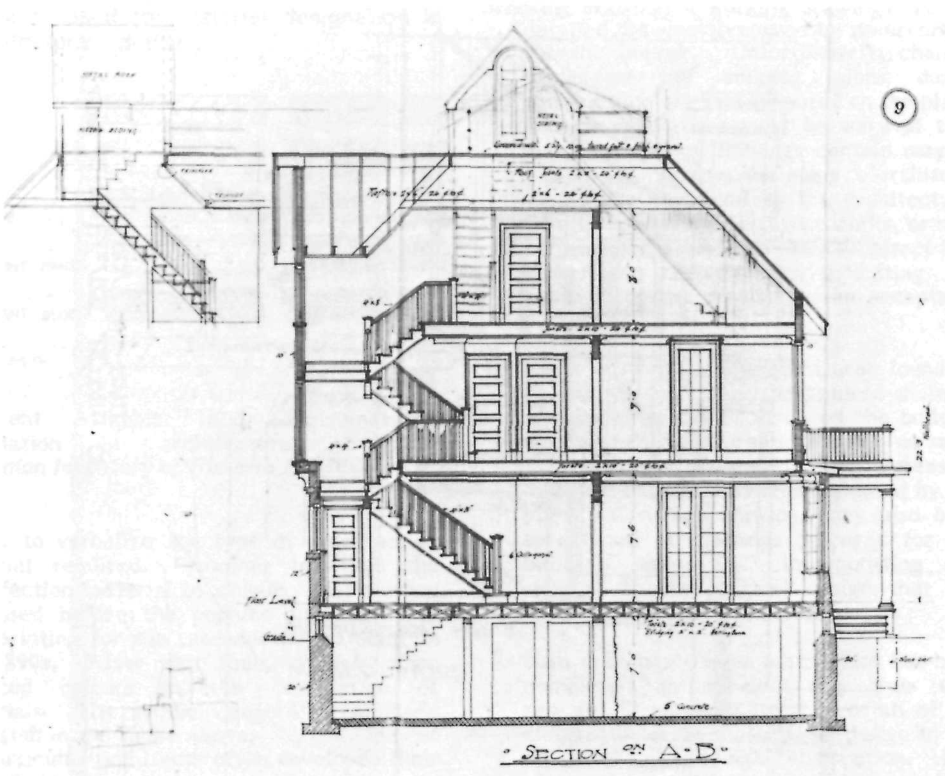
There are many types of building plans and elevations. These are prepared according to conventions established by practising architects, and it is useful for the building researcher to have some knowledge of these conventions.

Forms

The figure below illustrates what is usually referred to as architectural "plans." In actual fact, these are floor plans of a building - scale



This proposal for a suburban station of the Grand Trunk Railway illustrates many different building views commonly found on plans - front and end elevations, a section, floor plans, a perspective view, and also a site plan. (*Public Archives of Canada, National Map Collection, C 99500.*)



This cross section prepared by J. Albert Ewart, Ottawa, 1910, uses a marking technique in which materials are symbol-coded, and dimensions are written. (*Public Archives of Canada, National Map Collection, C 93661.*)

