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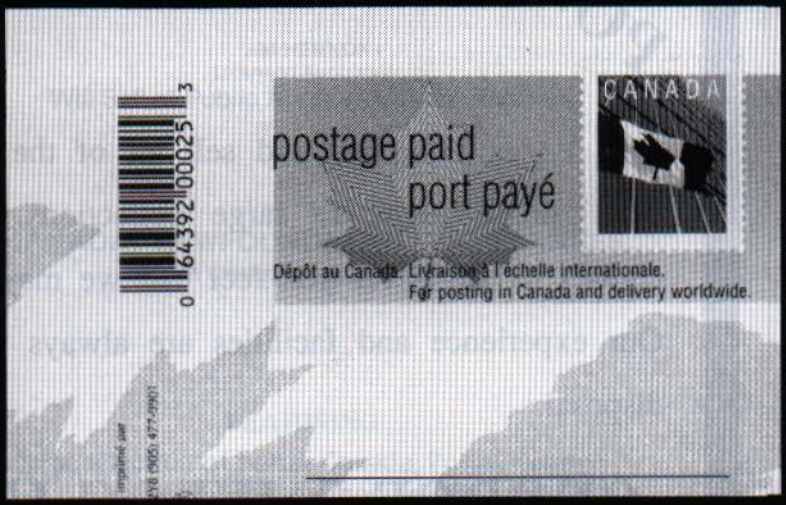
BNA

PRICE $6.95

Topics

VOL 54 NO 4 WHOLE NO 473



INTRODUCING:

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BNA TOPICS

OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICA PHILATELIC SOCIETY LTD.

VOL 54 NO 4 WHOLE NO 473

CONTENTS

PUBLICATION DATE December 1, 1997
EDITORIAL CONSULTANT Robert Lemire, Box 1870, Deep River, ON, K0J 1P0
ADVERTISING MANAGER Hank Narbonne, 216 Mailey Dr., Carleton Place, ON, K2C 3X9
PUBLISHED QUARTERLY BY Philaprint Inc., P.O. Box 100, First Canadian Place, Toronto, ON, M5X 1B2.
PRINTED BY Rushirl Publishing and Graphics, Dundas, Ontario. Canadian Publications Agreement Number 590819.

(continued on page 84)

Editorial Page

Robert Lemire[1]

The questions about how early Canadian stamps were perforated, what perforation differences are "significant", and how to best measure perforations and perforation differences continue to fuel discussion. In this issue of *Topics* I have brought together three articles by different authors. These articles were submitted over the last year or so, and publishing them together represents an attempt to bring to readers a feeling for the issues being raised. The articles agree on some points and differ on others, and even consensus does not necessarily mean a point is settled! However, what the articles share is an attempt to extrapolate carefully and logically from the information that is available. There is, in each case, an attempt to look beyond the measured perforation values for a specific stamp issue to examine how the perforation machines were constructed, and how stamps of the period (not just in Canada) were perforated.

A new column, Postal Pot-pourri, also makes its appearance in this issue. The author, Earle Covert, is known to many members through his many exhibits ranging from a blockbuster display of proof and essay postal stationery to a several-page assemblage of Priority Post envelopes. He will discuss what might be designated "tomorrow's postal history today," and attempt to alert readers about items to watch for before a post office experiment ends, or to salvage before they are put in the trash.

As I put this issue to bed, I find I have now been editing *Topics* for two years. It has been interesting. I used to think I read *Topics* fairly carefully, but being involved in the editing and production of articles has shown me how superficially I had passed over research in some areas of philately far removed from my own collecting interests. I want to thank the authors who patiently continue to lead me along new paths, and the readers who respond with information and further questions. Best wishes to everyone for 1998.

Corrections etc.

In Chris Ryan's article in Vol. 54, No. 2, on pg. 33, the fourth and fifth paragraphs, each beginning "On the . . ." should have been indented as they are part of the same quotation as the previous paragraph on this page.

Norris Dyer, the author of "Newfoundland's 1918-1920 Postal Shortages" (*BNA Topics*, Vol. 54, No. 3, p. 13) reports errors in "Table 2" of that article. The "Provisional Period" for the THREE CENT on 35¢ Cabot should have been "Sept. 15 - Sept. 27, 1920," and for the TWO CENT on 30¢ Cabot, "Sept. 24 - Oct. 2, 1920." Nevertheless, the correct periods are reflected in the article's text.

Some errors crept in during the editing of Part I of Bill Pekonen's Map Stamp Chronology (*BNA Topics*, Vol. 54, No. 3). On page 28 an extraneous "that" should have been deleted in line 13. Line 19 on the same page should read " . . . could also be considered a Christmas commemorative . . ."

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1. Box 1870, Deep River, ON, K0J 1P0, Canada; 1-613-584-1574; 102124.1304@compuserve.com Letters addressed to the specific author(s) and sent c/o Robert Lemire, Editorial Consultant, *BNA Topics* will be forwarded.

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31. Cross Border Letters

Jack Arnell

The three covers discussed here extend over a sixty year period and were all shipborne from Halifax for New York. Each has an interesting story associated with it.

The first letter (Figure 1) is from George Bethune to his brother in New York. He had arrived at Halifax on 20 October 1799, apparently from Tobago, having been delayed "from foul Winds." The letter was dated five days later to take advantage of a Falmouth packet "daily expected here on her way to you." This would have been the *Grantham* packet, which had sailed from Falmouth on 25 September, but had collided with a vessel at anchor on her way out and needed repairs. As a result, she did not get away until 1 October and, encountering winter weather, did not reach Halifax until 23 November and New York on 13 December.

Figure 1

The letter was backstamped with a two-line circular "HALIFAX/OCT 26 99", struck with an encircled two-line "POST/PAID" and prepaid with 4*d*. Stg. British colonial packet postage, shown at the upper right in red.

From the text of the letter, it appears that George Bethune had been working in the firm of Bethune & Smith in New York, but had fallen out with his brother and taken off for Tobago. At some point, he obviously intends to return, for he comments: "When I return the firm will be Bethune & Smith Juniors, & I will have to trudge to the country to see the old codgers."

The second letter (Figure 2) was from Thomas Boggs of Halifax dated 5 February 1831 to a nephew in New York, whose father had just died. He invites the nephew to "communicate freely to me as such [an uncle] in any thing that you may think I can in any way be useful. I write by the Mail Boat to Boston—she will remain about a week or ten days for dispatches from Washington & return here."

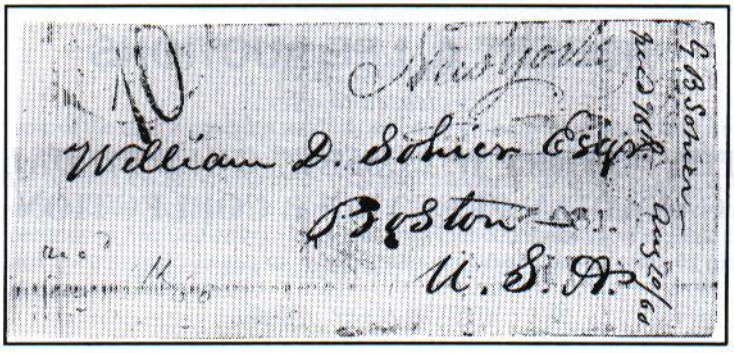
Figure 2

The letter was taken privately to the Cunard mail boat *Emily*, which sailed the following day for Boston with the English Mails. These had arrived that day on the *Rinaldo* packet from Falmouth—the Falmouth packets had ceased going to New York in 1827. On arrival at Boston, the letter was entered as a ship letter, datestamped on 19 February, struck with "SHIP" and rated 20¾ cents postage due (2 cents ship letter fee + 18¾ cents inland postage to New York).

The long transit time to Boston (thirteen days) was due to winter gales. Concurrently, the *Osborne* packet had arrived at Halifax on 5 February from Bermuda in twenty-eight days, having experienced "very boisterous weather" and being driven as far to the eastward as the Grand Banks of Newfoundland.

The third letter (Figure 3) was from G.B. Sohier, on board the Cunard *Canada* in Halifax Harbour, to his father and was dated 10 August 1860. In this letter, he chronicles the grounding of the steamer and the work in progress to free it.

Figure 3



"We are lying upon a sand bank on which it pleased heaven and Capt. Lang to deposit us this morning at one o'clock. There was a good deal of fog (at least the Capt. says so) and in order to give a clear berth to a buoy on one side of the channel, the said Lang ran his Ship fast in the sand on the other side. Now the question is how to lighten her, No benefit can be expected from the tide, as our trouble occurred nearly at high water. So a small tug-boat has just pulled down two vessels, into which our ballast is to be put, until the *Canada* can be persuaded to drift back into the channel. Her boilers have been emptied too, and when everything else is done there will still be a piece of work to perform in getting up steam again.

"On the whole I think that the expression of the virtuous Titus '*diem perdide*' is quite applicable to us the passengers. The sea has been pretty smooth, so that we have not been very sick. We were going out of Halifax when our trouble occurred, and we are not more than a mile and a half from the town. The ship was going so slow when she ran aground that nobody was the wiser for it. My idea was that we had come to anchor for reasons unknown.

"The *Canada* was refloated on the next high tide, and sailed for Liverpool on 12 August. The letter was mailed at Halifax—there is a "HALIFAX=NOVA SCOTIA 10 August 1860" datestamp on back—and rated 10 cents postage due. The letter must have been taken to Boston by a local trading vessel and delivered directly to the addressee, as it has no Boston marking, and the letter was received on 16 August. The first westbound Cunarder was the *Arabia*, which arrived at Halifax from Liverpool on 21 August."

Early Perforating Machines in North America

R.A. Johnson

The topic of the rotary machines used to perforate the early stamps of the United States of America, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island and the Canadas and, after 1867, those of the Dominion continues to attract attention. See, for example, the recent publication by Julian Goldberg on *Early BNA Stamp Perforation Measurements* which appeared recently in *Maple Leaves* [1]. One thing that continues to be at issue is whether the standard 2 centimetre gauge or the Kiusalas gauge should be used to measure the perforations on these early stamps.

What question, if answered, would shed light on this and give a definite determination?

In constructing the perforating and counterpart wheels for the rotary perforators used on the North American continent, directions must have been given to the metal worker who did the drilling and mounting of them that would determine the distances between successive pins. That specification might have been in either Imperial or metric terms, and so would typically have read something like:

" spacing: 66 ± 0.5 'thou' " (i.e., thousandths of an inch) or

" spacing: 1.6 ± 0.01 mm".

In either case, the workman was being required to space the pins the 66 'thou' (or 1.6 mm) with a deviation that was not to exceed ± 0.5 'thou' (or ± 0.01 mm), respectively. (These two are similar spacings and tolerances and typical of the precisions achievable in the mid-1800s.)

If the machine were constructed using the first standard, the resulting perforations would match closely the dots on the Kiusalas gauge 66[1]. Each perforation might stray to one side or the other within the ± 0.5 'thou' tolerance but the match would otherwise be direct. If on the other hand, the machine were constructed using the metric specification, the spacing of the perforations would provide 20 ÷ 1.6 or exactly 12.5 perforations for each 2 cm (i.e., match the 12.5 on the standard gauge). Again any one pin could stray to one side or the other within the 0.01 mm tolerance.

In either case, if the other gauge were used for measuring the perforations than was used in the construction, only a "closest" fit with the gauge rows could be expected since the two gauges rarely agree within the typical tolerances used in the manufacture.[2]

If it could be determined which of these systems was actually used in the manufacture of the perforating machines, that would determine which of the alternative gauge systems should be used for recording perforations and, on that basis, distinguishing, for example, between the common and rare varieties that have been identified in the catalogues [3].

---

1 As was Kiusalas' purpose in the first place [2].

2 An exception would be the Stanley Gibbons Instanta Gauge which provides a true measurement (rather than a matching). The measurement happens to be expressed as the number of perforations in 2 cm with an error in reading of something like ± 0.01 (in gauge number).

The question would be settled once and for all if an actual machine could be found or, barring that, a copy of the actual directions for the its manufacture were obtained. Despite an exhaustive search by Mr. W. Wilson Hulme of the United States, no example of such a machine from this period has been found in any of the museums where one might expect it to be preserved. Neither has any manufacturing document of the type described been located [4]. In the absence of both of these direct proofs, the best that we can expect to achieve would be to deduce details of the manufacture of the machines from the evidence that we do have.

Goldberg, and many others, have made extensive use of Winthrop S. Boggs' *Early American Perforating Machines and Perforations 1857 - 1867* [5] which reprints in full the Bemrose British patent # 2607 dated May 31, 1855 for *Machinery for Punching and Perforating Paper, etc*, including all of its figures - albeit rearranged. That design, with modifications, led to the rotary perforators used for the perforating of the early stamps on the North American continent and several Latin American countries as well.

Boggs, however, made several mistakes in his reading of the Bemrose Patent which were identified previously [6]. That article also reported the results of measuring perforations on over 900 dated examples of the Third Bill Issue using the Kiusalas Gauge. The results of this process strongly supported the contention that the machines used in North America for the perforating were designed and built using Imperial measure. What follows, however, focuses on the Bemrose patent, the difficulties in using it, and Boggs' interpretations. The intention is to distinguish between what is actually known about this early rotary perforating machine and what is only conjecture or clearly incorrect.

The actual scale of the diagrams:

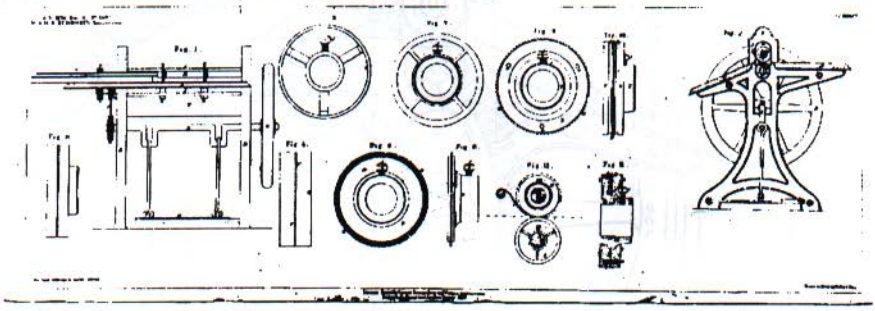
First and foremost, it must be realized that *all* the printings of the Bemrose patent are *unscaled copies* of unidentified origin. The British Patent Office in Newport, Wales has confirmed

a) that the originals of all British patents dating so long ago were destroyed some time ago;
b) that they have no copies of the original patent drawings that contain a scale; so there is no way of reading from any copies the actual size of the originals; and also
c) that all twelve figures in the Bemrose patent were originally drawn on a single sheet reproduced here as Figure 1 along with larger reproductions of the Bemrose Figures 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 12 (here shown as Figures 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7).

The text of the patent which refers to the perforating and counterpart wheels (page 3, lines 28 through 34) reads as follows:

> "... against the edge of which the sheet is placed, and pushed forward until it comes in contact with the punching or perforating rollers D, E, when it is carried forward and perforated. The lower one E of these rollers serves as a counterpart to the upper roller D. **It is represented in full sized detail side and edge view, at Figures 3 and 4,** the periphery being perforated with holes F, to correspond to the punches G on the roller D, which is shown in detail, side and edge view, at Figures 5 and 6." (emphasis added).

Figure 1: A reduced print of the single sheet of diagrams in the Bemrose patent [7]. The single sheet contains the notes: "A.D. 1854, Dec. 11. No. 2607","Drawn on stone by Malby and Sons" and "Printed by George and Edward Eyre and William Spottiswoode. Printers to the Queen's most Excellent Majesty. 1855." The sheet also carries the note: "The filed drawing is partly colored." although there is no explicit reference to what is coloured in the text of the patent.



