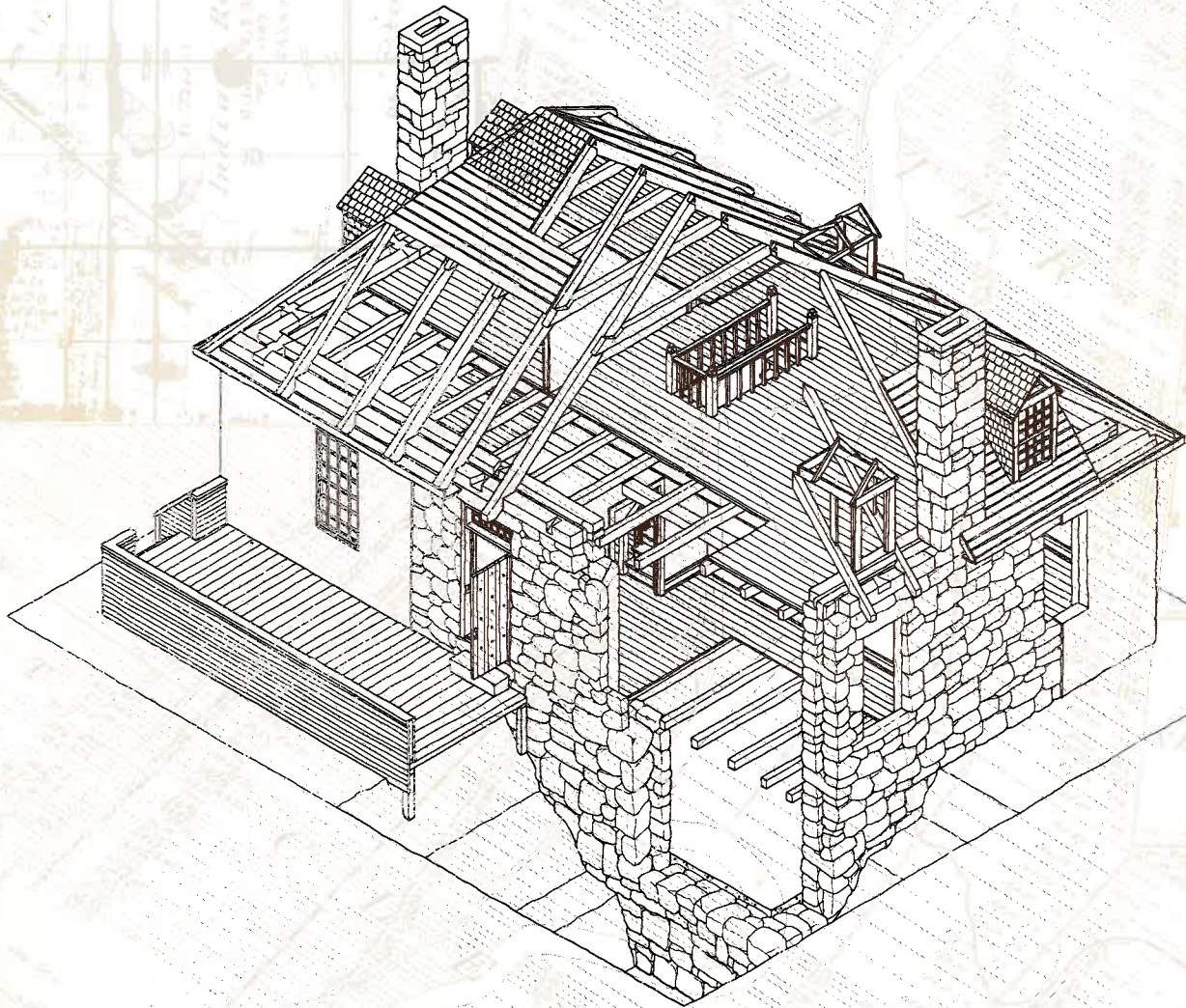# ARCHITECTURAL HERITAGE

The Selkirk and District

Planning Area

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The Selkirk and District

Planning Area

David
Butterfield

1988

On the cover: An isometric cut-away drawing of the former Thomas Bunn house, one of the surviving stone houses of the early settlement era. This illustration, with additional details, can be found on page 37. The background of the cover consists of the Parish Maps of St. Peter, St. Andrews and St. Clements (showing the river lots in 1875) and of several old Township Diagrams, describing section owners and geography in the year 1871.

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Acknowledgements

While this report attempts to catalogue and describe the building heritage of the Selkirk area as accurately as possible, the study was limited by the funding and manpower at our disposal. Much of the information about individual buildings has been based on local histories and the recollection of local people. Consequently it may well be that some inaccuracies, especially concerning dates, have found their way into the text. If any group or individual is able to offer further information or suggest corrections they are asked to contact the Historic Resources Branch at 177 Lombard Avenue, Winnipeg. Every effort will be made to include corrections in future reprints.

INTRODUCTION

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

BUILDING ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION

The Selkirk and District Planning Area was formed on 25 May 1977 by an Order-in-Council and was signed into law by the Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba, F.J. Jobin. A planning board, drawn from local elected officials, is responsible for the development of a master plan for the area and is supplied with a variety of background reports upon which to base its planning decisions. These reports include, among others, land use, agriculture and economic base studies, rural population and transportation analyses, and studies on ground water resources and wildlife. A brief heritage resources report on the Town of Selkirk was also prepared for the planning board. While this report provided basic historical information and highlighted thirteen buildings of historical significance, it provided only an indication of the remaining early architecture in Selkirk and did not attempt to deal with the rest of the planning area.

The Selkirk and District Planning Area is fortunate in containing a large number of architecturally and historically significant buildings. Many of these are of local importance. Several, such as those at Lower Fort Garry and the early stone houses and churches along the Red River are of much greater significance. These and other early buildings are often the only visible reminder of the district's early history and can be a very valuable cultural as well as economic resource. Such resources are, however, both fragile and non-renewable. Once demolished or allowed to decay, they are permanently lost to future generations. Many of the district's most interesting buildings have already been lost and others, sadly, continue to languish in states of disrepair.

Because the planning area is the location of many of the oldest buildings in the province, it has received the benefits of considerable research and exacting restoration projects. Parks Canada, with its restorations of Lower Fort Garry and St. Andrew's Rectory, has increased the public's appreciation of Manitoba's history. Coupled with scholarly research carried out for these developments, Parks has done much to expand the architectural knowledge of the Selkirk Settlement era. Jill Wade's M.A. thesis, "Red River Architecture, 1812-1870" has also added to this record with her discussion of the trends in Red River architecture. The ARC Project (Agreement for Recreation and Conservation), a development sponsored by the Federal and Provincial Governments has also done a great deal to increase popular appreciation of the province's early heritage. The project has created a picturesque driveway along the historic River Road and has refurbished the William Kennedy House. It has also highlighted two important archaeological sites, one at Netley Marsh, commemorating prehistoric Indian activity in the area and the other at Lockport, where the Kenosewun Museum features artifact displays and interpretive work on Native fishing activity at Lockport.

While the endeavours outlined above have succeeded in preserving some of the most remarkable of the planning area's -- and the province's -- early architecture, there are still many old buildings that have not been examined. It is for this reason that an intensive investigation of the planning area's remaining architectural resources was begun by the Historic Resources Branch of Manitoba Culture, Heritage and Recreation. Through a methodical process, which included an historical analysis and the compilation of a building inventory, it has been possible to identify and catalogue the architectural heritage of the Selkirk and District Planning Area.

Study Methodology

The Architectural Heritage Report for the Selkirk and District Planning Area is a contextual analysis of the area's early buildings and a selected inventory of the best remaining examples. The research for this study was undertaken in two steps. During the summers of 1982 and 1983 a detailed photographic survey with some measured recording of buildings within the planning area was conducted. The material collected from this survey was used to analyze and assess the remaining early architecture in the area and to identify building types, methods of construction, stylistic trends and early community development.

An analysis of the evolution of architecture in the planning area is described in the first section of the report. This includes an overview of the history of settlement in the area, a description of the cultural traditions of the major settlement groups and an analysis of the major building types and trends prior to 1930. The second section, the Selected Inventory, is comprised of photographs and descriptions of particular existing buildings. These were selected because they were superior or typical examples of specific building types, construction types or architectural styles or of particular importance in a community's development. These structures are grouped by building type and are arranged within each section in chronological order. Basic information, including the location and date of construction, where known, has been included to allow a more comprehensive assessment of the architectural resources of the planning area.

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* All measurements in this report are in the metric system; where deemed necessary they will be followed by the equivalent Imperial measurement.

The Study Area

The Selkirk and District Planning Area, consisting of the Rural Municipalities of St. Andrews and St. Clements and the Town of Selkirk, is located northeast of the City of Winnipeg and, straddling the Red River, reaches up to the southern shores of Lake Winnipeg (Plate 1). The 1500 square kilometres* (600 square miles) that comprise the planning area are divided between the historic river lots that stretch in thin slivers back 3.3 kilometres (two miles) from the river and the township system, which divides the rest of the land into a regular mile-based grid.
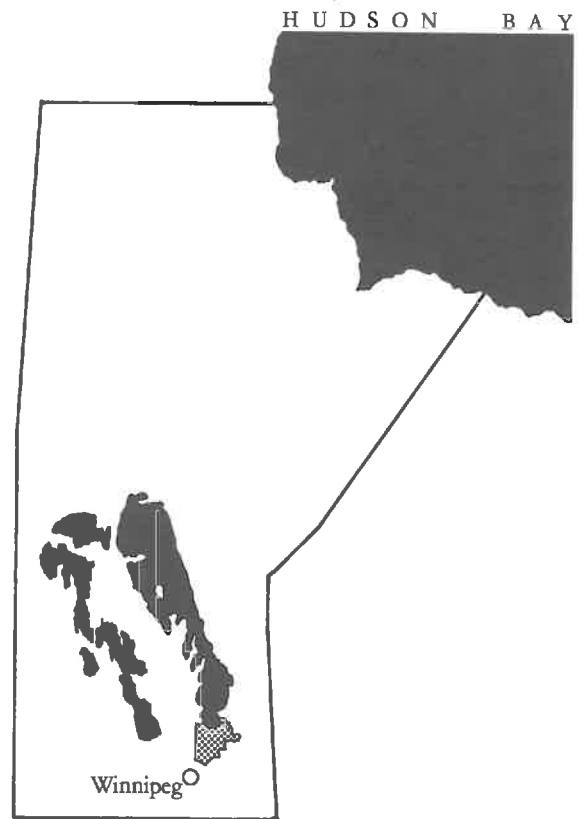
Plate 1. Location of the Selkirk and District Planning Area within the Province of Manitoba.

As of 1981 the district had a population of approximately 24,000 people: 7,900 in St. Andrews, 6,305 in St. Clements and 10,035 in the Town of Selkirk.[1] This population is concentrated in the "Corridor", an area that comprises Selkirk and the lots along the river south of Selkirk. The non-farming population in the rural areas of the district has increased
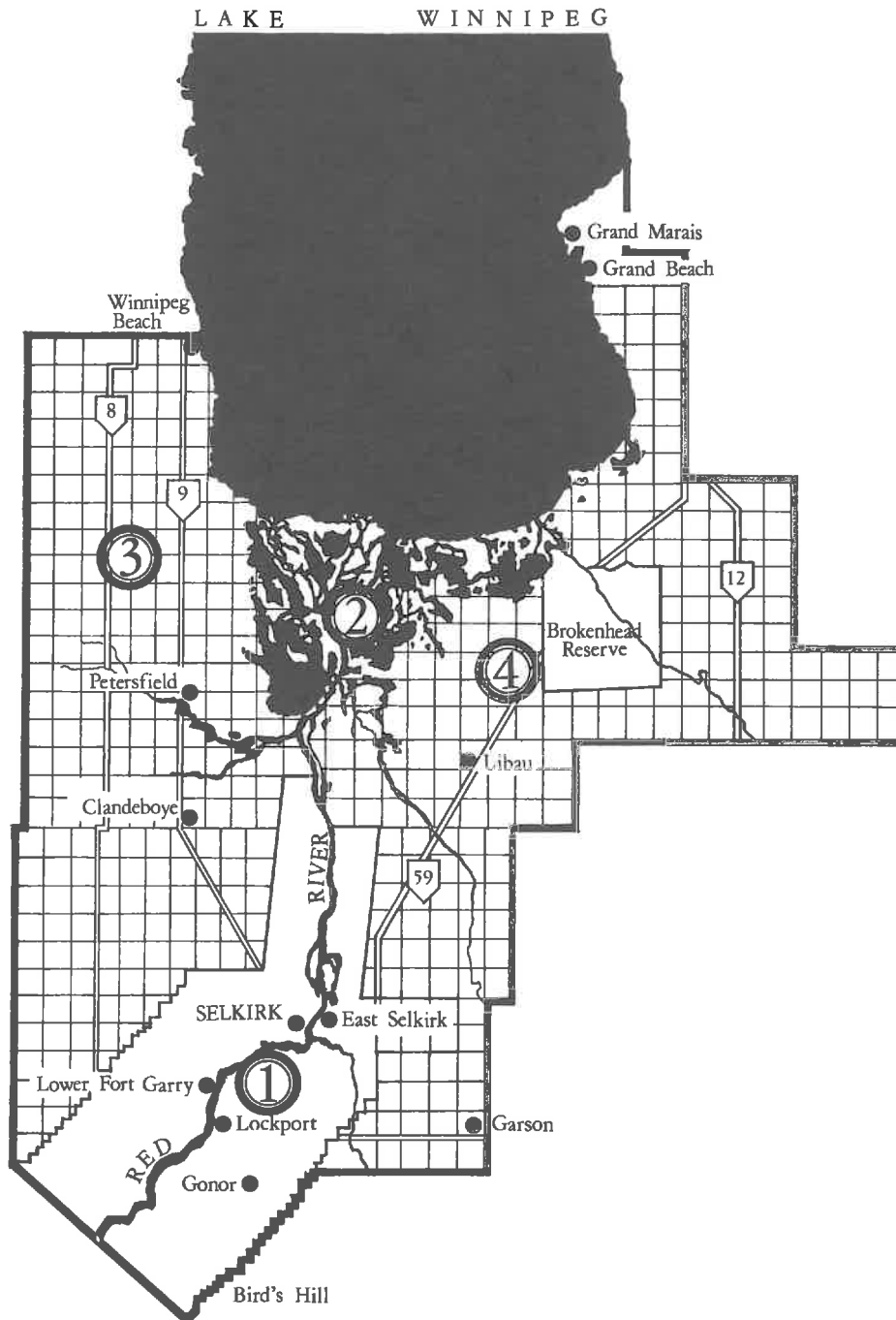
Plate 2. The Selkirk and District Planning Area. The Rural Municipality of St. Andrews is on the west side of the Red River, St. Clements is on the east side. The four geographic areas are enumerated and the communities of Selkirk, Lockport, Libau, Garson, Clandeboye, Petersfield, the Brokenhead Indian Reserve, Grand Marais and Winnipeg Beach are all indicated.

steadily since 1961, so that by 1976 it comprised at least 68% of the population and was spread along the Red River and in the smaller communities.

The planning area is comprised, geographically, of four distinct areas: 1) the "Corridor"; 2) Netley Marsh to the north of Selkirk, (both of these are bisected by the Red River); and, on either side of these, 3) and 4), two large farming districts (Plate 2). The only prominent natural feature, besides the great river, that disturbs the regularity of the planning area is Bird's Hill, on the southernmost edge. The topography of the rest of the planning area is generally flat, sloping slightly towards the river and the lake. The only obvious manifestation of this slope was a set of rapids near Lockport, obliterated by the construction in 1910 of the dam there. The drop in elevation across the area, excluding that adjacent Bird's Hill, is only five metres. Tree cover is generally sparse with concentrations near the river. Marsh growth, riverbank woodlands and mixed hardwood forest constitute the area's three naturally occurring vegetation communities.

The topography and soil in the planning area are primarily the products of glacial Lake Agassiz, which covered the entire Red River Valley region 10,000 years ago, during the melting of the last continental ice sheets. Through sedimentation of material suspended in the Lake, the original glacial landscape was blanketed with a mixture of clays, loams and sandy soils. The western half of the planning area was the beneficiary of somewhat richer soils than the eastern half.[2] Reclamation of swamplands that extended east and west of the present extent of Netley Marsh opened these areas for agriculture around the turn of the century.

The proximity of Winnipeg has long influenced the character of economic development in the planning area. Small market farms, producing fruits and vegetables, were quickly established to serve the burgeoning population of Winnipeg. The fishing and lumber industries on Lake Winnipeg contributed directly to the growth of the Town of Selkirk, their main distribution point to Winnipeg and the United States. The town was actually threatened as the two industries declined in importance, but rebounded soon after the turn of the century. Large grain and livestock farming operations, located in the eastern and western sections of the district became a key element for the area's economy. Industry has also been a fixture of the planning area's economic structure since the turn of the century, supplying products for markets in Winnipeg. The Rolling Mills, an ironworks firm which relocated to Selkirk from St. Boniface in 1913, has been a major employer in the town ever since. Manufacturing facilities for Union Carbide, Consolidated Plastics and Noco Drugs and a silica sand screening plant have all contributed to the development of Selkirk as an industrial centre.

Study Summary

The physical division created by the old river lot pattern and the regular grid of the township system also underlines the temporal division of the planning area. The fur trade and early settlement eras (from the mid-1700s until 1869) focused largely on the river and thus hugged its banks for transport and sustenance. Indians, fur traders, the Metis and the Scottish Selkirk Settlers all found themselves drawn together along a narrow band that stretched just a few kilometres back from the Red River. The architectural remnants of this era are, logically, to be found here: Lower Fort Garry, several stone houses and churches and a very few log structures.

The Native Indian groups, which

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inhabited western Canada for millenia before the arrival of European fur traders and settlers, developed building forms and a building technology that reflected their close relationship with nature. While none of their buildings, unfortunately, are extant in the planning area, except as replicas, their interpretation certainly merits attention.

While the society that succeeded the Red River Settlement era can be seen superimposed on the earlier riverfront landscape, it can also be seen extending into the portions of the planning area that were ignored by the earlier inhabitants. "Boom" period buildings, constructed during the 1880s and 90s by Ontario-English and Ukrainian settlers, each with their own distinct architectural traditions, are found both dotted throughout the planning area and concentrated in its communities, notably Selkirk.

Throughout the early settlement era logs persisted as the predominant building material and a specialized technique, known as Red River frame, became the basic architectural expression for houses, barns, stores and churches alike.[3] While there must have been scores of Red River frame structures in the planning area at one time, only three such buildings -- and one of these a reconstruction -- survive. Stone buildings were much less common. As houses, they were typically the homes of the wealthiest of the Settlement's citizenry; few settlers could ever aspire to such gracious living before 1870. There were, nevertheless, at least fifteen stone houses constructed in the planning area[4]; there are now seven, five in good condition. In addition, all four of the original stone churches, churches that served the first local settlers, remain.

After 1870, and the entry of Manitoba into the Canadian Confederation, the nature of architecture in the planning area was transformed. For many of the new settlers, including Ontario-English and Ukrainian, log structures reflecting their individual architectural traditions constituted their first shelters. However, after a relatively short period these interesting buildings were gradually replaced. The swiftness of this process is underlined by the scarcity today of "Boom" period log structures: only ten Ontario-English and fifteen Ukrainian log structures pre-dating the First World War are in the planning area. These examples are frequently in fairly good condition, however, and will continue to recall an active period in the planning area's historical development.

The period of building which succeeded this brief log construction phase is well-represented. Wood frame and brick veneer houses of various styles, in addition to barns, outbuildings, stores, schools and churches are all common in the planning area. In the countryside there are at least 95 light wood frame houses that pre-date 1930; most of these are in fairly good condition. Large houses, of 2 or more storeys, are less numerous in rural areas, although there were likely considerably more than the 16 now standing. In the smaller communities and in the Town of Selkirk more ornate houses are often found. In Selkirk, 36 modest and 11 large houses, several of exceptional charm, were examined.

The barns and outbuildings built between 1870 and 1930 in the planning area are often not in as good condition as the houses. Rural de-population and the growth and mechanization of farm operations have contributed to this situation. The nature of farming here has also dictated the types of farm buildings required. Large farm operations were not instituted until the swamplands east and west of the river lots were drained. Thus such concerns, with large barns and extensive outbuilding construction that characterized other areas of the

province after 1900, were not a common feature in the planning area for another decade. There were a few large farms before this time, but only one such barn remains. The market gardening operations that constituted much of the area's agricultural production required smaller buildings. Approximately 25 small barns, at least 5 stables and numerous chicken coops and storage sheds are evidence of the small thriving operations that once crowded along the Red River.

Of some 50 rural schools and 60 churches built in the countryside after 1870, only 15 schools and 38 churches are still standing. In the communities of the planning area the situation has been much the same. In Selkirk 6 of the original 10 churches built before 1930 are extant. Its four pre-1930 schools have all been destroyed. In Petersfield the old stone school is still standing, but the two old churches are gone. Neither the large old stone school nor the United Church remain in Clandeboye. Garson's picturesque stone church is still standing but the school is now gone. East Selkirk has been more fortunate; an old stone school and three churches remain.

Stores, railway stations, industrial and government buildings in rural and urban areas, too, have been lost throughout the years. There are still 14 old stores of the approximately 50 that at one time served the countryside. In Selkirk, at least ten old commercial establishments recall the scores that once stood there. Its old CPR railway station is gone, as are the seven others that once dotted the two main rail lines in the planning area; only the East Selkirk and the Petersfield stations remain, and both of these have been moved from their original sites. The various government buildings located in Selkirk have gradually dwindled in number. The Town Hall, Hospital, Library and original Mental Institution have all been demolished. Some of the buildings at the Selkirk Mental Health

Centre and the former Post Office are the only remnants of this building aspect of the planning area's heritage.

Clearly, many of the planning area's earliest buildings have been lost. Of some concern must be the limited stock of late nineteenth and early twentieth century buildings, representatives of the great immigration waves of that time. In comparison with other areas of the province the Selkirk and District Planning Area does not contain a good cross section of domestic, agricultural, public or commercial structures from that era. There are exceptions -- like the Selkirk Mental Health Centre, the Souter house, the former Colcleugh house and the Overwater barn -- but their very rarity means that the few good examples must be attentively monitored.

The dearth of Red River Settlement era buildings is to be expected. Log and stone houses, mills and other small farm structures have all suffered under the wheels of a century of progress. Remarkably, however, the planning area contains the greatest number of the few early settlement buildings in the province. The location of Lower Fort Garry and several of the earliest log and stone buildings here is a great gift and their preservation is a credit to many thoughtful individuals.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

What is today the Selkirk and District Planning Area holds a special place in this province's history. The major themes of Manitoba's recorded past -- even those of its unrecorded past -- find some expression in the development of the planning area. Prehistoric Indian fishing activity at Lockport, the construction of one of the largest fur trade forts in Canada and the struggle between Selkirk and Winnipeg for control of the location of the main Canadian Pacific Railway terminal in Manitoba constitute only the highlights of this area's notable past. In a provincial context, the planning area was most important between 1828 and 1870, when it comprised a significant portion of the fledgling Red River Settlement. The slow steady pace of this era -- one characterized by the almost ancient rhythms of river lot farms, Red River

carts, York boats, wooden plows, -- was supplanted within ten years of the creation of the Province of Manitoba. This energetic new period, distinguished by speed and wealth -- rail lines, automobiles, the township grid, wheat, -- cast the planning area along with all other developing districts into a supporting role in the province's evolution.

The earliest known inhabitants of the Selkirk area arrived some 6,500 years ago, shortly after the glaciers of the last Ice Age had retreated.[5] Until the arrival of European explorers and traders in the eighteenth century, the locality was inhabited almost continuously by wandering populations of hunter-gatherers.* Their movements were dictated by the availability of wild plant foods and by the migrations of the animals hunted: waterfowl, deer

Plate 3.   An Indian fishing encampment at Lockport. (From: The Prehistory of the Lockport Site, p. 6.)

and particularly the bison.

At Lockport the abundance of fish proved to be an important catalyst in development of Indian culture in Manitoba (Plate 3). The richness of natural resources and the attendant diversity of animal species in the vicinity of Lockport allowed Native villages to be occupied for increased durations and to swell to hitherto unattained sizes. The inhabitants of this area, among the first to use the bow and arrow, appear to be the first in western Canada to have cultivated corn.[6]

By the eighteenth century the people who occupied the planning area were mainly scattered bands of Assiniboine, Cree and Saulteaux, people whose traditional territories once extended into present day Ontario, who were unfamiliar with the earlier agricultural practices. Each group of perhaps thirty or forty individuals followed a regular annual cycle that would often bring them into close proximity with other groups. This was especially true during the winter, when most bands sought refuge in the more forgiving environment of the wooded valleys, where wood fuel for cooking and heating was plentiful and where bison, wolves and foxes also expected -- often mistakenly -- to endure the cold. In spring, after the choking river ice had melted, the Assiniboine, Cree and Saulteaux dispersed to set their fishing weirs along the principal waterways. At the same time raiding parties were sent against enemy groups to the south and west. Later on, during the hot days of summer, villages were in almost constant movement, accompanying the parties of hunters which roamed the open grasslands in search of bison. And the autumn days of the migration cycle took many groups south, to the villages on the Missouri River, to trade for corn.

The nomadic, resourceful, independent lives of the various Indian groups in Manitoba, and in the planning area, were disrupted by the middle of the eighteenth century. Exploration by European adventurers had reached southern Manitoba by this time and many Indians were engaged in fur trading, supplying furs, either directly or as middlemen, to the European traders. The early exploration activities in southern Manitoba had as one of its earliest manifestations the establishment of the first fur trading post in the Red River basin. In 1734 Pierre Gaultier de la Verendrye, the great French explorer commissioned by King Louis XV to recover riches from the new land, had entered the Selkirk and District Planning Area and built Fort Maurepas, about ten kilometres north of the present Town of Selkirk. While it was essentially a way station, likely a few log shacks built from materials at hand, its construction established a European presence at the lip of the Great Plains. La Verendrye and his company were to build several other fur trading forts in Manitoba as they progressed westward, including Fort Rouge (now Winnipeg) at the Forks of the Red and Assiniboine Rivers and Fort La Reine, near present-day Portage la Prairie.

Before the end of the eighteenth century there had been a few fur trade posts erected in the planning area by independent traders and by the powerful Hudson's Bay Company (HBC) and its chief competitor, the North West Company (NWC). However, the fur-bearing stocks here were all but exhausted by the first decade of the

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* A companion volume to this report, Land Below The Forks: Archaeology, Prehistory and History of the Selkirk and District Planning Area, provides a more detailed account of Native Indian occupation of this area.

nineteenth century. The present day planning area was nevertheless a familiar area in the trade, for supply brigades from the Bay and fur-laden York boats from the Forks traversed its waterways almost daily when the river was free of ice.

By the turn of the nineteenth century the society of western Canada had been transformed. In addition to the introduction of a different social structure the fur trade brought new products (most notably cooking utensils and firearms), new types of buildings, and a system of permanent communities, the large fur trade posts. Of more significance, however, the contact between European fur traders and Indians instituted a whole new culture.

Intermarriage between Indian women and French or English traders produced children often considered distinct by their parent's cultures. The progeny of Indian-French marriages, the Metis, accepted Roman Catholicism and spoke French, but were in general much closer in custom and outlook to their Indian forebears at this time. Before the middle of the nineteenth century many rode to the buffalo hunt on the Coteau de Missouri and found seasonal employment with the North West Company. The Indian-English mixed bloods were, by contrast, usually integrated into the social and economic milieu of their British parent.

This new fur trade society was thrown into turmoil in 1810. Thomas, Fifth Earl of Selkirk had obtained a huge land grant of 300,000 square kilometres from the HBC and sought to institute an agricultural colony at Red River. The grant, extending westward from Lake Superior to Saskatchewan and southward from Lake Winnipeg into South Dakota, comprised the old fur region La Verendrye had first opened, now depleted of furs but still a crucial source of provisions for the trade in the Northwest. While the scheme seemed preposterous to many, Lord Selkirk was determined, and in 1812 the first party of Scottish crofters, displaced by poverty and land reform in the United Kingdom, arrived at the Forks.

The first ten years of settlement were very difficult, but many HBC employees, who had originated from the Orkney islands north of Scotland, provided sustenance to their kinfolk. Continuing crop failures, caused by floods, locusts, frosts and poor agricultural practice were very frustrating. More threatening was the perception by many of the fur traders -- the NWC and its Metis allies especially -- that these quiet farmers were interlopers. Rash acts were committed by both sides and tragedy was not long in coming. In 1816, after an especially poor crop year, the Pemmican Proclamation prohibited the export of all pemmican from the territory, infuriating the NWC. The final act in this drama occurred at Seven Oaks, where 19 settlers and the Governor, who had intercepted a Metis group on its way east with an illegal supply of pemmican, were killed. The settlement at Red River appeared doomed.

Lord Selkirk's careful plans, however, were not to be upset. Protected by Swiss mercenaries provided by Selkirk, the pioneers rebuilt their farms and planted crops in 1817. With the merger in 1821 of the HBC and the NWC, the dangerous antagonism between settler and NWC trader was removed. Indeed, the Settlement even became an attractive alternative for those displaced by the merger.

While the core of activity remained at the Forks, where Upper Fort Garry was located, the Settlement gradually spread along the riverbanks of the Red and Assiniboine. The land north along the Red, the "Corridor" of the present planning area, was selected by the English and mixed bloods; the

French and Metis settled south and west of the Forks. The small scale farms established in the planning area during the 1830s followed the lead of William Cockran, who had inaugurated missionary operations near a series of local rapids in 1827. In accordance with the treaty made between Peguis, Chief of the local Saulteaux, and Lord Selkirk in 1817, the settlers' rights extended only three kilometres back from the river (Plate 4). By custom, however, the settlers used the timber on the east bank of the Red and relied on a hay "privilege" on the common ground behind their lots. Each of these river lots might contain one or two houses and as many as twelve stables, byres or storehouses. Because few families could survive by farming alone most also participated in trade, wage labour, fishing and, at times, hunting. The few families that could survive without these additional labours were the natural aristocracy of Red River:

In general it may be said that the buildings which in Canada would be considered good country homes are exclusively possessed and occupied by the retired officers of the Hudson's Bay Company, the traders and merchants of the Settlement and the clergy.[7]

The construction of Lower Fort Garry, between 1830 (with the erection of the first buildings) and 1846 (with the completion of walls) was a boon for the settlers at the rapids, then called Grand Rapids. This Fort was meant to replace Upper Fort Garry, a major commercial centre which was damaged by floods in 1826. Governor George Simpson of the HBC had chosen the new site because of its elevation and its proximity to sources of stone and lime. While the Lower Fort never did overtake the Upper Fort, (which was rebuilt in the mid-1830s), it did emerge as the country seat of the Governor of Rupert's Land when he was in residence at Red River (Plate 5).