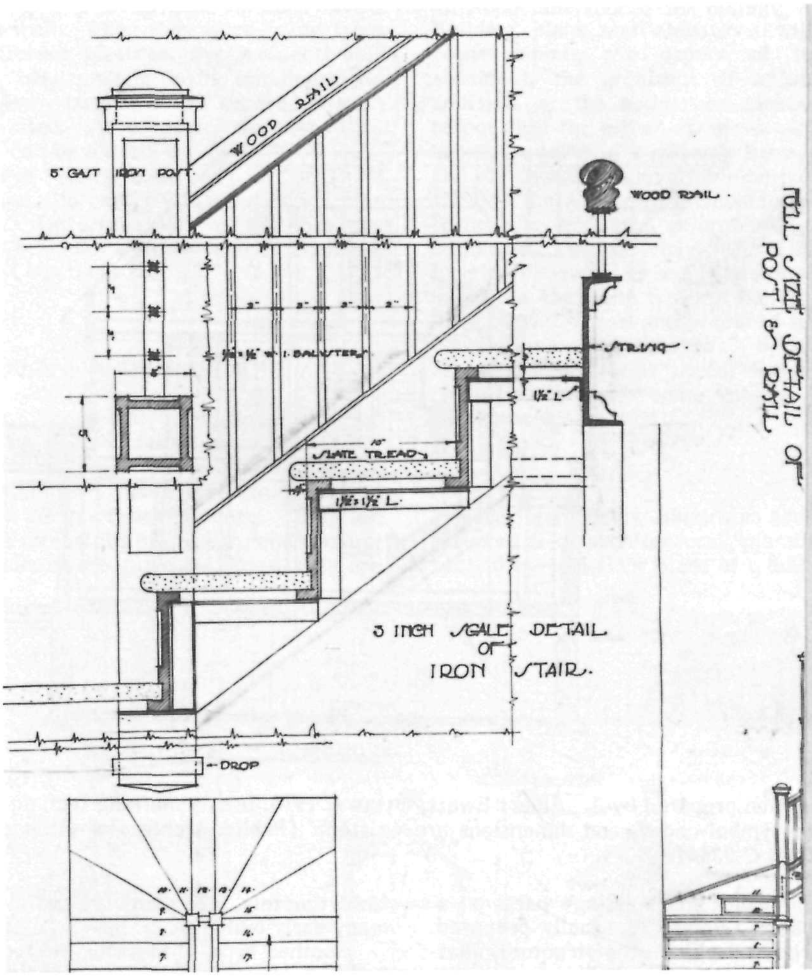
drawings that depict the building's parts on a horizontal plane. Plans are usually prepared for each horizontal plane of a structure, that is, for every floor as well as the basement, the attic, and sometimes the roof. When consulting such plans, the researcher should first identify the convention being used to designate floors: most early building plans call the street floor the "ground floor," the one above it the "first floor," and so on. By contrast, more modern floor plans will use the more common nomenclature of street floor as "first floor," the one above it as "second floor," etc. This difference can cause confusion unless the researcher has identified the conventions used before beginning.

This figure also contains a "site plan" - a horizontal scale drawing that shows how the building is situated on its site relative to the street, adjacent buildings, and sometimes prominent land-forms. Site plans may also indicate landscaping features such as gardens, fountains, walls, fences, and walkways, particularly in cases when the garden (or site) and the building have been "designated" by the architect as complementary features. Unfortunately, site plans are not available for many early buildings.

Another type of drawing that depicts the building on its site is a "perspective," also shown in this first figure. These are usually drawn from a three-quarter view, and give an imaginary picture of the building after completion. "Perspectives" are most often prepared for design competitions. Sometimes they are used as a substitute for proper "site plans." Often, they are not considered part of the "plans" for the building.

The figures above and opposite both illustrate "elevations," or drawings of the building prepared on a vertical plane. Elevations are usually produced for the front, rear, and side views of a building's exterior. Cross sections of the interior are imaginary slices cut through the building, often from side to side or from front to back. When they exist, cross sections show built-in features such as book cases, and wainscotting, and structural techniques such as wall framing or foundation design.

The next figure is a "detail" drawing or large-scale drawing of small portions of a



Detail drawing of a stair showing the method of construction. Such drawings were often made to explain difficult projects. (*Public Archives of Canada, National Map Collection, C 106364.*)

building that are particularly original in design or especially difficult to build. In some cases, "detail" drawings may be made to be used like a template, patina, or pattern, full-sized. These drawings can exist for interior building elements such as ironwork, stairs, or plasterwork, and exterior construction details such as foundations, floors, or wall finishing.

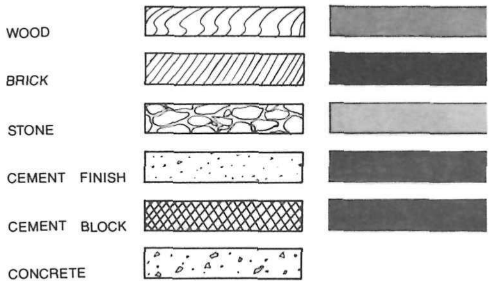
Floor plans, site plans, elevations, and details comprise the basic forms found in all building plans. The researcher should realize they are prepared as "rectified drawings," or without perspective adjustment.