However, in his caption to a collection of these Bemrose figures, Boggs [5] writes, in part:

> "Further drawings of The Bemrose machine. According to the specifications **these are in actual size**. Figure 3 is side view of counterpart wheel, the periphery view being Figure 4. Figures 5 and 6 are side and periphery views respectively of the perforating wheel. ... Note that the diameter of the counterpart wheel is equal to the diameter of the perforating wheel measured from tip to tip of pins. However as Figure 12 (*reproduced here on pg. 13 as Figure 7*) shows the perforating pins fitted into the counterpart wheel to their full length." (emphasis again added)

It is clear from the wording of the patent that only the diagrams of the counterpart wheel, that is Figures 3 and 4, are identified as being to "full actual size". At the same time, to the limits of accuracy, measurement of the perforating and counterpart wheels [7] the two wheels do have the same diameter[3]. Furthermore, independent of the printing scale, Figure 12 shows them together where they again appear to have the same diameters as noted by Boggs[4] although they are shown fully meshed. Remember, however, this figure is not to actual size and may have been illustrative only. Furthermore, it may have deliberately disguised the actual spacing of these wheels used in the manufacture. From a manufacturing point of view, it would have been simpler if the shafts did turn at the same rates.[5]

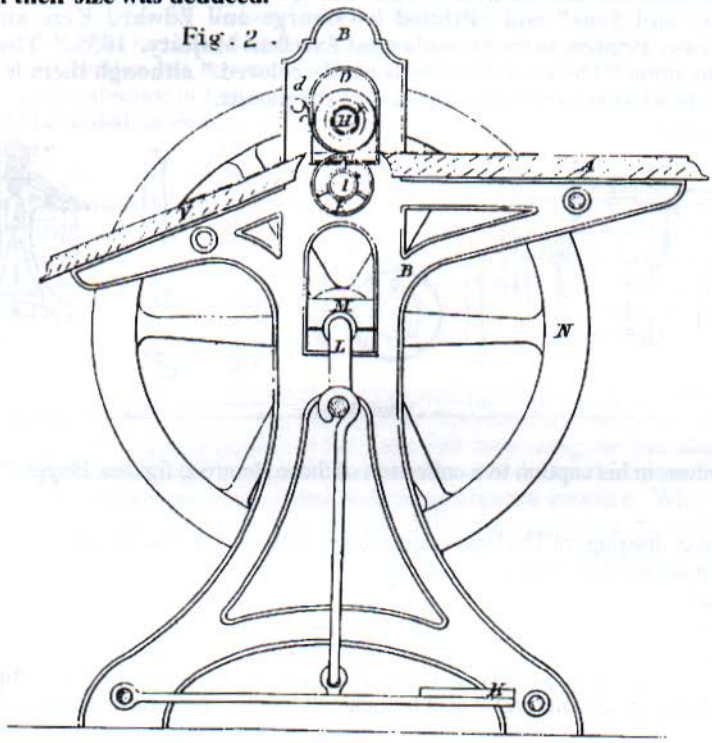
---

3 That is, the diameter of the counterpart wheel corresponds to that of the perforating wheel measured between the tips of the pins.

4 There is a further complication in attempting to measure accurately the sizes of these wheels. In all copies that the author has seen, including that directly taken as described in the text, the diagrams are not "circles" but rather have slightly different diameters across and down. Diameters can then only be estimated by some form of averaging of these measurements.

5 The gears that connect the two shafts (shown as S and T in the Bemrose Figure 1 and reproduced here in expanded form as Figure 8) would then be the same size with the same numbers of teeth and could be cut as a pair. Otherwise, the ratio of the numbers of gear teeth would have to be specified and cut to match the ratio of the (unequal) diameters/circumferences of the perforating and counterpart wheels - a complication that would have been avoided if at all possible in 1855, and even now.

Figure 2: The sectional view through a pair of perforating and counterpart wheels from which their size was deduced.



Figures 3 and 4: Figures 3 and 4 from the Bemrose patent showing views of the counterpart wheel (reduction to 66% from the full scale diagram in the patent).

Fig. 3.

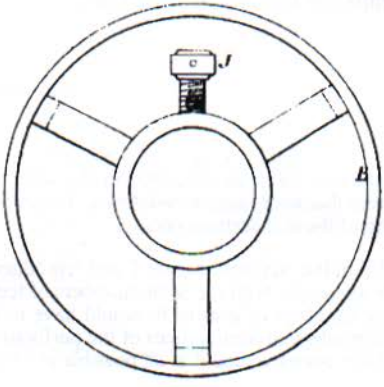
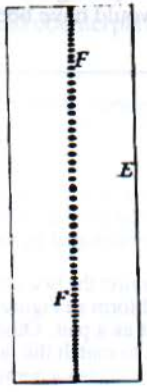
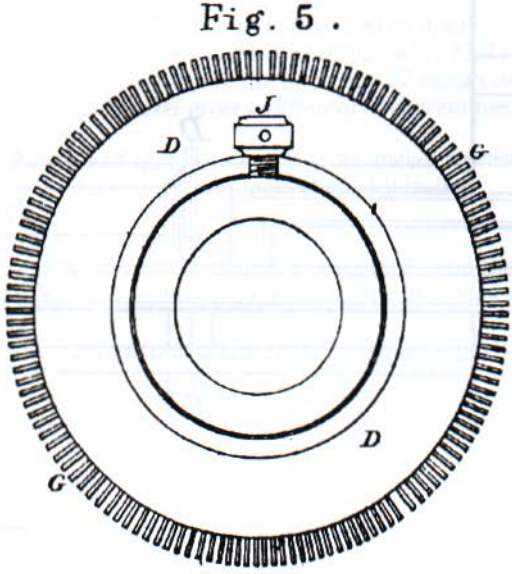
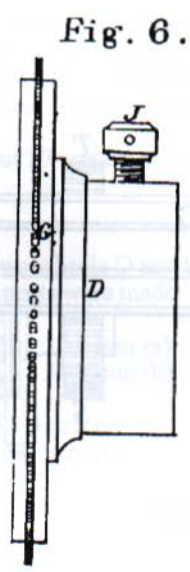


Fig. 4.



Figures 5 and 6: Figures 5 and 6 from the Bemrose patent showing views of the perforating wheel.





Although the diameter of the perforating wheel shown in Figure 5 may be to the same scale as that of the counterpart wheel in Figure 3, its pins may or may not be depicted in correct number or length. Note that there is a half pin depicted at about 10:30 o'clock and what could be a missing pin at about 5:00 o'clock. If these are both counted, then Figure 5 shows 142 pins in all. Whether or not that is a faithful reproduction of the actual number of pins is, as noted, open to conjecture.

Apparently Boggs arrived at his 6.75 inch assumption of the circumference of Figure 5 by taking the actual measurement of whatever drawing he used as though it were the part itself. Reasons are presented below that contradict such an assumption and, thereby, all that Boggs deduced from that about the number of pins required to produce the known perforation varieties used for Canadian postage and bill stamps (*i.e.*, those that correspond to Kiusalas 64 to 68) [9].

Figure 7: Figure 12 from the Bemrose patent showing the perforating and counterpart wheels in the same diagram. Note the full meshing shown.

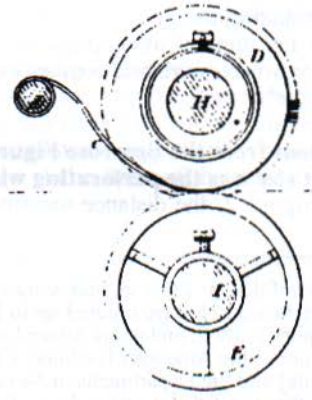
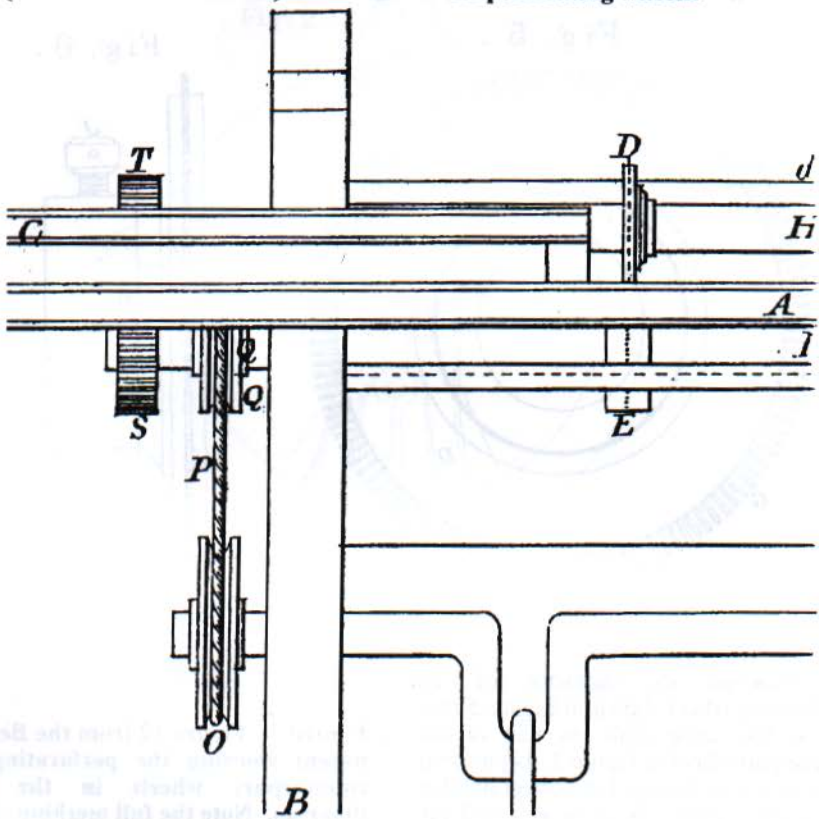


Figure 8: Expanded view of the gears S and T through which the counterpart wheel shaft (driven from the treadle) drives that of the perforating wheels.



Notwithstanding that, however, additional reasoning is also presented in the sequel that supports his implicit assumption that the diameters of all subsequent perforating and counterpart wheels were held constant even though the perforation gauge was changed from time to time[6].

Deductions from the Bemrose Figures.

A. What size was the perforating wheel?

In Figure 2, the distance measured from the base to the underside of the working

6 Boggs, ref. [5], p. 22. It is interesting to note that, according to Boggs' table of Appendix J #3, perf 11 ¾ x 11 ¾ were ordered up to May 31, 1862 and perf 11 ¾ x 12 or 12 x 11 ¾ from September 2, 1862, and in his Appendix H #103, a letter dated March 28, 1862, from Edmunds and Bliss of the American Banknote Company noting that "... demand from your Department [Canada] and the Departments in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick has been, of late, so much greater than usual, that we have deemed it necessary to increase our facilities for producing them. The consequent changes in our machinery have caused delays..." Is it not likely that amongst the "new" machines there was an additional perforator with a slightly different set of perforating wheels?

surface A is 114 mm while as the diameter of perforating wheel D is 12.8 mm (at the base of the pins).

Now a normal working surface used by a seated operator, such as originally shown in the Harpers' illustration (the Figure on pg. 43 of E. Zaluski's article in this issue of *Topics*) is 26 to 28 inches above the floor, say 27 inches for what follows—*Editor's Note: The article by E. Zaluski gives a different interpretation of the scale in the same picture*.

Since 114 mm in Figure 2 of the patent represents about 27 inches, 12.8 mm must represent 3.03 inches or simply about 3.0 inches.

B. How long were the pins?

Figure 7 reproduces Bemrose's Figure 12 and shows the two wheels D and E to larger scale. From the author's copy of this, the following measurements were made:

diameter of counterpart wheel	(measured down)	37.2 mm (a)
	(measured across)	38.2 mm (b)
diameter of the perf. wheel	- to tips of pins (across):	37.5 mm (c)
	- to base of pins (down):	33.5 mm (d)

For a rationale of "across" and "down", see footnote 4. (The "down" diameter of the tips of the pins cannot be taken from this Figure because of the intersection of the two wheels.)

In order to relate the diameter in (c) to that in (d), it is necessary to reduce it to a "down" measurement; (a) and (b) may be used as the indicators of the printing distortion and their ratio as the correction factor. The value of (c) then becomes 36.5 mm (c') which may then be compared with 33.5 mm for the measurement at the base of the pins (d).

Thus twice the height of the pins is given by (c') - (d) or 3.0 mm.[7] This indicates a pin height of about 1.5 mm (measured) or an actual penetration of about 0.123 inches (or 123 'thou').

(While it is the result of the particular numbers resulting from these measurements, a perforating wheel diameter of 3.0 inches and a pin count of 142 produces a gauge of 66.37 'thou' which is right in the middle of the Kiusalas gauges used on Canadian stamps.)

C. To what extent did the pins penetrate the counterpart wheel?

The problem of penetration of the perforating pins into the counterpart wheel is illustrated in Bemrose's Figure 12 (here reproduced as Figure 7). It shows full penetration of those pins. That is, apart from some separation to allow the paper to pass between them, the circumference of the perforating wheel taken at the base of the pins touches the circumference of the counterpart wheel.

Kinematically, that would require the two circumferences to have the same speed, but, because their diameters are different (see the measurements in B above) they would then have to have different rotation rates. That is highly unlikely given the reasoning in D that follows.

---

7 The accuracy in this particular calculation is subject to the notorious problem involving relatively small differences in larger numbers. Any percentage error in the measurements of the latter is multiplied in the small difference, in this case by a factor of about 10.

If, on the other hand, the tips of the pins barely grazed the circumference of the counterpart wheel, the diameters, that is those represented by (b) and (c') above, would have to be equal and the kinematic requirement on peripheral speeds would imply the same (but, of course, opposite) rotation rates.

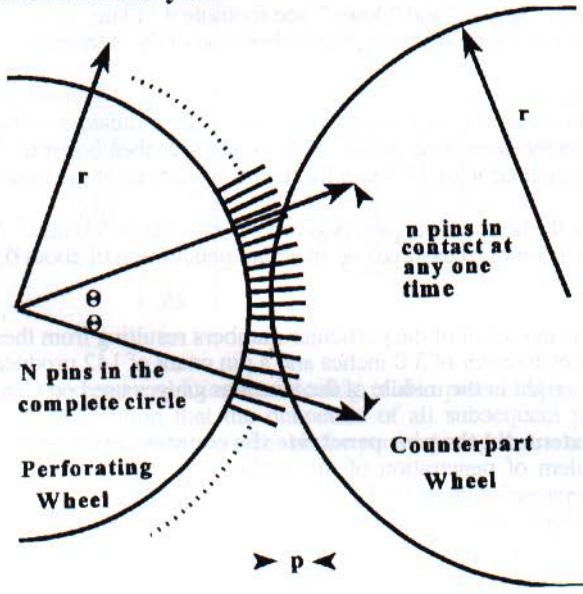
Consider Figure 10 in which the pins on the perforating wheel penetrate the counterpart wheel a distance 'p'. That wheel (radius 'r') has N pins in all, n of which are assumed to be in contact with the counterpart wheel at any time. Analysis then shows that for 'p' much less than 'r' (as is the case here) there follows the approximate relationship

$$\pi\, n/N = \sqrt{p/r}$$

where π is approximately 3.14157.

If N = 142 (as counted in Figure 5), r = 1.5 inches (see A. above) and penetration, p, were the full pin length, i.e., 123 'thou', in B. above, then n is approximately 13; that is 13 pins are in contact with the counterpart wheel at any time. This compares closely to the estimate of 14 to 16 made by Boggs apparently by a graphical analysis. This is no surprise as his figure was constructed from the Bemrose diagrams.

Figure 10: Diagram showing partial penetration of the pins and the counterpart wheel and the .elements for analysis.



D. But to how many paper thicknesses should 'p' correspond?

Physical construction of the pins and holes would always be a compromise. On the one hand, substantial penetration would assure good, clean perforations and eliminate so-called 'blind perfs'. On the other hand, the greater the penetration the greater the angle between the line of the pin and the line of its corresponding hole when they first meet (twice the angle θ in Figure 10). Furthermore, the greater that angle, the more wear on the counterpart

wheel.[8] It is, therefore, likely that the penetration was at most one or two paper thicknesses. This is also consistent with the frequent occurrence in these early issues of blind perforations or perforations where the paper is still to be seen attached in the hole.

If that were the case, then with typical paper thicknesses of the period varying from 2 to 4.5 'thou', n would have been only 2 to 4 pins. This would also correspond closely to the equal and opposite rotations mentioned in C. above.

Conclusions

The successive introduction of different gauges of perforations during the initial 1858 to 1867 period (see footnote 6) has given rise to much speculation on how those successive perforating and counterpart wheels were actually constructed. Was their diameter fixed and the number of holes changed to give different gauges, or was the number of holes fixed and the diameter changed to alter the gauge?

From a manufacturing point-of-view, it is almost certain that it was the former. In early British correspondence, there are a number of comments relating to the power required to drive the perforating wheels[9]. The penetrating force required to drive the pins through the paper apparently was considerable by 1860 standards and that force had to be sustained by the bearings of the two shafts on which the perforating and counterpart wheels were mounted - and transmitted through the gears (S and T in the Bemrose case). If the diameters of the perforating and counterpart wheels subsequently were changed, it would have required a fine adjustment in the separation of the two shafts. There is no evidence of any such adjustment mechanism in the Bemrose diagrams and no reference to such in the text of that patent.

And a final, although repeated, observation respecting the Kiusalas gauge.

If the wheels were specified using Imperial measure, that is in inches and 'thou', then it would be reasonable to expect that the resulting separation of perforation holes would correspond to that scale. If that were correct, then the use of the Kiusalas gauge with each row of its dots spaced a fixed number of 'thou', *e.g.* 64, 65, 66, should normally produce clear correspondence between the perforations and one of its rows of dots, while use of the standard 2 cm gauge would result in the usual question in the viewer's mind: "To which of these is it closest?" In the experience of the author in perf'ing over 900 Third Bill Stamps, in almost all cases there was a natural 'fit' with the Kiusalas gauge and only a small handful that gave rise to that type of question. The conclusion from such experience is almost inescapable: the Kiusalas gauge 'fits' because it is that way, with that sort of scale that the perforating equipment was manufactured in the first place.

A Final Lament.