Plate 4.   The river lot pattern is evident in this depiction of the flat landscape of the settlement.
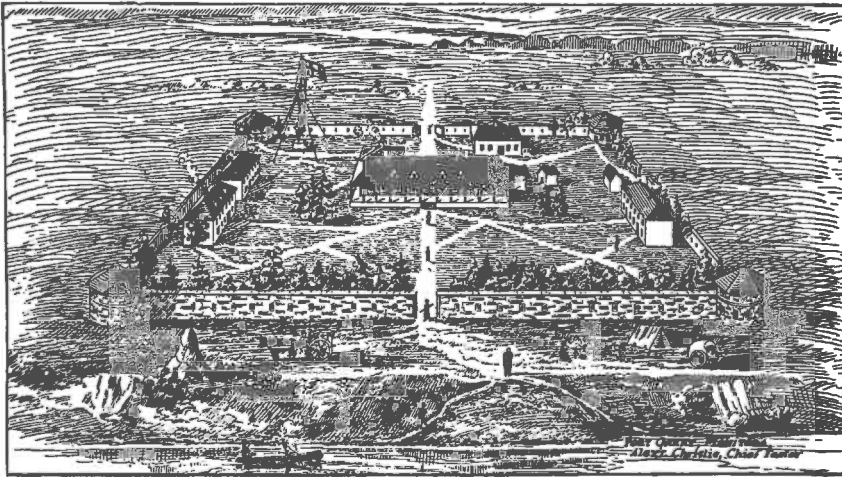
From the 1850s until the 1880s, Grand Rapids (eventually the Parish of St. Andrews*) was a prosperous community with larger cultivated fields and more independent traders than the other parishes in the settlement (Plate 6). The people were, in this new land, united by an Anglican faith, family ties and friendship derived from their common experience in the fur trade and the pleasantries of daily life in an isolated community, linked to the south only by a few trails (Plate 7).

By the late 1860s external pressures -- the clamour for a trans-continental railway, the expectations of dispossessed farmers in Upper Canada who required a land base and expansionist threats from the United States -- were being felt at Red River. And the impending conclusion of HBC rule in the Northwest was, of course, of great concern. A political crisis finally erupted in 1869, precipitated by the Dominion Land Survey, a monolithic reorganization of the land into a regular grid, which threatened to sweep aside the traditional river lot system. While the

old society and especially the Metis, led by Louis Riel, were able to control Canadian annexation of the region, they were afterwards always on the defensive. Before another decade had passed the country born population, especially the Metis and the mixed bloods, were supplanted by the incoming Ontario settlers in politics and, to a considerable extent, in social and economic life.[8]

The addition of Manitoba in 1870 to the Canadian Confederation had a profound impact on the future development of the province as a whole and of the planning area specifically. Perhaps most greatly affected was population growth. By the middle of the 1870s settlers from Ontario, displaced by the dearth of good available farmland, were arriving to establish homesteads in those areas untried by earlier settlers. In the Selkirk and District Planning Area this meant that those wooded areas on the west side of the river, behind the river lots, were gradually patented for farmsteads. By the early 1870s families had set claims on various

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* This report has relied on historical maps for the spelling of parish, municipality and church names. Two of the parishes are plural: St. Andrews and St. Clements. One is singular: St. Peter. The Rural Municipalities are plural: St Andrews and St. Clements. The three parish churches are possessive: St. Andrew's, St. Clement's and St. Peter's.

sections throughout the area, avoiding the large swampy tracts below Lake Winnipeg and east of the Red.

In the planning area, as throughout the original extent of the province (before 1881 comprising only 600 square kilometres), immigration during the 1870s was a slow process. The large-scale influx imagined by federal bureaucrats awaited the arrival of the Canadian Pacific Railway, a transportation system that could provide access to the prairies while offering farmers efficient egress for their produce. Sandford Fleming, the Chief Engineer of the CPR, had proposed a route for the company's mainline, in Manitoba, through the Selkirk and District Planning Area, and
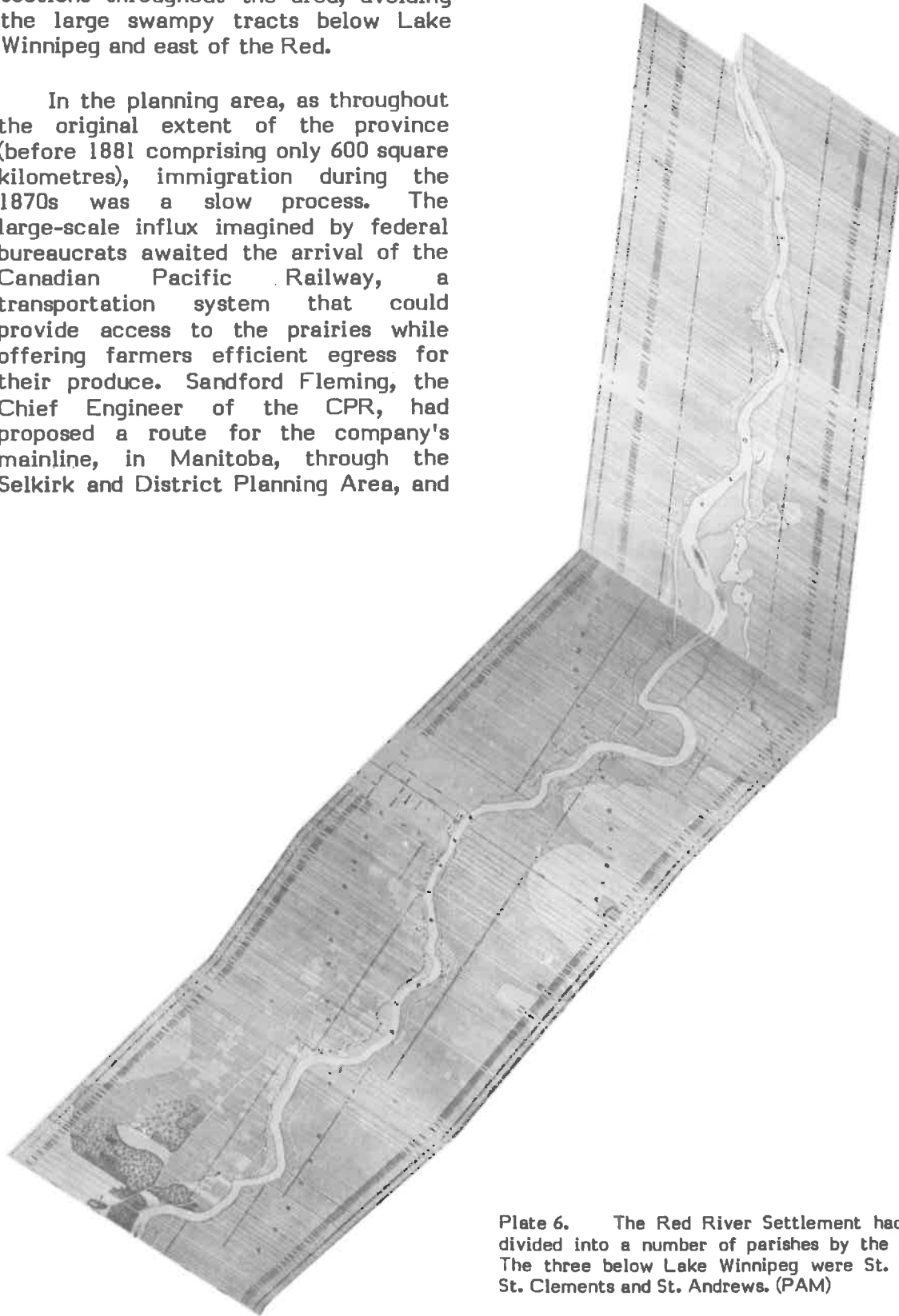

Plate 6. The Red River Settlement had been divided into a number of parishes by the 1840s. The three below Lake Winnipeg were St. Peter, St. Clements and St. Andrews. (PAM)

Plate 7. River Road was one of the major roads linking St. Andrews and the Upper Fort. (PAM)

thence to the Northwest. In 1874 surveyors had reached the Red at present-day East Selkirk and had commenced plans to cross the river at that point. Anticipation of a city developing on the west side fostered speculation and the growth of a townsite. By 1875 a community named Selkirk had formed. Fleming's plan for a mainline through Selkirk was a practical one in engineering terms, but not sound politically or economically. While the business lights of Selkirk fought valiantly to see the mainline pass through their town (and the main depot consequently built there) the power and money ultimately rested in Winnipeg. In 1879 the mainline swung southward and continued on a more southerly route than proposed by Fleming. The main depot was built in Winnipeg and Selkirk's only link to the CPR came in 1881 by way of a branchline.

While the grand dreams for their community, and for the area, faded, the advent of the railway age nevertheless revolutionized the planning area. Immigrants from Ontario, the United Kingdom and the United States began arriving in droves. More homesteads were patented west of the old river lots. There still remained, however, large tracts of swamp that deterred settlement. In 1882 residents of Selkirk had sought to drain the western swamps to open the area for a farming hinterland. But the $75,000 cost proved

prohibitive and that endeavour had to wait until 1899.[9] The community of Selkirk was not without resources, however, and a booming fishing and lumber trade on Lake Winnipeg became the economic backbone of the town (Plate 8).

Although the CPR had finally opened Manitoba for a flood of immigration, the full potential for settlement in western Canada was still not being met. During the 1890s Sir Clifford Sifton, Canadian Minister for the Interior, embarked on a programme of massive immigration. A special target was Eastern Europe, where over-population and poverty were debilitating. In 1896 the first few Ukrainian immigrants arrived and one hundred thousand followed these before World War I brought the programme to an end.

East Selkirk was a notable centre in the processing of Ukrainian immigrants in Manitoba (Plate 9). The Immigration Shed, located in the old CPR roundhouse, was pressed into service and between 1898 and 1907 several thousand Ukrainians passed through its doors. While many of these new Canadians travelled to Winnipeg or further west, to the Dauphin area and parts of Saskatchewan and Alberta, some chose to remain in the planning area. Many settled on the east bank of the Red River, a five-mile walk south of East Selkirk or, further east, below

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Plate 8.   An aerial view of the Town of Selkirk, Ca. 1880. (PAM) Several aspects of the illustration are misleading. The original caption is incorrect; the town was not founded by Lord Selkirk. Moreover, the swing railway bridge was never built and the river traffic itself is unbelievably busy.

the Brokenhead Indian Reserve.

The arrival of the Ukrainian settlers in the West coincided with an unprecedented period of growth and development. Farming was finally a great success: wheat poured in and so did money. Winnipeg had grown so much that it was considered a possible rival to Chicago. Smaller communities like Selkirk flourished as businesses abounded to deal with the farm trade. Villages also sprang up in the planning area. Communities like Clandeboye and Petersfield on the west side and Garson and Libau on the east side were formed at this time, providing the countryside with bricks, flour milling, lumber and a host of other services and products.

Plate 9.   Ukrainian immigrants debarking from the trains at East Selkirk. (From: East Side of the Red, p. 65.) The immigration shed is on the left.

In the planning area market gardens were developed to serve Winnipeg. Selkirk also served the metropolis to the south: it produced iron works from its foundry (relocated there from St. Boniface); and it provided resources for summer vacationers. Other areas of the planning area drew Winnipeg fun-seekers north. Winnipeg Beach was developed by the CPR in the early 1900s as a resort, complete with a large hotel, a dance hall and a roller coaster (Plate 10). On the other side of the Lake, Grand Beach was also developed, in this case by the Canadian Northern Railway, in 1913.

The Great War of 1914-1918 drew this exciting era to a close. The following twenty years were ones of caution, financial insecurity and finally the deep economic depression of the 1930s. After World War II, however, the expansive spirit of the earlier period was somewhat revived. Agricultural innovations altered farm organization throughout the area; market gardening remained a mainstay along the Red while the drained tracts behind the old river lots were developed into large operations. Technical improvements revolutionized urban and rural buildings. By the 1940s central heating, indoor plumbing, electricity and improved insulation brought the comforts and amenities of urban house design to farm homes.

With these progressive developments, many traces of the great immigration era of the turn of the century, together with those of the early settlement era, have been lost. Only some of the buildings from these two distinct periods remain. And these few survivors must be retained if we are to maintain a link with our past.

Plate 10. Winnipeg Beach on a busy weekend. (From: Beyond the Gates of Lower Fort Garry, p. 132.)

BUILDING ANALYSIS

The Selkirk and District Planning Area, as an integral element of the earliest settlement era in western Canada, contains several of the most important pre-1870 buildings in the province. In addition to these monuments of Manitoba's past, there are also a number of interesting buildings that date from the formation of the province in 1870, which are certainly of local significance. A discussion of architecture in the planning area, then, will focus on these two distinct periods: 1) the fur trade and early settlement eras, both of which were transformed by 1870; and 2) the post-1870 period, which saw the introduction of the railways, large influxes of settlers, the growth of the agricultural sector and the development of mass-produced building products. Before the architectural developments of these two periods are examined, however, it would be enlightening to consider an architectural tradition with completely different roots.

Native Buildings

The conical hide-covered tipi was the most common building form used by the Native Indians throughout western Canada (Plate 11). Weathertight and light, tipis reflected the nomadic nature of the Cree, Assiniboine and Saulteaux groups that inhabited the planning area at various times. The eminently practical structure could be easily disassembled -- poles, skins and lashings were all recyclable -- and transported to a new hunting ground and new site. If the group consisted of only a few families no particular arrangement of tipis was followed. In large gatherings a camp circle, with an open space to the south, was arranged.[10] In either case the site was chosen for its ready availability of wood and water.

To erect the tipi, three long poles were laid on the ground and lashed together at one end with a long strip of rawhide. The poles were raised and the legs of the resulting tripod were spread apart. An extra length of the rawhide lash extended to the ground, where it was staked to stabilize the structure. According to the size of the tipi frame, the total number of secondary poles varied. The Cree added thirteen poles, arranged in a counter-clockwise direction, to the basic three-pole framework.

A buffalo hide cover for the tipi was drawn around the frame so that just one section, reserved for the entrance, remained uncovered. Thongs were lashed across the two door poles, which framed this uncovered section, at heights of about two metres (or close to five and seven feet) to provide foot rests for covering the upper section of the entrance. After the cover had been pinned together the poles were spread further apart until the cover was taut. The bottom of the cover was fastened to the ground by driving short wooden pegs through eyelets in the cover itself, or through looped thongs fastened to it.

The entrance to the tipi was an elliptical opening covered with a skin flap stretched over a U-shaped willow frame. The door flap itself was hung from two thongs fastened to the outside of the cover immediately above the opening. The only other opening in the tipi was the smoke-hole, the uncovered apex at the intersection of the pole framework. The smoke-hole was flanked by two projections of the cover, known as tipi "ears". A pole was inserted into a hole in each "ear"; these poles could be shifted to regulate the size and shape of the smoke-hole and, consequently, the draught within the dwelling. The fireplace, around which the ten or twelve inhabitants of the dwelling gathered, was in the centre of the tipi. The place of honour was behind the fire, opposite the door.

Plate 11.   An Indian encampment. (PAM)

The construction of the tipi also took into account the rigours of the central North American climate. An attached wall of buffalo hides was often used to line the inner sides of the tipi. Hay was stuffed between this screen and the tipi cover, providing insulation in winter and preventing cold draughts. For ventilation in summer the bottom of the cover could be rolled up on the poles to a height of about one metre from the ground.

The tipi was not simply a refuge, however, but was used as a basis for spiritual expression, shrouded as it was with ceremony and ritual. For example, after the buffalo hides had been cut for the tipi cover, a feast would be prepared for all the women in the camp. When they had eaten, the women each were assigned a section of the cover to sew. The ritual surrounding this process required that the sinews used in attaching the sections were not clipped. It was believed that if the threads were trimmed, the occupants of the dwelling would become mean and stingy.

Objects of ceremony, like pipes and animal skins, were also often attached to or stored on the tipi. Sacred bundles were hung on small tripods that were set up behind many tipis. Painting on the tipi was the most common visual expression of Indian spirituality. However, in order to have a picture of his spirit helper painted on the tipi cover, it was necessary for a husband to receive his wife's permission. After all, the women made the tipi, set it up and owned it. War records were also occasionally painted on the covers. In addition, these painted tipis were subject to special regulations -- fire, for example, could not be removed from them.

Besides the tipi there were several temporary shelters that the Native Indians of Manitoba built. One was constructed by stacking boughs in a conical form or by leaning them against a convenient tree. Hunters on forays would often erect a windbreak by stretching a robe between two upright poles. Men out on a long chase sometimes dug a hole in a riverbank as shelter for the night. During the winter, on such excursions, a hole was scooped out in a snowbank and its floor was lined with buffalo chips.

In addition to the semi-permanent tipis and the temporary hunting shelters, the Native Indians of the West constructed a variety of ceremonial structures. These included the sweatlodge, a

dome-shaped structure made with arched willow branches and buffalo hide covers. Two other ceremonial structures, the "sapohtowa'n" and the "wewahtahoka'n" were both used for special dances. The "sapohtowa'n" was a long lodge with apsidal ends. The structural components of this building were a pair of tripods, made of poles and set about eight metres apart, which supported a long ridgepole. Ordinary tipi poles were laid against the ridge pole and in a semicircle around each tripod. Tipi covers or brush were placed over the lower part of the frame; the upper portion remained open. The "wewahtahoka'n", literally "joined together tipi", was a tipi framework so large that two covers were needed to enclose it. While tipis were erected by the women of the village, these ceremonial structures were set up by the men.

Early Settlement Architecture (1750-1869)

The arrival of Lord Selkirk's crofters, while eventually upsetting the economic and cultural nature of the West, did very little to change the architectural trends established during the fur trade era of the eighteenth century. Indeed, from 1812 until well into the sixth decade of the nineteenth century, these settlers relied on those forms and materials used by the major fur trading companies. And for the HBC, the most influential of these companies, there had been two major types of buildings prevalent in the West since the eighteenth century. One was characterized by log construction, the other, stone. Generally the log structures far outnumbered the large stone buildings. For settlers at Red River log buildings were also predominant. Consolidation of the community saw larger log buildings attempted and stone buildings become familiar.

A discussion of Red River frame architecture, as the most common type of log structure in this era is popularly known, will provide information on the construction technique and its European and eastern Canadian precedents. Besides houses, Red River frame outbuildings, mills, schools and churches will also be examined. An analysis of the stone houses and the four pre-1870 stone churches in the planning area will follow a similar outline.

Red River Frame Houses

Log buildings identified by the term Red River frame throughout this study are also known by several different names, including "poteaux sur sole", "piece sur piece" and post and sill. The French nominal equivalents and the straightforward structural designation can be shown to underline the origin of Red River frame, as well as its basic structural concept.

Red River frame construction had its origins both in Europe and New France. Its forerunner, the "maison en columbage" of New France, popular from 1630 until the late eighteenth century, had been inherited from France (Plate 12).[11] The French

Plate 12. "Maison en columbage", a very common construction procedure used in New France during the seventeenth century (From: Building a House in New France, p. 24.)

ancestor, "columbage Pierrote", was a medieval half-timbered house that was constructed using closely spaced wooden studs, the intervening spaces of which were filled with a mixture of mortar and stone. Transplanted to the extreme climate of New France, the mortar and stone mixture fared poorly and was eventually substituted with logs, a better insulator. Initially, these wooden inserts were, like the structural posts, vertical. However, this procedure also proved imperfect, as the vertical filler logs were not weathertight and shrank and warped over time, occasionally falling from the building. Soon short, horizontal members, joined to the posts in a tongue-and-groove manner, arose as the best solution.

This procedure became the preferred alternative for the construction of wooden houses in New France and spread to western Canada with the French employees of the various fur trade companies. When fur traders, based in Montreal with the North West Company, began their forays into the West after 1760, the

wooden "columbage" was quickly established. After the amalgamation of the North West Company with the Hudson's Bay Company in 1821, the technique was spread across the continent, from Labrador to Vancouver Island.[12]

The styles and procedures of Red River frame thus came to this area by way of North West Company traders. And when the first settlers arrived in 1812 they seem to have adopted it without hesitation. Their fort was built using Red River frame construction, as were individual houses and churches throughout the Settlement, including the planning area.

In Manitoba, as in Quebec, Red River frame buildings consisted of comparatively long vertical posts and shorter horizontal logs that were combined to form the four walls (Plate 13). To produce the frame, the vertical logs, squared at least on two sides, were connected by mortise and tenon joints to the bottom sill logs -- which for greater moisture resistance and load-bearing capacity, were often of a
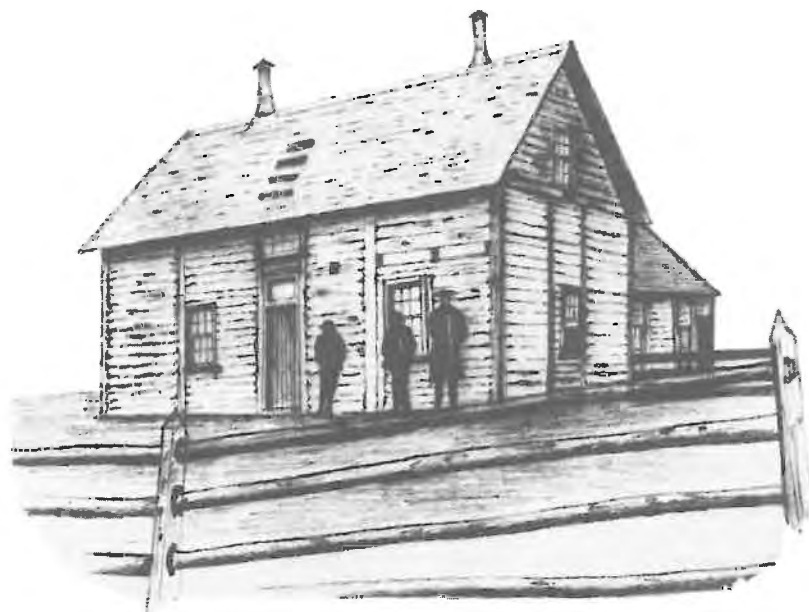

Plate 13.   A typical Red River frame structure at Red River. (PAM)

harder wood than was used in the rest of the building -- and to the wall plates above (Plate 14). The horizontal logs that filled the space between two of the vertical logs were cut back about fifteen centimetres at either end to form tongues. These projections were slipped into vertical grooves cut into the posts. Windows and doors were often set between a smaller upright and one of the major structural ones. Typically, the building was raised on a foundation of fieldstones and covered with a thatched roof.

The procedure involved in Red River frame construction, by which the short logs could expand and contract with variations in temperature without being dislodged, created a durable structure resistant to the climatic extremes characteristic of Manitoba. Another consideration that likely influenced the choice of horizontal filler logs here was the uneven supply of long straight logs.

The standard spacing of about one and a half metres between uprights encouraged the use of short and irregular sections of timber. One individual, with a few portable tools could thus do most of the work unaided. With two or three helpers, and the timbers pre-cut, the assembly of such a house might take just one or two days. Few nails were used in the structure; the building was held together by the interlocking joints and wooden pegs. A particular advantage of Red River frame construction was its capacity for enlargement. Unlike those buildings constructed using single continuous logs, the component nature of Red River frame permitted the easy removal of an end wall and the addition of more units.

The wood necessary for these structures was abundant before 1840, when the rivers were bordered with maples, elm and oak. Afterwards, however, logs had to be cut many miles upstream and floated in booms to the
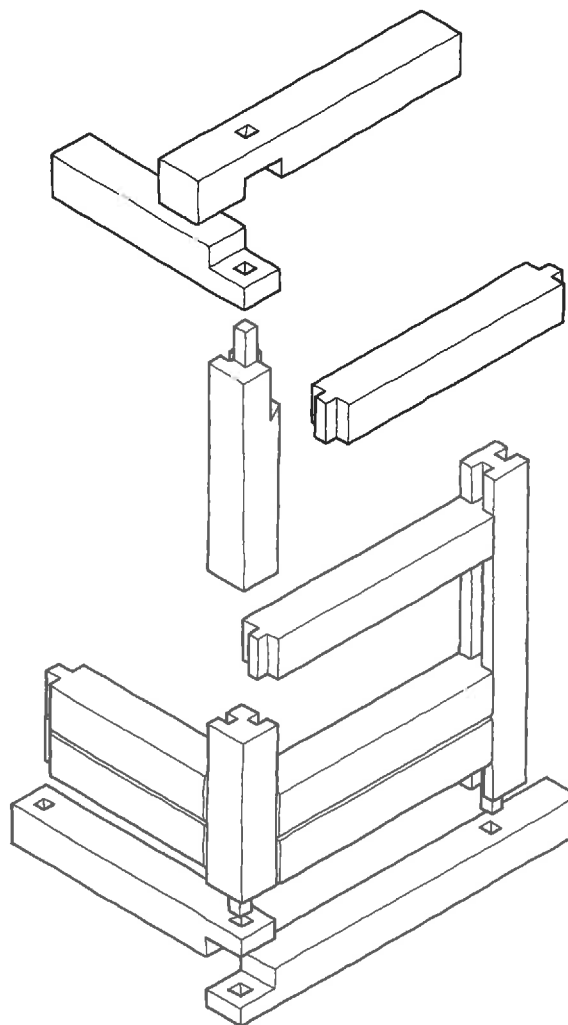
Plate 14. Construction procedures of Red River frame.

construction site. Timber was also obtained at "the pines", the wooded ridges east of the Red River and along the shores of Lake Winnipeg.[13] In general, oak was used for the frame and pine for the floors. The other materials necessary for the building's construction were also at hand. Hay for thatch was cut from the plains and the river banks offered up an endless supply of mud to be used in filling cracks in log walls, making plaster and finishing chimneys and fireplaces.

Although some large Red River frame structures, like the Grey Nun's Convent in St. Boniface, were built,

(Plate 15) most of these rough log buildings were small. Typically the houses were partitioned into one, two or three rooms by walls constructed of poplar trunks, lathwork and plaster. Contemporary accounts show that the settlers lived fairly comfortably in these small unpretentious dwellings:

It is a log cabin, like all of this class (some far better ones have walls of stone) with a thatched roof and a rough stone and mortar chimney planted against one wall. Inside is but a single room, well whitewashed, as is indeed the outside and exceptionally tidy; a bed occupies one corner, a sort of couch another, a rung ladder leads up to loose boards overhead which form an attic, a trap door in the middle of the room opens to a small hole in the ground where milk and butter are kept cool; from the beam is suspended a hammock, used as a cradle for the baby; shelves singularly hung hold a scanty stock of plates, knives and forks; two windows on either side, covered with mosquito netting, admit light, and a modicum of air; chests and boxes supply the place of seats with

here and there a keg by way of an easy-chair.[14]

A fine distinction was made between the little Red River frame abodes of the European settlers and those constructed by the Metis, which, according to Alexander Ross in 1856, "generally speaking, exhibited more of the discomforts that attend [an] encampment in their dwellings...."[15] Reverend William Cockran's description of the houses at the Indian settlement of St. Peter's, however, does not differ markedly from the description of the European log cabin above:

The seams of the log walls were plastered with mud; the chimneys were of the same material; the roofs were thatched with reeds and covered with earth; the boards of the floors, and doors, and beds, were planed with the saw and the windows were formed of parchment made of the skins of fishes.[16]

While Red River frame houses were once numerous along the Red and Assiniboine Rivers, there is only one known to exist in the planning area now. The former McDonald house was originally located on Eveline Street --

indeed it once sat in the middle of that street before the Town of Selkirk was formed -- and was moved to Selkirk Park in 1965 (Plate 16). The Red River frame house was certainly built before 1865 and may date from the late 1850s. The structure was constructed by John and Sarah McDonald, English mixed bloods, who squatted on River Lot 48 before the area was surveyed. John McDonald was a freighter who travelled frequently to St. Paul while Sarah tended the farm and raised their ten children.

Plate 16.   The former McDonald house.

The building has been reroofed recently (it originally was thatched) and the interior has been altered, although some elements of the nineteenth century remain. The poor condition of the log walls is actually the outcome of lean-to additions made many years ago. As these wood framed additions were affixed to the original Red River frame walls those originally exterior walls, with window and door openings, became interior partitions. Many of the openings were no longer required and were filled with short log members and plastered over. Only when the additions were removed, the building relocated and the plaster left to the elements did the original fenestration pattern re-emerge.

Red River Frame Barns and Outbuildings

The few rough outbuildings on these first farms could be constructed using Red River frame or one of a few other log construction techniques (these, including the saddlenotch and dovetail will be discussed in more detail in a later section, "Southern Ontario Influences", pages 50-54). Frequently, the barns, granaries and other storage facilities were smaller and more hastily constructed than the house. They

Plate 17.   This farmyard near St. Andrew's has several log outbuildings scattered within its enclosure, all of similar form and construction as the house. (PAM)

nevertheless resembled in form and construction procedures, the typical Red River frame abode (Plate 17).

In addition to the McDonald house in Selkirk there are, of Red River frame, two barns in the planning area. The first of these is a 1920 recycling of the original timbers from a ca. 1860 barn (Plate 18). When part of the farm, near Lower Fort Garry, was sold after the turn of the century, the old, large Red River frame barn became impractical and was dismantled. Suitable vertical posts and horizontal filler logs were reclaimed and used in a smaller new barn, as were the original hand-forged hinges and locks (Plate 19). The original thatch roof of the old barn had long since been replaced by a wooden gable roof and in the new barn this was succeeded by a more modern gambrel.

A physical reconstruction of the original barn is not strictly possible. Local evidence and a knowledge of Red River frame traditions, though, can provide some sense of the original structure. Approximately ten metres long and five metres wide, the walls were comprised of horizontal logs set between uprights about two metres apart (Plate 20). Two large doors, on opposing sides of the barn, provided access for the ten cattle that were kept inside[17]. Three small windows on the south side lit the interior. The floor of the barn was covered with rough planking and the roof was likely thatched in the local manner.

The second of the two Red River frame barns to be found in the area is a much more significant structure (Plate 21). Several factors suggest that this building, which was moved in the 1920s, may have originally stood in Lower Fort Garry. Its wall logs are oak, a much more durable wood than was typically used by farming settlers. Carefully cut beaded beams, often used in residential construction at the Fort, imply that the structure was built from components

Plate 18.   Kuhn barn, just south of Lower Fort Garry.