Conventions

Building plans composed in different time periods (and by different architects) adhere to a variety of "conventions" or formats for marking such things as dimensions and materials. One changing convention is that by which floors are named. Another is different ways of indicating dimensions. Nineteenth century building plans usually note the scale of the drawing, then incorporate information according to that scale (i.e. give no further dimensions). As a result, the dimensions of individual features on the plan must be calculated using it. Twentieth century plans, on the other hand, indicate the specific dimensions of each building part, and even though these parts are drawn to scale, the plans do not always identify what the scale is.

Materials are another area where conventions apply. Although most building plans do identify the materials to be used in constructing a building, there are at least three ways of doing this. One method is

Symbols used for material designation in architectural drafting



Different symbols used for material designation in architectural drawings. (*Canadian Inventory of Historic Building.*)

simply to verbalize the type of construction material required. Another indicates the construction material by colour. This method was used before the popular application of blue printing for the reproduction of plans in the 1890s. After that time, symbols often replaced colours in the designation of materials. The symbols generally employed are listed in the figure above.

Particular architects often developed their own designation systems and consistently employed variations on the conventions noted above throughout their careers. It is important for a building researcher to compare several plans with actual buildings to ensure that he understands the meaning of convention designations.

Variations on Types of Plans and Signatures

Building plans and elevations are prepared for many reasons, and these often affect both their contents and the meaning of the signatures they contain. The major types of plans are as follows:

Competition drawings - Competition drawings are prepared by an architect when he has been invited to submit a proposal for a project. Such drawings frequently contain "perspectives" or stylized details that will make the plans more immediately attractive - exterior elevations, for example, will depict waving flags or landscaping features. The architect's signature on a competition drawing is often a pseudonym; consequently, any "real" signatures the drawing contains may be those of the members of the selection committee who have approved the choice of the drawing.

Working drawings - Working drawings are the detailed drawings prepared by an architect for the builder. Unfortunately, changes made to the building plans during construction are seldom noted on the plans, and the researcher must be wary of this. Signatures these drawings contain may be those of the designing architect, draftsman, the head of the architectural firm for whom the architect works, or may be the signature of the chief architect in a government department indicating his approval of the drawing as an acceptable design.

Contract drawings - The signatures found on contract drawings are the same as those on working drawings except that the building contractor's signature is included as well. This indicates that the builder agrees to build the structure as it is indicated by the plans. Contract drawings may also be a special set of drawings prepared for the builder's agreement, incorporating the changes to the original design that the building committee requested.

As-built drawings - When a structure has been completed, an architect may draw up a new set of plans to incorporate all of the changes made to the original design in the course of the building's construction. More often, the architect makes these changes on the working drawing itself. These are kept for reference should addition, alteration, or repair be necessary in the future. The signatures found on such plans would be the same type as those on working drawings.

As-found drawings - As-found drawings are prepared by an architect engaged to change a completed building before he begins his task. They are, for example, frequently prepared by restoration architects. An architect engaged to design an addition may also prepare such plans, particularly if he has no earlier plans or if existing drawings have proven inaccurate. As-found drawings are plans and elevations that record the building in the state in which it exists. They too may be signed by the architect or draftsman who prepared them, or by the head of his agency or firm.