The conclusion repeated above is still tentative to a degree because the evidence to

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8 Apparently, the components that suffered greatest wear in a rotary perforator were the counterpart wheels (not the pins) which had regularly to be changed. (Private communication from W. Wilson Hulme.) The pins must have been made of harder metal than the counterpart wheel to produce that wear - which also makes sense from the point of view of manufacturing.

9 See, for example, the footnote on page 562 of Williams and Williams [9], or letters #4: Perkins Bacon & Co. To Mr. Edward Barnard, Agent-General for the Crown Colonies, August 21, 1856, and #23:Perkins, Bacon & Co. To Bemrose & Sons, January 5, 1860, both in "Grenada," to which is prefixed an account of the perforations of the Perkins Bacon printed stamps of the British Colonies, Stanley Gibbons Philatelic Handbooks, undated)

support it is indirect, based in the case of this article on what was written and diagramed in the Bemrose patent. As has been noted above, what is needed for a full 'proof' is either an example of the actual machine used or, barring that, the detailed specifications to the metal worker producing the perforating and counterpart wheels, that is the documents internal[10] to the firm actually manufacturing the machines which directed their construction.

But, who actually manufactured the machines used in this period? Only a very late (*c.* 1957) clue has been found. In an uncropped version of a photograph in Williams and Williams [9] illustrating the layout and use of an L-perforator, the name "Adams" appears on the frame of part of the setup. What firm is, or was this, and was it involved in construction of the perforating machines about 1860?

References

[1] Goldberg, Julian, "*Early BNA Stamp Perforation Measurements*" Maple Leaves, Vol. 25, No. 3, June 1997.

[2] Kiusalas, "Specialized Perforation Gauges", United States Specialist, February, 1966, pp. 60-61.

[3] Kiusalas, "The One Cent 1921 Perf 11 Rotary "- No. 544, The United States Specialist, June, 1966, pp. 242-243.

[4] Hulme, W. Wilson, private correspondence to R.A. Johnson (1996).

[5] Boggs, W. S., The Collectors Club Philatelist, Volume 33 (a publication of The Collectors Club of New York), republished in booklet form by The Unitrade Press in June 1982.

[6] Johnson, R.A. Perforations Revisited: The Kiusalas Gauge and the Third Bill Issue, BNATopics, Vol. 52, no. 1, 1995, pp. 15 - 26

[7] Bemrose, British patent # 2607, May 31, 1855, for *Machinery for Punching and Perforating Paper, etc.*, taken in this case directly from a clean copy of the "Reserve Copy" of the patent held by the British Patent Office.

[8] reference 5, pg. 19.

[9] Williams, L.N., Williams, M., "Fundamentals of Philately," American Philatelic Society, Inc., Pennsylvania, 1971, p.537.

[10] Boggs, W.S.,"The Postage Stamps and the Postal History of Canada, Vol. II", Appendix H.

10 The correspondence concerning the introduction of perforating of stamps of British North America in 1857 between the Canadian postal authorities and the firm of Toppan, Carpenter of Philadelphia (*e.g.*, Appendix H in Boggs' *Postage Stamps and the Postal History of Canada, vol II* [10]) is replete with comments on where the machine was being built, and problems in its initial manufacture and use. Once the machine was used to produce its first perforated stamps, however, subsequent correspondence makes no mention of perforating at all. It is reasonable to assume that, with the possible exception of some concern should the stamps not separate properly or fall apart (as was the case with the Archer perforations in Great Britain), the postal authorities were not concerned at all with the details of the actual perforation gauges used on their stamps. Specification of such details are, therefore, likely only to be found within the manufacturing sphere.

A New Theory on Perforation Spacing

Bob Tomlinson

After reading all the available articles on perforating machines in *Topics* and *Maple Leaves*, I have decided to add my thoughts to the discussion. I fully agree that any stamp perfed by means of a line perforator would probably be spaced in thousandths of an inch. As has been pointed out so many times, Canada was using the Imperial measure, until relatively recently, and not the metric scale.

However when we consider rotary perforating machines a difficulty arises. If, as previously surmised, the spacing of the pins had been determined by "x" thousandths of an inch, as measured around the circumference, then when changing from, we'll say 0.063 to 0.064 inches, it is obvious, from the following, that the diameter of the wheels must have been slightly different to allow even spacing. This would of course prevented the wheels from being mounted on a common shaft.

Let us assume the machinist is going to place 400 pins spaced 0.063 inches around a wheel, this would result in a circumference of 25.20 inches or a diameter of 8.0214... inches. If the spacing was changed to 0.064 the number of pins would be 393.75 so the diameter, to get rid of the fractional pin, would have to be changed to 8.0061... If this calculation is carried out for spacings of 0.063 to 0.074 it turns out that only 400 pins (Kiusalas 63), or 360 pins (Kiusalas 70) or 350 pins (Kiusalas 72) etc. would fit evenly without changing the diameter. The following table illustrates this effect.

Pins	Spacing	Circ.	Even #	Diameter
400	0.063	25.2	400	8.0214
393.75	0.064	25.2	393	8.0061
386.69	0.065	25.2	387	8.0071
381.82	0.066	25.2	381	8.0042
376.12	0.067	25.2	376	8.0189
370.59	0.068	25.2	370	8.0087
365.21	0.069	25.2	365	8.0167
360	0.700	25.2	360	8.0214
354.93	0.071	25.2	355	8.0230
350	0.072	25.2	350	8.0214
345.21	0.073	25.2	345	8.0166
340.5	0.074	25.2	340	8.0086

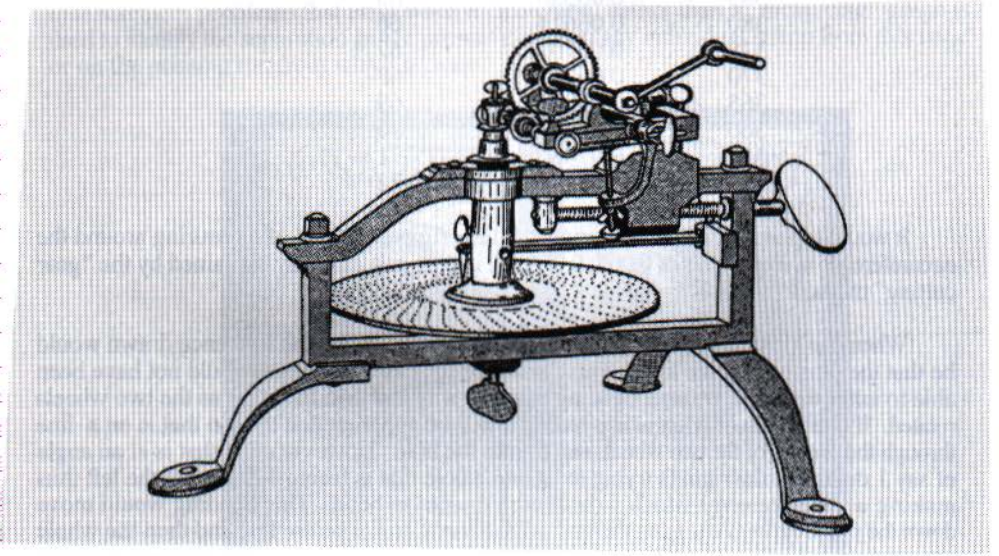
A machinist has no convenient way to machine a wheel blank to a precise circumferential length, because the circumference of a circle is equal to π x diameter. He can however, machine the blank wheel to a precise diameter. This diameter will determine the spacing between the two drive shafts on which the pin and hole wheels must be mounted.

A further practical difficulty would be caused by having to measure the, let's say 0.063 distance, from the previous scribe mark defining the future hole. Since the mark must have had some finite width, a cumulative error would probably arise causing the last scribe mark not to be precisely 0.063 from the first mark at the beginning of the circle. You can not simply set a pair of dividers to 0.063 as you would then be measuring a chordal distance

which is not the same as a circumferential distance. Has all this convinced you that this was not the way that the wheels were constructed?

If a machinist or millwright were to be asked to fabricate a wheel with a number of pins inserted around the circumference he would immediately consider it as a form of a gear. There is a long history of gear construction beginning with the early clock makers. A gear is specified by the number of teeth around the circumference and its diameter.

Figure 1: Machine for cutting clock-wheels, 1789. The teeth are cut by a rotary cutter in the wheel blank which is mounted above the divided plate (Reference [1], Figure 238, with permission of the Science Museum, London, U.K.)



The machinist must lay out the holes evenly around these wheels. He would do this, in the 1850s, by means of an indexing plate (see Figure 1) [1]. These indexing machines were in use at least as early as 1789. They consisted of a large circular plate in which were drilled concentric rings of holes, each ring containing a different number of equally spaced holes. Let us assume there were rings with 400 holes, 395 holes, 390 holes, etc. The gear blank was temporarily mounted concentrically above this plate. If he chose to use the 400 hole ring he would place the stop mechanism in a hole, thus preventing the assembly from making any radial movement, and a mark would be scribed on the edge of the gear blank. If an actual gear was being produced a rotary cutter would be used to cut the tooth. The index plate and the gear blank were then rotated until the next hole was in position and the second scribe was made. This operation was continued around the gear blank until all the "gear teeth" had been marked or cut. Presumably two gear blanks would have been scribed simultaneously, both to be drilled with holes one for the perforation pins and the other for the holes. One of the two would then have had the perforation pins inserted and the other machined so that the paper chaff could fall through the holes.

This method, of locating the holes, allowed differing numbers of pins to be located around the circumference without any change in the diameter of the wheels. The pin wheels must have all had the same diameter to allow mounting on a common shaft. This also applies to the hole wheels.

Since we do not know the diameter of the wheels, nor the number of holes there were, there is no way, today, of determining the exact perforation spacing. However using the above technique on an 8.00 inch diameter wheel we would obtain the following:

Pins	Spacing	Nearest Kiusalas#
400	0.06283	63
395	0.06363	64
390	0.06444	64
385	0.06530	65
380	0.06614	66
375	0.06702	67
370	0.06793	68
365	0.06886	69
360	0.06981	70
355	0.07080	71
350	0.07181	72

It would appear from these spacings that the original concept of measuring around the circumference in increments of 0.065, 0.066 etc. can be just as easily explained by the "gear cutting" method.

When one looks at the original Benrose patent application the inference drawn would be that the pins were quite long. This cannot be the case as the pins would not have been able to enter the holes without bending first one way and then the other as the two wheels rotated. If one thinks of what is happening it will be apparent that the pin that is on a line through the centres of the two wheels can fit into the hole. However a pin that is at an angle of say 1 degree to the right is trying to fit into a hole that is facing 1 degree to the left thus making a 2 degree error which would force the pin to bend. This bending would move down the pin progressively, from the first engagement, to the centre line and then the whole sequence would change the bend in the other direction, moving up the pin until it finally exited the hole. This constant bending would soon cause the metal to fatigue and the pin would break, if in fact the wheels could be forced together on initial assembly. This is one reason for the complex involute shape of the teeth on a gear. I believe that the length of the pins must have been approximately 4-5 thousandths of an inch as this would explain the often incomplete punching of the very thick papers. Probably the holes would be drilled slightly larger than the pin diameter or the holes could have been reamed to a slight taper to alleviate the angular error mentioned above.

Acknowledgement
I wish to express my appreciation to the National Science Museum, London, U.K. for permission to reproduce the figure shown on pg. 21

Reference

[1] Gilbert K. R., "Machine Tools" *in* A History of Technology, Singer, Charles, Holland, E. J., Hall, A. R. Editors, Oxford University Press 1954, Vol. IV, pp 421.

Canada's First Law Stamp Issue

E. Zaluski

Introduction

To adequately describe Canada's First Law Stamp Issue, this article has been separated into four distinct parts. Part One provides basic information about the stamps themselves. Part Two provides the background for Part Three, in that it describes both the method the printing company used to apply perforations and how philatelists can accurately measure them. Part Three identifies the various separation and paper varieties that I know to exist for this issue and assigns to them not only discrete identifying "numbers" but also their known ranges of serial-control numbers. And Part Four discusses the separation measurement problems that arise when a "matching" rather than a "measuring" gauge is used to identify the separation gauge present either on any individual stamp from this issue or on the printing run from which it came.

Proof (on India) **Finished Stamp**

PART ONE: The Stamps

Legislative Background.

By passing "The Supreme and Exchequer Courts Act" (Federal Statute 38 Victoria, Chapter 11), the Canadian Government established in law the two named Courts. To help in their administration, this act also directed that court officials use law stamps to track receipts, by affixing stamps to legal instruments in denominations matching the fees paid.[1]

1. More detail on applicable legislation and fee structures can be found in Zaluski (1988), which is the first of my seven reference manuals on Canadian Revenue Stamps.

Basic Information.

The First Law Stamp Issue comprises six values picturing Young Queen Victoria, each line-engraved and intaglio-printed in blue by the British American Bank Note Company, Montreal, using the "wet printing" method. Sheet format for all six values was eight columns by five rows, totalling 40 stamps. Perforation was performed by two rotary perforating machines of the Bemrose type[2] positioned 90 degrees to each other in an "L" format; one machine applied the vertical perforations while the other applied the horizontal (Williams 1971, pp. 509-514 and pp. 535-6).

After the sheets were perforated, red serial-control numbers measuring 3.5 millimetres in height were applied sequentially from left to right starting in the top left corner. Because of these serial numbers, it is possible—although difficult due to a lack of supply—to reconstitute a printed sheet from single stamps. For philatelists who would like to identify a stamp's original position (or column), divide its serial number by forty (or eight), then apply the result's "decimal remainder" to the following table.

Determining the Sheet Location of Serial-Numbered Stamps

Decimal Remainder after Dividing by Forty / Position on the Sheet	**Position on a Sheet of 40 Stamps, Formatted 8 x 5**							
	0.025 1	0.05 2	0.075 3	0.1 4	0.125 5	0.15 6	0.175 7	0.2 8
	0.225 9	0.25 10	0.275 11	0.3 12	0.325 13	0.35 14	0.375 15	0.4 16
	0.425 17	0.45 18	0.475 19	0.5 20	0.525 21	0.55 22	0.575 23	0.6 24
	0.625 25	0.65 26	0.675 27	0.7 28	0.725 29	0.75 30	0.775 31	0.8 32
	0.825 33	0.85 34	0.875 35	0.9 36	0.925 37	0.95 38	0.975 39	0.0 40
Decimal Remainder after Dividing by Eight / Column on the Sheet	**Position on a Sheet by Column, One through Eight**							
	0.125 1	0.25 2	0.375 3	0.5 4	0.625 5	0.75 6	0.875 7	0.0 8

Duration and Jurisdictions of Use.

Initial issues appeared in 1876; the earliest known cancellation is dated in March of that year. Each value continued to be used until stocks were exhausted; this means that for values where consumption rates were low—note particularly the 20-cent value—usage continued through the reign of succeeding Kings and Queens. The 10-cent value remained in use until 1899, *20-cent value until 1967*, 25-cent value until 1917, 50-cent value until

2. The characteristics of the Bemrose-type rotary perforator and the perforations it applied are described later under "PART TWO: The Perforations and Their Measurement."

1923, $1.00 value until 1902, and the $5.00 value until 1908. Although these stamps are commonly referred to as "Supreme Court Law Stamps," the name is somewhat misleading because stocks consumed by Ottawa's Supreme Court was only about 10 to 20 percent of the total quantity printed while the various Exchequer Courts strategically located across Canada consumed the remaining 80 to 90 percent. (On 01 June 1971, the Exchequer Court was renamed to the Federal Court; shortly thereafter, available Exchequer Court files were relocated to Ottawa for storage.)

IN PRIZE Issues.

Two of the three values still in use during World War One were overprinted IN PRIZE for specific use in two cases brought before the "Prize Court" in Victoria (Esquimalt), British Columbia. (By Governor General Proclamation issued on 22 August 1914, the Prize Court was established under the Exchequer Court of Canada using the provisions of British legislation.) One was the 20-cent value; total production comprised one sheet with each stamp overprinted twice, once in purple and once in red. The second was the 25-cent value; total production also comprised only one sheet but, this time, each stamp was overprinted only once, in red. The court cases in which these stamps were used commenced in June, 1916, and concerned the disposal of properties recovered from two captured, German-owned ships, the Leonor and the Oregon.

More information on this and succeeding issues, and a detailed "story" about the creation and use of IN PRIZE stamps, are contained in Zaluski (1988).

NewStamp Classifications. The presence of serial numbers adds some new stamp "classifications" to the standard set, as follows:

Finished Stamp (or just Stamp)

A stamp possessing a serial control number. Usually, the word "finished" is not used unless one specifically wishes to confirm the presence of a serial control number.

Unfinished Stamp

A stamp identical to those issued for normal use except that it lacks its intended serial control number. Some philatelists mistakenly call these items proofs.

Specimen Cancel:

A written, punched or overprinted cancel not normally used to evidence payment. The most common specimen cancels

Unfinished Stamp **Finished Specimen**

were applied with a rubber hand stamp; words like CANCELLED, REGISTERED, *etc.*, were used.