Plate 19.   The original hand-forged locks and hinges were used on the reconstruction of the Kuhn barn.

scavenged from other buildings and may have been used in the Fort's yard for some utilitarian purpose. Most telling is the presence on two of the barn doors of hand-forged hinges and wrought nails, both very typical of the hardware used at the Lower Fort (Plate 22).
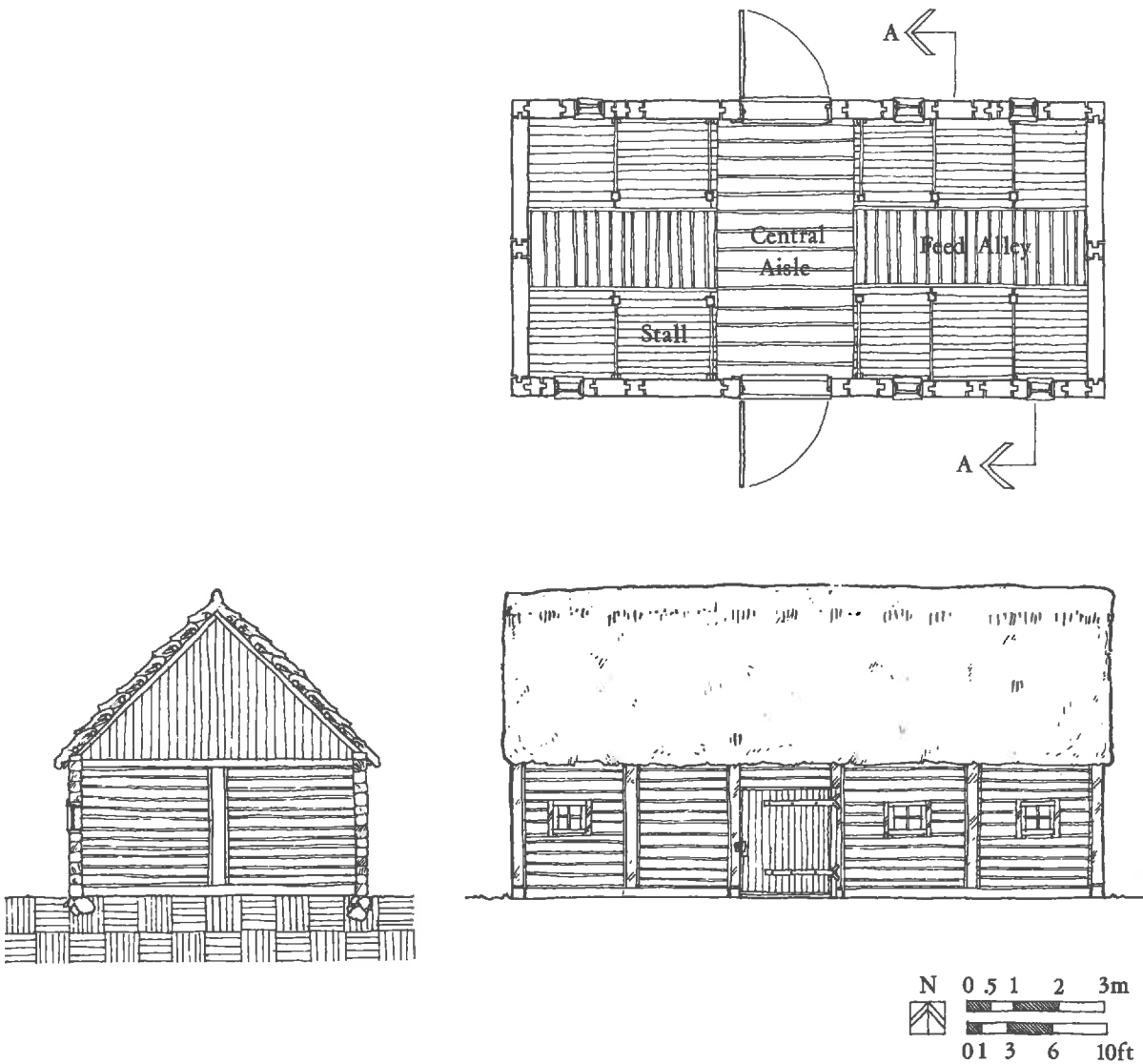
Plate 20.   Suggested plan, section and elevation of the original Kuhn barn.

Today the old barn is in poor condition, due in large measure to a deteriorated roof. The logs are protected by cove siding but several on the south side are, nevertheless, rotting. A number of trees are growing up beside the structure but do not appear to have heaved the rough stone foundation, which currently provides an adequate level support for the walls.

One other outbuilding, a mill, was not found on every farm, but was common enough to be considered a part of the Red River landscape. In the planning area there were at least five mills operating at various times before 1870.[18] Both wind and water mills, the former more numerous, supplied the grain grinding services that became increasingly necessary as the

Plate 21.   Red River frame barn at SW10-14-4E.

Plate 22.   The interior of the barn at SW10-14-4E reveals the beaded beams and the differently finished wall logs -- the lower ones are squared, the upper ones are left rounded -- that suggest the structure was composed of pieces from several buildings.

Settlement prospered (Plate 23). A thorough account of a water mill constructed by Donald Gunn near Lockport not only provides some interesting insights into the quiet busy life of an early settler, but conveys a sense of the trials associated with building in this province before 1870.[19] That the building itself was associated with such a complex mechanism as a water wheel obviously stretched Donald Gunn's own constructive ingenuity, but the story was likely a familiar one for those constructing their own simple houses.

Plate 23.   A windmill at the Settlement. (PAM)

Gunn's Creek, which runs into the Red River just above Lockport, went on spring rampages and Donald Gunn, like several others along the river with an entrepreneurial spirit, took advantage of the situation. While the creek's power was limited and intermittent, there was the wheat of a growing colony to be ground and so Gunn, during the 1850s, began to build his flour mill.

Construction of a dam and wheel house proceeded during the summer months, when the creek was low. A dyke of limestone, reinforced with a heavy sloped bank of clay, interrupted the water flow. The mill building itself was log, probably of Red River frame construction, eight by eleven metres and two storeys high, set on a fieldstone foundation (Plate 24). The thatched roof required constant maintenance. Light was provided by two small windows on the south side, though it also diffused in through the cracks between the unchinked logs. The grinding stones and sundry bins for wheat storage were contained in the upper storey. Located in the lower level was the machinery, the great spindles and wheels that distributed power to the various working parts.

Except for a few small metal gears brought from St. Louis, Missouri, and some brass bolting cloth from England, every wheel and spindle and all the other working parts in the mill were manufactured from local materials by local craftsmen. Most of the components for the great water wheel were constructed during the winter months from native oak by Mr. Gunn himself, a self-taught wheelwright and joiner.

The mill was equipped with two run-off grinding stones. These granite stones were chiselled out of the east side of Lake Winnipeg, opposite Grindstone Point, and were transported by York Boat to a site near the mill. Here the two and a half metre wide, one quarter metre thick stones were patterned with the grinding surfaces by local stonecutters.

When the mill was completed there was no lack of grists (cleaned grain intended for grinding). Farmers from the area brought their crops down in squeaking Red River carts, in skiffs, dugouts and York Boats. More often than not it was water that was lacking, not grists. In dry periods the grists accumulated and awaited the miller, who, in his turn awaited a steady flow of water. However, for approximately twenty years Donald Gunn's mill provided a necessary service to nearby farmers. With the introduction of large steam-powered flour mills and their

improved machinery and grinding methods, patronage at the old mill fell off. The mill was closed during the 1870s and some time later it was dismantled. This fate eventually befell all of the Settlement's old mills, water and wind.

Red River Frame Public and Commercial Structures

Churches and schools and a few other public buildings in the Settlement were also initially constructed of logs using Red River frame procedures. In the planning area there were a few of these buildings, notably the schools at St. Peter's and St. Clements and the churches at St. Andrew's, St. Peter's

and Little Britain. The occasional store, located on the farmsite of an entrepreneurial settler, was probably of similar size, design and form to Red River frame houses [20]. The churches and schools were, however, afforded more care in their construction and relied on traditional elements to define their special function: a tower and steeple for a church; perhaps a vestibule with a squat tower for a school.

The Red River frame church in the Parish of St. John's, south of the planning area, constructed by the Reverend James West, was of simple design (Plate 25). A bell tower of Red River frame construction was lit by diamond-shaped windows and topped with a steeple of hewn timbers. The
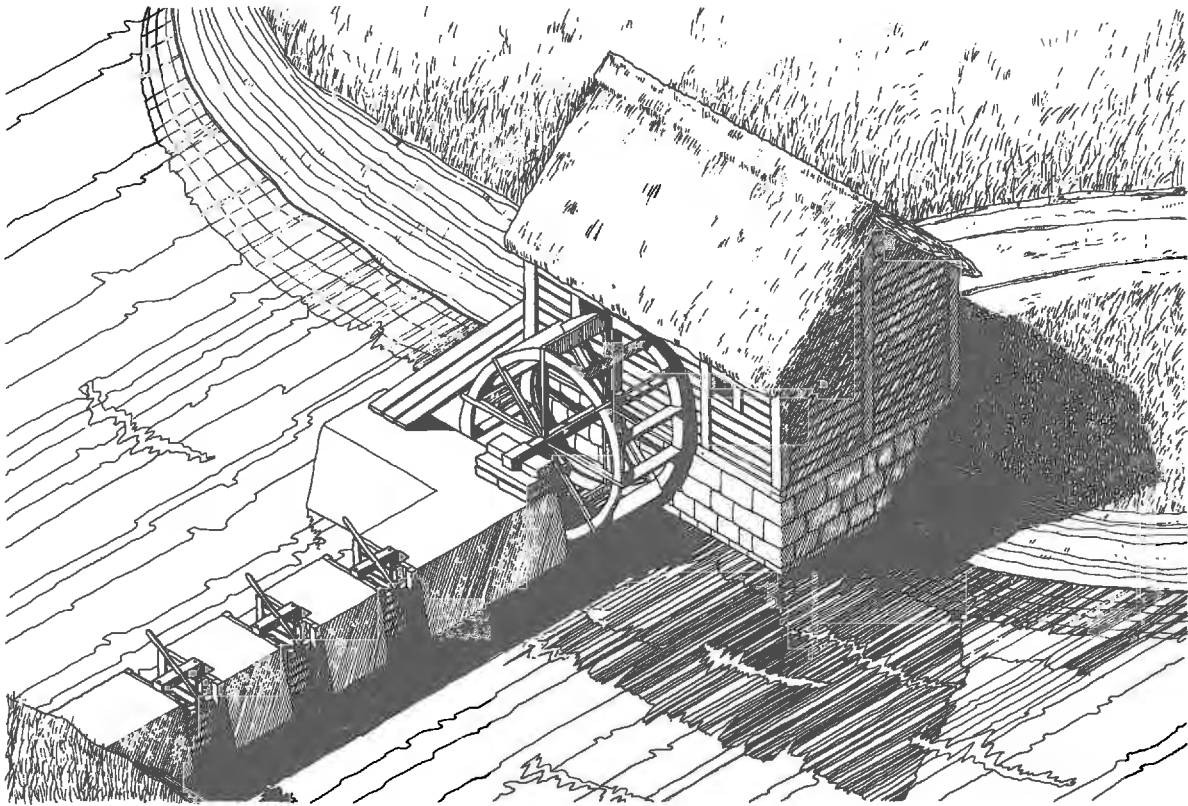

Plate 24.   A suggested reconstruction of Donald Gunn's water mill.

Plate 25.   The Red River frame church and school at St. John's. (PAM)

nave, covered with a thatched roof, was lit along its length by small windows set near the roof line and spaced according to the structural intervals. The school was considerably simpler but did have a vestibule and small addition at the back.

The Early Construction Types

Not every log building in Red River was of Red River frame construction. Some rough log cabins joined with saddlenotch or dovetail corner connections were also built. These others, however, were few in comparison with the ubiquitous Red River frame. The object itself of certain refinements, a Red River frame structure could be covered on its exterior with a layer of mud and clay and then whitewashed to give a more dignified appearance. Such a building was the first office of the Nor'Wester, an important early newspaper (Plate 26).

Nonetheless, Red River frame remained the most popular building technology among European settlers, Metis and many Indians in the Settlement and the planning area until 1870. And of course it continued to be used in fur trade buildings. That log construction, and not especially sophisticated log construction, remained predominant in the settlement for sixty years, while light wood frame construction was well established in the east, indicates the effects of isolation on the colony. The lack of saw mills was decisive. A saw mill had been built by 1860 but it was destroyed by fire, and mills were not re-established with any permanency until the 1870s[21]. Without saw mills any widespread use of wood frame construction was impossible.

Plate 26.   The Nor'Wester Office. (PAM)

When, in the years following 1870, new homesteaders from Ontario began arriving in great numbers, they brought with them their own log construction traditions. These

procedures were to be popular for only a short time before becoming outmoded. New tastes in architectural styles eventually superceded log construction; and other building materials, like light wood frame and brick, finally became available as contact with the east and south became more regular. Before that, however, there was another building material and another building tradition that, from 1830 until 1870, rose alongside the small Red River frame buildings in the Settlement -- stone.

Stone Houses

As the Red River Settlement was consolidated, several of its most prominent citizens aspired to build more prestigious houses. Red River frame log buildings could not provide the aura of comfort and sophistication that the natural aristocracy of the Settlement -- the retired Hudson's Bay Company fur factors, merchants and clergymen -- sought. And so, drawing again from the architecture of the fur trade, these individuals began to build the few large stone houses that today still grace the banks of the Red River.

Much of this handful of mid-nineteenth century stone houses, including the original Hawthorne Lodge and a host of other handsome houses, is now gone (Plates 27 and 28). Yet, besides the expertly restored buildings at Lower Fort Garry, there remain in the planning area, seven of the province's last nine Red River Settlement stone houses: Twin Oaks (Miss Davis' School), Maple Grove (Kennedy House), St. Andrew's Rectory, St. Peter's Dynevor Rectory, Hay house, Bunn house and Scott house.

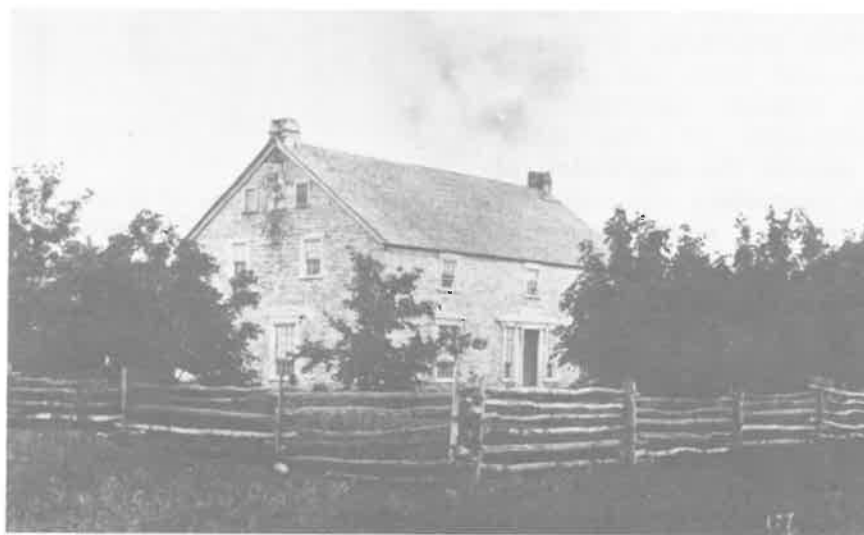

Plate 27.   Hawthorne Lodge. (PAM)

Plate 28.   A fine stone house once at St. Andrews. (PAM)

29

The precedents for these remarkable domestic buildings, like the precedents for Red River frame structures, can be traced through architectural examples offered by the fur trade, to French and especially to Scottish origins. The Scottish manor house and the Quebec stone house provided the basis for similar buildings that would be reproduced in the wilderness of western Canada with such startling effect. Because these buildings are of seminal importance for the architectural history of this province, even of this country, they will be discussed in much more detail than will other buildings in this report.

From the beginning of the eighteenth century and the onset of the Georgian era in Scotland -- and more importantly in the Orkney Islands, where many of the Hudson's Bay Company employees originated -- a more formal house than was previously popular, gained recognition both in the town and in the country (Plate 29). This house was distinguished by a symmetrical plan and facade in which windows were regularly placed about a central door (Plate 30). These essentials were seen in the large manors of the nobility as well as in the smaller residences of merchants and clergy. The grand designs of the large houses owed their spectacle, of course, to architects, and were not readily imitated with smaller budgets. The underlying principles of the style, however, did permit the expression of elegance and propriety in simpler terms. Increasingly, small Georgian houses in Scotland were copied from pattern books and built by local craftsmen.

The "laird's house", so-called because it was built by a small landowner, was the architectural basis for similar houses built in Manitoba.[22] A building of symmetrical design and modest size, two storeys with an attic, the "laird's house" retained something of the local vernacular character. It
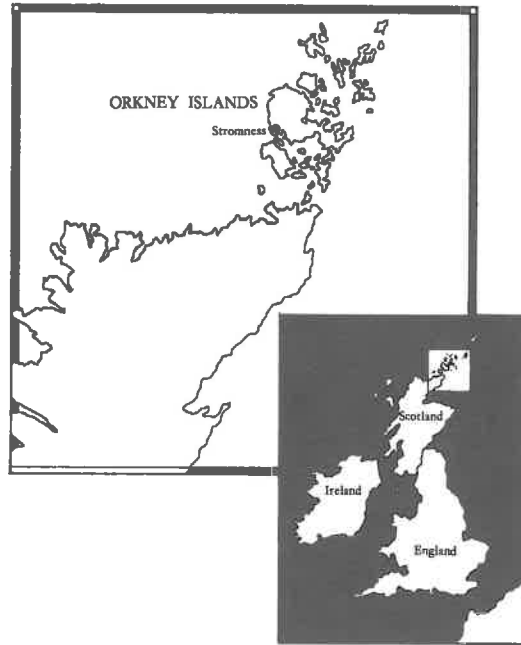

Plate 29. Many HBC employees had originated from the Orkney Islands, whose climate was as forbidding as Canada's. Stromness was the town at which HBC ships bound for North America made their last European stop.

Plate 30. Facade of a stone manor house in Scotland. (From: APT Journal, Vol. XII, No. 3, 1980, p. 94.)

became widely adopted for parish ministers, merchants and master craftsmen and was built by many of those same people who emigrated to Manitoba during the first half of the nineteenth century.

The "laird's house" consisted of a plain rectangular plan covered with a

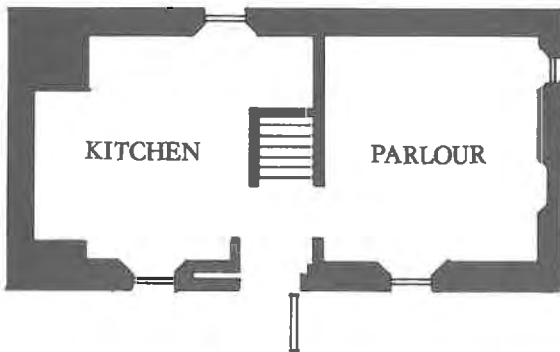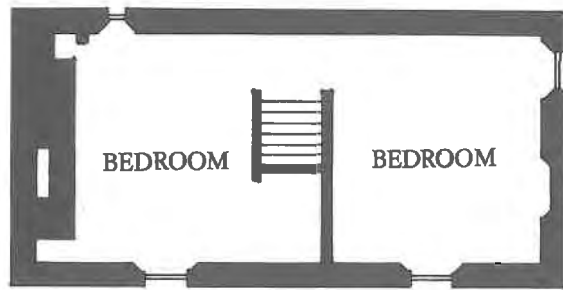BEDROOM   BEDROOM

KITCHEN   PARLOUR

Plate 31.   Plans of a typical laird's house.

gable or, occasionally, a hip roof. It was usually built of stone and lime mortar and was roofed with slate, pantile (a building slate with an "S" cross section), stone or, sometimes, thatch. Within the building a central staircase led from a small entrance vestibule to the upper floor (Plate 31). The two main rooms on either floor, which flanked the staircase, extended from front to back. A kitchen and parlour comprised the two ground floor rooms. Bedrooms were in the second storey and the attic was used for storage. Large fireplaces at either end of the building provided heat for warmth and cooking.

Stone houses in Quebec were also of importance for the construction of stone houses in the west. During the seventeenth century the vernacular traditions of Norman architecture had been readily transferred to New France and there emerged stone buildings of distinct character.[23] Regional variations in Quebec are certainly

evident, but the basic nature of domestic stone architecture is common: an oblong building with low whitewashed walls, high pitched roof and a large stone chimney in the centre (Plate 32). A large attic occupied the tall roof, which was punctuated by small dormer windows. The main door was ususally set off centre and opened into a large room, known as the "summer room", with a fireplace for cooking and, in the corner, a ladder to the attic (Plate 33). From the "summer room" a door lead to the elaborately decorated "winter room", used during the winter as family quarters but in summer as a state room for receiving distinguished visitors. Off the "winter room" might be located two small bedrooms for the parents; children slept in the cubicled space in the attic, also used as a storage space.

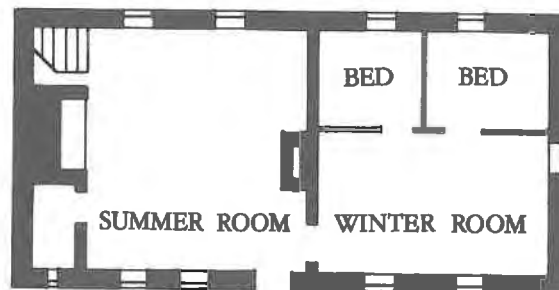Plate 32.   A typical Quebec stone house. (From: The Old Architecture of Quebec, p. 56.)

BED   BED

SUMMER ROOM   WINTER ROOM

Plate 33.   Plan of a typical French stone cottage. (From: Cottages of Quebec, p. 9.)

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The construction of these houses relied on the great knowledge of skilled peasant carpenters and stone masons. Of particular interest was the construction of the roof; framed with heavy timbers, its mortised and tenoned joints were secured with long wooden pegs. Roofs of earlier Quebec houses did not have greatly extended eaves. Only later were they extended, to keep snow away from windows and the wall head, creating a distinctive bellcast shape (Plate 34).

Plate 34. The distinctive bellcast roof and verandah of Quebec houses are evident here. (From: The Old Architecture of Quebec, p. 64.)

Both of these traditions -- French and Scottish -- were to find some expression in the West, through the work of specific stonemasons. Those from Quebec -- notably Pierre LeBlanc, responsible for much of the work at the Lower Fort -- were of considerable influence in the Settlement. In Manitoba the most notable expression of the French influence on stone houses is the so-called Big House at Lower Fort Garry (Plate 35). Built in 1831 by LeBlanc for Governor George Simpson and his wife, Frances, the Big House is a single storey building with symmetrical fenestration. It has a hipped roof although the sweeping verandah creates the impression of a bellcast or pavilion roof. The dainty dormers that grace the roof contrast with the sturdy quoins and window surrounds. The main entrance to the building is a Georgian composition, with side and transom lights (Plate 36). In total, the building appears slightly whimsical, a marked contrast with the other stone buildings on the yard.

Plate 35. The Big House at Lower Fort Garry. (PAM)

rectangular stone buildings with hipped roofs and regularly spaced windows.

By 1840 stone buildings were being constructed beyond the walls of the Lower Fort. Mostly the abodes of the wealthy, but also including those of ambitious farmers, the remainder of the stone structures in the planning area more clearly reflect the Scottish tradition expressed in the Fur House

More pervasive as an influence was the work of masons of English and Scottish origin. Two of the stone buildings at the Lower Fort, the Fur House, also built in 1831, and the Warehouse Building, of the same decade, are straightforward, unadorned buildings of excellent quality, without the light-hearted architectural sense of the Big House. They represent the first appearance of the typical "laird's house" in southern Manitoba (Plates 37 and 38). Other stone warehouses, now demolished, of similar nature were built in the early 1830s and were also large

and the Warehouse than the French influences of the Big House. Whatever their architectural differences these stone houses shared a common ambience. A description in Harper's Illustrated News, provides a striking contrast with the experience of Red River frame log buildings:

> A few well-selected books, house-plants in the windows, choice engravings on the wall, riding whips and guns in the hall, tobacco jars and pipes on the side-table, a melodean and accordeon and music-box in the room which New Englanders call a parlour, tell the story of how the pleasant summer days and long winter nights are whiled away, and how a life of exposure and adventure and toil is rounded with rest and calm and domestic peace.[24]

The seven stone houses remaining in the planning area reflect three trends in Red River Settlement architecture and society. Three buildings, the two single storey houses -- the Scott house and the Bunn house -- and the Hay house, which in its original form was but a single storey, generally recall the efforts of local farmers to emulate their richer neighbours. Three larger two-storey structures (St. Andrew's Rectory, St. Peter's Rectory and Twin Oaks) epitomize the Georgian approach to design undertaken by wealthy citizens of the community. A fourth two-storey structure, Kennedy house, exhibits the efforts of a scion of Red River society to update the Georgian tradition.

William Scott built a small stone house around 1855 as a replacement for an earlier log cabin. Scott was an Orkneyman who had worked for the HBC as a labourer and boatman. When he retired to Red River he married a local woman also of Orkney descent, 12 year old Ann Setter, and until his death in 1874, supported his family of 12 by

farming, fishing, hunting and day labour. Scott owned three lots in the parish but this site, his main farmstead, included a separate kitchen, another small residence, five farm buildings, and 20 cultivated acres as well as a three kilometre hay privilege to the west.[25]

Scott apparently had limited experience with masonry construction, and it is likely that he had some advice and perhaps some assistance from the masons who had worked on the Lower Fort, a few kilometres to the north. The plan of the house is based on a central hallway which divided the house into two equal halves. On one side of the hall was a kitchen and dining room, on the other the sleeping and living quarters. The internal organization of the house placed a door at the centre of the long side, the east side facing the river. There is evidence that small dormers once pierced the hipped roof, at least on its northern and southern slopes. Nevertheless, it is probable that the space was used for storage; implements, bagged grain and vegetables being the most likely commodities.

Scott House had unfortunately deteriorated to a point where its upgrading and retainment would have required significant restoration work. It was decided through the Agreement for Recreation and Conservation Programme (ARC) to dismantle the decaying northern half of the house. The remaining section, with a new wooden skeleton that recalls the form of the missing section, has been transformed into a picturesque ruin by the ARC planners (Plate 39).

The same physical circumstances likely describe the original stone house built on River Lot 86, now known as Hay house. Constructed in 1861 by Thomas Firth, (another former HBC employee, by 1835 a farmer), with assistance from his sons, the single storey house was apparently something of a retirement enterprise, built when

Firth was 64 years old. The stones that Firth used were readily available to him just at the base of the hill upon which he proposed to build the house. The quarry was a notable one before 1870, furnishing many settlers with their stone requirements. It is now impossible to determine the exact character of the original house, for it was enlarged and altered before 1900. Nevertheless, early descriptions do not record an exceptional design, so it was likely similar to Mr. Scott's house, three kilometres down the road.

By the 1890s the house appears to have settled dramatically. It was purchased by several brothers from Winnipeg, the Mawsons, who undertook considerable stabilization work (Plate 40). The front stone wall was removed and replaced by a much lighter wood frame wall. All interior construction and finishes were removed and a whole new house, essentially, was built inside the three remaining stone walls. The new roof admitted three dormers on the riverside facade.

Plate 39.   Scott house, before its remodelling.

The old Firth house, now renovated dramatically by the Mawson brothers, became the home of a well-known Manitoba entrepreneur and politician, E.H.G.G. Hay. Hay, an Englishman, had made his way to Red River in 1863, where he worked as a machinist. Until 1881 he operated the first steam-powered grist mill just north of St. Andrew's Church and became increasingly active in the political life of his adopted country. While Hay was opposed to Riel, he held

Plate 40.   Firth house, also known as Hay house. (Courtesy: Mr. Rudi Isbach)

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a seat in the province's first provisional government and went on to gain a seat in its first Legislative Assembly, representing the citizens of St. Andrews. His longstanding Liberal alignment was eventually rewarded in 1911 when Hay was appointed Clerk of the Works for the Locks being constructed at Lockport.[26]

With the exception of the Big House, the Thomas Bunn house, under construction from 1861 to 1864, is the most well preserved example of a single storey stone house in the province (Plate 41). It was built for Thomas Bunn, a mixed blood farmer on the east side of the Red who was also a well known lawyer and politician, active as a representative in both Louis Riel's first Provisional Government and Manitoba's first Legislative Assembly.

The mason responsible for Thomas Bunn's house, Samuel Taylor, left an impressive diary that recounts many of the details involved with the construction of the building. Taylor, who also built St. Clement's Church, just across the Red River from the Bunn house, had lived in England and Moose Factory before coming to Red River in 1857. His familiarity with HBC stone buildings is thus expected.

According to Samuel Taylor's diary, work commenced at the site on a hot day in July of 1861 and finished with the painting of "Mr. Bunn's fine new parlour on the 22nd [of October, 1864], a pretty day."[27] Stone for the house was quarried from the banks of the river and collected from local fields. Also quarried from the riverbanks was limestone for the mortar. Samuel Taylor recounted constructing a lime kiln (where limestone was heated and reduced to powder for use as a binding agent) and tending it during the winter.

It was Mr. Bunn's limited requirements that resulted in the construction of a single storey building. Measuring nine metres (28 feet) by thirteen metres (40 feet), the house has stone walls one metre thick, set two metres into the ground (Plate 42). The rafters were squared timbers fastened at the peak with wooden dowels. The lower end of each of these rafters was seated in a wooden beam that, joined with another, was anchored atop the stone wall. The attic, which contained the four bedrooms, was lighted with five dormer windows. The main floor was separated into three rooms: a parlour, a kitchen and a dining room. The two chimneys which now
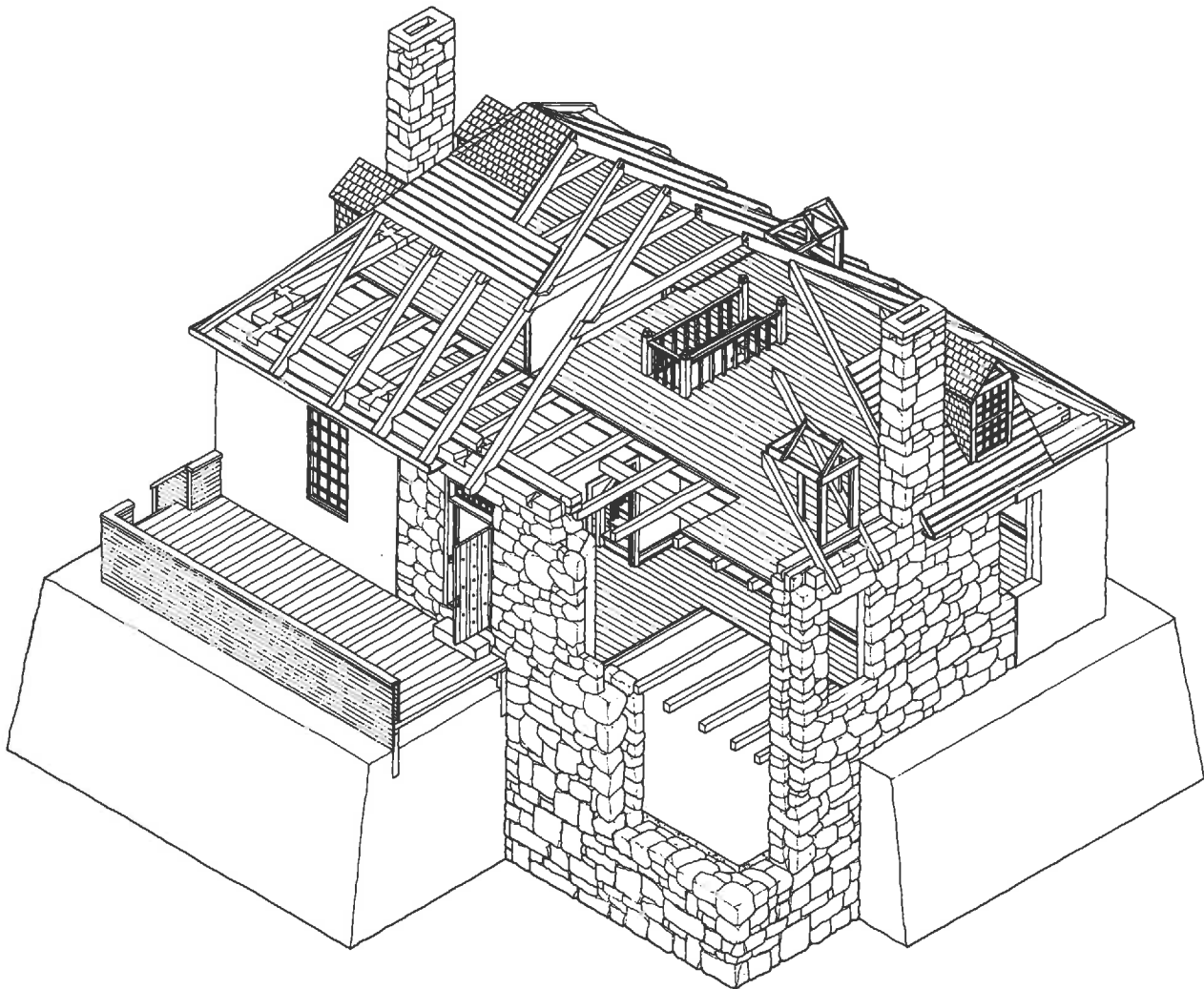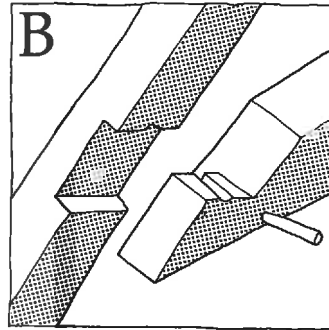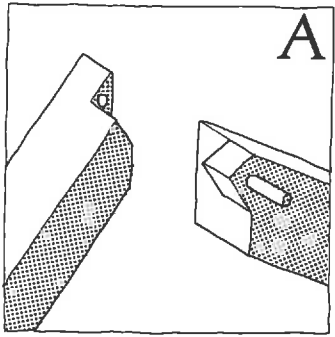

Plate 41.   Bunn house.