DATESTONES

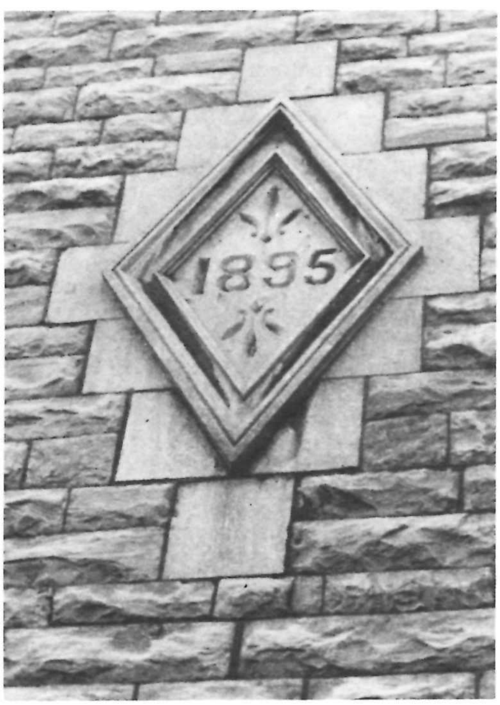
Cornerstones or inscriptions containing dates are often found on buildings. These can be useful indicators of where to begin research on a building. They should, however, be validated through the use of other sources if they are used as evidence of the building's date of construction.

Limitations

The limitation of cornerstones or building inscriptions as a source of information is that, contrary to common belief, they were not always used to indicate a building's date of construction. They can often mean the following:

The date a firm or church was founded - Consequently, a much earlier date is inscribed on the stone than the date of construction of the building even though the stone itself was inscribed at the time of construction.

The date the building was supposed to have been built but for some reaons (usually financial) was not - It is completely possible that the foundations of the buildings were completed, the lower portion of the walls were finished, the cornerstone was laid, and then construction was suspended for 10 years. The researcher may or may not wish to use this as a date of construction; however, it is important to remember that if the person or committee responsible for building the structure decided to relocate it before more work was done, the inscription stone was probably relaid on the second site. In such a case, it is likely that the second building looked different from the initial conception of the first one, and the date of construction on the cornerstone really describes the wrong building - the one that was never built.



Datestones like this one are often used to provide the date of a building's construction. They can be misinterpreted. (*Canadian Inventory of Historic Building.*)

The date construction started - Cornerstones were laid early in a building's construction period, but often the construction itself was a long process. This may have been because the building was a large one, because there was a delay in obtaining materials, because changes required more time, or because strikes or weather delayed completion. In such situations the cornerstone may be used to indicate the early part of the time period in which the building was constructed.

The date an earlier structure was built for the same purpose - Cornerstones or inscription stones are frequently removed from old churches, schools, town halls, or commercial buildings as they are demolished, and relaid on the foundations of the new building replacing them. The main reason this is done is a pride that the institution or firm has existed locally for many years. The cornerstone or other inscription from a burnt building is also often incorporated into its successor.

The date an earlier structure was built for a different purpose - This is not very common, but from time to time a house, for example, will incorporate a building stone from a church. This is admittedly odd, and unless the researcher can find something that the owner wrote to explain why he used it, the researcher is left in a puzzle. Possible explanations for this situation are that the owner thought the stone was attractive or important, or that he was short of building materials.

As these examples show, no researcher should accept any form of "evidence" at face value. Datestones and the other physical features of a building are often the most reliable sources of information about its history. Nevertheless, the evidence they present must be questioned and cross-checked to ensure that the story the researcher is "reading" is, in fact, the same one that the building is "telling."

Evaluating the Answers

After the researcher has reviewed appropriate source material looking for answers to his original questions, the next step is to ask the following:

Have I found sufficient answers to the questions I asked? - If so, the researcher should go ahead and analyse the material he has found. If not, he must continue to do further research in other sources until he has found what he needs.

Do I need to ask further questions? - Very often, in the course of reviewing the source material, questions occur that have not been anticipated. Sometimes these are simply an interesting diversion that will not help to accomplish the real purpose of the research; consequently, new questions should be screened carefully or time will be wasted with no result. On the other hand, many of these questions will raise important aspects of the research problem not thought of before, and it is extremely valuable to follow them up - particularly when they cause the researcher to question the answers already found. Before beginning, however, it is best to examine the implications of the new questions to ensure they are approached in a balanced way.