Finished Specimen (or just Specimen):
A serial-numbered stamp that is identical to those issued for normal use except that it displays on its face a "specimen cancel" that was applied to insure that the item so cancelled would not be used for the stamp's original purpose. Many such items retain their original gum.

Unfinished Specimen: An unfinished stamp displaying a specimen cancel.

Constant plate flaws. Constant plate flaws that can be easily seen are listed below.

Flaws present on all six values:

F1. Short vertical line next to the left frame 3.5 millimetres (mm) from the top.
F2. Solid colour dot 1.5 mm below lobe of Queen's ear.
F3. Small colour dot three mm above "s" of Cts on the cent values, or 1.5 mm above the second "0" of ".00" on the dollar values.

Flaw present only on the 10-cent value:

F4. Short slanting line across two beads six mm left of Queen's nose.

Flaw present only on the $1.00 value:

F5. Small colour dot just outside left border 12 mm from bottom.

Flaw present only on the $5.00 value:

F6. Small colour dot just below bottom border one mm from left side.

PART TWO: The Perforations and Their Measurement
Basic Characteristics of a Bemrose-Type Perforator.

Canada's first law stamps were perforated by two rotary perforators similar to the original Bemrose design, placed together in an "L" format.[3] This machine's basic feature was its use of two wheels of equal diameter working together to apply one line of perforations. At their outer perimeters, one wheel contained holes, the other contained pins. Both wheels were securely mounted on different, parallel, vertically mounted shafts—pin wheel on top, holed wheel on bottom—and the two wheels were engaged and rotated like gears to apply a line of perforations (i.e. "line perforation") to any sheet of stamps passing between (Williams 1971, pp. 509-514; Boggs 1982, pp. 2-10). *Conclusion*: To cater to the eight-by-five format of stamps on a sheet, operators had to correctly space nine pairs of matching wheels on the machine that applied the vertical perforations, and six pairs of matching wheels on the machine that applied the horizontal perforations.

Paper Shrinkage.

Before a printed sheet could be perforated without danger of sticking and jamming, it had to be "gummed, dried and pressed" (Boggs 1982, p. 18). Of these steps, note especially the need to dry the sheets, a step that, for practical purposes, reduced and equalized the moisture content of all sheets prior to perforation and practically eliminated any measurable post-perforation "shrinkage." *Conclusion*: Measurable differences in the gauge of perforation cannot be attributed to differences in the moisture content amongst various paper stocks at the time of perforation.

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3. A picture of a rotary perforator is shown on page 37 of this article.

The Applied Gauge of Perforation.

In a Bemrose-type rotary perforator, there are two factors that influence the spacing between *(i.e.*, the gauge of) applied perforations. Over a long span, the spacing between perforations applied by one pair of wheels is directly related to the spacing between the holes on that pair's bottom wheel. But over a short span, perforation spacing to a lesser extent is also related to the diameter of and spacing between the tips of adjacent pins on that pair's top wheel. This is because the pins not only had to be flexible so that they could "bend"—within limits, of course—to accommodate their counterpart holes, but also had to possess slightly smaller diameters to ensure smooth entry into their counterpart holes without jamming and breaking. As a consequence, the difference in pin-to-hole diameters—which gradually increased with use as the pins wore—allowed some tolerance regarding the location of where a pin punched through the area of its counterpart hole and permitted very small differences in perforation spacing to occur over short distances. *Conclusion*: Where irregularities in spacing between adjacent holes and pins on any particular pair of wheels did exist, those irregularities would be reflected in the gauge of perforation that was applied to the stamps.

Establishing an Accurate Method of Measuring Separation.

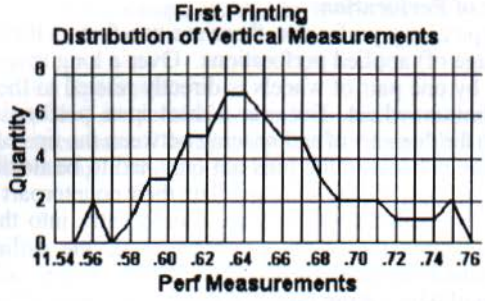
Before discussing a stamp-issue's "gauge of separation," one needs to know that issue's typical or expected measurement—what I call its ***Benchmark Separation*** (or *Perforation*)—and its margin of variability. To establish such a benchmark, I use the "Ruler Method" (Zaluski 1992b). This method requires one to (1) count perforation holes or perforation teeth along a sample's margin using a length as long as practical (such as the length offered by a sheet or other large multiple of stamps), and starting and stopping the measurement at the same "feature" (e.g. bottom centre of a perforation hole, centre of a tooth, left edge of a hole, *etc.*), (2) use an accurate engineer's ruler to measure in millimetres the length over which those perforation holes or teeth were counted, then (3) use the following formula to determine that sample's perforation:

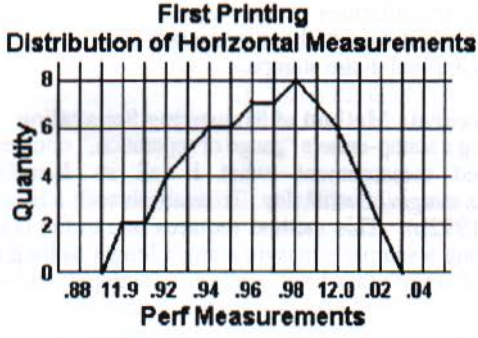
$$\text{Perf} = \frac{\text{Number of holes/teeth} \times 20}{\text{Length of measurement in millimetres}}$$

After taking measurements of a statistically significant number of representative samples from a particular issue or printing, one establishes its Benchmark Perforations by taking the arithmetic mean (i.e. average) of all such measurements, one vertically and one horizontally. Where measurements reveal a "margin of variability," that fact is also identified, along with its statistically significant value (Mendenhall 1972, p. 29).

After benchmark perforations and their expected margins of variability have been established, one may safely "measure" the horizontal and vertical perforations on any single stamp by using an Instanta gauge. The results are then compared with previously established benchmarks and, if tolerance limits are not exceeded, the stamp is assigned the applicable "benchmark perforation." But should a tolerance limit be exceeded, then the stamp must be re-examined for spacing consistency along its complete margin and a determination made as to whether the stamp is just an irregular perforation variety, or whether it is truly a new variety deserving the assignment of its own "benchmark."

This "benchmark" method of measuring separation is especially applicable to small single stamps (*e.g.*,: individual Canadian Bill Stamps, Small-Queen Postage Stamps, *etc.*) perforated by a rotary perforation machine because minor perforation changes from the norm make accurate measurement of stamps with small margin difficult and the results





unreliable. For larger stamps or multiples where the length-of-edge is longer than the horizontal span of an Instanta gauge, one should measure a stamp's perforation with the Ruler Method, cross-check it with the Instanta for validity, and finally compare it to that issue's set of known, previously established benchmarks to identify its "fit".

PART THREE: The Paper and Separation Varieties

Young Queen Paper and Separation Varieties.

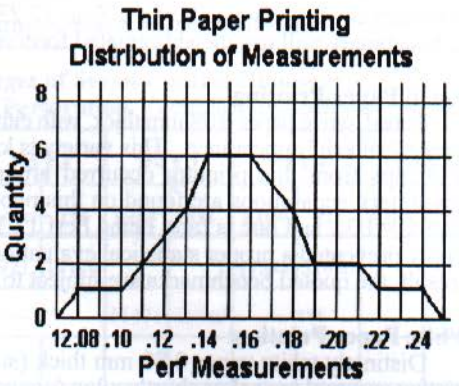
Five different paper and four different separation varieties can be identified on Canada's first issue of law stamps. In order of appearance, these varieties are described below using the same "suffix identifiers" that were originally created and assigned within the Canadian Revenue Identification System (CARIS). Specifically, "P" means a specific gauge of separation while "Y" means a specific type of paper.[4]

The First Printing:

Off-white, wove paper 0.08 mm thick, with a usually distinct horizontal mesh and, with only a few exceptions, serial control numbers below 4480 (CARIS identifying suffix = Y1). Initial use of stamps from this printing occurred in March, 1876. A graphical plot of 66 horizontal and 66 vertical perforation measurements taken of stamps from this printing

4. Note that these *descriptive and easily remembered* identifiers are used as suffixes that attach themselves to a stamp's basic "number" to identify a specific variety. One example is CAL1P1Y1: interpreting this combination of letters and numbers identifies the P1 separation variety and the Y1 paper variety of Canadian Law Stamp (CAL) number one. The original CARIS numbering techniques were described in the preface to my first reference manual (Zaluski 1988).

produced mound-shaped curves whose arithmetic means[5] were Perf 11.96 horizontally and Perf 11.65 vertically. Assuming that these measurements and their distribution patterns are representative of the whole population, then the Empirical Rule of statistics (Mendenhall 1972, p. 44)[6] states that the range within which any random measurement should fall with a statistical probability of 95 percent (i.e. no more than one measurement in 20) is Perf 11.89 to 12.03 horizontally and Perf 11.56 to 11.74 vertically. For convenience, future references to the P1 benchmark will use the abbreviated form of Perf 12.0 x 11.7.



Thin Paper Printing:

Thin, transparent wove paper 0.70 mm thick, with a distinct vertical mesh and a distinctly mottled appearance when viewed from the back (suffix = Y2). Initial use of s 6 tamps from this printing occurred around or shortly after February 1884. Using techniques identical to those described above for P1, and because the horizontal and vertical perforation measurements of stamps from this printing were practically identical, a graph of 56 combined measurements produced a mound-shaped curve whose arithmetic mean was 12.15 (suffix = P2) and a range that any random measurement should fall with a statistical

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5. A sample's arithmetic mean is an estimate of the population's arithmetic mean. And the more measurements one has, the more accurate the estimate becomes.

6. An example of applying statistical formulas and analytical methods to, say, an "x" number of measurements—n(1), n(2), n(3), ...n(x)—are as follows:

Arithmetic mean (Y) is the sum of a set of measurements divided by the number of measurements in the set.

$$Y = \frac{n(1) + n(2) + n(3) \ldots + n(x)}{x}$$

Variance (V) of a set of "x" measurements is the average of the squared deviations of those measurements from their arithmetic mean.

$$V = \frac{[n(1) - y]^2 + [n(2) - y]^2 + [n(3) - y]^2 \ldots\ldots [n(x) - y]^2}{x}$$

Standard Deviation (S) of a set of measurements is the positive square root of the variance.

$$S = \text{Square root of } V$$

Most distributions of measurements encountered in real life are "mound" (i.e. Gaussian) shaped, and it is assumed that the perforation measurements quoted here fall in this category. To such distributions, the Empirical Rule states that:

A. The range from Y-S to Y+S will contain approximately 68% of all measurements,
B. The range from Y-2S to Y+2S will contain approximately 95% of all measurements (which is the "one in twenty" range used in this article), and
C. The range from Y-3S to Y+3S will contain approximately 97.7% of all measurements.

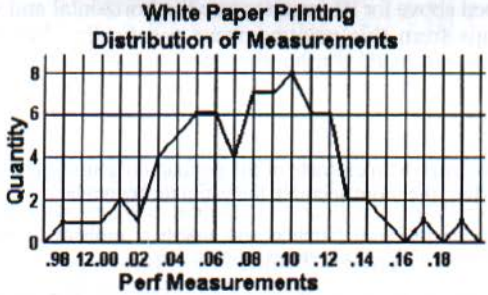
probability of 95 percent is Perf 12.07 to 12.23. For convenience, future references to the P2 benchmark will use the abbreviated form of Perf 12.2.

Toned Paper Printing:

Toned, wove paper 0.08 mm thick, with either no mesh or just a faint vertical mesh that gives a "smooth" appearance. This variety is known only on the 10-cent value. Initial use of stamps from this printing occurred around or shortly after February 1887. Two benchmark separations are found on this paper, one is common, being Perf 11.8 x 12.1 (suffix = P3), and one is rare, being Perf 12.1 on all four sides (suffix = P4). (A lack of supply prevented a proper statistical evaluation of perforations applied to this printing; as a result, the quoted benchmarks are subject to future refinement.)

White Paper Printing:

Distinctly white paper 0.80 mm thick (suffix = Y4). Initial use of stamps from this printing occurred around or shortly after August 1892. Using techniques identical to those described above for P1, and because the horizontal and vertical perforation measurements of stamps from this printing were practically identical, a graph of 72 combined measurements produced a mound-shaped curve whose arithmetic mean was 12.08 (suffix = P4) and a range that any random measurement should fall with a statistical probability of 95 percent is Perf 11.99 to 12.17. For convenience, future references to the P4 benchmark will use the abbreviated form of Perf 12.1.



The Last Printing:

Poorer-quality, yellowish wove paper 0.80 mm thick, together with high serial control numbers (suffix = Y5). This last variety is known only on the $1.00 value. Initial use of stamps from this printing occurred around or shortly after January 1896. Initial perforation measurements of this printing seem to indicate that there might be a small difference in gauge between the horizontal and vertical perforations. But because the arithmetic means in both directions are very close to the Perf 12.08 quoted for P4, that same benchmark has been assigned for now. (A lack of supply prevented a proper statistical evaluation of perforations applied to this printing; as a result, the quoted benchmark is subject to future refinement. For those interested in the arithmetic averages I have calculated so far, they are Perf 12.13 x 12.06; both were determined from only ten measurements taken from five available stamps.)

Serial-Control-Number Ranges.

The next table reflects the author's latest knowledge of serial-control-number ranges that apply to each paper and separation variety.

Young Queen Law Stamp Serial Control Numbers

CARIS No.	Val	Known Ranges of Serial Control Numbers ‹—— For Paper and Perforation Varieties, by Suffix ## ——›											
		P1Y1		P2Y2		P3Y3		P4Y3		P4Y4		P4Y5	
		Low	Hi	Low	Hi	Low	Hi	Low	Hi	Low	Hi	Low	Hi
CAL1	0.10	0001	4240	4521	8640	8921	12120			17241	32880		
		12361	12400	12601	17000	‹—— **		11401	11640	‹—— ***			
CAL2	0.20	0001	3960	5121	7200					11161	13200		
		7121	7160	‹—— **									
CAL3	0.25	0001	4440	4481	10720					11401	14960		
CAL4	0.50	0001	4440	4681	9000					9201	13120		
		7121	7160	‹—— **									
CAL5	1.00	0001	4400	4921	8680					9401	12960		
				13041	15680	‹——**						15721	23080
CAL6	5.00	0001	4560	5001	9680					9881	13640		
IN PRIZE Overprints of 1916:													
CAL29	0.25							###——›		13961	14000		
CAL33	0.50							### ——›		10081	10120		

** For a particular variety, the existence of two serial-control-number ranges implies that some sheets from that printing had been left unnumbered, only to be added to stocks later when larger serial-control numbers were being applied.

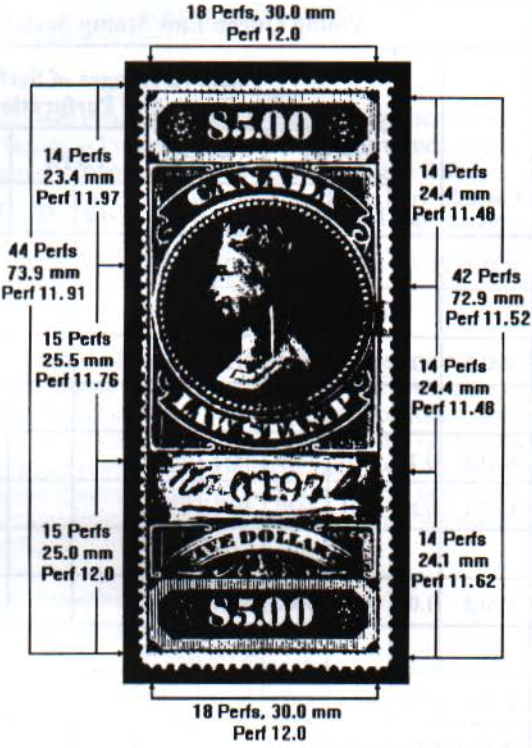
*** For 10-cent values printed on Y3 paper, the serial-control-number range for P4 perforation varieties (11401-11640) falls within the known range for P3 varieties.

P1=Perf 12.0 x 11.7; P2=Perf 12.2; P3=Perf 11.8 x 12.1; P4=Perf 12.1.

Only one sheet of two values was overprinted IN PRIZE, both on Y4 paper. Only about a dozen copies of each overprinted value are known to exist. CAL29 carries two IN PRIZE overprints, one in purple and one in red. CAL33 carries only one IN PRIZE overprint, in red.

Irregularly Perforated Stamps. When the $5.00 stamp numbered 0197 was loaned to me for study, I made the following measurements: Along both the top and bottom horizontal edges, I measured the perforations to be 12.0. Along the left vertical edge, I measured the perforations in the top third at 11.97, the middle third at 11.76, and the lower third at 12.0. And along the right vertical edge, I measured the perforations in the top two-thirds at 11.48 and the lower third at 11.62.