Plate 42.   Isometric cut-away of the Bunn house and details of the rafter apex (A) and the rafter brace (B). Some of the earth surrounding the house has been removed to reveal the lower extent of the stonework.

rise from the end walls were slightly inset originally, piercing the roof at the two hips. The uncovered verandah that runs along the south face of the house is a replacement of the original.

The ambitions of such people as Mr. Firth, Mr. Scott and Mr. Bunn, as demonstrated in their fine little stone houses, was a display certainly not lost on neighbours in their rough Red River frame buildings. But it must have been to the larger two-storey stone houses, with their trim fenced yards, that a sense of envy, even awe, was reserved. These were the homes of the truly wealthy, the bastions of that class which dominated the social and economic character of St. Andrews.

Of the two-storey stone houses remaining in the planning area, the house now known as Twin Oaks is perhaps the most notable. Built ca. 1858 for Miss Matilda Davis, the house has been very well maintained throughout the years and, sitting on a lovely treed lot, is an elegant sight along River Road (Plate 43). Miss Davis was the daughter of the Chief Factor at York Factory and, as an educated woman, was asked by the wealthy inhabitants of St. Andrews to open a girls boarding school. Contributions totalling $12,000 were collected from these families to underwrite the expenses of a building, Miss Davis' salary and their daughters' board and school materials. While the school was being built Miss Davis taught local girls at the Lower Fort, where her brother was Chief Factor.[28]

Twin Oaks is a fine example of Georgian architecture. The sure sense of proportion in the form, and even in the stonework itself, bespeaks the talent of Duncan McRae, the master stonemason who built the house. Stone was quarried from the river when the water was low; and the walls rose slowly under McRae's watchful eye. Shingles for the roof were fashioned by hand while the doors, window glass, catches and locks were imported from England. The present condition of the house reflects a remarkable sensitivity, with great fidelity to exterior integrity and a care for interior character, all within the limits of modern convenience.

The stone parsonage of 1854 at St. Andrew's was, for the most part,

Plate 43. Twin Oaks. (PAM)

the product of the labour of one man, Archdeacon William Cockran, a driving force in missionary activity in St. Andrews and later with the Indians at St. Peter's. Cockran may have had the assistance of his parishioners in handling the woodwork and it appears that Belonie Guibeault, a skilled mason, helped him with corner, lintel and sill stones[29]. Otherwise the work is all Cockran's and his limitations as a mason can be read in the cracks and in the many repairs required through the years. Cockran's successor at St. Andrew's, Reverend James Hunter, undertook to complete the interior, and to improve the windows with double panes. An open verandah, supported by eight squared posts, and a stone kitchen addition at the back completed the grand structure (Plate 44).

The old rectory has recently been restored to its former glory by the National Parks Branch and has been designated as a Federal Historic Site. The stone walls were carefully dismantled and rebuilt. The unusual doubly curved staircase that once graced the central hallway was reconstructed following traces of the original (Plate 45). The interior was

also rebuilt and decorated to a ca. 1860 condition, using where possible materials compatible with that era's technology. Interior paint, for example, not only matches the early colours, but relies on the same constituents.

Plate 45. The staircase at St. Andrew's Rectory. (Courtesy: St. Andrew's Rectory National Historic Park, Environment Canada, Parks)

Plate 44. St. Andrew's Rectory. (PAM)

The two-storey stone building at St. John's Boys School was originally the rectory for St. Peter's, the Indian parish about three kilometres north of Selkirk, and was thus home to the minister for St. Peter's Dynevor Church across the River. This minister was the Venerable Archdeacon Abraham Cowley, Secretary of the Church Missionary Society. The rectory was built from 1862 to 1865 under the direction of Duncan McRae and with the labour of Reverend Cowley's Indian congregation.[30] After Cowley's death in 1887 the house remained vacant until the Dynevor Indian Hospital established itself there in 1896. Dynevor Indian Hospital, one of only a few such hospitals devoted to Indian health care in Canada, functioned as a tuberculosis treatment centre for Indians until 1957. In 1962 the old rectory became part of St. John's Cathedral Boys School (Plate 46). Today it is a provincially designated historic site.

Construction on the house commenced with a deep basement excavation, down past the frost line, to the bedrock that would provide adequate support for the heavy stone walls. Large limestone blocks quarried at St. Andrews were dressed and lifted into place by rope winches on timber scaffoldings. The stones of the end walls continued up to the peaks of gable ends. With a gable, rather than a hip roof used, Rafter seating beams like those that encircled the top of the walls of the Bunn house were required only on the two longitudinal sides.

The inside of the house, although much altered since its original construction, exhibits the common central hall plan (Plate 47). Here, a large hall, which contains the staircase and the chimney, bisects the main floor and provides space for circulation among the four rooms: a "good" parlour, a kitchen, a study or bedroom and another parlour or dining room. Upstairs are five bedrooms. The large chimney rising through the centre of the plan is an unusual feature among those houses that remain (Plate 48). Its squat, square form is accented above the roof ridge with a projecting ring of stone about a foot below the rim. The internal walls of the building were constructed of cut lumber and
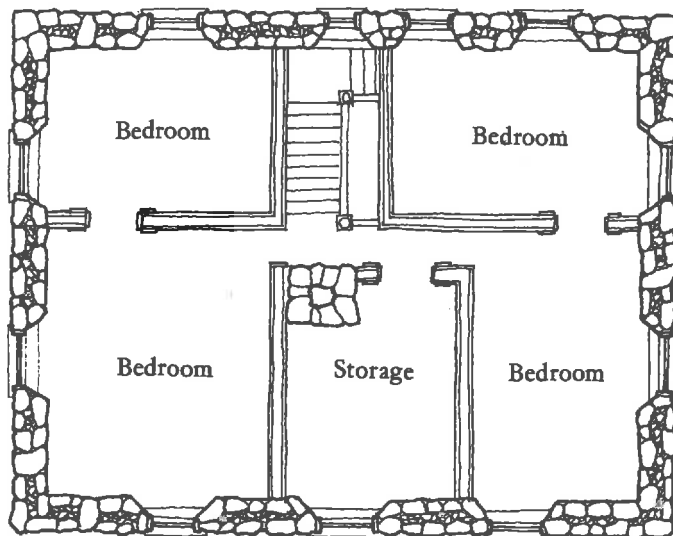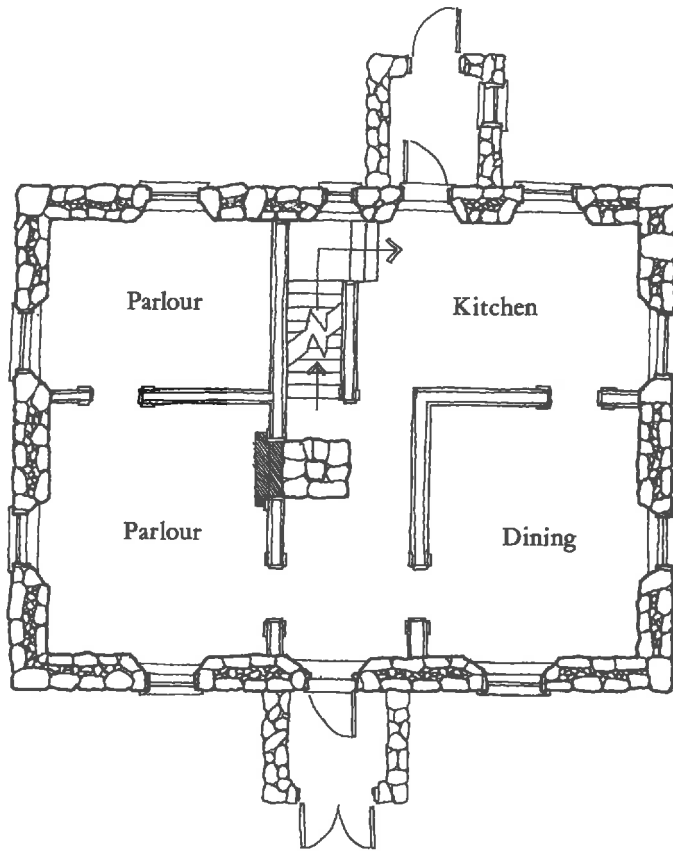

Plate 46. St. Peter's Rectory. (PAM)
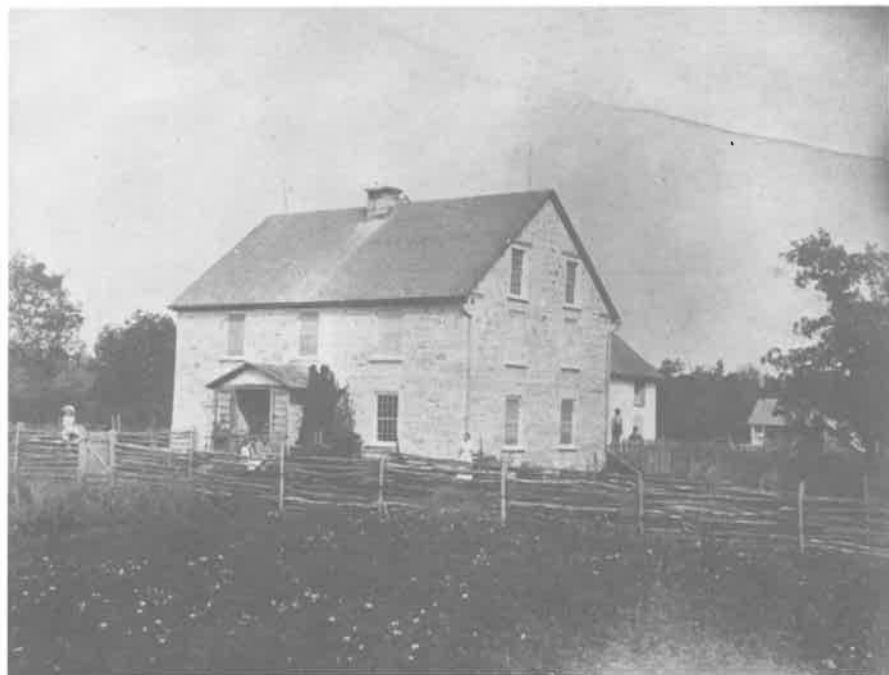
Plate 47. Ground floor plan, top, and second floor plan, below, of St. Peter's Rectory.

Plate 48.   Cross section of St. Peter's Rectory.

were plastered, whitewashed and, in some rooms, covered with wallpaper. The floors were pine or spruce and were either painted or varnished. The house originally had a porch, which would probably have extended at least along the front, and a rail fence had once bounded the semi-circular driveway.

Just down River Road from St. Andrew's Rectory stands Kennedy house, built between 1866 and 1870 (Plate 49). Known originally as Maple Grove, the house was constructed for Captain William Kennedy, the mixed blood son of HBC Chief Factor Alexander Kennedy and his Cree wife Aggathas. William's wife, Eleanor, was the daughter of an English sea captain, and distantly related by marriage to Sir John Franklin, the English explorer lost in the Arctic.[31]

William Kennedy had been educated in the Orkney Islands but returned to North America to work for the HBC in Labrador. Kennedy split with the Company over its policy of distributing alcohol to Indians, returned to Red River after a short spell of missionary work and built his fine stone house. And while he was an important member of St. Andrews society (he is most notable for his efforts to locate Sir John Franklin) Kennedy was, like many countryborn mixed bloods of Red River, isolated after 1870 in the new Manitoba of eastern Canadian interests. Several of Kennedy's business deals soured and shortly after he died in 1890 his wife was forced to sell the house to cover his debts.

Kennedy house is an early example of a concern for fashion in

Plate 49.   Kennedy house. (PAM)

architecture. While other houses are simple structures of Georgian tradition, with uncomplicated roof shapes, Captain Kennedy's sported an unusual gabled roof, in the context a strikingly up-to-date expression of the Gothic Revival then popular in England. Recently, Kennedy house has been restored by the Agreement for Recreation and Conservation planners as an interpretive centre and tea room and has been designated and protected by the Province of Manitoba. The exterior walls have been repointed, the roof reshingled and the interior renovated to recall an earlier time.

Stone Churches

While a stone house like William Kennedy's might represent the pinnacle of Red River Settlement domestic architecture, there are, however, four simple stone buildings which more clearly symbolize the pioneers' steadfast hopes. These are the four churches along the Red, together lodged in the popular conception of the Settlement's built history. Prominent among them is St. Andrew's Anglican Church, the oldest stone church still standing in western Canada. The other three churches, St. Peter's, St. Clement's and Little Britain are also of considerable importance. All follow the same basic plan and the same basic heritage; they are greatly indebted to the simple parish churches of Great Britain.

These parish churches of Great Britain, and particularly of Scotland, were based on simple planning and construction procedures.[32] Because they symbolized the community's faith and even its wealth, the church building was the one building in a village that would be afforded great attention to construction --typically executed in that most durable material, stone -- and to detailing. The parish church was essentially a long hall, sometimes with the entrance on the side but more often at the front through a tower. Medieval parish churches had several defined spaces: the tower, the nave (where the congregation worshipped) and the chancel (the space about the altar, reserved for the clergy) (Plate 50). After the Reformation in the sixteenth century the internal arrangements in Protestant churches were simplified; and by the seventeenth and eighteenth

centuries these churches were generally made smaller (Plate 51). In Manitoba, parish church traditions were easily adopted and while Red River churches might lack some of the refinements of their predecessors, they were nevertheless eloquent statements of their builder's abilities within a very restrictive environment.
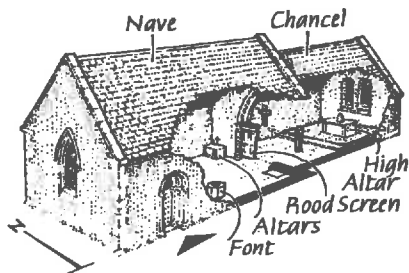

Plate 50. The parts of a small medieval church shown with the fabric cut open. (From: Architecture in Scotland, p. 52.).
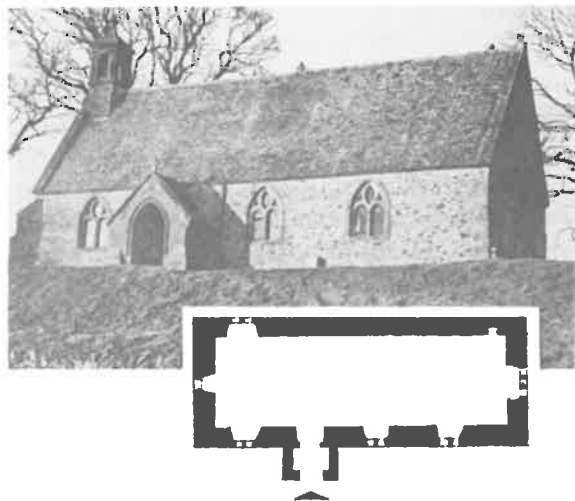

Plate 51. Lyne Church, Peebleshire, Scotland, from 1645 and inset, its plan. (From: Architecture in Scotland, p. 80.)

Almost immediately after Reverend William Cockran had completed reconstruction and repairs on the log parsonage at St. Andrew's, in 1844, he set about building a new stone church. His first steps included borrowing picks and crowbars from the Upper Fort for the quarrying of limestone from a location on the Red seven kilometres below the mission.[33] In October he measured the Anglican church at the upper end of the Settlement and, with an idea of the dimensions required for the new church and help from a congregational committee, estimated its cost. Cockran was overwhelmed by the response from his flock: "Silver and gold they have not; but stones, lime, shingles, boards, timber and labour were cheerfully contributed."[34]

In the spring of 1845, after marking out the site for the church, Cockran joined in with the men to dig the trench for its foundation. By July the masons had completed the substructure, a metre and a half deep and slightly more than a metre wide. Master stonemason, Duncan McRae, was actively involved in the stonework of St. Andrew's. Indeed it was during the construction of the tower that he fell from the scaffolding and was crippled for the rest of his life.

Various other setbacks, including problems with unskilled labour, financial constraints and seasonal interruptions, stalled work on the church. However, in 1849 it was reported that the building was almost finished. The ceiling was done, the windows were in place, the floor had been laid, and the pews were ready; all that remained was for the carpenters to assemble the pulpit and the desk. The church was finally consecrated in December of that year.

The simple broad form of the church, thirteen by twenty-five metres, is fronted by an imposing tower, now topped with a finialed open belfry and short steeple (Plate 52). The stoical

Plate 52. St. Andrew's Anglican Church. (PAM)

handling of the pointed openings in the walls, on the tower and in the bell casing is a simple reminder of the church's combined Gothic and Georgian roots. Inside, the contents are a manifest of the area's heritage: early box pews in the gallery; original (now electrified) light fixtures; kneelers covered with buffalo hide; and memorials to Reverend Cockran, John Norquay (the first native born Premier) and Captain William Kennedy. Apparently the church had been intended as the Bishop of Rupert's Land's centre of activities and, although it never realized this function, this factor may explain the attention paid to details.

St. Peter's Anglican Church was a replacement for the original log church of 1836, whose condition and size could hardly serve the population of 500 then living at the Indian Settlement.[35] In 1851 Reverend William Cockran, newly returned to the Settlement, had made immediate plans for the construction of a stone church. By the autumn of 1852 eighty cords of stone had been quarried and stonemasons (including Duncan McRae) and Indian labourers were kept busy during the winter dressing stones for corners, windows and doors. By the following spring a foundation more than a metre deep and a metre thick was laid and in May of 1853 the Bishop of Rupert's Land laid the cornerstone.

Stones for the walls were lifted into place by block and tackle and set with mortar produced at a nearby kiln. Glass for the windows was shipped from Britain. Construction on the church was interrupted during the summer by the shortage of funds, provisions and masons. The eight metre long rafters had just been floated downriver, enabling the structure to be roofed by winter, but the church could not be completed until the following year (Plate 53). Various improvements were made during the ensuing years. A stone wall along the south side of the cemetery was torn down around 1875 and its stones used to construct a chancel and vestry, thus providing St. Peter's with the only proper chancel among the three Anglican stone churches in the settlement (Plate 54). The original tower, unsafe by 1880 was dismantled. The present wooden bell tower dates from 1904, the spire, a later addition.

Top Left:
Plate 53. St. Peter's Anglican Church.

Bottom Left and Right:
Plate 54. Floor plan and cross section of St. Peter's Anglican Church.
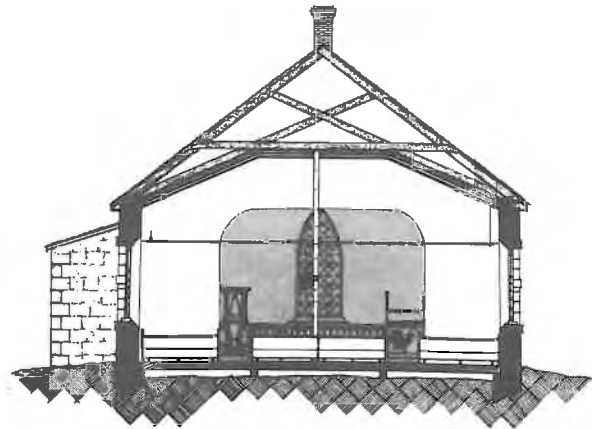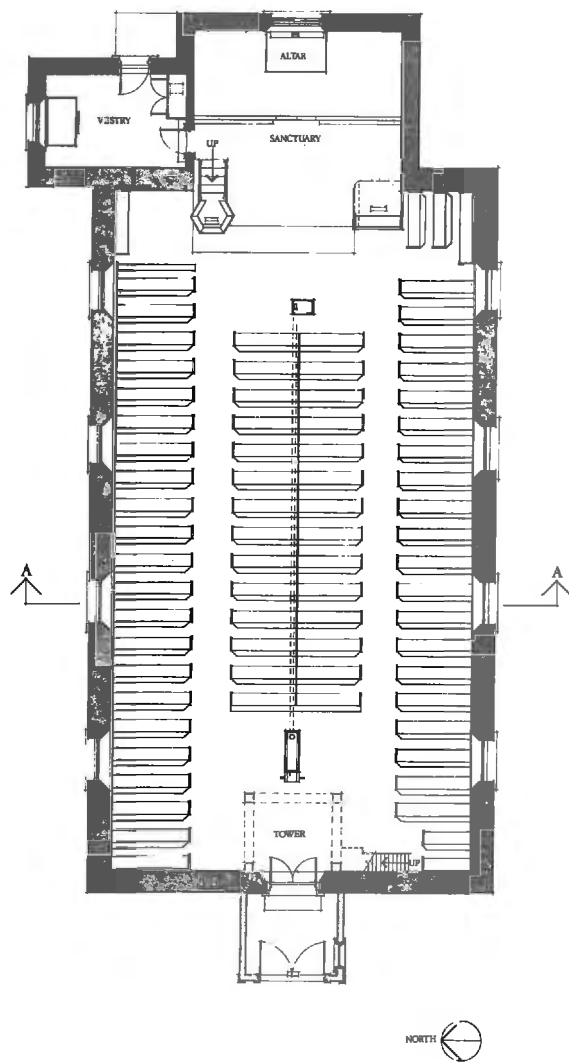
SECTION A-A

Activity at the church slackened after 1908, when the Dominion Government dissolved St. Peter's as a reserve. Today St. Peter's Church is used only during the summer months. However, the presence of hand-hewn pews and carved pulpit and altar rails preserve the atmosphere of missionary settlement inside its recently restored exterior. Now designated by the Province as an historic site, St. Peter's is a reminder of both the dedicated work of the Anglican clergy and Church Missionary Society and the first attempts by the Cree and Saulteaux Indians to adapt to changing conditions at Red River.

The development of strong church communites at St. Andrews to the south and St. Peter's to the north left a large population of Anglicans without a convenient church. A log structure had been built at Mapleton where the Reverend W.A. Watkins taught school and conducted Sunday services, but the residents longed for a solid stone church of their own. When the Bishop of Rupert's Land offered to donate £100 if the congregation could raise an equal amount, plans were quickly made. Samuel Taylor was hired as the stonemason and his journals intermittently recount construction activity at the church. He "began to build at the church on Wednesday the 13th [sometime in the summer of 1857 and] wrought there three days at building stones."[36] An associate, John Hudson "put in the Mapleton Church windows on the 9th" of November, 1860 and on a "Tuesday ... a soft, snowy day ... I was plastering above the door for a while." The church was finished to a sufficient extent that in December of 1861 the "Church of St. Clement's was opened by the Lord Bishop of Rupert's Land and Mr. Hunter -- the church was full of people from up above and from down below [in the Settlement].

Indeed, many had to go home as it was rather cold that evening." (Plate 55).

The original bell from St. John's Church in Winnipeg was donated to St. Clement's in 1862 and according to Mr. Taylor it was "put up ... after dark at night with fire and lantern light." Plans for a large bell tower were drawn up for the Golden Jubilee of the consecration of the church in 1914, but the advent of World War I and succeeding economic difficulties postponed those plans until 1928.

For many years St. Clement's was the official church of Lower Fort Garry and so, for a time, well dressed HBC employees made their way to the church and occupied reserved seats for the service. It was also for several years the Garrison Church of Lower Red River and the scarlet tunics of the soldiers were a common sight on Sundays. By 1887, however, the growth of Selkirk, and the construction of Christ Church there, relegated St. Clement's to a Chapel-of-Ease. It fulfilled this function until 1958 when the demands of a swelling local population allowed the old church to regain its former stature.

Plate 55. St. Clement's Anglican Church. (PAM)

Presbyterians in the Parish of St. Andrews had been promised a minister of their own denomination as early as 1812, but it was not until 1851 that Reverend John Black from Upper Canada arrived at the Settlement. In 1852 Reverend Black met with fourteen local families in the home of Donald Gunn and the congregation of Little Britain was formed.[37] The first log meeting-house of 1852 quickly proved inadequate and plans were made for the construction of a stone church. However, these first plans for the building were considered by some to have overly generous dimensions and it was decided to appeal for funds in Scotland and Canada before settling on the size. It may have been that the response was not great; James Nisbet was asked to prepare another plan, for a smaller church. Stones were quarried during the ensuing winter but no other action was taken on the church. Indeed the manse was completed first and not until 1873 was the church underway and 1874 before it was finished (Plate 56). Duncan McRae and John Clouston were in charge of the stone masonry and it is believed that a number of soldiers from the Lower Fort were enlisted to help raise the walls.[38] The tower now fronting the church was added in 1920, as a memorial to local men lost in the Great War. Duncan McRae had always considered Little Britain to be "his" church (he worshipped here) and he was buried in its cemetery when he died in 1898.

Plate 56. Little Britain United (formerly Presbyterian) Church. (PAM)

Later Settlement Architecture (1870-1930)

The architecture of the first 110 years of settlement in the planning area had been distinguished by the use of primitive materials -- logs, stones and roughly forged iron. The next 60 years were characterized by a comparative revolution in the technology of building and in the stylistic influences on buildings.

The early ethnic constitution of the planning area -- Scottish, English and mixed bloods -- was reinforced during the immigration waves of the 1870s, 80s and early 90s by the arrival of American and especially of Ontario settlers. However, the cultural, economic and social attitudes of these newcomers were quite different from those of the countryborn residents of Red River. New political ideas and new economic strategies proved most disturbing. Less unsettling was the rapid transformation of the built landscape. The architectural developments of the late nineteenth century in eastern North America were quickly established in the planning area by these new arrivals in town and country alike and were generally welcomed by the original settlers. In domestic architecture the stylistic influences of the Gothic Revival were combined with modern materials and, by 1900, with advanced plumbing and electrical technologies, particularly in Selkirk. The established eastern forms for public and commercial structures -- churches, schools, post offices, town halls, stores, hotels -- also found ready advocates in the new population of the West.

By the late 1890s the relatively homogeneous ethnic nature of the planning area was diversified with the arrival of another ethnic community. Ukrainian immigrants provided a distinct cultural and architectural heritage, a reminder of the earlier, vernacular nature of the Red River Settlement. Few of the log houses, churches and farm outbuildings constructed by Ukrainian settlers before 1910 remain, but those that do recall a vibrant period in the planning area's history.

While expressing two completely different architectural traditions, both Ukrainian and Ontario settlers nevertheless followed a similar chronology of building construction: rough log shelters were usually superceded by more substantial buildings (Plate 57). For Ukrainians this second stage often meant the construction of a traditional log house. With the proximity of Winnipeg's lumber mills, many Ontario settlers graduated immediately to wood frame
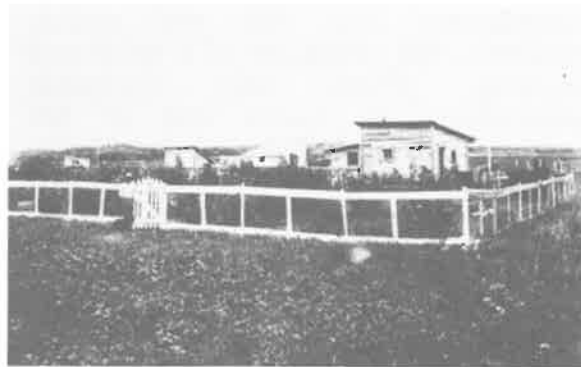

Plate 57. For most settlers in the planning area the development of the farm from a limited number of small buildings, at top, to one of more buildings and greater refinements, at bottom, would have been very familiar.

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structures. Only during the 1920s did the traditional Ukrainian log buildings give way to more popular forms and technologies.

The development of these two distinct traditions will be discussed separately, as they developed, for a time, separately. And because farmstead buildings generally preceded urban structures, the analysis for each ethnic group will consider architectural developments in the rural context before addressing the urban situation, where the architecture of the two groups often merged.

Southern Ontario Influences

By the middle of the nineteenth century in Ontario the architectural environment was rich and varied, reflecting the character of a developed economy (Plate 58). Domestic architecture in towns and in the countryside ranged from small to large and covered a variety of styles, the most notable being Georgian during the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries and Gothic Revival during the latter half of the nineteenth century. Various utilitarian farmstead buildings, barns especially, were also by this date responding to new stylistic and functional demands.

In domestic architecture, developments proceeded gradually, the initial structures typically of log construction. The simple log houses were usually small structures of rectangular form and simple plan. A formal front facade placed a door in the centre with a window at either side (Plate 59). The walls were connected at the corners with dovetail or saddlenotch joints.

By the eighteenth century milled lumber and brick were readily available in Ontario and houses began to take on a more sophisticated expression. The most influential style during the period was Georgian, which in its domestic form produced houses of understated elegance. Basically a long rectangle of one to two storeys, it was centrally disposed: in plan, along its length and in facade, about the central door (Plate 60). In even the simplest of Georgian homes some extra embellishment or careful refinement was usually reserved for the entrance door, a symbol of hospitality and taste.

The Neo-classic, a successor to the early Georgian houses of Ontario, saw a reduction in the scale of trim and in general the achievement of a less weighty formal exterior. Such buildings were still on a long plan and symmetrically disposed, but a Classical

Plate 58. Canada West (Ontario), 1856. The southwestern counties of the province provided many of the late nineteenth century settlers to Manitoba. (Redrawn from: The Union of the Canadas, pp. ix-x.)

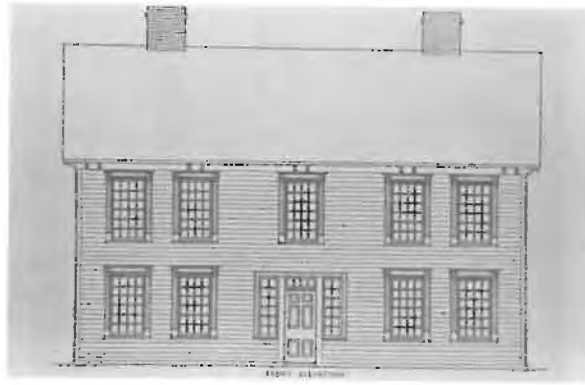Plate 59.   A typical log house in Ontario.

Plate 60.   A typical Georgian house, this near Vittoria. (From: The Early Buildings of Ontario, p. 22.)

pediment became an identifiable feature that interrupted the otherwise powerful expanse of the Georgian roof slope (Plate 61). Pilasters and narrow shutters were often used to enliven the facade.

The first signs of the Gothic Revival were superficial and had little effect upon the basic scheme of the Georgian house; onto a symmetrical facade was added a simple small gable above the central door with a decorative pointed window providing light to the second floor hall. Not until the 1850s was the vertical, detail-rich sense of the Victorian Gothic embraced. The central gable, pointed windows and fantastic mouldings of Gothic inspiration finally conspired to produce the most common expression of the style (Plate 62).

The high Victorian Gothic of the late nineteenth century in Ontario -- that most fashionable at the time when migrants began moving west -- was more picturesque. One important characteristic of these new houses was the development of an asymmetrical plan, often an L- or T-shape that produced an interior arrangement with sitting rooms in either wing (Plate 63). In addition, the flexibility of the plan allowed a 1 1/2 storey structure to contain the same number of rooms as a

Plate 61.   The central plan of Georgian houses is evident in this Toronto house, but here is modified by Neo-classical features. (From: The Ancestral Roof, p. 39.)