Were my original questions valid? - This might also read "Do the questions I asked and the answers I found reflect the story the sources tell?" Although every researcher's judgement of what he is seeing is subjective, no researcher should either deliberately state or imply something that is not true or only half true. With this in mind, he should review the information he has chosen to collect. If it does not provide a very accurate picture of the story found in the sources, he must start the whole process again with another set of questions.

Have I found answers that contradict one another? - If the researcher finds himself in this situation, it is necessary to look for more evidence to prove one answer and disprove another. If no further evidence can be found, a judgement must be made based on the credibility of the sources used. The limitations of each source found in earlier discussions of the source itself will be of some help in making this decision. He should, nevertheless, note the conflicting evidence in the manuscript.

Have I asked any questions for which I have found no answers? - This may be an indication of many things. It may mean that the researcher has looked in the wrong sources to find the answers he is seeking. In such a case, it is necessary to review other material. On the other hand, it may mean that he has asked questions that are not relevant to the topic being researched. If so, it would be wise to reframe the questions, and take another approach. It may, however, also mean that no existing sources will provide the answer being sought. If he has looked everywhere, and still found no answer, the question may still be relevant. This is particularly true when the other answers of the question framework he has built fit together to make a picture; in such a case, he should merely note that questions have been asked about the missing piece. This will maintain the balance of his argument, and new sources which provide an answer may appear in the future.

It is quite common to go through the question and answer stages of research several times. Sometimes it is necessary to do a complete source review before assessing the value of succeeding groups of questions and answers; other times this assessment is made periodically during the source review. The only important element is that it be done thoroughly and responsibly.

The more a researcher knows about the general time period he is investigating, the better he is able to evaluate the specific information he has found. This historical background can come from several areas. It can be taken from published work in architectural history. It can come from general background data the researcher has gathered as he worked in historical sources on other projects. It can come from published work on a totally different subject in the same time period.

No matter which of these sources he uses to obtain his historical background, the researcher should take the time to do some extra reading. He should also take time to think about the information he has read and how it relates to the answers he has found while researching his building. This will not only enable him to fit the facts he has found into a meaningful pattern, it will also help him to draw some conclusions about the reliability and importance of what he has found.

Writing

Writing up material that has been researched is a task that many dread, but once it is underway it can actually be fun. The rules of good grammar and punctuation should, of course, be observed. More importantly, however, the researcher should always remember that he is writing a story for someone else to read. What he says should be clear, fully explained, and also interesting.

The researcher should also be careful to reference any sources he has used to obtain information. This is extremely important because new information may be found that could entirely change the "analysis," and alter the accepted "history" of the building entirely. In such a situation, an older work without any footnotes would be thrown away and replaced by a second one. This can be unfortunate, because a third look at the building often proves that the first author was closer to the truth. When an author fails to reference his sources, however, he is begging to be put aside. If he gives them, he is providing a base for himself and others to build on, and his work will be recognized, appreciated, and used.

Generally speaking, information taken from sources is noted by a number in the text, and citations (or descriptions of where information was found) are given by number, either at the bottom of the page as "footnotes" or at the end of the text as "endnotes."

There are many, many citation formats, all of them concerned with the placement of commas, capitals, brackets, and dots, and all of them different. Another "researched" book can serve as a model. No matter which he chooses, a researcher should adopt one method of making citations and try to be consistent.

It is far more important to ensure that the information needed to trace the citation identified appears in the "note" that is written. Guidelines have been written to assist researchers in citing references from the sources discussed in this pamphlet.

HOW TO REFERENCE NOTES

Directories and gazetteers, and books in general - These citations should contain the name of the author, the title of the book, the name of the publisher, the place where it is published, the date of publication, and the number of the page where the information referred to is located.

Tax or assessment rolls - Citations for tax rolls usually include the name of the archives or office where they are located, an identification of the particular document concerned (i.e. Assessment Roll for the City of Winnipeg, 1895), a specific location of the listing depending on how the rolls are organized (i.e. the cadastral number, the lot and block, the owner's name), and a page number if one exists.

Land titles - Citations for land titles should include the name of the archives, registry office, or other place where the land title file is located (the name of the notary in Quebec notarial files), the name (or title) of the document, its date, any identifying numbers that the archives or registry office has placed on the document to retrieve it, and the page number if one exists.