The difference in perforation spacing along the vertical margins of this $5.00 stamp demonstrates that the holes placed on wheels manufactured for rotary perforators need not have been precisely and equally spaced. Where such variability can be identified, that stamp can be labelled an Irregular Perforation variety. For a more detailed discussion of this stamp, see Zaluski (1992a).



The $5.00 Stamp Numbered 0197

PART FOUR: The Perforation Measurement Controversy

The Controversy Identified.

Some philatelists believe and have recorded in their writings (1) that two perforating-wheel designs, each with different spacing between their holes, were used to apply perforations to the vertical margins of law stamps from the first printing, one wheel applying perforations measuring Perf 11.58, the other 11.75, (2) that these two measurements can be found on coincident sides of stamps originating from the same "column" of stamps on a sheet, and (3) that the existence of these two distinct measurements are supported by measurements taken with the Kiusalas gauge. With these beliefs, I disagree, and what now follows are my arguments to support an alternate theory.

Magnitude and Significance of Perforating Task.

It is important to note that the time taken to perforate each printing of Canada's First Law Stamp Issue was minimal. For example, the stamps whose serial numbers belong to the first printing—and the stamps under study in this final section—took less than three hours to perforate if one assumes no breakdowns. This time was determined by applying the perforating capacity of the rotary perforator of 250 sheets per hour (Boggs 1982, p. 18) against the first printing's total production quantity of about 650 sheets. Similarly, the other printings of this issue took different but comparably small lengths of time to perforate. *But the most significant aspect of these perforating tasks is that their finite size and relatively fast completion times created a "consistent and comparable set of evidence" (i.e., a "snap*

shot") regarding the perforations that perforating wheels applied at the different times each printing was perforated. By this I mean that Canada's Law Stamp issues provide us with an environment almost ideal for studying the characteristics of early perforating wheels because:

a. there is only a very minimal likelihood that perforating wheels were moved or replaced with others possessing different characteristics during any one of these perforating tasks,

b. the time-limited perforation times provide time-coincident and highly comparable examples that cannot be duplicated by any other stamp issues—such as Canada's Postage or Bill Stamps—because all such stamps were produced in larger quantities over greater lengths of time, and

c. the large margins present on law stamps make the taking of measurements easier and their results more accurate (and therefore more significant) than any taken from smaller stamps.

Determining Perforations with a Measuring Gauge.

Measuring gauges in use prior to 1944 were "matching" and not "measuring" types. Correct use required a comparison of a sample's perforations against pre-determined scales on that gauge to find the one that most closely "matched" *(i.e.,* approximated) that sample's perforations. Such gauges produced many sizeable, significant errors, and perforations quoted as 11½, 12, 12½, *etc.*, (*i.e.,* perforations rounded to the nearest one-half) are approximations only, are accurate only to plus or minus 0.25, and are typical of early measurements upon which little reliance for accuracy can be placed. To resolve this problem, the Instanta gauge was invented and patented by E.P. Rang, and first marketed by Robson Lowe in 1944. This gauge is a true "measuring" gauge, and careful use can accurately differentiate to within one-fortieth of a perforation within two centimetres (Williams 1971, p. 521). Recently, a very expensive gauge developed by SAFE can electronically measure perforations to within three digits of accuracy. Both the Instanta and the SAFE, being "measuring" gauges, are far superior to any "matching" gauge.

Determining Perforations with the Kiusalas Gauge.

The Kiusalas gauge—a matching type restricted to eleven scales of measurement—was developed on the following assumptions: (1) perforating-wheel dimensions quoted within specifications (or "blueprints") sent to manufacturers were stated in "thousands" of an inch, and (2) perforating-wheel manufacturers rigidly followed these specifications, in that the holes placed on a wheel were not only *equally spaced* but also *separated in exact thousands of an inch.* Using these assumptions, and if one assumes—as many writers have—that the circumference of rotary perforating wheels were *exactly 6.75 inches* (Boggs 1956, page 17), spacing calculations for a number of wheel types and their conversion to Kiusalas measurements are shown in the next table.

When describing the use of a Kiusalas gauge, R.D. Leith (1993) states, and I agree, that "The Kiusalas Gauge forces the user to choose from a fixed scale of perforation dots. The differences between each Kiusalas number is sufficiently small that when measuring a stamp, it is quite easy to make a minuscule stamp shift to credibly fit an intermediate Kiusalas value exactly on a Kiusalas number. This translates into a whopping 0.09 metric units on an Instanta Gauge where routine measurement tolerances are 0.03 (0.01 if a ten power glass is used). "

Spacing Calculations based on Wheel Circumference of 6.75 Inches					
True Measurements			Kiusalas Approximations		
No. of Holes on Wheel	Between-Hole Spacing *	Measure-ment Equivalent (Metric)	Kiusalas Scale	Between-Hole Spacing #	Measure-ment Equivalent (Metric)
98	0.06888	11.43	69	0.069	11.41
99	0.06818	11.55	Nil		
100	0.06750	11.67	68	0.068	11.58
101	0.06683	11.78	67	0.067	11.75
102	0.06618	12.90	66	0.066	11.93
103	0.06553	12.02	Nil		
104	0.06490	12.13	65	0.065	12.11
* Between-hole spacing is shown in inches; it is calculated by dividing the wheel's circumference of 6.75 inches by the number of holes on that wheel.					
# Kiusalas "rounds" measurements to the nearest thousands of an inch.					

Because of this latter limitation, Mr. Lussey (1993, p.27) has stated that the function of the Kiusalas gauge "is to identify, not to measure, perforation." In this, he means that a perforation that "fits" a specific dot-separation pattern—which is a measurement in itself—identifies a wheel that contained holes around its circumference spaced in increments of exactly 1/1000th of an inch. But despite the crudeness of a Kiusalas measurement, Mr. Lussey continues to translate Kiusalas scales into precise gauges of perforation—such as Kiusalas scale 68 into Perf 11.58, Kiusalas scale 67 into Perf 11.75, etc. This conversion (to two-decimal precision) is not only inappropriate but also misleading to all readers who may not be familiar with the Kiusalas gauge's limitations and its inability to identify perforation sizes other than one of its eleven possibilities.

Perforation Variability.

Mr. Lussey (1996 and 1989) provided pictorial examples to demonstrate that 11.58 and 11.75 perforation measurements exist on Canada's first law stamp issue. His information is summarized in the following table. (Note that for the eight horizontal stamps on a sheet, there are nine lines of vertical perforations.)

Lussey's Kiusalas-Gauge Perforation Measurements for Canadian Law Stamp's First Printing

Value / Ser No.	Perforation Column 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Stated Measurements (Lussey 1993):									
$5 0187			11.58	11.58					
$5 0197					11.75	11.58			
Stated Measurements (Lussey 1989):									
5¢ 0089	11.75	11.58							
50¢ 0091			11.58	11.75					
10¢ 1444				11.58	11.75				
25¢ 0964				11.75	11.58				
$5 0062						11.58	11.75		
50¢ 2591							11.75	11.58	
20¢ 0024								11.75	11.58
Stated Measurements (Lussey 1996):									
20¢ Unfinished Stamp *							11.58	11.75	11.58
$1.00 Unfinished Stamp *							11.75	11.58	11.75
Perforation Inconsistencies **				X	X		X	X	X

* An unfinished stamp is one that is identical to an issued stamp except that it lacks a serial control number.

** X identifies columns in a sheet where Mr. Lussey, with his Kiusalas gauge, has identified the existence of both Perf 11.58 and Perf 11.75.

Even if the illustrations for the last two examples in the above table (Lussey 1996) do not exactly match the size of the actual stamps, *the differences between measurements taken from adjacent sides are reliably comparable* I therefore applied the Ruler Method in an attempt to confirm Mr. Lussey's numbers. My results are quoted in the following table.

Perforation Measurements of Pictured Specimens (Lussey 1996)						
	Top Example 20¢ Unfinished Stamps			Bottom Example $1.00 Unfinished Stamps		
Measurement Location	No. of Holes	Span in Cm	Perf Size	No. of Holes	Span in Cm	Perf Size
Horizontal at top	42.0	71.0	11.83	45.0	75.5	11.92
Horiz at bottom	45.0	76.0	11.84	46.5	78.0	11.92
Vert at left	40.0	69.1	11.58	42.0	72.0	11.67
Vert at centre	42.0	72.6	11.57	41.0	70.3	11.66
Vert at right	41.0	71.1	11.53	42.0	72.0	11.67

From these measurements,[7] one can deduce that all fall within what I consider to be normal variability limits for stamps of this issue. Furthermore, the ruler method applied to the seven stamps listed in the table titled **Lussey's Kiusalas-Gauge Perforation Measurements** under "Stated Measurements (Lussey 1989)" produced similar results. *Conclusion*: The small differences in vertical measurements of the examples quoted by Lussey (except for the $5.00 value numbered 0197) do not, in my opinion, qualify any of them as perforation varieties, nor do the measurements point to the use of perforating wheels possessing specific and very precise spacings between perforation holes. Instead, they demonstrate the dangers of using the Kiusalas gauge to measure the perforations of first-issue law stamps whose mean of Perf 11.65 falls almost exactly between the two Kiusalas scales of 67 and 68 and forcing a user to choose one. Then, to compound the error even further, the two Kiusalas scales are frequently and inappropriately converted into the very misleading, two-decimal-precision measurements of either Perf 11.75 or 11.58 respectively.

For confirmation, readers are invited to use the Ruler Method to measure and compare the perforation spacing on adjacent sides of not only any first-issue law stamps that they may own, but also all illustrations provided by Mr. Lussey (1989 and 1996), and reach their own conclusions.

Errors in Kiusalas Hypothesis Regarding the Spacing of Perforations.

So far, I have described the logic for creating the Kiusalas gauge, described its limitations, and demonstrated how it leads to erroneous readings. Now, let me state my belief that the assumptions upon which Kiusalas-gauge development was based are also invalid.

First, Boggs stated that his calculations (and those of many following authors) regarding the gauge of perforation that were applied by early North American rotary perforating machines were based on the assumption that "the stamps perforated by American banknote companies were perforated on machines with wheels of the same diameter as that illustrated

7 Measurements taken of both illustrations indicate a high probability that at least the illustrated pair of 20-cent unfinished stamps is slightly larger than the originals.

in Figure 5" of the original Bemrose patent, namely, 6.75 inches (Boggs 1982, p.19). But, to my knowledge, no perforating wheels from machines of this period have survived so that their dimensions could be verified. Furthermore, Boggs also stated that the rotary perforators placed in use in North America were not exact copies of the original Bemrose design but rather were only modelled after them (Boggs 1982, p. 18). This statement was supported by an accompanying illustration that was taken from a descriptive article that originally appeared in Harper's magazine of February, 1862. This illustration, a portion of which is reproduced here in larger size to enhance the detail, was also reproduced by Boggs (1982, p. 18) and Williams (1971, page 534); this illustration clearly shows not only that the overall design does not coincide with the diagrams in the original Bemrose patent, but also the top perforating wheels are at least five inches in diameter and at least 15.7 inches in circumference (*Editor's Note: For a different interpretation of the scale in the same picture see R.A. Johnson, page 15 in this issue of Topics)* . *Conclusion*: The assumption that the circumference of rotary perforating wheels manufactured in North America was 6.75 inches in diameter is not based on factual evidence and is therefore inappropriate.

Second, Boggs also stated that "the pins and counterpart holes did not engage at every rotation of the wheels but only about every seventh rotation" (1982, p. 16). But it was stated in the patent and confirmed by Boggs that "the diameter of the counterpart wheel is equal to the diameter of the perforating wheel measured from tip to tip of pins" (Boggs 1982, p. 4). And, in its written description of the machine's "modus operandi," the patent clearly

A size comparison between the lady's hands and the perforation wheels shows the wheels to be at least five inches in diameter.

stated that both wheels were anchored to their shafts by set screws, and that the shafts were rotated by means of equally sized gears turned by treadle power (Boggs 1982, p. 9). This means that the anchored and equally sized gears turning equally sized wheels ensured that a pin *did engage* the same counterpart hole at every rotation. *Conclusion*: The spacing between holes on a perforating wheel—and therefore the spacing between the perforations that it applied—did not need to be exactly and equally spaced because the pins could be aligned (i.e. bent)—within limits of course—to fit their counterpart holes.

Third and probably the easiest to see and understand, the perf-gauge variability found on the stamps themselves *(i.e.*, the empirical evidence provided by the stamps and depicted in the previously displayed perf-frequency graphs and the previously described $5.00 stamp numbered 0197) strongly implies that manufacturing tolerances were not maintained to the 1/1000th of an inch. Instead, the empirical evidence clearly shows that (1) small differences in perforation spacing do exist not only between different stamps, but also over short distances along one edge of some individual stamps, and (2) the perf-spacing variability is mostly caused by similar variability in the between-hole spacing on the perforating wheels themselves. This of course destroys the basic assumption behind the Kiusalas gauge and its "precise" (and limited number of) measurement scales.

Final Conclusion.

Perf-spacing calculations based on assumptions pertaining to the size of the perforating wheels and the number of holes/pins that they may have contained are unsubstantiated and misguided. Instead, I believe that the only proper method of determining the gauge of perforation on stamps perforated by a machine whose "dimensions" cannot be physically measured is by studying the empirical evidence provided by the stamps themselves. Whilst doing so, one needs to use *practical and "accurate" method of measuring perforations*, such as the one described in a previous paragraph under the sub-title "**Establishing an Accurate Method of Measuring Separation**."

Comments are welcome. Write to me at the following address: Edward Zaluski, 2696 Flannery Drive, Ottawa, On. K1V 8M2.

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Co-published with the
Canadian Postal Museum–
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Until Next Year

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Jane E. Harrison

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Map Stamp Chronology - Part II[1] (through 1897)

Bill Pekonen

Chronological Events – Summary

The campaign for Imperial Penny Post started many years before Mulock became Postmaster General of Canada. Depending upon the point of view, his role in the story could be considered as either a pawn used by British Post Office officials in a much bigger game with higher stakes than applied to Canada, or as a Canadian political opportunist who recognized a "win-win" situation at home when he saw one—or, maybe a combination of both.

But regardless of one's point of view, the undisputed fact is that the Map Stamp is a production worthy of greater interest. Some collectors of that day, and even of today, ignore this stamp because it does not appeal to their sense of aesthetic beauty. Some believe it to be an "ugly" stamp. Some collectors believe it to be a messy printing production because of all the anomalies, and even this writer is inclined to agree. Others are attracted to the stamp as if it were an "ugly duckling." In that respect, it represents the differences between interests held by stamp collectors as a group. Yet, in spite of all the differences of opinion, the bottom line is that the Map Stamp represents a turning point in the philatelic history of Canada. For that reason alone, it is important.

The idea for a uniform penny post within the British Empire was proposed by the 1838 British Postal Committee, and repeated again in the British Parliament in the budget speech of 1839. This is the same speech which introduced the first postage stamp to be issued by Great Britain.

Much was said by many people over the years before the uniform penny post became a reality in 1898 - sixty years later. (This writer can't help but comment on how this can also represent why mail delivery can be so slow!)

The reform activity was summed up in an 1895 article in the The Saturday Review [1]:

> "For some years past, everyone has been familiar with the idea of a single British postal district, coextensive with the Empire, within which a letter shall be franked for any distance - one, ten or ten thousand miles - for a penny, just as a newspaper is now for a half-penny."

One must pause a moment here to reflect on that statement. A newspaper was being sent around the world from London for the postage fee of one half-penny. A newspaper, by weight, was many times the weight of a letter envelope. This point of logic should be kept in mind. One cover in my collection shows the special London newspaper cancel, is dated 14 5 95 (May 14, 1895), and franked with a half-penny stamp (Unitrade #111). It is only logical to ask the question: if printed matter could be sent for a half-penny, why would it cost five times as much to send a first class letter?

An article in the London *Times* dated February 11, 1893 stated:

> "....in 1890, which was the time when the question of Imperial Penny Postage and of a reduction generally in the postage between Great Britain and the colonies was attracting a good deal of public attention...."

1. Part I appeared in *BNA Topics*, Vol. 54, No. 3, pg. 23-34 (1997); Part III will appear in Vol. 55, No. 1.

A motion in the British House of Commons on April 8, 1893 stated that postage:

> "for the transmission of letters from the UK to all parts of the British Empire should be reduced to one penny per half ounce." [2]

The *Saturday Review* article (September 28, 1895) [1] summarized the event thus:

> "As speakers on both sides of the House were of one opinion, it was not necessary formally to pass the Resolution: the Houses accepted Sir William Harcourt's word that the Reform would be carried out. From that day to this, however, nothing has been heard...."

The article then continued with a statement that Canada had also accepted the idea of the Imperial Penny Post. This statement was made many months before Mulock was appointed Postmaster General.