Plate 62.   An example of the influences of the Gothic Revival around 1875, here in Etobicoke. (From: Gothic Revival in Canadian Architecture, p. 143.)

Plate 63. An L-shaped plan gives this 1875 Gothic Revival house in Hamilton variety and a sense of the picturesque. (From: Gothic Revival in Canadian Architecture, p. 149.)

two-storey house, thus saving on taxes which, at that time, were partly based on the number of storeys.[39] The development of details had also taken a picturesque turn, with exuberant drip mouldings, fanciful bargeboards, finials and complex chimney shapes.

During the latter half of the nineteenth century a sturdy house of square proportions, symmetrical facade and with a shallow hipped roof gained popularity throughout mid-western North America. Known as the Four Square, such houses were very popular in both urban and rural circumstances

Plate 64. An example of the American Four Square.

(Plate 64). In town such a building was often the object of more detail application than its counterpart in the countryside. These commodious houses were able to accomodate the spatial requirements of a large family; in the countryside the Four Square was often designed with separate rooms and entrance for servants or labourers. This house type gained widespread appeal through the marketing strategies of large department stores and lumber yards, which provided catalogue designs and, occasionally, prefabricated houses.

Barns in Ontario were also the object of considerable evolution during the first decades of settlement. Since the arrival of the first European settlers in the eastern areas of North America the barn, as a covered storage area for hay and grain and a refuge for animals, has appeared in a wide variety of forms. Apart from the many vernacular types, indigenous to local regions, most North American barns can be seen as an example of one of four types: French, Dutch, German or English.

The English barn, probably the most widespread type in Upper Canada during early settlement, was characterized by its sophisticated heavy frame construction and its distinctive plan. The main doors opened onto a central hall, or threshing floor, flanked on either side by stock alleys or hay mows (Plate 65). Despite its popularity in eighteenth and nineteenth-century Ontario, the simple English barn could not survive without some adaptation to meet the changing needs of Canadian farmers.

In Europe the three-bayed English barn had been developed as a threshing and crop storage unit. Horses and cattle were housed in separate stables and byres. In North America, and specifically in Ontario, the introduction of livestock into the barn required some modifications. With stock now quartered in one of the
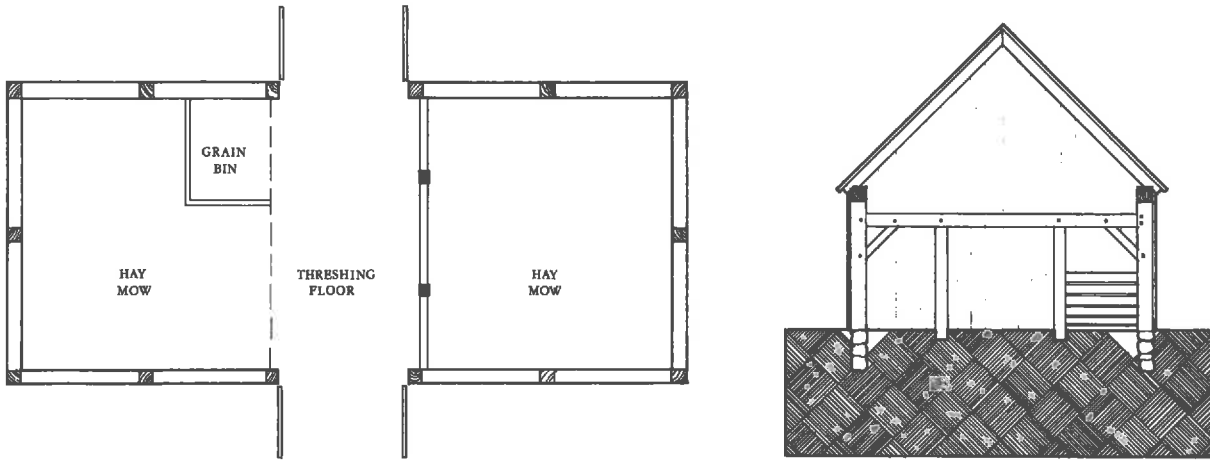
Plate 65.   Plan and section of a typical English barn.
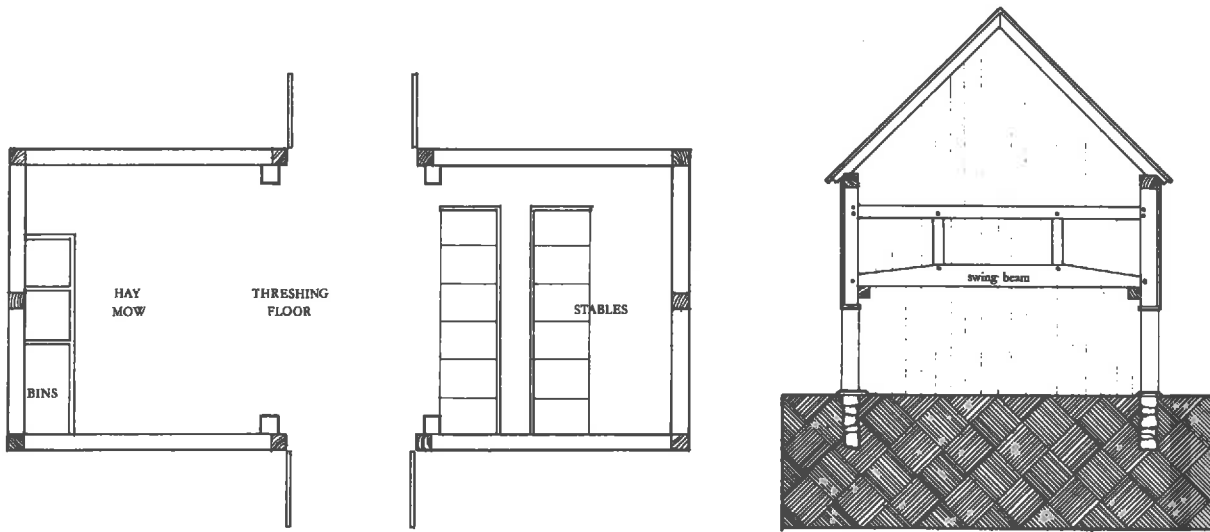

Plate 66.   Plan and section of an early nineteenth century barn in Ontario.

former hay mows, the threshing floor was extended into the other bay (Plate 66). In order to provide adequate open space for threshing and implement storage as well as for turning wagons it became necessary to introduce a great spanning timber, known as a swing beam, that left the threshing floor unobstructed. A loft directly overhead, whose main support came from the swing beam, provided a new hay storage area, replacing that formerly at ground level. Grain bins were typically situated under the loft along the far side of the threshing floor.

The actual framing of an Ontario barn was a demonstration of great skill. Built by hand, with just a few tools, the construction of the loft in a typical Ontario barn was founded on time-honoured techniques and principles. The basic element of the loft, the bent, was a prefabricated network of large posts and beams, the number of which corresponded to the size of the barn. While the overall design of the bentwork was straightforward, many complex details were required to ensure stability (Plate 67).
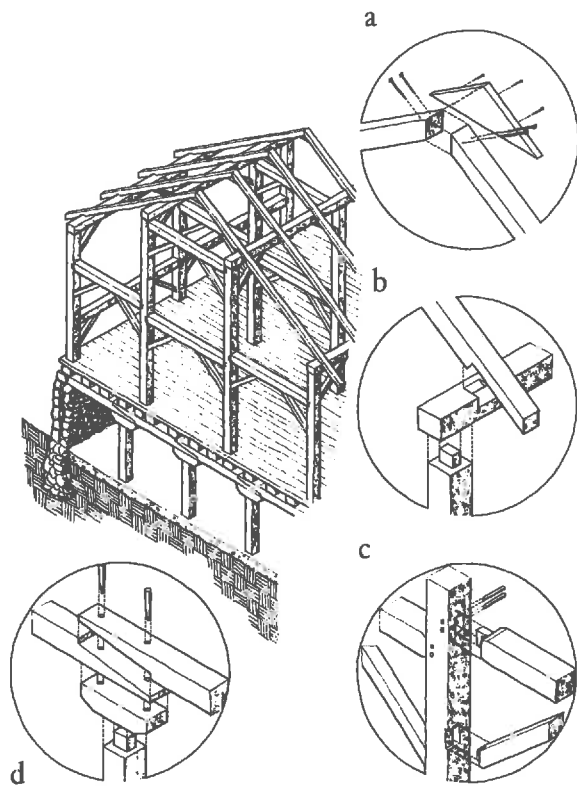
Another typical innovation that affected Ontario barns combined the form of the English barn with the bank barn concept of structures of Dutch origin in Pennsylvania. In this case the barn was built into a hill and the three-bayed threshing and feed storage sections of the English barn were isolated above the livestock stable. This separation required the adoption of the rationalized stable organization and double entrance characteristic of Pennsylvania barns (Plate 68). By the nineteenth century this sort of bank barn had become, like the central gable house, an abiding image in the Ontario countryside.

Plate 67.   The typical bentwork and several of the construction details of an Ontario barn loft, including: a) a butted ridge joint; b) a shoulder cut rafter seat; c) a post and girt connection; and d) a loadbearing scarfed joint.
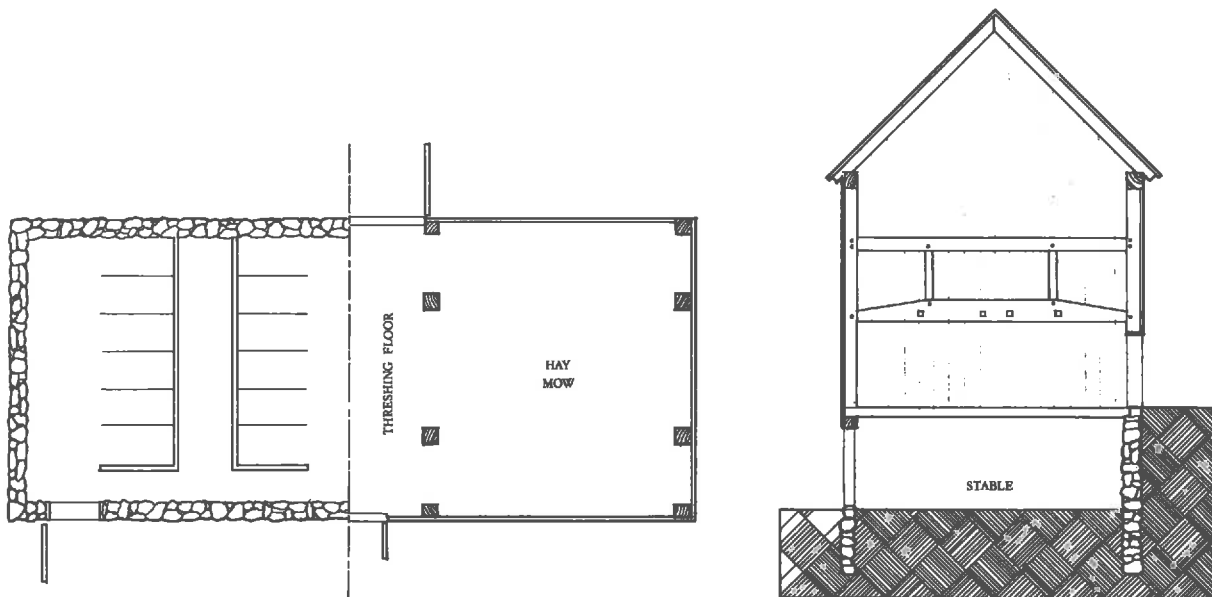
Plate 68.   Stable and loft plans (superimposed) and section of a bank barn.

Farm Houses

In the planning area, as throughout the newly formed Province of Manitoba, the influences of Ontario and American architecture were readily transposed. Not only were the new immigrants powerful and vocal proponents of their own architectural heritage, but the requisite technological advances -- wood frame and brick -- were reaching Manitoba from the east and the south by the mid-1870s. This is not to imply that the Ontario architectural landscape was recreated in Manitoba overnight or even faithfully. Indeed, the transformation from the traditions of Red River architecture to a more contemporary expression took about twenty years.

The first farm structures -- domestic and storage -- built by newcomers from Ontario were often rude little things, constructed like their Red River neighbours with readily available materials, most notably logs. These log buildings often relied on a distinct construction procedure. Instead of post-and-sill, like Red River frame, a dovetail notch or a saddlenotch procedure connected long horizontal logs at each corner (Plate 69). Dovetail was a more complex notch but produced a more stable joint. The most common type of saddlenotch joint, cut on the top, trapped water in the joint and unfortunately encouraged wood rot and the quick collapse of the
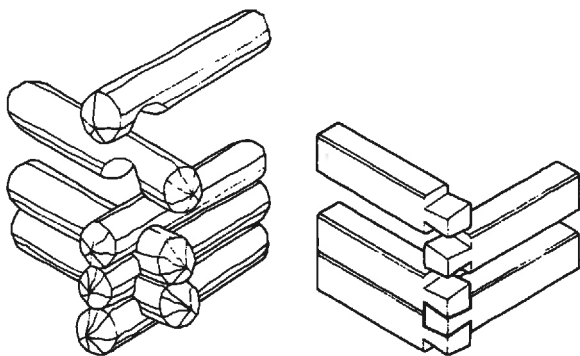
Plate 69.   Saddlenotch   and   dovetail   corner joints.

structure. Poplar logs were most commonly used, although a few far-sighted pioneers used oak or tamarack for their sill plates, both of which provided better support and resisted rot.

Plan considerations for such structures were minimal (Plate 70). Often two ground floor rooms -- one for cooking and one for family activities -- were separated by some partition, perhaps of log, sometimes merely of fabric. A staircase might control the location and size of rooms (Plate 71). If an upper floor existed it was often open and used for sleeping and general storage.

Plate 70.   Hawkins house at SW12-17-3E, a typical log structure of the 1880s within the planning area.

These hasty construction procedures and the resulting rough buildings were not a major concern for settlers. As homes they were recognized as temporary structures, sheltering a family until the land was cleared, a crop was planted and the future deemed secure. This process often took a few years, though it could take several. Occasionally the first rough log structure was replaced with a better log building. More often, the initial log house was used for a chicken coop or granary, while the family moved into a smart new wood frame residence.
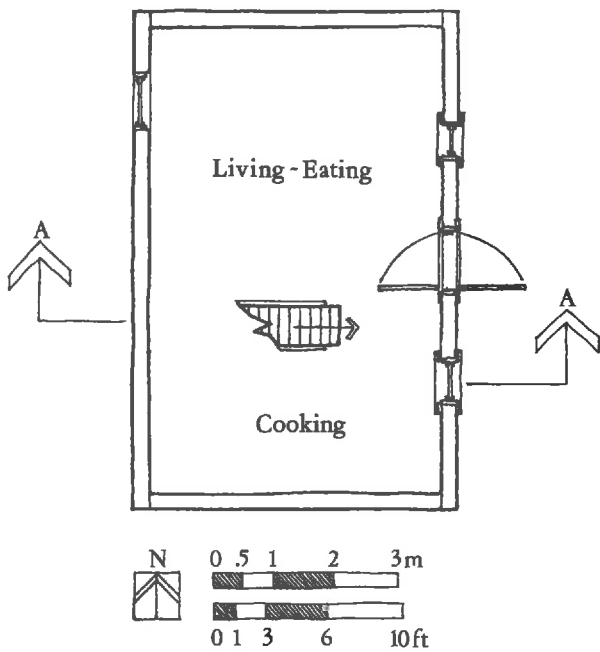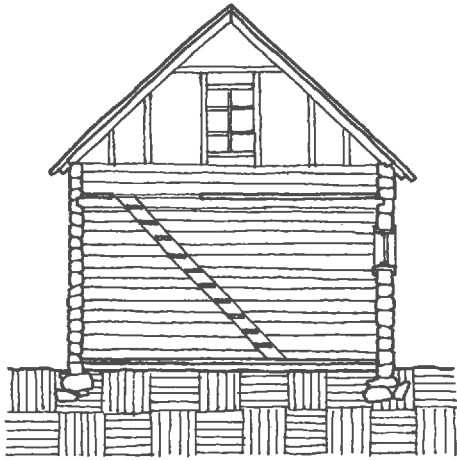
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Plate 71. Section A-A and, below, plan of the Hawkins house.

Light wood frame construction offered pioneers a variety of plan shapes, elevations and detail possibilities that were simply impossible with logs. The neatness, the simplicity and the durability of these new houses contrasted dramatically with the log buildings now being abandoned or reused as farm outbuildings. The wealth of residential building forms afforded by wood frame construction was quickly realized in the planning area. Several distinct styles

of houses were to become popular between 1870 and 1930. Small rectangular buildings, very similar in plan to their log predecessors, remained common, but now displayed their greater possibilities for architectural embellishment and refinement. Typically gable roofed, these distinctive buildings saw their internal planning reflected in the location of their entrance. A side hall plan and a central hall plan were the two options most commonly chosen in the planning area.

The ubiquitous central gable house of rural Ontario actually found limited expression in the planning area. That several were built is known from the archival record, but none have survived (Plate 72).

Plate 72. An old central gable house.

Plate 73. Former MacArthur house, near Little Britain.
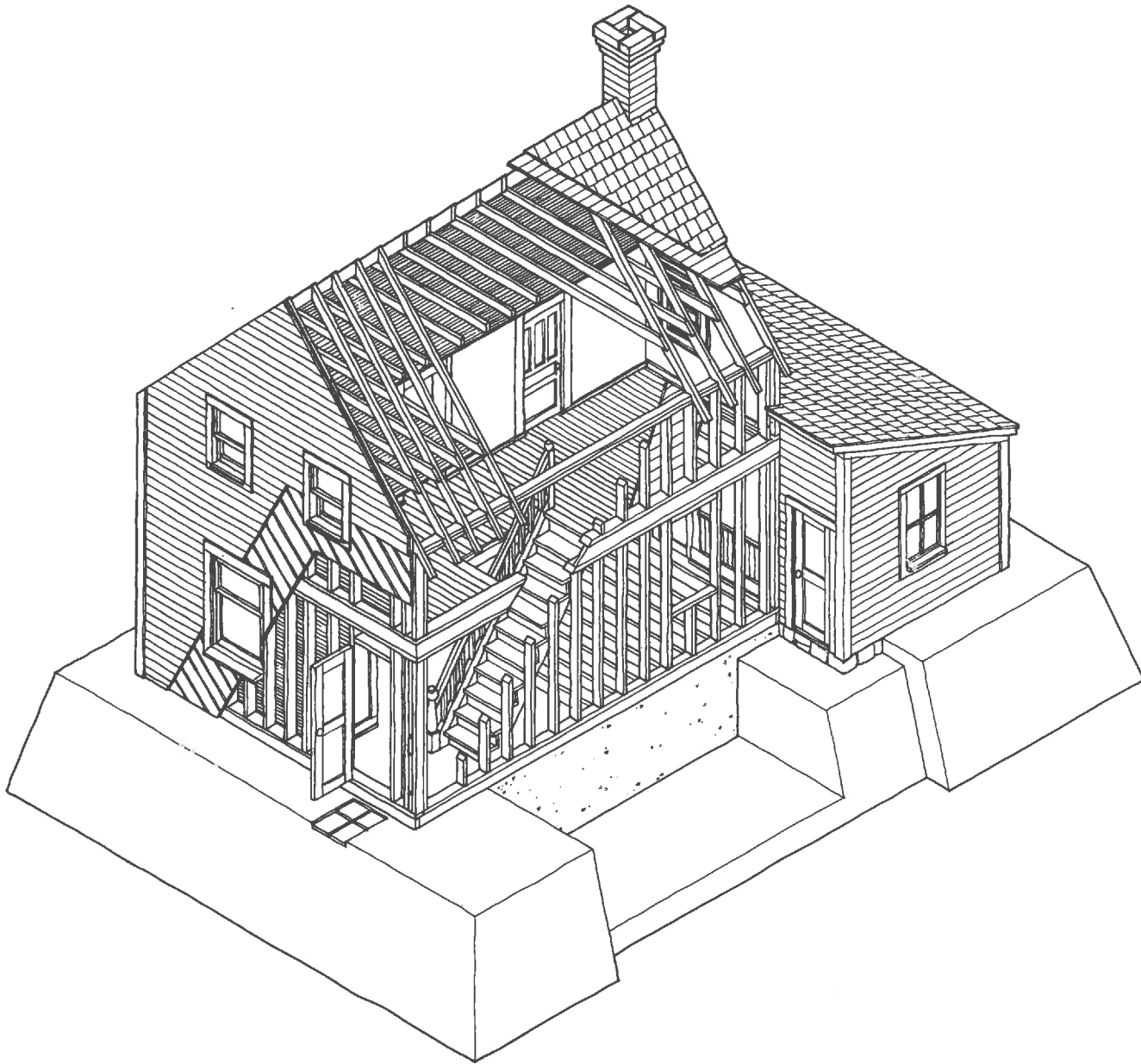
Plate 74. Isometric cut-away view of the former MacArthur house. The ground on which the building sits has been removed on one side to reveal the concrete foundation under the house and the much shorter stone foundation under the shed. The construction procedures used with light wood frame are evident here: the regularly spaced wall studs, floor joists and roof rafters; and the interior wall lath, exterior rough diagonal sheathing and, over that, finished cove siding.

Of much greater import for early house builders in the planning area was the side hall plan. Here, the front door and entrance hall were shifted to one side of the plan's short side, permitting an efficient use of circulation space and the creation of a large front parlour. A kitchen and dining area were typically set off the back of the hall and parlour. A good remaining example of such a structure is the former MacArthur house near Little Britain (Plate 73). In this case the formal entrance (in many houses rarely used) is on the right side. A parlour to the left and a dining room and kitchen behind describes the familiar side hall plan (Plate 74). As

was typical for such structures the kitchen is located in a shed-roofed portion at the back. Often the construction of such a shed preceded the erection of the larger house (Plate 75). The family lived in the smaller structure and when the new house was built onto it, this shed was relegated to a kitchen, workshop or storage function. A seam between the shed and main structure of the former MacArthur house suggests that this may have been the case here.

The asymmetrical and vertically massed front facade, often an austere surface when built by those of limited means, was given considerable variety by others, incorporating Gothic Revival details, elaborately carved bargeboards or an elegant verandah (Plate 76). Windows, especially those at the front, were also frequently accorded attention and, with coloured glass arranged in imaginative designs, could provide a show of elegance, even prestige (Plate 77).

Plate 75. A shed-roofed structure like this one near Gonor was often used as an initial shelter by pioneers.

Occasionally in the planning area the side hall plan was transformed by an unusual roof treatment. One notable example of such an approach is to be found at NE18-14-6E, where a hipped gambrel roof was used (Plate 78). The typical stark facade is here lightened by the interesting nature of the roof.

Plate 76. This side hall house, just north of Little Britain United Church, was treated with several details, including bay windows, a verandah, window surrounds and a small delicate bargeboard.
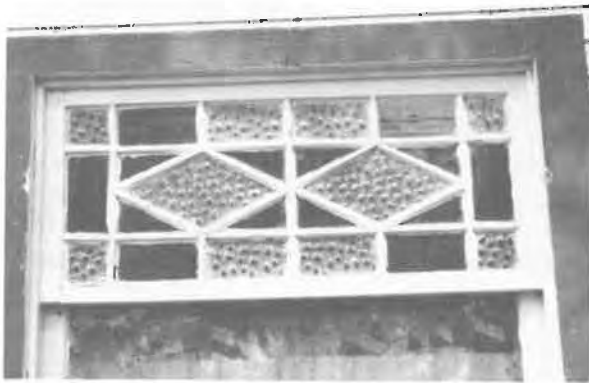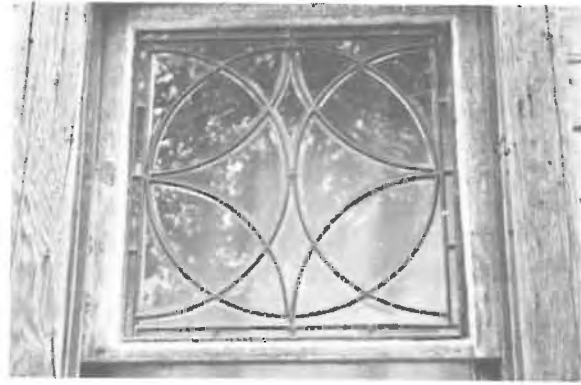
Plate 77. A selection of window designs that were used to dignify the rather plain faces of typical side hall houses.

Not only was the side hall-planned house modified by the use of applied ornament and unusual roof shapes, but with the flexibility permitted by frame construction numerous variations in plan arose. Retaining many features common to the central and side hall types, larger houses could be composed through creative additions to standard plans and with consequent changes to massing. This gave rise to what were virtually new house types. The L- and T-shaped plans of late nineteenth century Ontario were a favourite way to produce a larger more exciting house with additional sunlight and ventilation.

Plate 78. The hipped gambrel roof on this house is distinctive.

It was a rare house in the rural areas of the planning area that adopted a more complex design before the turn of the century. There were in the Town of Selkirk, however, such structures being built and by 1900 several fine homes, built on irregular plans, lined the streets. The Souter house on Eveline Street is an excellent example of the planning and decorative possibilities of wood, carried out in a version of a T-plan (Plate 79). The left half of the house, projecting slightly, contains the main entrance and is essentially a side hall plan, albeit of much greater character than the typical example. In this case a broad hall contains the staircase, a nicely detailed curving construction in oak. Recent renovations have altered the original plan somewhat, but the general locations of kitchen, dining area, pantry and parlours remain (Plate 80). The

external detail treatment of the house is greatly enhanced by the freedom of the plan. Two bay windows and the verandah extensions create a complex spatial presentation and an interesting overlap of detail. Although the undulating verandah at the front, following the form of the facade behind it, originally had many more details, it is still a rich addition to this building.

In other areas of the province all of these house types -- the central hall plan, the side hall and the L- and T-shaped plans -- found expression in different cladding materials. Brick veneer was a popular variation and construction in concrete block was fairly common between 1890 and 1910. In the planning area, however, no such buildings exist today, although there may have been some at one time. It is possible that the easy access to cheap
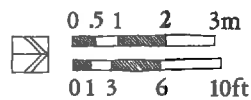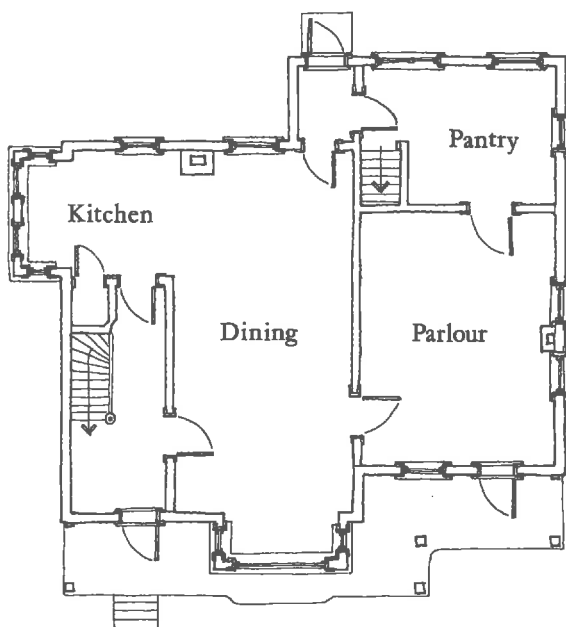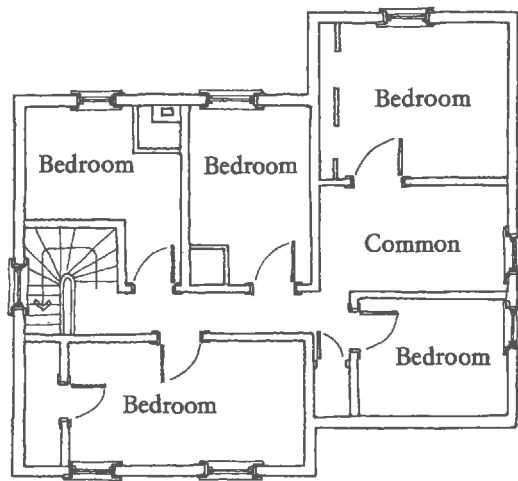

Plate 79. Souter house, Selkirk.

Plate 80. Top, second floor plan, and below, ground floor plan, of the Souter house.

lumber had a great impact on the use of the more expensive materials, in spite of the fact that there were brickyards operating in East Selkirk by 1875.

By the turn of the century rising grain prices and the development of Selkirk as an important distribution centre in Manitoba provided the rural areas of the planning area with wealth and a sense of sophistication. The basic 1 1/2 storey houses quickly attained a high level of excellence in their design and construction. At the same time, however, settlers of means began construction of larger 2 or 2 1/2 storey residences.

Most of the 2 1/2 storey houses built in the area were either square or L-shaped in plan with large roofs and broad overhanging eaves. The interior planning in each type was usually consistent with a central or side hall plan. The central configuration with its symmetrically-composed entrance facade was more popular than the asymmetrical side hall plan (Plate 81).

It is with such houses that we might find people able to afford the services of an architect. In 1911 a Mr. Summerscales commissioned a Winnipeg architectural firm to design his new house south of Selkirk, on River Road (Plate 82). While the house has the typical proportions and great roof of
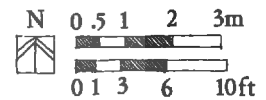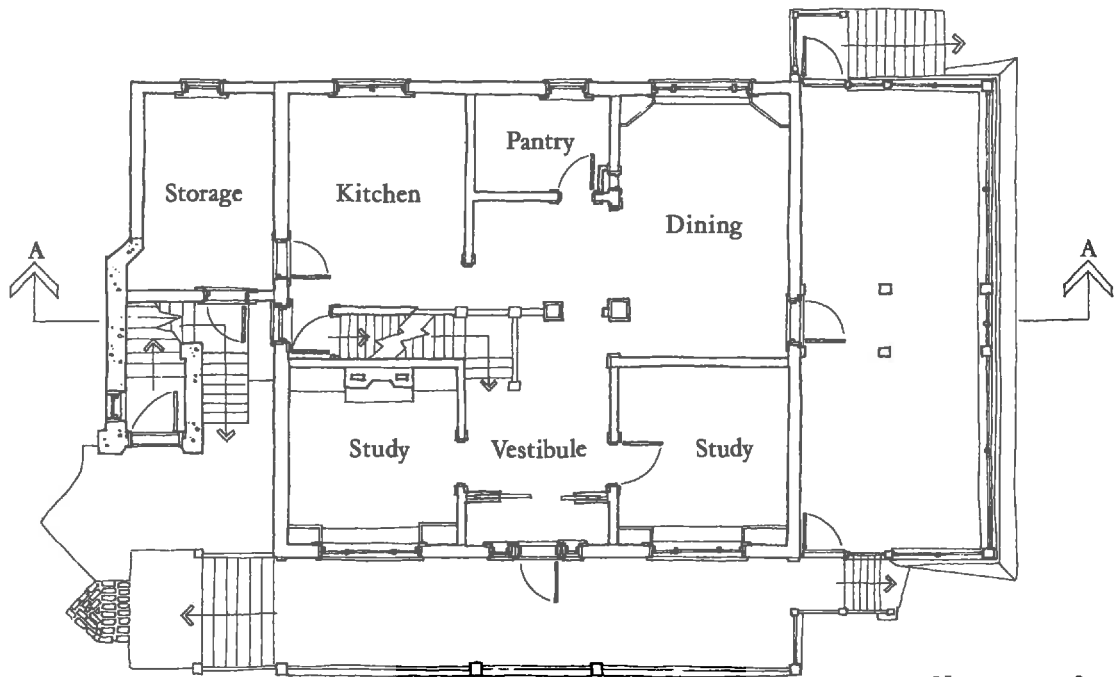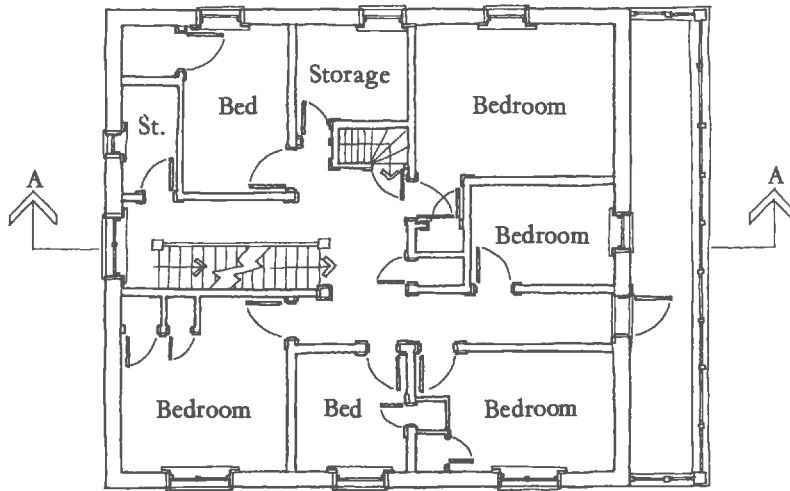

Plate 81. A Four Square design at SW26-14-4E.