Local newspapers and articles in general - Journal citations should include the author's name (if it is given), the name of the journal, the place it was published, the title of the article (or if it had no title, the first 5 - 10 words to identify it), the date of the issue and the volume number (if there is one), and the page (and, in a newspaper, the column) where the information referred to is located.

Personal papers and other manuscripts - Citations of this material should include the name of the individual or archives holding the papers, the title of the papers, the title of the document used (letter, diary, etc.), and the page number (if one exists) where the information referred to is located.

Fire insurance plans and atlases and other maps - Citations of these documents should include the name of the plan maker, the title of the plan, the date it was made, the title of the fire insurance atlas (if it is in an atlas), the place it was published, the name of the publisher, and the date of publication (also the page number on which the plan is located if it is in an atlas).

Bird's eye views and historical visuals - Citations for these documents usually include the name of the individual or archival institution holding the document (the catalogue number the institution uses if there is one), and the title of the document if there is one. Any bird's eye view or other visual taken from a book should give the title of the visual, the author of the book, the title of the book, its place and date of publication, the publisher's name, and the page number on which the visual is found.

Building plans and elevations - These are usually cited by identifying the name of the institution, firm, or individual holding the document, the name of the architect concerned (if there is one), the title of the drawing, its date (if known), and any other locator number the institution holding the drawing has assigned to it.

Datestones and other on-site evidence - This is usually cited by identifying the individual who visited the site, and giving the date of the visit. This may seem ludicrous to a building owner, but any citation an owner makes should at least establish a month and a year when particular observations were made.

The guidelines provided in this booklet will give any researcher the tools he needs to begin investigating a particular building's history. The investigation itself can be a rich and rewarding experience, especially if the researcher is willing to take time to explore the evidence he finds and give it meaning. It is one thing to discover that a Mr. H. Smith owned the building, and quite another to learn that during the time he lived there Mr. Smith was tinkering with a new invention in his basement laboratory while his wife chaired the local choral society and his five healthy children grew up. Once something is known about the owner he acquires a personality, and his house is filled with noise and activity. The building is transformed from a sterile structure into a family centre vibrating from a sterile structure into a family centre vibrating with the concerns of everyday life. Such information provides the building with a history - a multi-dimensional past that most researchers find exciting to uncover.

Building research is an adventure into the past that enriches today's world. It must be approached with patience and persistence, caution and curiosity, but it is well worth the trouble. Our buildings are a vital part of our heritage.

A. Sources of Information on Particular Subject Areas in Building Research

Source	Date of Construction	Alterations	Architect/ Builder/ Craftsmen	Style	Owners	Occupants	Site	Area	Materials	Technology	Uses	Space Allocations
Directories and gazetteers	A/B		A/B	A		A		A/B	B		A	
Tax rolls	A	A			A	A	A					
Land titles	B	B			A		A		A			
Local newspapers	A	A/B	A	A	A	A	A	A/B	A/B	A	A	A
Personal papers	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
Historical visuals	A/B	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
Fire insurance plans	A	A			A	A	A		A	A	A	
Bird's eye view,	B	B		A			A	A	A		B	
Building plans	A	A	A	A	A		A		A	A	A	A
Datestones	A											

Key: A = may contain direct information on the building itself

B = probably contains useful comparative or background material

N.B. The entry of A's and B's in particular categories indicates *only* that information exists in the source on some buildings. In no way does it outline which are the more reliable sources, nor does it indicate the limitations or weaknesses of particular sources. The researcher should refer to sections on the sources concerned in each case.

B. Sources of Information Used to Research Special Types of Buildings

Source	Urban	Rural	Public	Private
Directories and gazetteers	X	X	X	X
Tax rolls	X			X
Land titles	X	X		X
Local newspapers	X	X	X	X
Personal papers	X	X	X	X
Historical visuals	X	X	X	X
Fire insurance plans	X			X
Bird's eye views	X		X	X
Building plans	X	X	X	X
Datestones	X	X	X	

Canada