What was the reason for the delay in implementing the penny post system? The *Saturday Review* article [1] concluded with this reasoning:

> "....because the permanent staff at the Post Office are as bitterly opposed to Imperial Penny Postage, as their predecessors were to Inland Penny Postage, and their influence is all powerful with their political chief, that "transient phantom" styled Postmaster General. They do not deny their bias. Mr. Buxton Forman has published with much gusto the fact that his former chief, Sir S. Blackwood, was a foe to the reform. ... A few years ago our postal officials even expressed the opinion that the old rates of 5d and 6d to the colonies....were fair and reasonable."

The *Saturday Review* [1] then stated:

> "In this case, public opinion has been outrageously flouted."

and then made this suggestion:

> "What we have to do is to get the Duke of Norfolk to send an official request to the Colonial Postmasters General, that they will assent to our extending our Inland Penny Postage to letters addressed to the colonies."

That action was taken almost two years later on September 23, 1897 after a five year agreement period with Australaisa had expired.

Another perspective on the situation can be found in the postal records of the United States [3]. The United States Postmaster General Hon. Mr. Wanamaker, in the 1891 annual report, traces the ocean vessel subsidy system back to 1789, and prepared a commentary over the intervening 102 years. He claimed that the United States had the smallest subsidy for ships carrying mail. In the previous year, the United States Post Office paid US$23,163 while the British Government is said to have paid US$1,289,623 (almost 56 times as much).

It can be concluded from that perspective that it appears that the British Post Office officials were using postal revenues to subsidize the operation of the steamboat lines. It is possible to conclude that the letter writers were unwilling victims of the ocean vessel commercial contest between Great Britain and the United States.

The same U.S. report stated that the cost of sending a letter overseas was one cent (U.S. funds). The argument used by British Post Office officials is that a one penny (two cents

U.S.) rate would produce great losses. The U.S. officials believed that the UK officials were sending false messages in their attempts to block postal reform.

The notes produced by the BNAPS Map Study Group are another source of further information. Readers are also referred to the book written by Ron Winmill [4]. Along with additional information, that book contains a list of the rates and usages involving the Map Stamp.

The following information traces the events that preceded the introduction of the 1898 Map Stamp by Canada.

Before 1800

"Then, under an Act approved by George III, the masters of every ship bound for the East Indies, the Cape, Ceylon and Mauritius were compelled to carry mail free of charge on behalf of the post office." [5, p 104]

1830s

Postal Committee of 1838 [6]

"....That in the interests of the revenue they would recommend an immediate two penny rate with an ultimate penny rate..."

Extract from Budget Speech of 1839 - British House of Commons - relating to the introduction of the Penny Post [6].

"...it only remains for me to move the resolution, which is as follows: "that it is expedient to reduce the postage to one uniform rate of 1d, subject to regulations with respect to weight to be hereafter fixed..." and "...I conscientiously believe that the public run less risk of loss in the proposition of a penny postage than it would under a two penny postage."

1840s

May, 1840 - Domestic Penny Postage introduced in Great Britain.

A British Act passed conferring distinct authority upon the Postmaster General to establish posts in any of Her Majesty's Colonies and to fix the rate of colonial postage [7].

1845 - World's first engraved multi-coloured stamp produced by Basel, Switzerland (# 3L1 - black, crimson and blue) [8, p 85].

1846 - Australia and New Zealand given power of laws to regulate post offices.

1848 - "What appears to have been the first pamphlet on 'Ocean Penny Postage' issued by Elihu Burritt (New Britain, Conn. USA) was probably published at the end of 1848 or early in 1849" [9, p 179]. The ocean rate was defined as that part of the total fee which applied to the ocean journey only. The formula viewed by Burritt was one third domestic inland postage; one third ocean journey; and one third domestic rate in the receiving country, or a total of 3 pennies (six cents) [9].

1849 - power to regulate postal rates transferred to Australia and New Zealand post offices.

1850s

1851 - The Province of Canada produced a 3 pence stamp depicting the beaver in the design instead of the reigning monarch. First animal to appear on a stamp [8, p 86].

1851 - New Brunswick and Nova Scotia introduced stamps with a geometric design rather than depicting the sovereign.

1852 - British Guiana issued a stamp depicting a ship and the motto of the Colony, instead of showing the head of the sovereign.

Mar 16, 1853 - Petitions advanced by H. Glass and others of Sarnia to the Ontario Legislative Assembly requesting an Ocean Penny Post [4].

1857 - Newfoundland produced various stamps depicting a geometric design.

1860s

May 15, 1860 - New Brunswick produced stamps depicting a locomotive (first in the world [8]) and a steamship.

"The British Post Office took over entire control of ocean mail on April 1, 1860 from the British Admiralty" [5, p 102].

1865 - Newfoundland produced a series of stamps commemorating the codfish and the harp seal industries (first in the world to show marine life [8, p 86]).

1867 - Power to regulate postal rates transferred to Canada.

Apr. 26, 1869 - The question of domestic penny post raised in the Canadian House of Commons [4].

1870s

1874 - Berne Postal Convention established in September. The agreement for an international mail rate equivalent to 2½d per half ounce came into effect July 1, 1875. Britain participated, but British colonies did not [5].

Canada and India included in General Postal Convention [7].

Dec. 31, 1876 - British ship mail subsidy contracts with Cunard, Inman and North were terminated and a new scheme based on weight of correspondence was developed by the Post Office [5].

1880s

1886 - John Henniker Heaton elected M.P. in Britain and began his unrelenting campaign to establish an ocean penny post rate [5].

1889 - reported subsidies paid by Great Britain to steamship companies during 1889 were US$3,210,434 [3], and the amounts paid to ships in the Pacific Ocean were Britain US$1,289,623 and United States US$23,163.

T.L. James, late postmaster at New York and afterwards United States Postmaster General wrote in the Forum of October 1889:

"It is time we had cheaper ocean postage. I think that the letter rate of ocean postage should be reduced to two cents an ounce, and that newspapers and periodicals from the office of publications should be carried for one cent per pound."

1890

"John Henniker Heaton's constant criticism resulted in a technical defeat of the Government and the Post Office which in 1890 announced that letters for overseas would come down to 2½d in those cases where the rate exceeded this figure." [5, p 110]

Differences of opinion arose as to whether Britain could impose a one penny rate upon colonies. [6, 7]

"The law officers (Great Britain) advised that the Imperial government was not entitled to established such lower rates of postage (sea post) either with foreign countries or with parties to the Convention, but that it could establish postal rates with colonies not parties to the Convention without regard to the regulations of the Postal Union."

This opinion opened the door to implementing the ocean penny postage rate within the British Empire, but the Post Office officials did not do so in spite of public opinion.

1891

The Vienna Postal Congress of 1891 concluded July 4 [10]. In order to permit Australia to join the UPU, a special deal was made by British Post Office officials. Some critics thought that the deal was cooked up to prevent the ocean penny postage scheme from being implemented. A guarantee was given by British Post Office Officials at the Congress to maintain the 2½d ocean rate, and "...that the 2½d rate should not be modified until after the next meeting of the Congress (in 1897)." Australia and New Zealand became members of the UPU effective October 1, 1891, under the condition "that the sea rates...are to be maintained at the present fixed rate, unless revised by the Congress."

The following declaration was read to the Congress by the representatives of Australasia [10]:

"In pursuance of the instructions of our representative Governments, we, the undersigned, declare that Australasia will enter the Universal Postal Union on the conditions arranged with the Sub-Committee of the 22nd of May, 1891, namely, that these Colonies shall enjoy together a single distinct vote in the Congresses and in the affairs of the Union, and that the rates of transit for sea carriage shall be maintained without alteration until after the next quinquennial Congress.

"It is understood, moreover, that the Postage rate for letters of 25 centimes per 15 grammes shall not be modified during the same period, and that the Australasian Colonies shall have the right to maintain or establish between themselves postal tariffs lower than those fixed by the Union Convention.

"Subject to the approval of the several Governments concerned, we fix the 1st of October, 1891, as the date on which the above-named Colonies will enter the Union."

The report of the sub-committee continues:

"The terms were accepted by the Congress, and approved by both the British Government and by the Colonial Governments; and the Colonies entered the Union on the date fixed."

"The compact is not limited to the letter postage between the Australasian Colonies and other parts of the Union, but extends to the postage between various parts of the Union at large. The new entrants were protecting themselves against being forced, directly or indirectly, to lower further their own rates. They knew that the adoption of a lower rate than 2½d between other distant parts would tend to force them in the same direction. That is why the stipulation was made in terms so general as to cover the whole Union. Hence, for England and her Colonies outside Australasia to set up a penny letter postage, without the consent of the other parties to the compact, would be a breach of the engagement entered into." [10]

1892

Oct. 12, 1892

"Dear Mr. Henniker Heaton, -- I can assure you that I have not lost sight of the subject of Imperial Penny Postage, on which you have written to me; indeed on my way to Osborne to receive the seals I spoke to the present Postmaster General on the subject, and I hope with all my heart that our wishes may soon be realized. — Believe me, yours very truly, 'Rosebery'." [11]

Report of the Postmaster General of the United States for 1892 [3]

"In my report of a year ago I said, and I have now to say, that 1 cent letter postage is a new possibility. ... The present 2 cent letter rate pays actually double the cost."

1893

Feb. 11, 1893 - reference to a proposal to produce an Empire stamp by members of the postal committee of the Imperial Federation League [7].

Feb. 25, 1893 - an article [12] in *The Saturday Review* stated:

"The Post Office has never, and we cannot affect to be surprised—shown the same disposition to be communicative to Mr. Henniker Heaton...."

Statement [2] made in the British House of Commons, April 28 by the Postmaster General A. Morley, in support of his reluctance to introduce the Imperial Penny Postage:

"In Canada the other day at Ottawa, in last March, it was proposed to reduce the inland postage from 3 cents to 2 cents and the Postmaster General stated that the reduction in Canada was impossible."

BUT, according to the memorandum [6] Canada would have a surplus of $406,909 in 1891 - an amount sufficient to cover the loss arising from the lowering of the letter rate from 3 cents to 2 cents - IF Canada were credited the cost of carrying 16,557,490 pounds of British newspapers FREE. If credited at the rate of ½d each, or six cents per pound, the additional $993,449 would have eliminated the deficit. In fact, at the time, the British Post Office was considering an increase in the newspaper rate because it was being conducted at a loss.

In other words, the British Postmaster General was misleading the Parliament with incorrect conclusions. The fact was that letter writers were subsidizing the cost of British newspapers in Canada, and denying themselves the reduced domestic rate.

The British House of Commons made the following motion, Apr. 8, 1893: [2]

> "In view of the recent declaration of the Postmaster General to the effect that there are no serious financial of administrative objections to such a step, the time has come when the charge for transportation of letters from the United Kingdom to all parts of the British Empire should be reduced to one penny per half-ounce letter."

At the close of the debate the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir William Harcourt, stated: [2]

> "The government desire at the proper time, when the finances of the country permit, and when the assent of the colonies has been obtained, to carry out the object advocated in the Resolution."

The *Saturday Review* article [1] then stated:

> "As speakers on both sides of the House were of one opinion, it was not necessary formally to pass the Resolution; the Houses accepted Sir William Harcourt's word that the Reform would be carried out. From that day to this (28 September, 1895), however, nothing has been heard of the matter from Ministerial lips, either Conservative or radical."

1894

The Postmaster General of New Zealand writing to Mr. Heaton [11] says:

> "I think that if the movement can be put into force without imposing any additional cost on these colonies the Imperial Government will be doing the right thing."

J.B. Patterson, Premier at Melbourne proposed to send the following telegram [11] to Mr. Henniker Heaton:

> "I cannot see any Colonial objection to your proposal for penny post from England to Australia: it will increase correspondence and commerce, and will not affect our postal revenue."

But before sending that telegram, he consulted with other elected officials to obtain their opinion. Copies of letters supporting Patterson can be found in the National Archives from New Zealand, Tasmania and Fiji. This support indicates that the public at large supported the measure although Australasian Post Office officials resisted the lower rate, just like their counterparts in Great Britain.

1895

The following quote was included in a article [1] in *The Saturday Review* on September 28, 1895:

> "Further, the principle governing these Unions is that the domestic or inland rate of postage in each country shall suffice for the conveyance of a letter to any other country included. Thus the American inland rate of 1d carries an American letter to any part of Canada, and the Canadian inland rate of 1½d carries a Canadian letter to any part of the United States. And so, under the scheme of Imperial Penny Postage, the British inland rate of 1d would carry a British letter to any colony, while the Government of that colony could retain from return letters the Postal union rate of 2½d or adopt its own inland rate, or accept the British inland rate of 1d at its own will and pleasure. There is nothing inconvenient in a difference of rates. At present a postcard to Australia cost 1d, while Australia charges 1½d for a postcard to England."

1896

Change in Canadian Government, July 11 [13].

Mulock appointed Postmaster General of Canada, July 13 [13].

1897

Mar. 29, in a letter [11] from J. Henniker Heaton to the Duke of Norfolk asking for a reply to his proposition to establish Imperial Penny Postage, Heaton wrote in part:

> "Two months ago I placed before you a proposition to establish Imperial Penny Postage. I produced the consent of the Australian Colonies to the proposal and I offered a bank guarantee against any loss to the Imperial Exchequer. I have ever since been silently waiting for the reply of the Government to this offer."

In June/July, a conference [14] was held in London, England, between the Secretary of State for the Colonies and the Premiers of the Self-Governing Colonies. This conference included these subjects: Political Relations, Defense, Exchange of Military Forces, Commercial Relations, Pacific Cable, Imperial Penny Postage, Commercial Code, Load Lines, Paris Exhibition of 1900, and Alien Immigration. The Chairman was Mr. J. Chamberlain. His comments to the members included the following:

> "I also should mention the desire which is widely felt and which I share, for an improved postal communication with the Colonies. I believe that that matter rests entirely with the Colonies themselves, and that they have revenue difficulties in the matter which have hitherto prevented us coming to any conclusion. But I confess that I think that one of the very first things to bind together the sister nations is to have the readiest and easiest possible communication between their several units, and as far as this country is concerned, I believe we should be quite ready to make any sacrifice of the revenue that may be required in order to secure a universal penny post throughout the Empire."

An account [14] of the business transacted was compiled and copies sent to the participants. The account included these remarks under the heading "Postal Communications":

> "With regard to postal communications within the Empire, it appeared that in the present financial circumstances of the Colonies an Imperial Penny Post was impracticable, although the Prime Ministers of the Cape Colony and Natal declared themselves in favour of such a step, and expressed their belief that the legislatures of their Colonies would be prepared to give effect to it."

On September 23, 1897, a letter [11] came from H. Buxton Forman to Postmaster General Mulock to ask if the Canadian Government would consider instituting the postage of 2d per half ounce on letters passing in both directions between the United kingdom and other parts of the Empire.

On November 13, a letter [11] went from R. M. Coulter to Spencer Walpole, Secretary, General Post Office, London, England, stating that the matter has been under consideration for some time and that a reply can be expected before the end of the year. The proposal was to reduce the postage rate between the UK and other parts of the Empire from 2½d to 2d per ounce.

On November 25, a letter [11] went from R. M. Coulter to Spencer Walpole, stating in part:

"... I have now the honour to inform you that the Postmaster General having carefully considered the subject, has decided to reduce the rate of postage on letters posted in Canada addressed to the United Kingdom and all other parts of the Empire to three cents per ounce, the change in question to take effect on and from the 1st day of January 1898."

A cable [11] went to London from Ottawa on December 10, suggesting that Mr. Chamberlain would like to see consent from the Colonies for the three cent rate, followed by several letters back and forth trying to decide who should approach the Colonies.

A letter [11] went to London December 12, confirming that Postmaster General Mulock desires a 3 cent rate (1½d) instead of the 4 cent rate (2d) "so far as it might be in the power of this department." The last phrase indicates that Mulock overstepped his authority, resulting in a strong rebuke from the Duke of Norfolk in the following correspondence.

On December 13, 1897 a cable [11], and on December 15 a confirming letter, came from London instructing Canada to approach Colonies to obtain agreement.

On December 17, 1897 bad news [11] came from London to Coulter:

"In reference to previous telegram am desired by Duke of Norfolk to call attention to extreme inconvenience of complete and sudden change of policy, as to postage rates must point out that Mother country and Colonies should have been consulted beforehand, strongly urge postponement of measure for interchange of views on subject. (signed) Walpole."

And a cable [11] from Ottawa later on the same day stated in part:

"Postmaster General regrets extremely if Canadian Government's action ... not satisfactory to Duke of Norfolk..."

Over the next few days, a number of cables and letters were exchanged wherein the Duke of Norfolk "sees great objection to (Canada) making change provisionally" and the tone of these was quite testy. Finally on December 23, Canada sent this telegram to the Secretary of G.P.O., England:

"In deference to view of Duke of Norfolk Canadian Government will not further press at present time for carrying into effect of proposed reduction letter rate to other parts Empire pending a discussion which hoped will deal with whole question of inter-imperial postal communication. This Department would be pleased to learn action your Department contemplates in order to obtain full consideration of subject."

and the cable [11] from London December 24 in response to Canada:

"Duke of Norfolk desires me to express his thanks to you and Canadian Government for postponing contemplated reduction of rate will be prepared to discuss whole matter either with your agent General or any one whom you may delegate for the purpose. Sgd. Walpole."

was followed by a registered letter no. 478144/97 which stated:

"With reference to my letter of the 17th instant and previous correspondence, I am directed by the Postmaster General to forward to you copies of further telegram which, by his Grace's instruction I sent to you on the 20th, 22nd and 23rd instant on

the subject of the proposed reduction of letter postage from Canada to all parts of the British Empire."