Left:
Plate 82.   Former Summerscales house, just south of Sekirk. (From: XMas Number of the Selkirk, St. Clements, Brokenhead and Beausejour Magazine, p. 14.)

Below:
Plate 83.   Second floor plan, top, and ground floor plan, bottom, of the former Summerscales house.

the Four Square house and is oriented to the south on a central plan, it stands firmly apart from others of its type (Plate 83). A broad enclosed verandah overlooking the Red River and an open verandah on the south side, carefully crafted dormer windows and a subtle range of window shapes and designs lifts this house above the vernacular Four Square. However, it is its rich interior that truly separates this house from almost any other of its age in the planning area (Plate 84). The plan itself is a careful balance of spaces, with small parlours at the front and dining room and kitchen at the back. The carefully turned and joined woodwork of the entrance foyer, the numerous staircase details, the window and door casings, baseboards, wainscotting and decorative plaster are all of exceptional quality.

These large houses marked the climax of pre-1930 residential construction in the planning area. After that date, because of economic depression during the 1930s, changes in building technique, and a fashion for the bungalow form, more modest farm houses were usually built. Those houses constructed between 1870 and 1930, however, remind us of the extraordinary growth and human energy that characterized those sixty years of settlement in the area. Within thirty years the Manitoba farmhouse had developed from the log shanties and frame shacks in those isolated parts of the countryside to the grand, multi-storeyed houses of a settled and prosperous province.

Plate 84.   Cross section A-A of the former Summerscales house.

Barns and Outbuildings

Not only houses, but barns as well have undergone a considerable and interesting evolution in those areas of the planning area settled by pioneers from Ontario after 1870. The growing size of farms, technical advances and changes in available manpower all affected the development of the barn in the Selkirk area. It would be incorrect to assume, however, that this transformation occurred everywhere at the same time or even at a steady rate. Allowing for interruptions due to economic conditions, it is possible, nonetheless, to identify three main stages of their development: 1) initial crude barns dating from the early 1870s; 2) turn-of-the-century small wood frame barns; and 3) large wood framed barns of the 1920s and 30s.

Despite the intimate knowledge of complex barn construction which the English-speaking pioneers brought with them to Manitoba, they were often unable to undertake large-scale construction upon their arrival. Limitations of time and resources forced them to erect modest, hastily constructed shelters. Many of the first barns would not be recognized as barns today. Small and low, these structures had the appearance of sheds. The log barn on River Lot 264 is on a simple plan, with a central doorway and hall -- too narrow to be used as a threshing floor -- and side aisles for at most four animals (Plates 85 and 86).

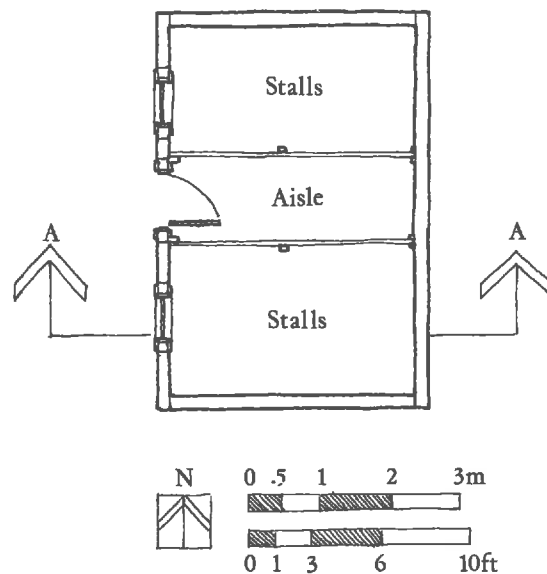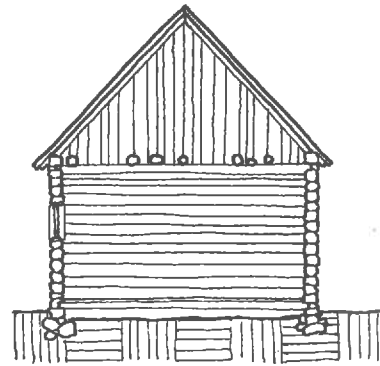**Plate 85.   Semenchuk log barn on River Lot 264.**

Plate 86.   Stable plan and cross section A-A of the Semenchuk barn.

The dramatic growth of agricultural production during the 1890s encouraged farmers throughout Manitoba to expand their operations. The planning area, however, with little cultivated land, did not immediately see the construction of many of those giant bank barns of Ontario memory, so often recreated in southwestern areas of this province. Indeed, few large barns of any description were built in the planning area between 1870 and 1910. And when they were they were often constructed with the most modern of technologies. The

time-honoured traditions of the Ontario barn -- a fieldstone stable, a huge loft composed of a majestic network of timbers -- were often only met halfway, perhaps in the stable plan and with some of the construction procedures. Certainly there must have been a few early barns with both the distinctive loft construction and stable plan. Remnants of a fieldstone stable standing near the south access of River Road may have been such a building. But today only the old Overwater barn, also off River Road, conveys any sense of an Ontario heritage (Plate 87). The foundation and stable walls are of fieldstone but the longitudinal aisle plan, the gambrel roof and the light wood framework of the loft make this a building of the modern era (Plates 88, 89 and 90).

Until the large tracts of swampland in the planning area were drained the focus of agricultural activity remained the banks of the Red River. The small farms of the Selkirk Settlement era were essentially recast after 1870 by small mixed farming operations. For such enterprises, with few draught animals and without the need for huge storage spaces, the need for a large barn was limited. For most, a very small barn, of basic design and simple wood frame construction, was sufficient. Stables like that at
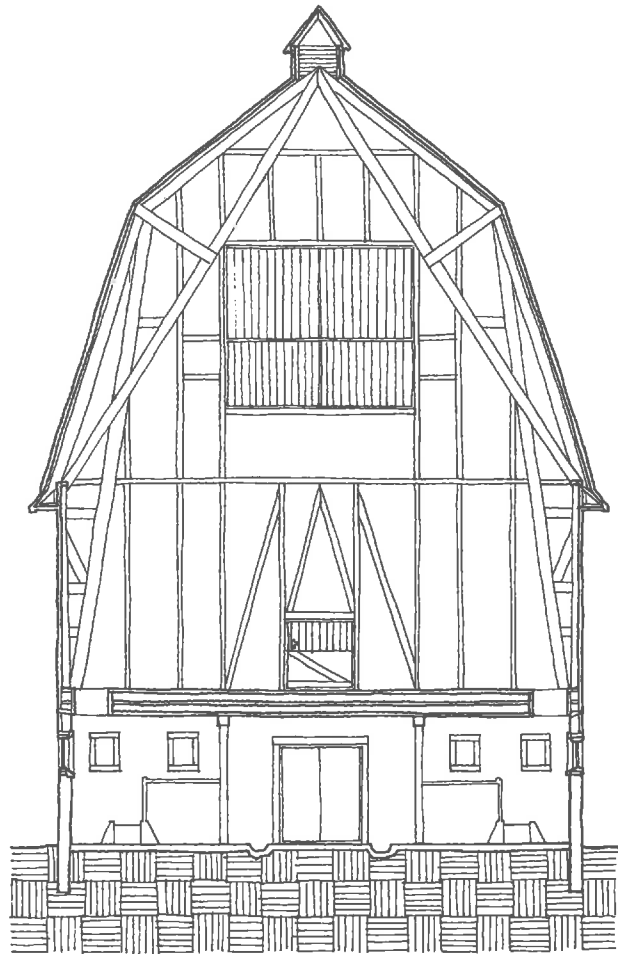

Plate 89.   Cross section A-A of the Overwater barn. The loft floor is unnecessarily strong, built of two layers of 40x200s.

Plate 88.   Detail of typical rafter construction in a gambrel-roofed barn.

65

A

Bins   Chute   Chute

Chute   Chute

N 0 .5 1   2   3m

0 1 3   6   10ft

Feed Aisle

Pen   Stalls

Central Aisle

Calving
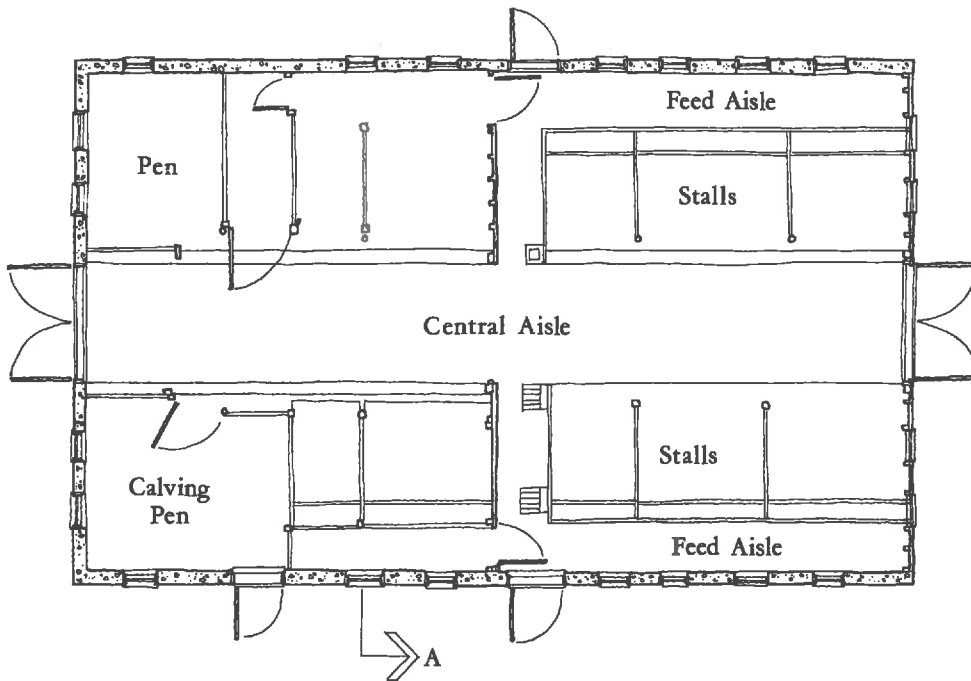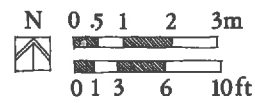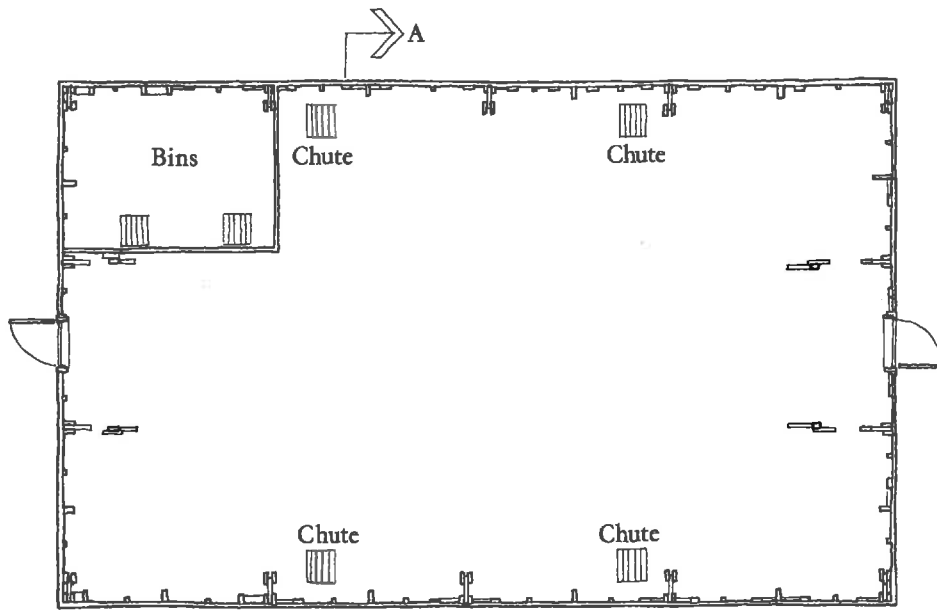Pen   Stalls

Feed Aisle

A

Plate 90. Loft plan, above, and stable plan, below, of the Overwater barn.

NE18-15-4E, with a simple central driveway, flanking stalls and a gabled loft were built around the turn of the century (Plates 91 and 92).

Right:
Plate 91.   Pruden horse barn at NE18-15-4E.

Below:
Plate 92.   Cross section A-A and, below, left and right, stable and loft plans of the Pruden horse barn.

N   0 .5 1   2   3m

0 1 3   6   10ft

Stalls

Aisle

A

Stalls

A
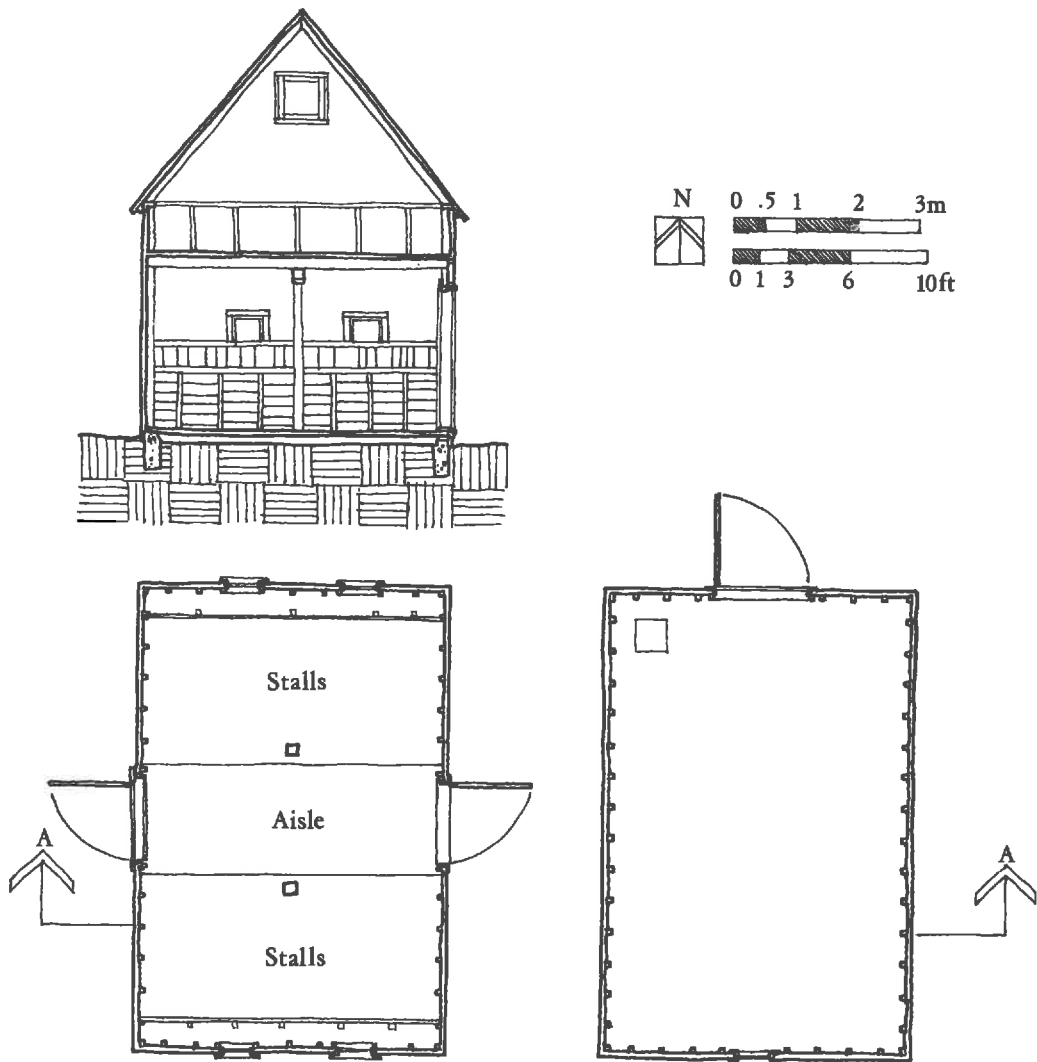
Much more common was a barn like that on River Lot 69, recurring dozens of times along the river, where it housed a few animals and their small hay and grain requirements (Plates 93 and 94). Most of these small barns have a gambrel roof, a feature that provided more space than a gable roof (Plate 95).

As outlying areas of the planning area were opened for large-scale agricultural production after 1900, the construction of large barns became more common. However, the technology and planning precepts that had characterized earlier large barn construction on Ontario models were updated to create new shapes. A barn like the one built by Mervin Jenkins, at

Top:
Plate 93.   Charaton barn, a market barn on River Lot 69.

Right and Bottom:
Plate 94.   Loft and stable plan of the Charaton barn. The original extent of this particular barn is marked by the size of the loft; the ground floor addition of a chicken coop resulted in the removal of a wall and the destruction of the original central aisle plan.
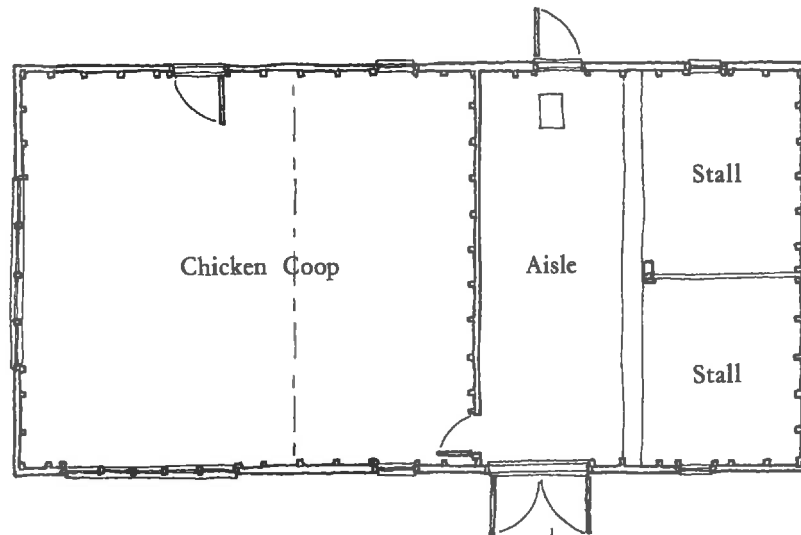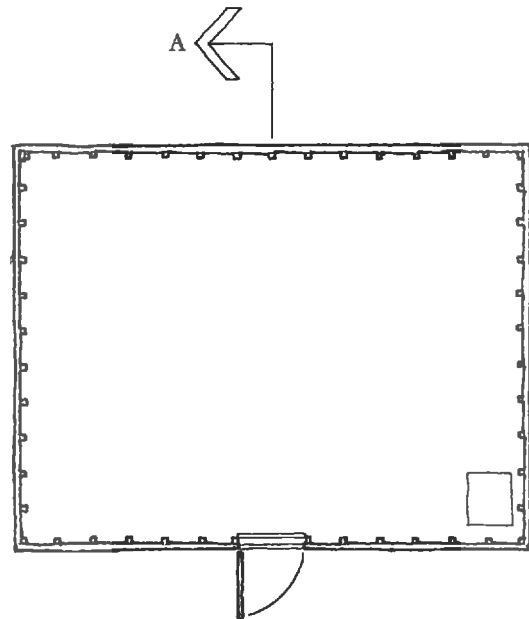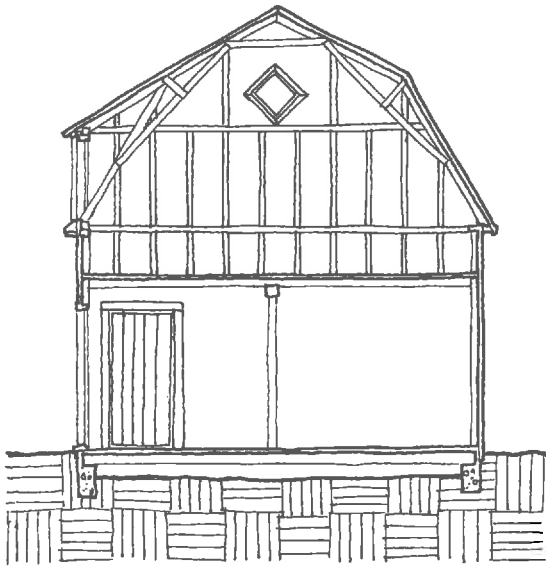
Plate 95. Cross section A-A of the Charaton barn.

SE8-14-4E, with a giant vaulted loft, was especially common (Plate 96). The same longitudinal plan as the Overwater barn (by now of great popularity for dairy cattle production) is in this case even more streamlined. The Jenkins barn is also distinguished by the elimination of monolithic stable walls, relying instead upon a continuation of the wood frame structure to enclose the stable area (Plates 97, 98 and 99). In the loft the smooth contour is created with built-up profiled planks that constitute the main structural members.

Farmers who built barns after the First World War continued to use the internal organization and construction procedures developed around 1900. Because most new barns were built almost exclusively for dairy cattle, the longitudinal stable plan became predominant. Since the end of World War I, new stall designs, improved hay slings, augers and a variety of smaller mechanisms have all affected the internal workings of the barn. Nevertheless the stable plans, roof shapes and structural techniques developed between 1890 and 1930 continue to form the basis of barn designs today.
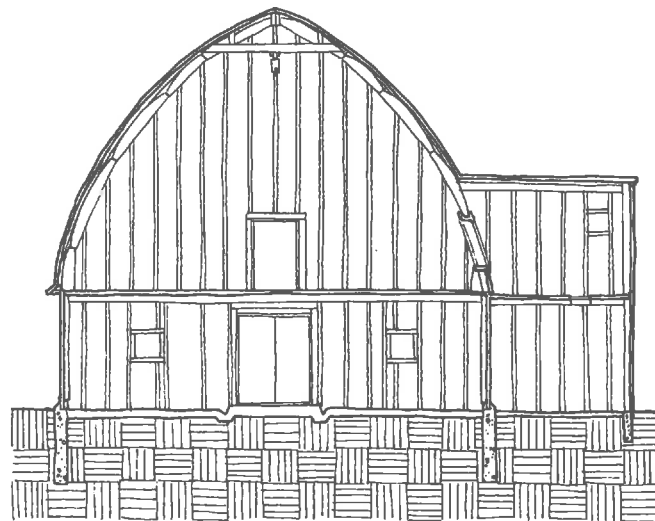

Plate 97. Cross section A-A of the Jenkins barn.

Plate 96. Jenkins barn at SE8-14-4E.

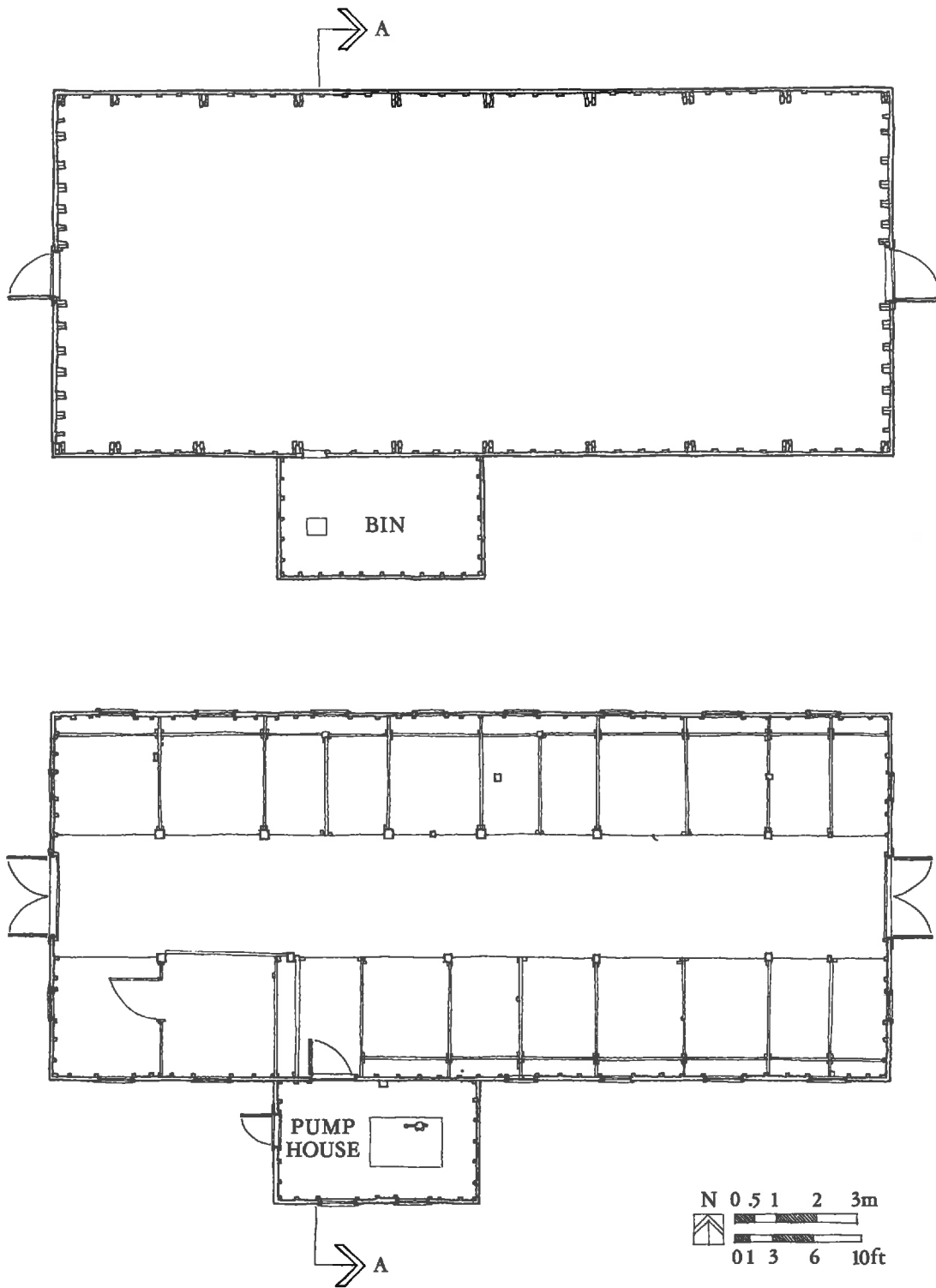Plate 98. Detail of typical rafter construction in a vaulted loft.

Plate 99. Top, loft plan, and below, stable plan of the Jenkins barn.

While houses and barns in the planning area have undergone greater architectural and constructional change over the years than have smaller farmyard buildings, the history of the latter is not without interest. Technical developments have resulted in interesting changes to these buildings, most notably the granaries.

The popularity of cereal crops in the West required the introduction of some form of large-scale grain storage. Before the advent of large, complex threshing machines, most farmers thrashed their grain in the barn (typically in the loft) and grain bins would be located in the barn itself. The first small isolated structures used to store grain were often constructed of roughly hewn and hastily joined logs, chinked to prevent loss of grain through the cracks (Plate 100).

Like the earliest log houses and barns these first granaries were replaced within a few years by wood-framed enclosures. The older log structure was then used for general storage or as a chicken coop or piggery. The wood framing of the newer buildings required some modifications to secure the grain. Besides the exterior sheathing of drop siding a layer of planking often covered the interior of the structure. This construction procedure not only produced a sturdier building, but it also

Plate 100. Husluk log granary at NE24-17-3E.

created a smooth interior that was easy to clean. The bins in these wood-framed granaries were occasionally lined with tin in an effort to keep out rats and mice. Refinements were also made in the design of the bins. For instance at the area of access to the bins, planks could be added or removed depending on the amount of grain in the bin.

While these wood-framed structures were certainly an improvement over their log predecessors, the actual grain handling procedure remained labour intensive. For example, grain bags were manually deposited in a granary at NE12-17-3E which, unlike contemporary structures, did not have a central alley into which a wagon could be driven (Plates 101 and 102). Only with the introduction of
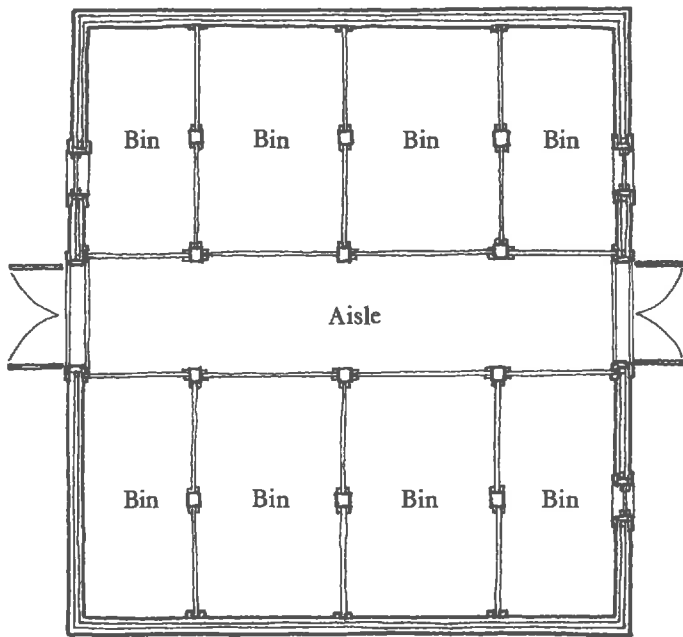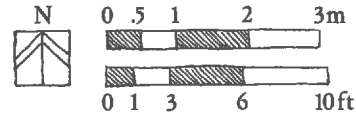

Plate 101. Allison granary at NE12-17-3E.

Plate 102. Plan of the Allison granary.

mechanized elevators at the turn of the century and more recently the development of augers has this situation been relieved.

Large company elevators had operated in nearly all the communities of the Selkirk and District Planning Area since the arrival of the various railway companies, but not until the turn of the century did a few privately operated elevators begin to appear. Even then, however, only a few farms had attained a size that necessitated the construction of an elevator.

The reliance on manual labour, associated with the earlier granaries, gave way in the grain elevators to a system that mechanically distributed grain to the bins. A leg, which consisted of a series of small buckets attached to a conveyor belt and enclosed in a tall wooden box, lifted the grain from ground level up to a distribution box (above the bins) from which it was dispersed to individual bins. These developments were responsible for a distinct change in the building's profile. With their high gable roofs covering their distribution boxes, elevators were usually taller than simple granaries.