"In confirming these telegrams, I am to state that the Duke of Norfolk still finds it difficult to understand why the measures prescribed by the Postal Union Convention were not taken for consulting him with regard to the change in policy which you have in contemplation, and His Grace's difficulty on this point is not removed by the statement made in your telegram of the 17th instant that the Canadian Government waited five days before gazetting it and assumed that the change was satisfactory as no intimation to the contrary had been received. Upon the receipt of your telegraphic announcement no time was lost in making its purport known to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, as it was felt that he might desire to communicate on the grave issues raised with the Dominion Government direct; and he did in fact make such communication. The question, however, is not one of more or less insufficient notice, but of the inconvenience occasioned not only to the British Post Office, but to other Post Offices of the Empire by independent action in circumstances in which mutual agreement under the terms of the Postal Union Convention was required."

"In view of the necessity for giving adequate consideration to the bearings of such a change as that which you propose on the interests of the British Colonies in general as well as on those of the Mother Country and of the serious objection to precipitate action in such a matter the Duke of Norfolk earnestly trusts that the telegrams, which have passed between us will have induced the Canadian Post Office to postpone the change announced - even as a provisional measure - until the views of the Colonies in general have been elicited and the question has been fully discussed with such representative as you might appoint."

Apparently, the Duke of Norfolk then contacted the Canadian Government to further express his displeasure about the actions taken by Postmaster General Mulock. In other words, Mulock was in trouble with London. It is clear that Mulock took matters into his own hands. He seems to have interpreted a request for opinions as permission to make changes and initiated action before the British Post Office was ready to act.

The Duke of Norfolk then offered to call a conference to determine if the Colonies would agree to a reduced rate. Several lengthy letters flowed back and forth between December 24 and December 31, 1897 in which Mulock backed down. But because the new rate had been advertised, some letters were already in the system using the new rate.

On December 31, 1897, an eight page letter [11] by R. M. Coulter repeated much of the background, trying to justify Canada's precipitous action, and trying to establish a position of equalizing the postage rate between Canada and the United States. The letter concludes:

"The remedy, however, rests exclusively with the Imperial Authorities, Canada consenting to such reduction as they may determine."

References

[1] National Archives, Canada. The Saturday Review, Sep. 28, 1895, p 404. RG 3/3296, Appendix F.

[2] National Archives, Canada. Debates, British House of Commons, 28 April 1893. RG 3/3296, Appendix B.

[3] National Archives, Canada. Extracts, U.S. Post Office Reports 1891-1894. RG 3/3296, Appendix I.

[4] Winmill, W. B., 1982. The Evolution of Imperial Penny Postage and the Postal History of the Canadian 1898 Map Stamp. Jim Hennok Ltd.,Toronto.

[5] Kay, F. George. 1951. Royal Mail., Rockliff Publishing Corporation Ltd.

[6] National Archives, Canada. Memorandum on Imperial Penny Post. RG 3/3296.

[7] National Archives, Canada. The Times. Feb. 11, 1893. RG 3/3296, Appendix A.

[8] Cabeen, Richard McP., 1957. Standard Handbook of Stamp Collecting. Crowell.

[9] Howes, Clifton A., 1911. Canadian Postage Stamps and Stationery. New England Stamp Co.; reprint 1974. Quarterman Publications Inc., pp 177-187.

[10] National Archives, Canada. Sub-Committee of Vienna Postal Congress 1891. RG 3/3296, Appendix C

[11] National Archives, Canada, Record Group 3, files 3296/; 2749/; 2749/7.

[12] The Saturday Review. Feb. 25, 1893, p 202.

[13] Public Archives, Canada. Guide to Canadian Ministries Since Confederation; July 1, 1867 to February 1, 1982.

[14] National Archives, Canada. Minutes Postal Convention, 1891. RG 3/3296, Appendix D.

Lew Ludlow's **RPO Cowcatcher**

William G. Robinson

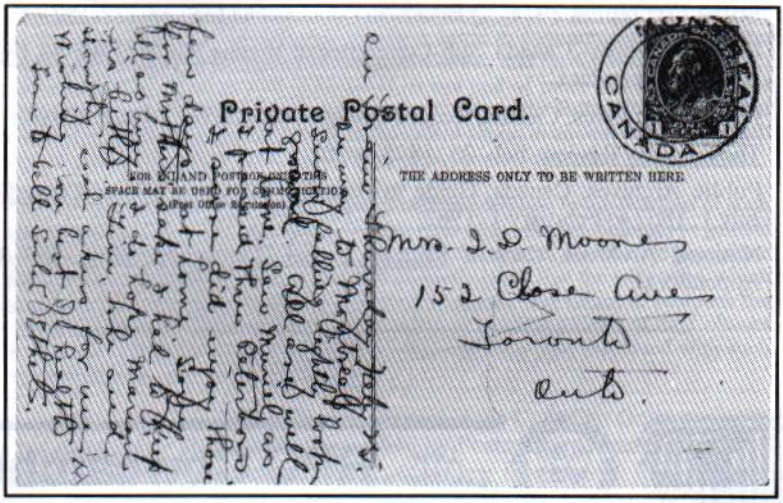
Ludlow Listing No. TS-330

This listing in the Ticket Stamp section of the Catalogue of Canadian Railway Cancellations was made in 1981—based on a report of a C.P.R. cover addressed to an official in Sarnia, Ontario. Having recently seen a copy of this cover, I can state that there is actually no "Tr." on the marking as was included in the listing. It actually says "No.357." The assumption was apparently made that this represented a train Number, so the "Tr." should have been shown in brackets—as an assumption that the "No.357" represented a train number.

After reflecting about this for some time, I think this must be a Montreal post office clerk hammer, and shouldn't be listed. Train 357 was a pool train which left Quebec City daily at 11:55 p.m., and arrived in Montreal at 7:30 a.m. the following morning. The listing cover was apparently mailed in Montreal, and was addressed to Sarnia, Ontario. Train 357 did not run west of Montreal, so that number in the marking must represent a Montreal post office clerk number, rather than a train number. Also, the type of hammer is an exception to Ludlow's Type 6F—see page 244 of the Catalogue of Canadian Railway Cancellations, 1982.

Study Group members were asked to comment about this in Newsletter No. 130, July, 1997, and nothing has been received to contradict this opinion. Accordingly, Listing TS-330 will be deleted in Annex XVII to the Catalogue.

Another example (shown here) recently appeared on a tourist postcard written on a train between Peterborough and Montreal, and mailed on arrival in Montreal. It is dated February 25—no year is shown, but it must be 1915 or earlier as it is franked with a one-cent Admiral, Scott No. 104. The postcard rate changed to two cents on April 15, 1915.



This card originated west of Montreal, where no train 357 existed. An eastbound train would also have had an even number. The card appears to have been mailed in Montreal, and placed in the normal bagged mail stream to Toronto. The additional example thus provides confirmation of the theory that this double-ring marking was used by a mail clerk in Montreal, rather than by a railway mail clerk on a train running into Montreal from Quebec City.

The Study Group is always glad to receive information such as this which enables us to verify or exclude known markings, or to list additional markings. Please let us have your reports.

Presentation Books for the 1984 * 1989 * 1994 Universal Postal Union Congresses

Jerome C. Jarnick

Since 1969 the member nations of the Universal Postal Union have met in Congress at five year intervals for the purpose of establishing the rules for the exchange of mail between countries. If has been a long standing custom for the delegates to the Congress to present a souvenir of their nation's postage stamps to the other delegates. For over fifty years, the Canadian delegation has presented a small booklet or album, manufactured especially for that purpose, to the other delegates.

The 19th Congress of the Universal Postal Union convened in Hamburg, Federal Republic of Germany, during the period June 18 to July 27, 1984. At this Congress, the Canadian delegation presented a boxed set of the 1979 through 1983 Annual Souvenir Collections. The souvenir collections were those prepared by Canada Post and sold to collectors through the Philatelic Service. They were contained in a special 230 mm x 290 mm x 40 mm, grey, cardboard box (Figure 1). The top is decorated with a large multicolored maple leaf, formed by multicolored dots and the inscription

Figure 1: The 1984 (Hamburg) Presentation Book

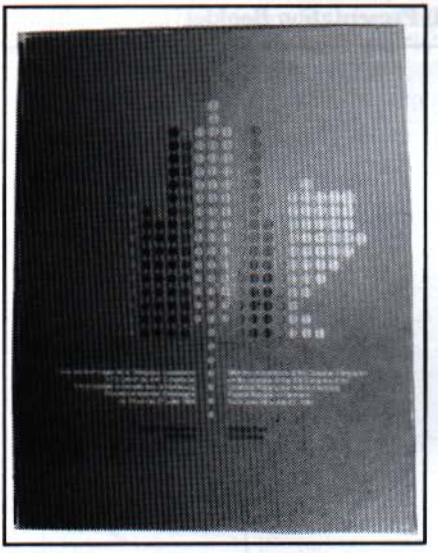
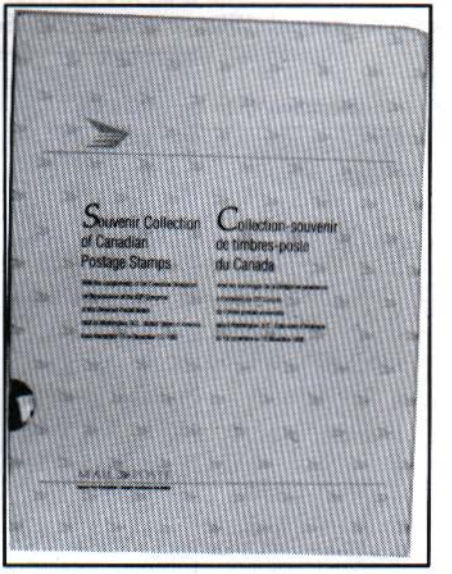


Figure 2: The 1989 (Washington) Presentation Book



Avec les hommages de la Délégation canadienne
à l'occasion du XIXe Congrès de
l'Union postale universelle tenu à Hambourg,
République fédérale d'Allemagne
du 18 juin au 27 juillet 1984

With the compliments of the Canadian Delegation
on the occasion of the XIX Congress of the
Universal Postal Union in Hamburg,
Federal Republic of Germany
From June 18 to July 27, 1984

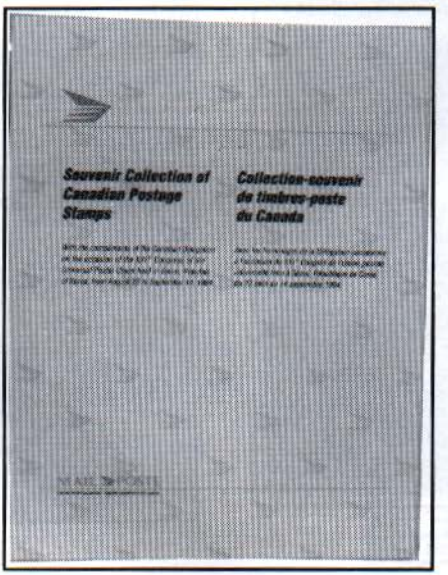
The box opens from the top and is cloth hinged at the right. All of the presentation books seen by the author show signs of wear on the right side where the paper has separated from the cloth hinge as a result of the lightweight cardboard used and the hinging arrangement.

For the 20th Congress, held in Washington, D.C. from November 13 to December 15, 1989, Canada Post continued with a set of five of the Annual Souvenir Collections in their soft bindings, but encased them in a heavy library-type slip case. The slip case is silver gray cloth with a repeated pattern of the Mail Poste logo in grey (Figure 2). It measures 230 mm x 295 mm x 40 mm and contains the souvenir collections from 1984 through 1988. The Mail Poste logos are shown in red and the inscription, in dark blue, reads:

Souvenir collection
of Canadian
Postage Stamps
With the compliments of the Canadian Delegation
on the occasion of the XXth Congress
of the Universal Postal Union
held in Washington, D.C., United States of America,
from November 13 to December 15, 1989.

Collection-souvenir
de timbres-poste
du Canada
Avec les hommages de la Délégation canadienne
à l'occasion du XXe Congrès
de l'Union postale universelle
tenu à Washington, D.C., États-Unis d'Amérique,
du 13 novembre au 15 décembre 1989.

Figure 3: The 1994 (Seoul) Presentation Booklet



The last Congress held to date, the 21st, took place in Seoul, Korea from August 22 to September 14, 1994. Again a slip case containing the Annual Souvenir Collections from 1989 through 1993 were included. The silver gray slip case is almost identical to that issued for the 1989 Congress, except that it measures 230 mm x 295 mm x 75 mm, the additional width being needed to accommodate the five hard bound souvenir collections (Figure 3). In addition to the souvenir collections, a pane of the Canada in Space (hologram) issue of October 1, 1992, mounted in a grey card folder, is included. The slipcase bears the Mail Poste logos in red and dark blue inscription:

Souvenir collection
of Canadian
Postage Stamps
With the compliments of the Canadian Delegation
on the occasion of the XXIst Congress
of the Universal Postal Union held in Seoul, Republic
of Korea, from August 22 to September 1994.

Collection-souvenir
de timbres-poste
du Canada
Avec les hommages de la Délégation canadienne
à l'occasion du XXIe Congrés de l'Union postale
universelle tenu à Séoul, République de Corée,
du 22 août au 14 septembre 1994.

The Steinhart Legacy

Allan L. Steinhart

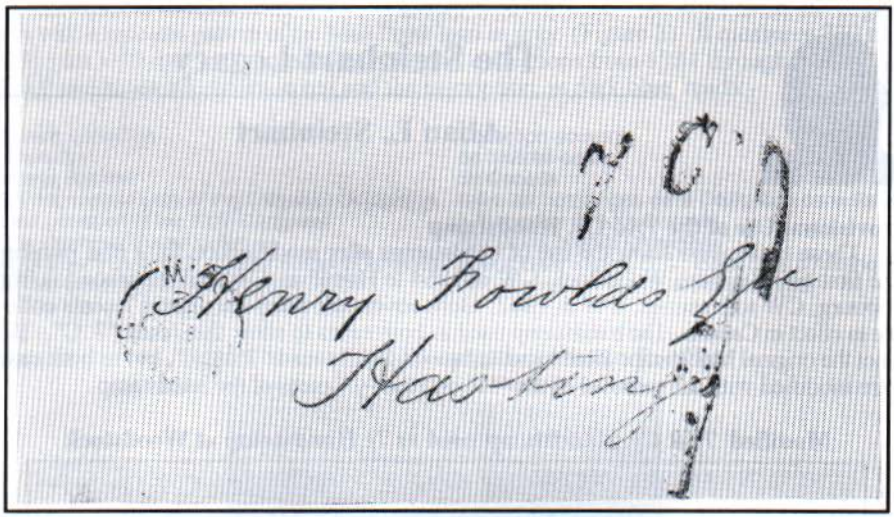
Provisional Use of the 7½d Cy. Handstamp

These two covers show the use of handstamps after modification for a new purpose. The first cover is from Woodstock, CW in 1864 to Hamilton, CW and the second is from Cobourg, CW to Hastings, CW in 1862. Both covers are rated the unpaid 7 cents collect rate in effect in Canada. The handstamp used in both cases to show this reads "7 C". This is not the original handstamp. Both handstamps originally read "7½ Cy.", but in both cases were modified with the removal of the "½" and the "y." parts of the handstamp.

Modified 7½d Cy. Handstamp used as 7¢ Handstamp at Woodstock

The "7½ Cy." handstamp was originally manufactured and issued to show the 7½ Cy. rate for a single letter between Canada and Great Britain carried by the Allan Line of Canadian steamers, although they did have other unusual uses. They are recorded used only at Toronto and Montreal as Arnell E10, and in use in the period 1856-1859. They were used generally to indicate collect postage in Canada, and were supposed to be in black. Because of the change in rate, after April 1, 1859 all Canada-Great Britain mails by this route were prepaid or penalties were applied. Tthere was no 7½ Cy. transatlantic collect rate applicable as this collect rate would be 7½ Cy. + 7½ penalty. With the change to decimal money, this rate became 12½¢ plus 12½¢, or 25¢. As a result the numerous 7½ Cy. handstamps held by the post office became redundant, and were either issued modified in this new configuration or were issued as made and modified locally. Offices other than Woodstock and Cobourg also had modified 7½ Cy. handstamps.