A small grain elevator at SE1-15-4E is one of only three remaining in the planning area (Plate 103). A central corridor separates the building into two basic storage areas, each subdivided into bins (Plate 104). The bin walls were cribbed; that is, they were built of 40 x 80s stacked atop one another to create a strong solid wall (Plate 105). A series of chutes, pipes and spouts permitted grain to be transferred, via the distribution box, from bin to bin or from bins to wagons or trucks waiting outside the building.

Plate 103. Macklin elevator at SE1-15-4E.

BIN

BIN BIN

A

PUMP LEG

BIN BIN

A

BIN BIN

BIN BIN

BIN

0 .5 1 2 3m

0 1 3 6 10ft

N
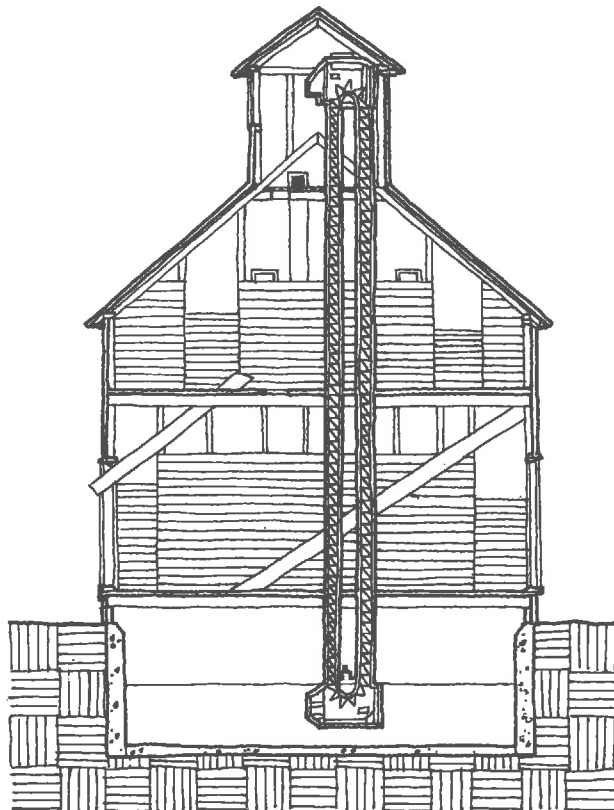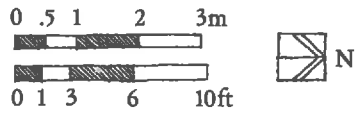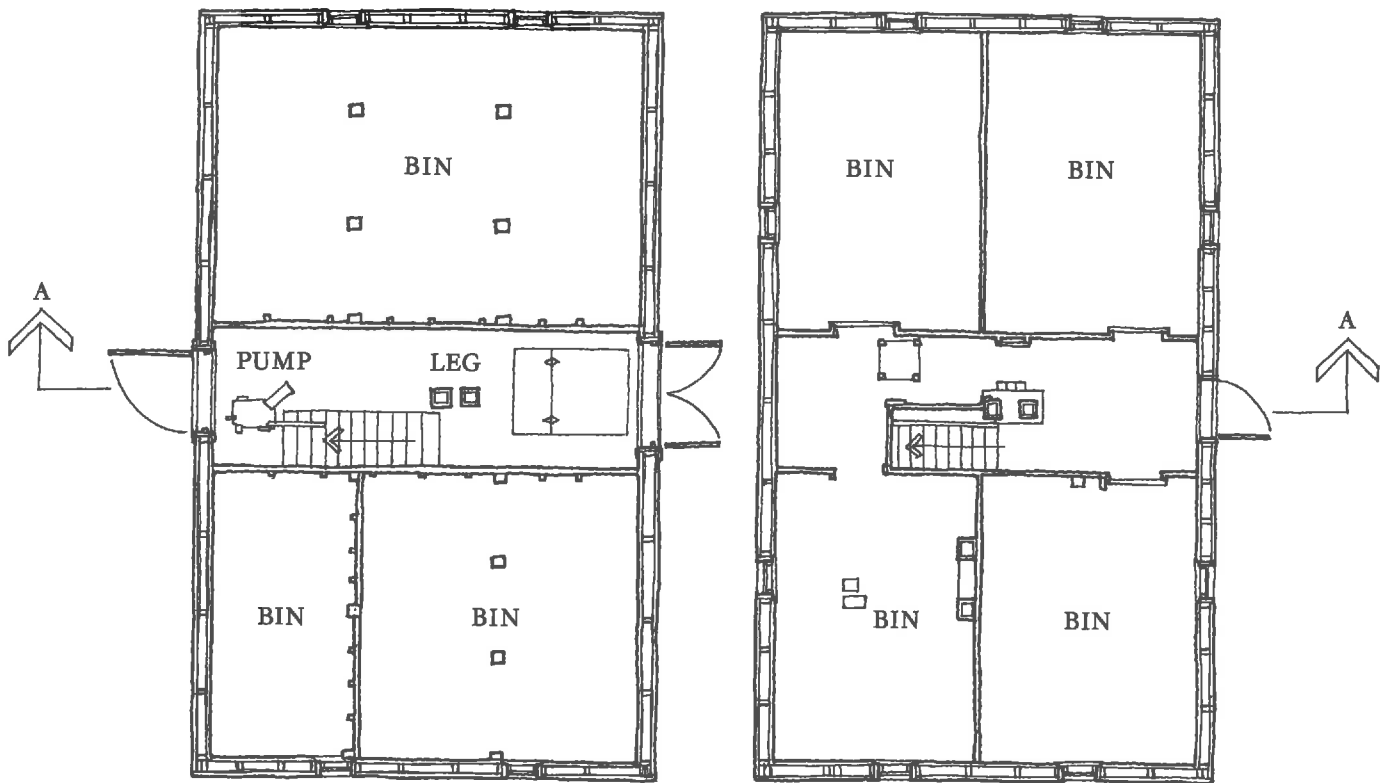
Top:
Plate 104.   Ground and second floor plans, left and right, respectively, of the Macklin elevator.

Right:
Plate 105.   Cross section A-A of the Macklin elevator.

Farm equipment, like agricultural produce, required storage facilities with specific forms and functions. These simple storage buildings were usually plain in appearance, differentiated from each other only by the form and detail requirements of the specific machinery stored. For instance a simple log structure at SE34-13-3E exhibits the tall doors necessary for a threshing machine to enter (Plate 106). Wood-framed buildings, similar in proportion and fenestration to log buildings quickly replaced the rougher structures. Ever larger frame structures were built to house the growing numbers and size of machines needed on the farms of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Whereas previously a number of small sheds were frequently found scattered on a farmyard, it became increasingly common to store three or four pieces of equipment in a single, large building instead (Plate 107). A very interesting building, at NE2-16-3E, not only provided space for several pieces of tillage equipment in the angled wings, but also housed work crews in its central portion (Plate 108). A shed type of apparently local inspiration was built in the northeastern parts of the planning area. Tall and long, these buildings accomodated cattle and feed storage in one half with the other half reserved for machines (Plate 109).

Top to Bottom:
Plate 107. The numerous doors on this machinery shed are highlighted with accents of white outlines against the red of the walls.

Plate 108. Former Reidel machine shed and bunkhouse at NE2-16-3E.

Plate 109. Klann machine shed combined with a variety of other functions.

Plate 106. Log machinery shed, SE34-13-3E.

Log structures used to house chickens were a common feature on most farms in the planning area, yet only a few, and these mostly of frame construction, remain today.

Characteristic of these coops, and clearly flagging their function, are the large window openings in the south wall. These ensured the light and ventilation necessary for healthy hens and hence good egg production. The windows were often sliding ones to facilitate the free circulation of air in summer. The internal planning of a typical chicken coop required the inclusion of an elevated sloping floor upon which the hen roosts were fixed (Plate 110). Beneath this sloping roost area enough space was available for a nesting room or for general storage.
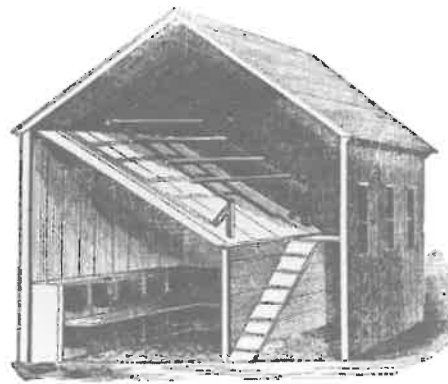
A chicken coop at SE22-16-3E is representative of the few coops left in the planning area (Plate 111). The window wall on the south side provided excellent light conditions inside. A vent permitted foul air to escape through the roof. The interior of this building featured the nests, roosts and runs of a well-planned operation.

The smallest storage structures on the farmyard -- cellars, wells and outhouses -- usually required some excavation. Perishable food for human and animal consumption was usually stored in cellars. When constructed at least partially underground, cellars took advantage of both the coolness and the frost protection afforded by the earth. If not located in a basement a small food storage structure was often built close to the house or barn. In the

Plate 110. Typical section of a chicken coop.

Plate 111. Chicken coop at SE22-16-3E.

planning area several cellars of distinct construction and form were built on the farms on the east side of the Red (Plate 112). A vault created with roughly cut fieldstones ensured a cool dry environment (Plate 113). A milk cellar near the southern access to River Road, also of stone construction, is given some pride of place with its neat stonework and little gabled roof (Plate 114).

Plate 112. Root cellar at SE2-13-5E.

Plate 113. Interior view of the root cellar at SE2-13-5E.

Before the advent of indoor plumbing, water and toilet facilities were located outside. A well was an important, albeit small, feature on the farmsite. A few original well heads still exist in the planning area and, like that at SE24-13-3E, are utilitarian but effective pieces of work (Plate 115). Outhouses, or necessaries as they might more politely be called, were also lost with twentieth century improvements. These little buildings were simply constructed with a wood frame of 40 x 80s, sheathed with drop siding and covered with a pitched roof (Plate 116). The roof could be decorated (although in this case it is not) as could the window openings above the door or on the side.

Ukrainian Influences

By the time Ukrainian immigration to Canada began in the 1890s folk architecture in Ukraine had had a tradition that stretched back to the fourteenth century (Plate 117). Styles and techniques of construction had become entrenched in the culture and reached a high level of skill and artistry. The peasant builders, operating within a restricted economy, constructed their homes and farm buildings with the only available materials, including timber, mud plaster and grass. These items were common to all Ukrainian folk structures and appeared in varying proportions depending on their availability.

The traditional Ukrainian farmyard included several buildings besides the house and the barn, or "stodola". Pigs were housed in a "khliv" and poultry in a "kurnyk". Grain was stored in a "spitlair", while summer food preparation took place in the "kuchny". A distinctive little building, the "komora" was used for dry storage and as a tool shed. Other standard items in a Ukrainian farmstead typically included an outdoor clay and stone bake oven, a crib well with a tall sweep or balance beam for drawing water, a small outhouse and, in some cases, an open structure used as a sheltered work area.

The prosperous farmyard complex was often enclosed or at least fronted with a wattle fence constructed of thin willows (Plate 118). The placement of buildings within the yard varied somewhat according to personal preference and site topography but in general it formed a rectangular arrangement.
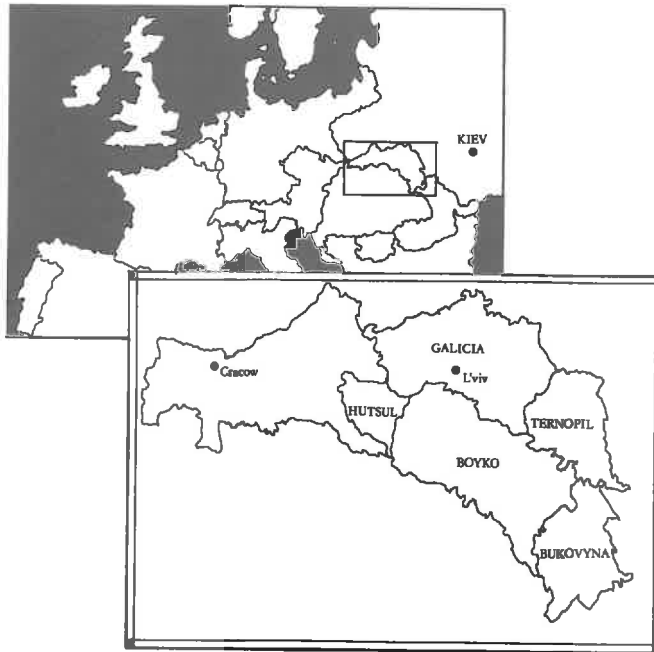

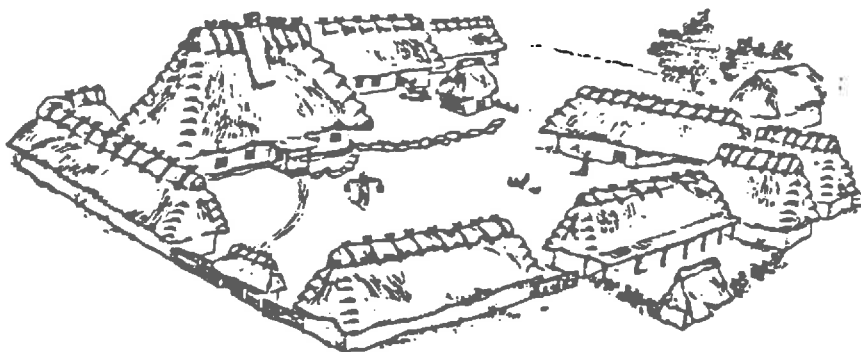Plate 117. Map of the ethnic areas of the western Ukraine.

Plate 118. A typical Ukrainian farmstead.

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The house was of course the most important building on the farm site. And though distinctive regional characteristics had developed in response to local economic, environmental and social factors, most traditional folk housing followed a relatively basic form. In Ukraine, the rectangular plan of the typical dwelling allowed for two major internal spaces: the "velyka khata" (large room) at the east end and the "mala khata" (small room) at the west end (Plate 119). The plan was invariably oriented east-west longitudinally, the only entry and most of the windows facing south.

The "mala khata" was the family work room where the hub of daily activity occurred: cooking, washing, eating and sleeping. It was here that the traditional, massive clay cookstove, the "pich" was located. The large food preparation area and cooking surface of the "pich" was often used as a sleeping area for the children, as it radiated heat long after the fire had ceased to burn. This was especially useful during the cold winter months.

The "velyka khata", literally the big house, was accorded special status. The room was usually used only on ceremonial occasions, such as Christmas and Easter, or for the reception and accommodation of guests. Larger families, more pressed for space, could use the room as the parent's bedroom. The east wall of the room was traditionally hung with icons, religious calendars, family pictures and was often decorated with embroidered linens and arrangements of dried flowers.
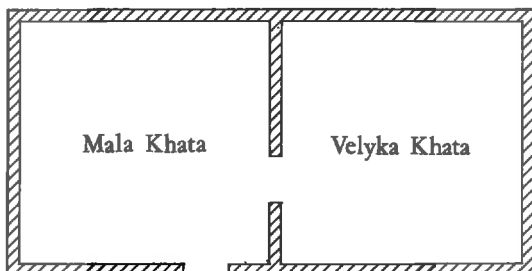
In the western Ukraine, where the majority of the immigrants to Canada originated, log construction was most common. Three different methods were used: horizontal log construction, with dovetailed or saddlenotched corners; post and fill (similar to Red River frame); and vertical log construction, in which the walls were secured by top and bottom sills. The horizontal construction methods were favoured over the others except in areas deficient of good timber, areas where post and fill made sense.

The Ukrainian cottage was usually finished inside and out with a thick layer of plaster. The plaster consisted of a mixture of clay, sand and water, supplemented with a combination of chopped straw and horse or cow dung to prevent it from cracking as it dried. This plaster parging sealed and insulated the walls. A coarser base layer was generally covered with a finer-grained finish to which lime and dyes, such as laundry bluings, were added. These procedures brought out the whiteness of the lime and provided the walls with a smooth hard finish. Patterns could be traced out with blue or yellow dye over the white of the lime. A wide band of colour was often applied to the lower portions of the walls.

The steep thatched roof was one of the more distinctive features of the dwellings in the western Ukraine. Although the thatch material could vary, rye straw was preferred for its durability. A thatch roof was cheap

Plate 119. Schematic plan of a Ukrainian house. This very general composition could be varied according to specific local conditions and traditions.

and easy to construct and, when carefully tied, was not only waterproof but heat retentive. Such a roof, if properly maintained, could last up to fifty years.

This simple house type saw two basic regional variations in Bukovyna and Galicia, the regions where most of the Ukrainian immigrants to Manitoba originated. Bukovynians built houses which were generally larger and more ornate than Galician houses (Plate 120). Bukovynian houses were usually three-roomed structures with a centrally located doorway which opened onto a small entrance hall called a "siny". This entrance hall was often protected by a gable-roofed porch extension. Such houses were characterized by hipped or hipped gable roofs with prominent overhanging eaves, especially pronounced along the front or south wall. This south overhang, supported by a number of wooden posts, formed a verandah. At the corners of the house the exterior walls flared out towards the eave to form brackets, which were often decoratively carved. The richness of Bukovynian houses was further enhanced by decorative patterns and coloured trim applied to the exterior walls.

Galician houses displayed the familiar influences of northwestern Europe (Plate 121). Most Galician houses had only two rooms and a simple gable or hipped gable roof. Rarely did they have the prominent overhang of the Bukovynian houses and their use of eave brackets was less common and always less pronounced. Galician houses were not without distinctive elements, however. The buildings with gable roofs frequently had on each gable end, at the eave level, a distinctive pent extension to protect the plaster from rainwater damage. The gable itself was not plastered, but was generally filled with vertical weatherboards; sometimes decoratively carved.
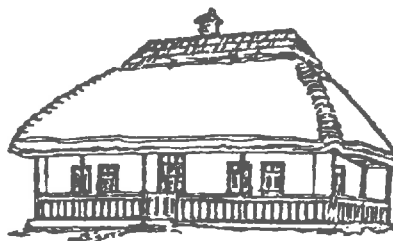

Plate 120.   A typical Bukovynian folk house.

Plate 121.   A typical Galician folk house.

Both Bukovynian and Galician farmyard structures -- barns, granaries, chicken coops, work sheds and storage sheds -- were constructed, like their dwellings, on a rectangular plan with mud-plastered log walls and thatched roofs. Their specific nature, however, varied with local requirements and conditions. Throughout the western Ukraine, the number and size of farm outbuildings reflected differences in the amount of land owned and the social status enjoyed by the particular families. Poor peasants commonly stored crop harvests and their small implements in the hallway or storage room of their dwellings. Their livestock was often housed in a lean-to building attached to the house. Where livestock were more numerous the animals were housed in a separate, partitioned structure. Only the wealthiest of peasants possessed more than a few simple farmyard structures; the majority of peasant farmers built no more than three or four small outbuildings.

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Farm Houses

The careful traditions of their homeland were of little use to the settlers in their first year in Manitoba. Initial shelters built by those who arrived early in the year were of a temporary nature and were typically occupied for a month or so while more substantial structures were built. Such shelters, known as "budahs" or "zemliankas" were usually crude one-room huts, simple lean-tos or tipis built of small trees and branches (Plate 122). If the settlers arrived too late in the season to construct a proper house, a slightly more substantial pit shelter would be built in which to pass the winter. Given the temporary aspect of these initial structures it is not surprising that none have survived in the planning area.

When the Ukrainian pioneers set out to construct their more permanent dwellings, however, they usually had little money. The men were forced to leave their homesteads as soon as possible in search of employment and as a consequence these first real houses were small and hastily constructed. Although the builders of such structures

Plate 122. A "budah".

attempted to follow Ukrainian vernacular traditions, time restrictions and limits on available materials meant that close attention to traditional detail was impracticable.

The walls of these early homes were usually built of slender unpeeled poplar logs (Plate 123). The corners were secured with crudely fashioned dovetail joints or the simpler and thereby more popular saddlenotches. The roofs were either stacked with grass or roughly thatched. Depending on the care with which it was constructed, and the economic progress of the settler, an early home such as

Plate 123. Early Ukrainian log house.

this was often replaced within ten years of the settler's arrival in the new land. The original structure was then used as a summer kitchen or for poultry. In cases where the first home was retained beyond the initial settlement period a number of improvements were usually made. These could include the replacement of the thatch roof with one of shingles, the replacement of the traditional "pich" with a cast iron stove or the installation of a lumber floor and manufactured windows and doors. In the planning area these early dwellings were once numerous, but today there are no known survivors.

The houses that succeeded these first log structures were built with varying degrees of fidelity to traditional Ukrainian examples. Some Ukrainian pioneers in the planning area attempted to duplicate their architectural heritage, from plan to details. Many others, again pressed by time and economic circumstances combined traditional forms with personal requirements and contemporary North American building concepts.

There are at least four traditional Ukrainian folk houses in the planning area: three Galician and one Bukovynian. Unfortunately two of the Galician houses are in poor states of preservation. And yet the poorest of these is one of the most interesting specimens of building construction in the area. Built on the east side of the Red, within the Ukrainian enclave that settled around the turn of the century, the former Arnsey house is now a ruin (Plate 124 and number 54 in the Selected Inventory). The house reflects Galician planning concepts but was, and is, covered with a hipped roof, more typical of Bukovynian houses (Plate 125).

Plate 124. Former Arnsey farmstead. The present building is on the right, its pioneer precursor on the left. Since this photograph was taken the front wall of the later house has been removed and the structure is collapsing.

Plate 125. Isometric cutaway and construction details -- a rafter seat (A), wall section (B) and wall-rafter connection (C) -- of the former Arnsey house. Part of the ground on which the building sits has been cut away to reveal the corner foundation stones.
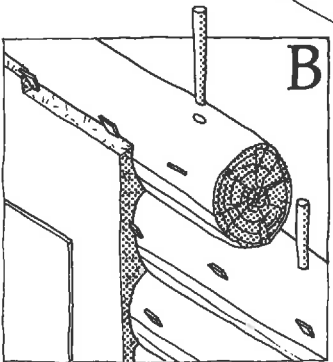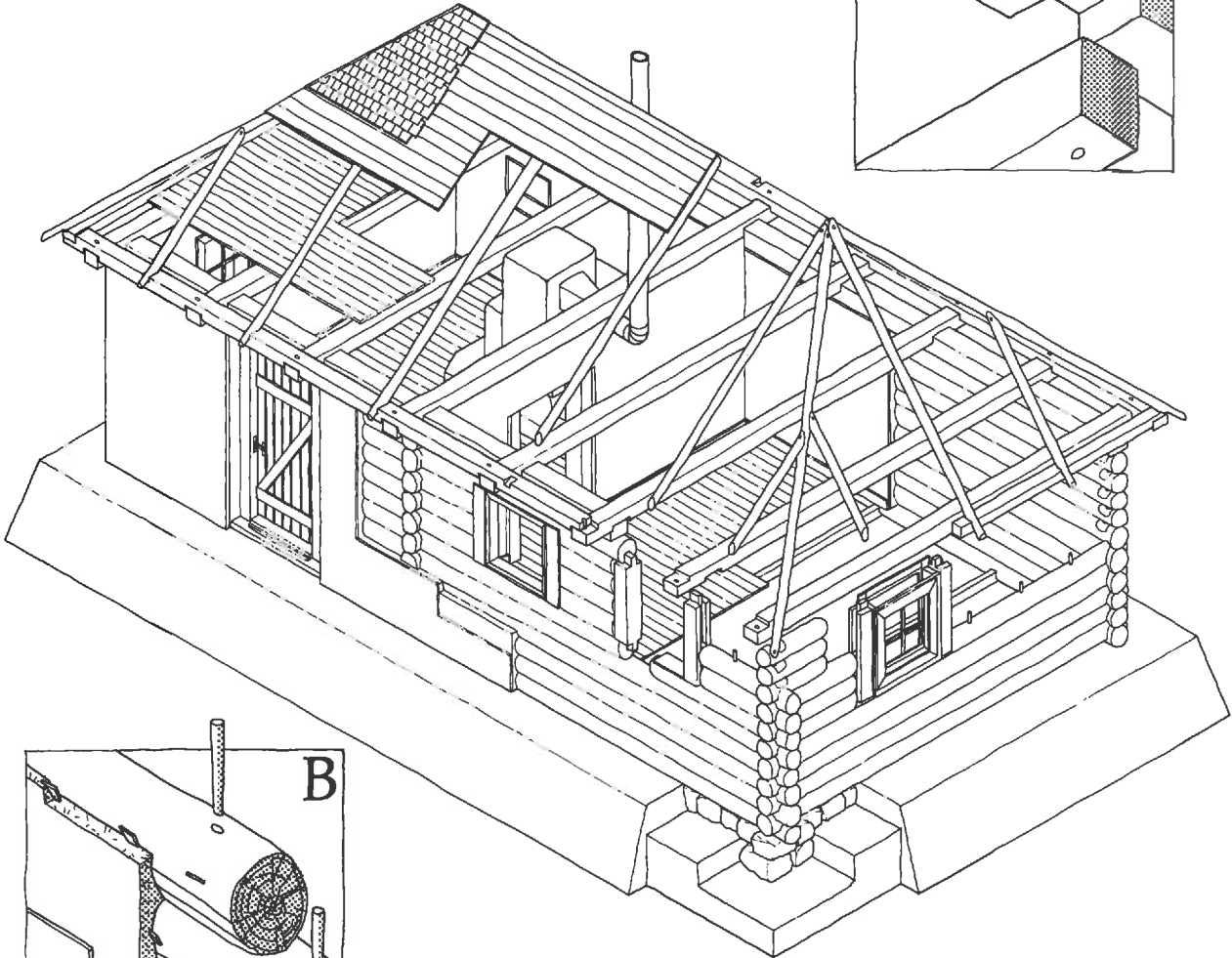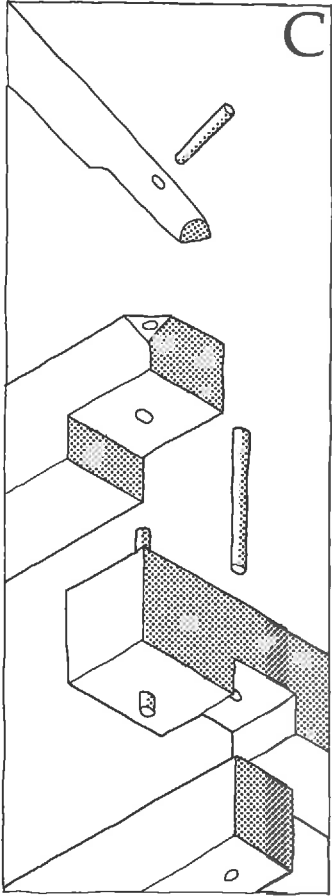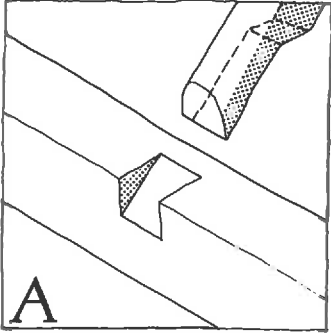
Peeled logs were connected at its corners with saddlenotch joints, which have weathered better than might have been expected; it is the removal of sections of the front wall that has proved disasterous for the structure's integrity. The plaster cover on the log walls was secured in a novel way: hundreds of small wooden splints cut into thin wedges and driven diagonally into the logs at regularly spaced intervals acted as purchase, holding the first layer of clay and straw in place. This first layer was then covered with layers of plaster and lime. Only at the bottom of the walls has the clay layer been lost, the upper portion being protected by the broad overhang of the roof.

The construction of the roof of the Arnsey house is an interesting piece of work. There are eight joist beams that extend one metre beyond the walls and support the long sill plates that in turn provide support for the rough hewn rafters. The corner connections required to support the hip of the roof are straightforward in conception but quite complex in reality (See Detail "C" of Plate 125). The roof itself, once thatched, has been recovered with wooden shingles (Plate 126).

The careful construction evident

Plate 126. Thatch procedure likely used on the former Arnsey house.

in this structure suggests that there was attention to decorative elements as well. Painting probably enlivened the exterior and religious and family objects likely hung in the "velyka khata". Of course, none of this survives, nor does the "pich" that was replaced with a stove (Plate 127).

Both of the other Galician houses exhibit the traditional plan with a gable roof and a pent extension (Plates 128 and 129). The Yakabowski

Plate 127. A "pich" like this was once in the former Arnsey house.

Plate 128. Ukrainian house at NW33-16-4E.

Plate 129. Yakobowski house at NW12-17-3E.

Plate 130. Ukrainian house, clearly of Bukovynian tradition.

house, the more interesting of the two, features decorative shingling in the gable end and rippling bargeboards -- traditional features -- that enhance the building's charm.

The sole Bukovynian house left in the planning area was built around 1925 (Plate 130). The three room plan, the projecting "siny" and the hipped roof are all descriptive of its architectural origins (Plate 131). The house was once plastered -- and likely decoratively painted -- although today the only plaster remnants occur above window and door openings. Like the former Arnsey house, the hipped roof of this building required some expert joinery at the intersection of the two sill plates and the diagonal rafter. It is apparent from clay remnants under the eaves that the plaster coating of the walls extended up to and covered all these connections, creating a smooth surface, dramatically flared just below the eaves.

Mala Khata

Velyka Khata

Siny
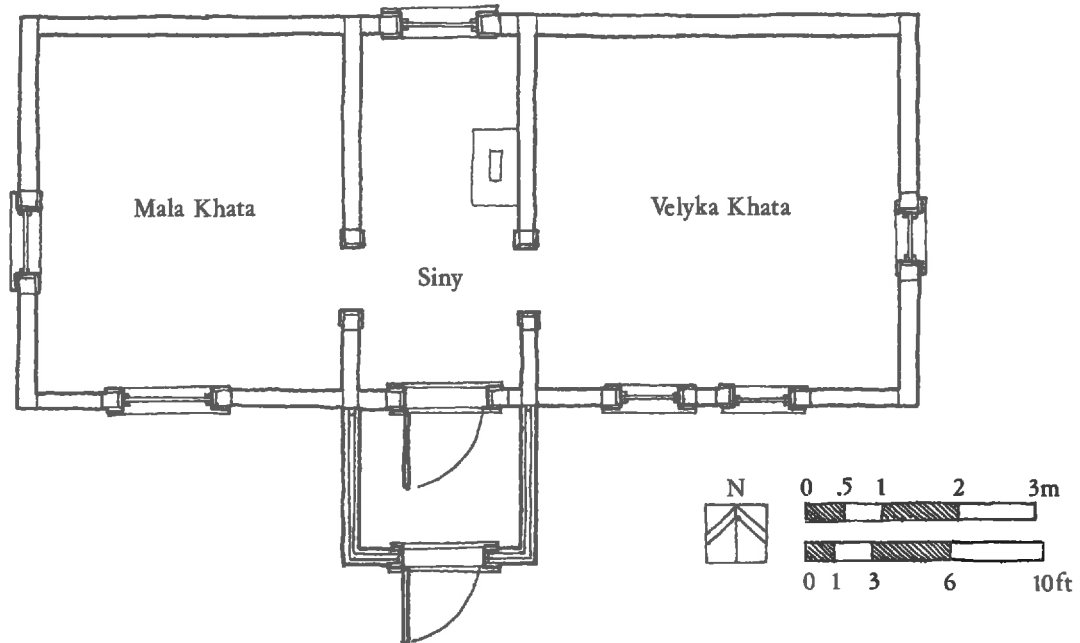
N

0 .5 1 2 3m

0 1 3 6 10ft

Plate 131. Plan of the Bukovynian house.

Plate 132.   Bilan house at SW27-16-4E.

Plate 133.   Ukrainian house at SE19-14-6E.

Plate 134.   Ukrainian   house,   northeast   of Lockport.

Many other farm houses built by Ukrainian settlers were hybrids of styles, materials and construction techniques. Perhaps closest in traditional planning to Galician examples, the few hybrid buildings left in the planning area can only suggest some of the variations. A house at SW27-16-4E has taller proportions than its more traditional Ukrainian neighbours (Plate 132); another features the entrance in the gable end (Plate 133); while another has incorporated a lean-to (Plate 134). In general these buildings suggest the waning of a tradition, the acceptance of alternate planning and the incorporation of different functions. It was only the reliance on log as a construction material and some consequent detailing that preserved the link with their architectural past. And when milled lumber and other technological advances gained acceptance among Ukrainian pioneers, their houses quickly lost even those traditional characteristics (Plate 135).

Plate 135.   An old Ukrainian log house sits beside the new farmhouse.

Barns and Outbuildings

There were once hundreds of barns and outbuildings constructed by Ukrainian pioneers in the planning area (Plate 136). Today only a fraction of these survive, making it difficult to analyze developments with any security. This appears especially true for barns. Large log barns like those found in other areas of Ukrainian settlement in the province are not present in the planning area -- they likely never were. The economic base of the whole area -- small farms and market gardens -- restricted the need for such structures. Thus a Ukrainian family, like an English family, likely kept only a few large animals and consequently required only a stable or small barn. However, traditional examples of even these structures are rare.

Only three log barns, and these not of especially traditional form, are present today. All three are small, plain and in poor condition (Plates 137, 138 and 139). The barn at SE24-13-3E is constructed of roughly hewn logs joined by saddlenotches at the corners.

Plate 137. Ukrainian barn at SE24-13-3E.

Plate 138. Former Gabryk barn.

Plate 136. This covered storage facility, now gone, was one of the largest Ukrainian farm buildings constructed in the area. (PAM)

Plate 139. Ukrainian barn, northeast of Lockport.

The walls of the building, enclosing space for only a few cattle or horses, were covered with mud and clay and then plastered. A small pent extension offered this covering some protection but neglect and a poor foundation have allowed the northwest corner to collapse. The plan of the barn featured a central entrance on the long side, lit by a small window aligned with the door, and flanking stalls. The other two barns, while built of logs, betray no hint of the heritage of their Ukrainian builders. The barn, or stable, near Lockport differs in no significant way from other local barns, except that underneath its horizontal sheathing are roughly hewn logs.

Of the once common Ukrainian farm buildings, small granaries and tool sheds are especially well represented. Moreover, in comparison with the barns these little storage buildings often more clearly expressed distinct Ukrainian architectural features. The four granaries ("spitlairs") and eight tool sheds ("komoras") are all of logs and have distinctive shapes and details. One of the granaries is especially interesting (Plate 140). It is a neat little building constructed of poplar logs, roughly hewn and dovetail notched, with a covering of plaster. In order to create a straight secure wall, long slender pegs were driven through successive layers of the horizontal logs (Plate 141). The distinctive pent extension on the gable ends was emphasized by projecting and supporting logs, the ends of each cut at a 45 degree angle, and by four extra timbers set into the wall and braced against the pent.

Plate 140. Ukrainian granary, near the junction of Highways 44 and 59.

Plate 141. This detail of a granary shows the long pegs used to secure the walls against lateral spread.

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The "komoras" are perhaps more interesting than the granaries, for nearly all of them are expressive of Ukrainian skills at log construction. A "komora" in the Gonor area is indicative of those remaining in the planning area (Plate 142). The building is not in the best of condition, but exhibits some fine features. The hewn poplar logs of the walls are joined by dovetail notches and the whole is surmounted by a gabled roof. The distinguishing feature of the "komora", its roof extension, created a covered work space (Plate 143). Tools were kept inside these little buildings but yokes, wire bundles and other hardy articles were occasionally hung on the exterior (Plate 144).

Plate 142. Former Polanski "komora", near the junction of Highways 44 and 59.
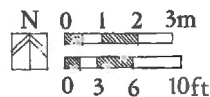

N 0 1 2 3m
0 3 6 10ft

Plate 144. Tools and implements hung on the exterior of a "komora".
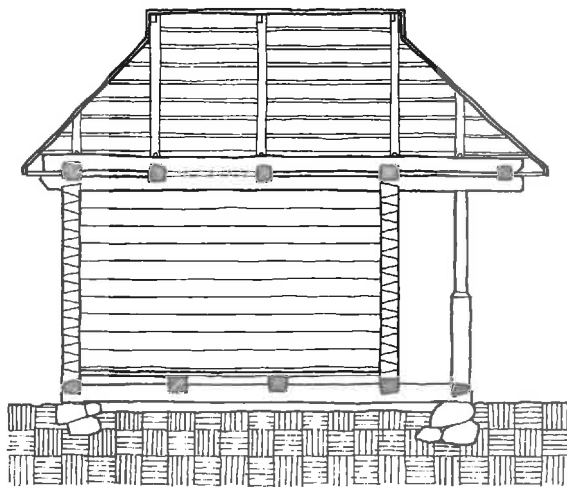

Plate 143. Cross section of the former Polanski "komora".

The specific construction of the "komora" porch could vary. In this case, and typically, the top logs from the walls were extended past the front wall and connected, by dovetails, with a few smaller logs across the front. In other cases the procedure and the joinery were more sophisticated. For example, a "komora" west of Little Britain, built around 1910, extended only the top sill log, in this case carefully squared (Plate 145). This log was notched to receive the under brace and the rafter (Plate 146).

Plate 145. Pronyk "komora", west of Little Britain on Highway 230.

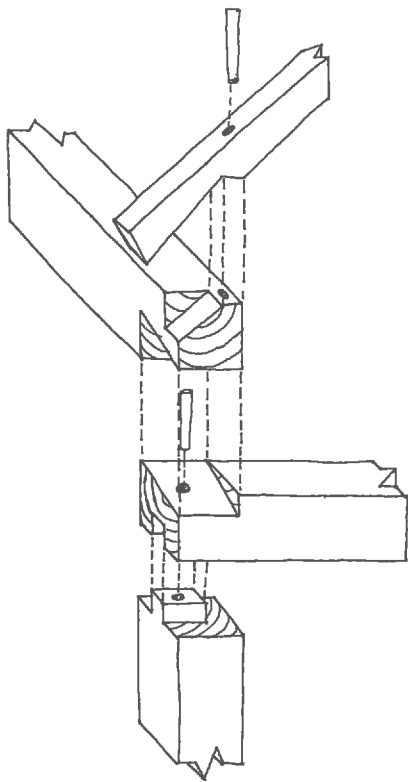Plate 147. Bake oven, now preserved at the Winnipeg Beach Ukrainian Homestead Museum.

Plate 146. Porch detail of the Pronyk "komora".

Two other small outbuildings that were certainly found on Ukrainian homesteads in the planning area -- chicken coops and summer kitchens -- are not known to exist in the area today. These were usually simple utilitarian structures with no strong traditional basis for their form or expression. More unfortunate is the loss of a once common site on early Ukrainian farms, the traditional bake oven, where bread and other pastries were prepared. Just one of these clay ovens is known to exist, preserved at the Ukrainian Homestead Museum at Winnipeg Beach (Plate 147). The distinctive sweep wells, usually replaced by the typical pit well, have also been lost, except again for one at the same museum (Plate 148).

Plate 148. A sweep well, like this one preserved at the Winnipeg Beach Ukrainian Homestead Museum, was common on Ukrainian farmsteads.

An outbuilding found on a very few Ukrainian farmsteads in Manitoba -- the windmill -- has also been preserved (Plate 149). The John Hykawy windmill, built around 1910, was originally located near Fraserwood. The structure was dismantled and moved to the Winnipeg Beach museum site, where it was reconstructed (Plate 150). An early description of the building noted that it was "an eight sided frame structure on a stone foundation. The six sails, windshaft and roof assembly could be turned into the wind by means of long poles hinged to the edge of the roof, and held in position by sticking the poles into the ground. Power from the windshaft was transferred through wooden gears, a vertical shaft, a belt and pulleys, to the spindle that drove the granite upper or "runner" stone. Farmers would make journeys of up to two days to reach this cap mill."[40] The mill has been restored, the sails replaced and the great spindle needs only to be engaged to grind grain.

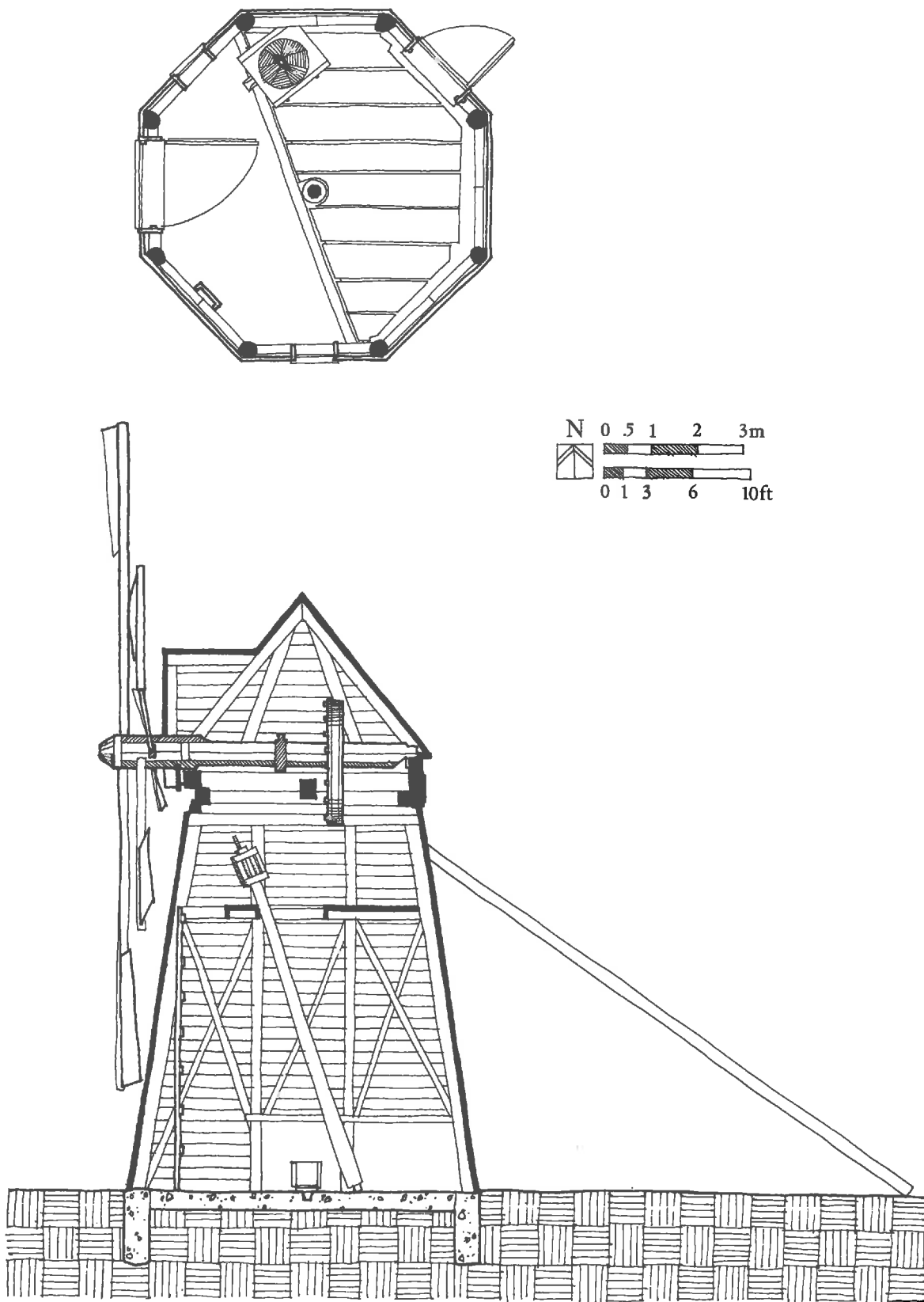Plate 149. The former Hykawy windmill, now at the Winnipeg Beach Ukrainian Homestead Museum.

Plate 150.   Plan and cross section of the former Hykawy windmill.

Rural Public and Commercial Structures

Churches and Halls

The need for a variety of commercial services in those areas of the province newly opened by farm settlers was quickly apparent. And almost as soon as any concentration of settlers emerged, entrepreneurs would construct a store. Such an establishment was conveniently and strategically located, often on a well-worn trail, by a river or creek. Sometimes these nascent commercial centres grew into towns. Frequently they did not. These vital local services did thrive, nevertheless, at least until the 1930s, when automobile transport to nearby towns, with their varied and wider selection, made purely local facilities obsolete.

Before that time the rural nature of the country and the difficulties of transportation ensured the location in the countryside of two other important local services: church and school. Where numbers of a particular denomination warranted, the first community structure built was usually a church building, a testament to the faith of the people. Though education was also a priority the first pupils often made do in other local buildings until a proper school building was erected. Occasionally a community hall might also be built to serve the local population with facilities for large social events.

In the planning area, between 1870 and 1930, these special service centres of the farm landscape were numerous. Now most are gone. And often the buildings that remain are of a post-Boom period. There are only a few churches that date from the first decade of this century; many others have been replaced by more modern structures. Early school buildings, especially, have been maligned and a functioning old rural store is a rarity.

As the traditional architectural forms that helped define the different immigrant populations in the West slowly passed from the rural landscape, the church building emerged as the one sure and potent symbol of a culture. In the planning area the churches of Anglo-Ontario and Ukrainian settlement help to delineate these distinct cultures in the new land. The Anglo-Ontarian tradition had its roots, of course, in the parish churches of the United Kingdom, while the Ukrainian ecclesiastical tradition had its base in the steppes of eastern Europe. A discussion of each of these precedents and of their translation into the new context of the planning area will reveal in the pioneer's buildings both a sure appreciation of the past and some marked deviations from tradition.

The rural British church tradition that informs the stone churches of Red River can also be read in the churches built by immigrants arriving after 1870. However, because many of these farm settlers in the planning area were from Ontario, it is the architectural heritage of that province that will be more profitably examined, in spite of the fact that many of the ecclesiastical and church design concepts originated in Great Britain, even during the nineteenth century.

In Ontario the diversity of religions -- Anglican, Methodist, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, Congregationalist, Baptist -- ensured an uncommon wealth of approaches to church design. In the smaller towns and in the countryside, however, where money and time were premiums, small church buildings tended to be simple structures, with the Catholic churches slightly more elaborate than the Protestant (Plates 151 and 152).
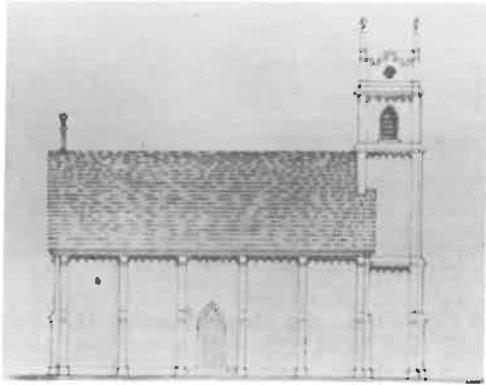
Plate 151. A private Protestant chapel in Ontario, designed for John Elmsley (From: Hallowed Walls, p. 98.)

The hall church, with a tower, was the strong backbone of the Anglo-Ontarian church heritages. Access to the building was usually gained at the front of the hall, establishing a clear processional experience leading to the altar and the pulpit. The design of the tower afforded the greatest opportunity to demonstrate faith, taste and modernity. The variety of designs was great, but a tower like that at Maple Presbyterian Church was perhaps, in the 1870s, of most familiar form and detail (Plate 153).

Plate 153. Maple Presbyterian Church. (From: Hallowed Walls, p. 259.)

Plate 152. A Roman Catholic church in Ontario, St. Alexander's Lochiel. (From: Hallowed Walls, p. 128.) Other Roman Catholic churches eschewed the Gothic influences common in Protestant churches and drew on classical motifs, often employing round headed windows instead.

In the planning area these traditions, in their most elaborate form, could never be realized, limited as the pioneers were by the scarcity of funds available for their construction. Here, there are no great towers, for example, although St. James Anglican Church of 1912 had a small bell enclosed in a broached spire and St. Theresa Roman Catholic Church once boasted a three-tiered tower (Plates

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Plate 154. St. James Anglican Church. (From: East Side of the Red, p. 181.)

Plate 155. St. Theresa Roman Catholic Church. (From: East Side of the Red, p. 194.)

154 and 155). Usually, only the most basic of church building tenets are evident. And for most Protestant and Catholic congregations the first church building was of log, functional and crude (Plate 156).

Plate 156. The old log church, St. Peter's Chapel, now gone. (From: Beyond the Gates of Lower Fort Garry, p. 63.)

Saving money through tithes and Sabbath collections eventually permitted most congregations to embark upon the construction of a modest church building. Soon, small rural churches dotted the countryside in the planning area. There were once at least sixty Protestant and Catholic church buildings here; several, like St. Theresa have been dismantled. Some, like the old MacBeth Church (number 187 in the Selected Inventory) have been adapted to suit different functions, and others have been replaced altogether by more modern structures. Most of those remaining, presently see little activity as churches.

The country churches that remain are usually very simple, with a straightforward hall plan, lighted along the nave by pointed windows. The old St. Matthew's Anglican illustrates the simplest of church designs: a steep roof and pointed windows make known its function (Plate 157). Cloverdale United Church features a fine broad bell tower crowned by a tall pyramidal roof (Plate 158). The striking crenellated tower of Wakefield Anglican Church is not its only distinctive feature. The plan of this building places the entrance tower to one side of the basic church hall, creating an informal, picturesque composition (Plate 159). The Roman Catholics constructed several churches in the countryside and, while restricted

Plate 157. St. Matthew's Anglican Church. (From: Beyond the Gates of Lower Fort Garry, p. 62.)

Plate 158. Cloverdale United Church.

by the limited manpower of their smaller congregations, their buildings exhibit considerable refinement. Corpus Christi Roman Catholic Church on Henderson Highway is typical of these. It has a fine facade composed of an interesting entrance bay, with a rose window and unusual gabled pediment, and two flanking towers opened at the top. The classical round-arched windows of Roman Catholic tradition are also to be found here, paired along the nave (Plate 160).

Plate 159. Wakefield Anglican Church.

Plate 160. Corpus Christi Roman Catholic Church.

Ukrainian church architecture in Manitoba was deeply affected by the general historical and specific geographic influences of the Ukraine. Ukrainian church architecture had its basis in Byzantium, to which it was associated ecclesiastically by 1000 A.D. The Byzantine vocabulary of domes, mosaics and interior richness was to find enduring expression in Ukrainian churches throughout the centuries. Even the dramatic split in 1596 that saw the separation of the Ukrainian Catholic Church from the older Greek Orthodox Church did not greatly affect Ukrainian church building traditions.

By the sixteenth century the powerful effects of the Baroque style in Europe were having a great impact upon urban and rural church architecture in the Ukraine. In larger centres like Kiev, the Kozak Baroque arose as a unique blend of western European architectural discoveries and traditional Byzantine forms. Buildings like St. Sophia, a huge structure in stone, trumpetted the sculpted classical forms of Baroque inspiration, carrying them through in their Ukrainian domes and details (Plate 161).

Some of the grand themes of the Baroque -- dramatic profiles, exuberant details and robust forms -- found limited expression in the rural areas of the Ukraine (See Plate 117). The vernacular log churches there were greatly affected by marked regional differences. In the western Ukraine, where most of the immigrants to Canada originated, several distinctive architectural traditions had developed after 1600, in response to specific liturgical and spatial requirements and social and cultural traditions. Three of these responses were of import for churches built in Manitoba.
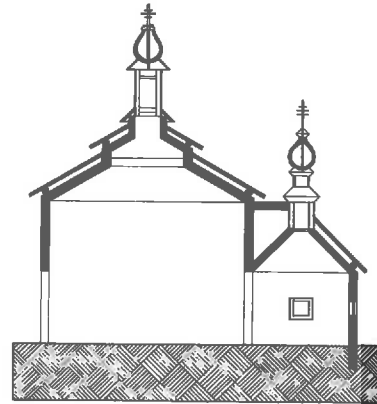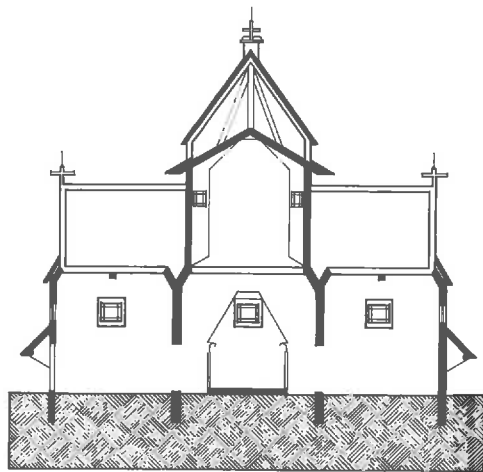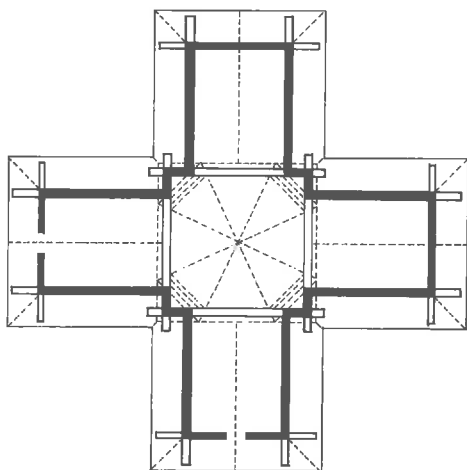

Plate 162. Section through a Ternopil church. (Redrawn from materials prepared by the Manitoba East European Heritage Society.)

Plate 161. St. Sophia, Kiev. (From: Early Russian Architecture, p. 74.)

Churches in the Ternopil region were the simplest in conception and construction. Essentially a gabled hall church, a Ternopil building was animated by careful detailing and a special small dome, a "banya", located at the centre of the roof ridge (Plate 162). Church buildings in the Hutsul region were characterized by a cruciform plan with an octagonal drum over the crossing, often covered by a very distinctive pyramidal roof (Plate 163). Finally, in the large Bukovynian territory, a simple church on an elongated octagonal plan with a steeply pitched gable roof was most common (Plate 164). The broad overhanging eaves, "opasannya", were usually supported by carefully carved cantilevered joists.

In Manitoba few of these basic church traditions -- rural or urban -- were duplicated. Time limitations, money shortages and new and unfamiliar circumstances simply militated against the efforts necessary to build such structures. There were exceptions, however, and the simpler of the wooden churches, the Bukovynian and the Ternopil, were fairly common in Manitoba. More frequently elements from various styles might be found in one church, reflecting the fate of settlers from different regions of the Ukraine suddenly thrown together in Manitoba.

Plate 163. Section and plan of a Hutsul church. (Redrawn from materials prepared by the Manitoba East European Heritage Society.)
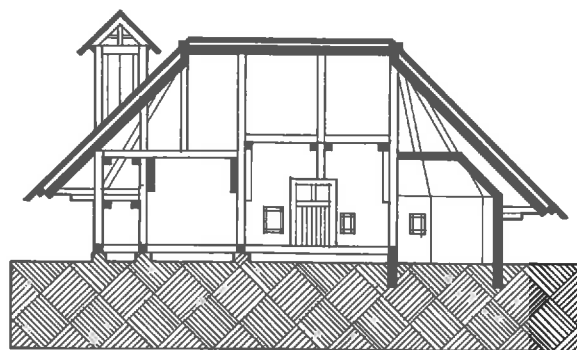

Plate 164. Section through a Bukovynian church. (Redrawn from materials prepared by the Manitoba East European Society.)

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In the planning area the rural traditions of Ukraine are certainly present in several church buildings. A small log Ukrainian Greek Orthodox Church at Poplar Park, built in 1907 at a cost of $35, is recognizably derived from Ternopil examples, although even here the influences of Ontario settlers are evident in the Gothic windows (Plate 165). The former Ukrainian Catholic Church at Rossdale, now gone, exhibited many of the traditions of a Hutsul church: the tight cruciform plan and in this case a very Baroque cupola at the crossing (Plate 166). Other Ukrainian churches in the planning area have an exhilarating combination of architectural parentages which are nevertheless very evocative of Ukrainian traditions. A good example of such a building, at Gonor, is built on a cruciform plan and lit at the crossing by a large round dome (Plates 167 and 168). The facade is neatly composed, featuring two round arched windows and an arched entablature above the doors. Two engaged towers -- pilasters almost -- frame the entrance face.

Plate 165. Holy Trinity Ukrainian Greek Orthodox Church, Poplar Park. (From: East Side of the Red, p. 196.)

These are capped by small banyas, as are the edges of the three main roof ridges. Bell towers were a common feature on Ukrainian church yards and were usually set apart from the church building (Plate 169).

Plate 166. Former St. Mary's Ukrainian Catholic Church, Rossdale. (From: Beyond the Gates of Lower Fort Garry, p. 48.)

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Left:
Plate 167. St. Nicholas Ukrainian Greek Orthodox Church, Gonor.

Below:
Plate 168. Plan of St. Nicholas Ukrainian Greek Orthodox Church.
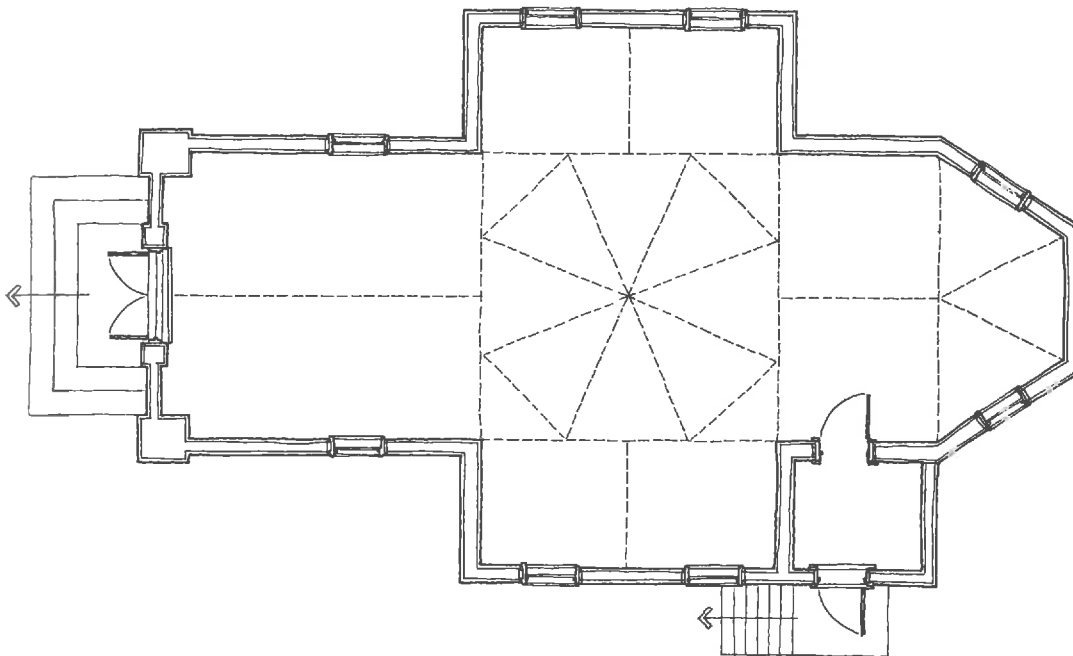

Plate 169. A bell tower adjacent to a now demolished Ukrainian Catholic Church near Gonor.

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An ambitious addition to the new vernacular traditions in Manitoba was provided by the Ukrainian Catholic churches designed by Father Philip Ruh. Father Ruh was an Alsatian priest, fluent in Ukrainian, who ministered to Ukrainian Catholics in western Canada between 1913 and 1962. His most lasting legacy consists of the dozens of large "cathedrals" that now flavour the prairie landscape. These buildings clearly owe a debt to the Baroque churches of urban Ukraine, with which he was very familiar, although in plan and elevation they rely on western European traditions.

In the Selkirk and District planning area there are four Ruh churches, two in the countryside. Holy Trinity Ukrainian Catholic Church, the earlier rural one, conveys Father Ruh's eclectic design sensibility (Plate 170). His usual planning concepts, a cruciform with transepts and a curved apse are used. And his facade preference also appears -- two sturdy towers topped with banyas that flank a gabled entrance bay, in this case highlighted by a hollowed niche holding a figure of Christ. Ruh's Blessed Virgin Mary Ukrainian Catholic Church at Rossdale repeats these basic themes in a grander expression and adds a tall dome to produce, on the flat open prairie, a most dramatic impression (Plate 171).

Plate 170. Holy Trinity Ukrainian Catholic Church.

Plate 171. Blessed Virgin Mary Ukrainian Catholic Church.

In some cases the local church was deemed inappropriate or simply too small to contain the various social events, vital to a growing community. Consequently, to accomodate everything from dances and dramatic events to political rallies and other large gatherings a community hall would be constructed. In the Ukrainian community, a National Home, usually associated with a church, was the specific name for a hall. An interesting National Home, located near Libau and associated with Holy Trinity Ukrainian Greek Catholic Church, was built in 1923 (Plate 172). The building is faced with a boomtown front of playful outline. The name of the hall is inscribed to form a semi-circle above the door.

Plate 172. These two views of the Ukrainian Greek Catholic Parish Hall at Poplar Park illustrate the principle of the boom town front: a captivating facade disguises the simple gabled hall behind.
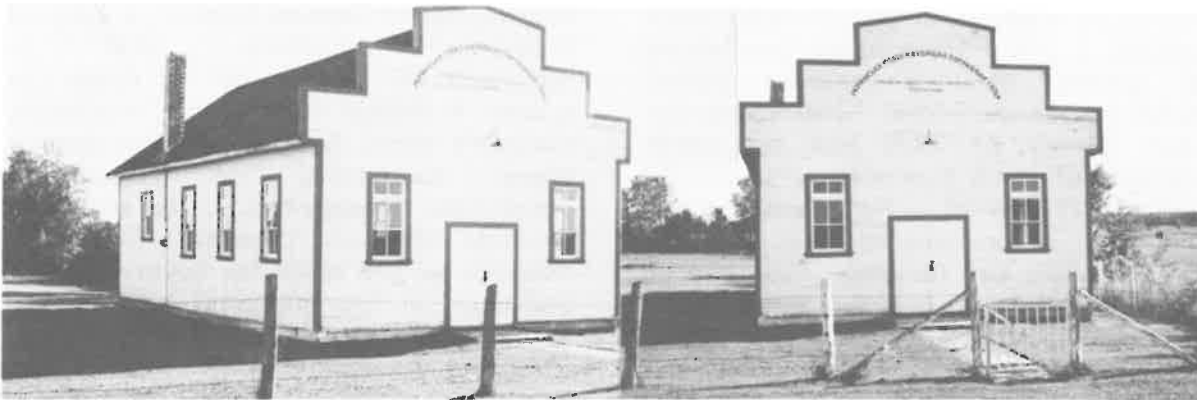
While several community halls were built in rural areas of Ontario-English domination, only a relatively recent building like the Dunhartwood Hall remains to recall such structures (Plate 173). It was built during the 1940s, several years after designs of greater architectural distinction might have been expected. The building is a long low utilitarian structure, having served at Netley Airport before 1954 when it was moved to fulfill its present function.

Plate 173. Dunhartwood Community Hall.