Modified 7½d Cy. Handstamp used as 7¢ Handstamp at Cobourg



In Memoriam - Lewis M. Ludlow OTB, FRPSL, FCPS

Lewis M. Ludlow passed away after a long illness on September 1, 1997 at his home in Kirkland, WA. A Past-President of BNAPS, he was inducted into the Order of the Beaver in 1983. Lew was made a Fellow of the Royal Philatelic Society of London in 1980 and in 1986 received the same honour from the Canadian Philatelic Society of Great Britain. Author of the landmark 1982 Catalogue of Canadian Railway Cancellations and Related Transportation Postmarks, he also received the Grand Award at BNAPEX '86 for his Pence Issues of Canada. Lew is survived by his wife Mac and their children. Since being stricken in April 1990, his hard work, influence and friendship have been greatly missed. (Note: A longer memorial article will be found in BNAPortraitS, Vol. 5, No. 1, Nov. 1997.)

New Issues

William J. F. Wilson

There have been a lot of new stamps issued since the last column. The ones which stand out in my own mind as being particularly attractive are Cabot's Voyage, the Law Society stamp, the Knights of Columbus, and the Year of Asia Pacific. Both the Cabot and the Asia Pacific stamps are map stamps, but both maps are distorted compared to reality —the Atlantic (Cabot's Voyage) and Pacific (Asia Pacific stamp) Oceans have been considerably narrowed, and Greenland has been merged with North America on the Cabot stamp. It is not mentioned in Canada's Stamp Details whether the map on the Cabot stamp is an actual early map or a creation by the stamp designer. Any map experts in the crowd? In any case, it gives a nice sense of the historical event. The same design was issued sumultaneously by Canada and Italy.

Canada Post re-issued the 3¢ Berries definitive on May 2, 1997, printed by Ashton-Potter Canada Ltd on Coated Paper. The previous printings were by Ashton-Potter Limited (the predecessor company) on Coated Paper, CBN on Harrison paper, and CBN on Coated Paper. This just leaves the 6¢ to be printed by Ashton-Potter Canada Ltd.

The comb perforations on modern Canadian stamps can sometimes cause an error in measuring the guage of the perforations. Each comb perforator has one long row of perforations with several short rows of perforations at right angles to these, looking somewhat like the teeth on a comb. If the long row produces the horizontal perforations, then the short rows would produce the vertical perforations (or vice versa). The perforations for the entire sheet are produced by several such combs mounted next to each other. The potential error arises if the combs are not precisely aligned, so that the perforation tooth between combs is narrower or wider than the teeth within the comb. If this narrower or wider tooth is within the markings on the guage and the guage is set so the marks coincide with the perforations on one comb, the perforations along the adjacent comb will be misaligned with the guage marks by a constant amount, the jump occuring at the odd-width tooth. (The odd-width tooth can be at a stamp corner, as in the Ocean Water Fishes stamp, or part way along the side of a stamp, as in the Year of Asia Pacific stamp.)

The danger comes from the temptation to just align the first and last marks on the guage with perforations, and not check what happens in between. I found this yet again in measuring the stamp perforations for this column. I measure the length and width of the stamp (in fact the length and width reported in Canada's Stamp Details for each issue are accurate), and count the number of teeth along each edge. The perforation, P, is then given by the formula $P = 20N/L$, where N is the number of teeth along one edge of the stamp, and L is the length of this edge in mm. (The formula comes from the definition that the perforation guage of a stamp equals the number of perforation holes (or teeth) in a 20 mm distance.) I also check the result with an Instanta guage. The two values must come out the same within uncertainty, or I have done something wrong. For the Ocean Water Fishes stamp, the formula gave 13.1 and the Instanta guage gave 13.2, and for the Asia Pacific stamp the formula gave 13.33 and the Instanta guage gave 13.5. These are too far apart to be correct, but too close to have been an error in counting the number of teeth (try using the formula to verify this—use the height listed in Table 1, and vary N by 1 each way from the listed value). In fact, the discrepancy turned out to be exactly that described in the first sentence of this paragraph, the key observation being that the perforations lined up with the marks for a continuous sequence of marks, then suddenly shifted so that the rest of the marks

were misaligned with the perforations by a small but constant amount. From there, it was easy to spot the odd-width tooth, and the problem was cured (the guage gave the same result as the formula) by shifting the guage to avoid this tooth.

The following information is from Canada Post's booklet, Canada's Stamp Details. Size, perforations, and number of teeth are my own measurements, and are given as (HORIZONTAL) x (VERTICAL). All stamps in the table are commemoratives. The data for the Asia Pacific stamp are given after Table 2.

TABLE 1

Issue	Law Society	Ocean Water Fish	Confederation Bridge	Guilles Villeneuve	John Cabot
Value	45¢	4 x 45¢ s-t	2 x 45¢ s-t	SH: 45¢, 90¢ SS: 45¢+90¢ s-t	45¢
Issued	23 May 97	30 May 97	31 May 97	12 June 97	24 June 97
Printer	CBN	A-P	CBN	CBN	A-P
Quantity (stamps)	7MM	10MM	8MM	45¢: 14MM 90¢: 10MM	9MM
Size (mm)	30 x 40	48 x 30.5	48 x 27.5	48 x 27.5	40 x 23
Paper	CP	CP	CP	CP	CP
Process	5CL+varnish	4CL*	6CL	7CL	6CL
Pane	20	20	20	SH: 16; SS: 8	20
Tag	G4S	G4S	G4S	G4S	G4S
Gum	PVA	PVA	PVA	PVA	PVA
Perf	13.3 x 13.0	12.5 x 13.1	12.5 x 13.1	12.5 x 13.1	12.5 x 13.1
Teeth	20 x 26	30 x 20	30 x 18	30 x 18	25 x 15

* Canada's Stamp Details (Vol. VI No. 3 1997) lists the process for the Ocean Water Fish stamps as 6CL, but the stamp selvedge shows only four colour dots.

TABLE 2

Issue	Scenic Highways	Industrial Design	Highland Games	Knights of Columbus	World Congress	Year of Asia Pacific
Value	4 x 45¢ s-t	45¢	45¢	45¢	45¢	45¢
Issued	30 June 97	23 July 97	1 Aug. 97	4 Aug. 97	18 Aug. 97	25 Aug. 97
Printer	CBN	CBN	CBN	CBN	CBN	CBN
Quantity (stamps)	7.5MM	7MM	8MM	7MM	7MM	7MM
Size (mm)	56 x 27.5	48 x 27.5	48 x 27.5	26 x 32	40 x 26	48 x 30
Paper	CP	CP	CP	CP	CP	CP
Process	6CL	6CL	6CL	6CL	6CL	5CL
Pane	20	24	20	25	20	20
Tag	G4S	G4S	G4S	G4S	G4S	G4S
Gum	PVA	PVA	PVA	PVA	PVA	PVA
Perf	12.5 x 13.1	12.5 x 13.1	12.5 x 13.1	13.1 x 13.1	13.0 x 13.1	13.3 x 13.3.
Teeth	35 x 18	30 x 18	30 x 18	17 x 21	26 x 17	32 x 20

ABBREVIATIONS: 4(5,6,7)CL = four (five, six, seven) colour lithography; A-P = Ashton-Potter; CBN = Canadian Bank Note Company; CP = Coated Papers; G4S = general tagging (four sides); MM = million; s-t = se-tenent; SH = sheet stamps; SS = souvenir sheet.

Postal Pot-pourri

Earle L. Covert

In this column we will talk about new things to be bought at the Post Office and things salvaged from the garbage.

Garbage or discards in the waste basket can make very interesting exhibition material. Let me make it clear from the start that I am not opposed to buying old and often expensive material from dealers. But some of the material we will describe in this column can't be found in most dealers' stocks. Recently I have had fun showing material which I saved from the waste basket in our home, the office and from friends. Keep your eyes open and when you see a postal item you haven't seen or don't know what it is—salvage it. The worst some one can say when you ask for it is "NO" or perhaps even make fun of you, but who cares—people collect odd things.

Perhaps they will even try to humour you. Some people who previously couldn't care less have started to bring me different items they haven't seen and say "You need this." Accept it with thanks and take it. You can dispose of it later if it is useless to you.

Look for free items in the Post Office. Get a receipt when you buy something at a Post Office. The smaller offices have handwritten receipts with a hand stamped dater. The R.P.O.'s (Retail Postal Outlets not Railway Post Offices) have a machine tape generated by their SIEMENS – NIXDORF machine.

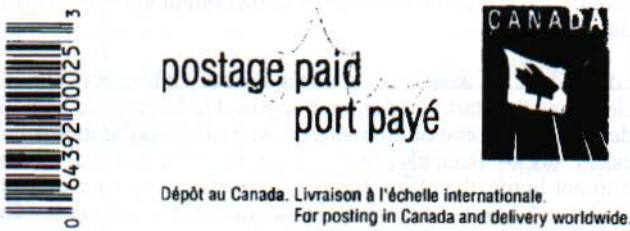
When I was buying some postal stationery at BNAPEX'97 to use to get the three show cancels, I got a receipt tape. It has the "MAIL (winged logo) POSTE" in red at the top, then in violet "BNAPEX'97 BOURSE / ST. JOHN'S 097829 / NEWFOUNDLAND" then the date and time followed by the details of the purchase.

New postal rates for almost everything but first class mail went into effect October 1, 1997. These rates were for Priority Courier, Xpresspost and SkyPak (including the prepaids for these 3 services), surface parcels (Domestic, USA and International), and Security Registered (Domestic and all registration to the USA and international destinations). The rate charts are just staggering—for instance in Priority Courier from the Prairies there are 36 rate categories (depending on the postal code of the places of origin and destination and whether it is a counter rate or small business rate) and 60 weight steps. The rates go from $9.30 for 500 grams to $186.66 for 30 kg. In some cases the rate differences are only 1¢ ($186.65 compared to $186.66). There are 3 other sets of charts for use with other classes of service and there are other rate charts for B.C., Ontario, Quebec and Atlantic Canada.

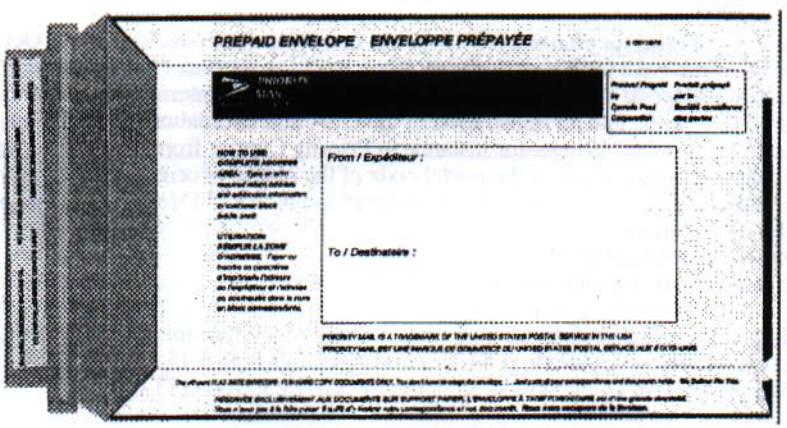
Mail to the USA is charged at 3 rates. The surface rate for 5 kg from Calgary to Montana is $10.80, to Colorado is $12.15 and to Illinois is $14.45. The greatest charge I found was to send 30 kg by SkyPak to Egypt for $1018.50 (no GST charged).

The Postcard Factory (a commercial printer and distributor of picture post cards) and Canada Post have teamed up in July 1997 to produce 25 different (so far) prepaid (to anywhere in the world) post cards. They have an undenominated Flag stamp. These cards have been available through the Philatelic Service in Antingonish or through some of the usual Postcard Factory outlets—for instance along the Sparks Street Mall in Ottawa. The Philatelic outlets has been charging $5.00 plus taxes for packs containing five 5 different views while the cards have been selling retail at $1.25 to $1.49 apiece. Even at the $1.49

price it is a reasonable deal. The post card rate to Japan is 90¢ and that leaves 59¢ for the actual card. These are selling in Banff at 60¢ to 75¢ for a card of this size. We will see more of these attractive postal stationery items after this experiment is over, I believe, in February 1998. (Late note: cards with ten more views were released in autumn 1997.)



Much more surprising was the response I got on the morning of October 15, when I asked in my local R.P.O. "What is new?". I expected to hear about Halloween stamps but the clerk said we introduced this yesterday, and pointed to a display on the counter offering US Priority Mail PREPAID envelopes. They are available as a test in Calgary, Vancouver, Toronto and Montreal from October 14 to December 31, 1997. There are 2 sizes—6" x 10" for $7.25 and 9½" x 12½" at $9.75 with no taxes charged. They can only be used to send documents (no computer discs) and there is no guarantee on delivery although 3-4 days is suggested to major U.S. destinations. U.S. "Priority Mail" ***within*** the U.S.A. is normally a 2-day service, approximately equivalent to Canadian Xpressmail, and is not equivalent to Canada's Priority Post. So far, prepaid Priority Mail envelopes are not available in the U.S. On the literature for postal clerks it states these are a USPS product purchased by Canada Post Corporation. On the address side of the envelope it is stated "Product Prepaid by Canada Post Corporation." The envelopes are completely bilingual except for "PRIORITY MAIL" and "UNITED STATES POSTAL SERVICE™."



Next time we will discuss items salvaged from the trash can (unless Canada Post again introduces a number of unusual items).

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Flag Cancels: John G. Robertson, 10 Pergola Rd., Rexdale, ON M9W 5K5
Military Mail: Bill Bailey, #5 - 8191 Francis Rd, Richmond, BC V6Y 1A5
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First Day Covers: Pierre Ethier, 101 McDonald Drive, #246, Aurora, ON L4G 3M2 (email: pierre@sprint.ca)
Miscellaneous Cancels and Markings: Any member wishing to help organize this new study group please contact Doug Lingard at (613) 737-4864 or at the address above.

On The Fringes

Another summer has passed and another Convention has come and gone. The St. John's gathering was one of the largest conventions for a number of years. For this, and for the hospitality extended to the many visitors, Don Wilson and his committee have to be congratulated. Apart from the convention being well attended, the exhibits were over subscribed and were of very good quality. Of interest to the study groups will be a letter from the Judging Committee seeking nominees for prospective judges from amongst those members of the Study Groups wishing to let their names stand. Doug Lingard and myself also chaired a Study Group Meeting at which a number of topics were discussed—membership, the difficulty editors face in obtaining material, suggestions of how to cajole members to give their newsletter tangible support.

Over the summer months the number of newsletters received has diminished but there

is nonetheless a substantial cross-section of material. We start with the July offering from the Postal Stationery group It contains information on some new items—two more 45¢ envelopes, a #8 featuring the Western Grebe and a #10 featuring the Western Bluebird. Two more envelopes initiating a Canadian Highways series were due to be released sometime in September. Also the Xpresspost prepaid labels essays were discussed. The newsletter then continued with more information on the Bulova project and concluded with an item on the Newfoundland 2¢ 1879 U.P.U. post card essay from the British American Bank Note Company archives.

The August edition of the B.N.A. Perforator contained a number of items. Mark Fennel discussed the perfins found on the 7¢ Canada Goose airmail booklet pane (Scott #C9a) and there was a piece by Patrick Durbano on the airmail perfins of Canada and Newfoundland. Steve Koning indicates that he is prepared to coordinate the publication of an anthology of significant articles from past editions. Mark Fennel is searching for information about perfins peculiar to Calgary for inclusion in an anthology on the postal history of Calgary being prepared by the Calgary Regional Group of BNAPS.

August saw the arrival of the Military Mail Newsletter which contained the usual potpourri of items on all facets of Canadian Military postal history. John Campbell and Doug Sayles sent in a piece on Central Camp Petawawa between 1905 and 1913. Doug Sayles also contributed an article on Canadian Army Priority Casualty Envelopes used during the Second World War. This is followed by a posthumous piece by E.R. Toop on the same subject. The latest Toop and Bailey book published by C.G. Firby is now ready. Wayne Curtis has sent in some additions to the Union Oil Co. postcards, and a number of readers have sent in additions to the small "Crown over Circle" censor listing. Robert Toombs sent some examples of NATO related mail and, finally, pictures of more of Ken Ellison's Canadian humorous postcards from the Netherlands are presented. There was also an example of the cancel from the Canadian Forces P.O. (MPO/BPM 400) established in Winnipeg this past spring for members of the Armed Forces who were sent in to cope with the "Flood of the Century." The August copy of "Confederation" arrived with more on the 6¢ small queen 12 x 11.5 by John Jamieson who concludes that the stamp illustrated in the March '97 issue has been reperfed. John Ribbler sent in a piece on horizontal and vertical mesh papers used for the printing of small queens. There is a short piece on the Kiusalas Gauge. (This imperial measure perforation gauge is gaining a greater acceptance by many collectors, and has generated much discussion and a number of articles over the past months). John Burnett contributed a piece on the 5¢ U.P.U. rate to Egypt used on mail to Major Huberet Nielson with the Canadian Voyageurs. This group served in Egypt in 1884-1885, and conveyed the relief column up the Nile to Khartoum. The newsletter concludes with two of my favourite small Queen trans-Pacific covers.

From the Squared Circle Group the August offering contains a further update on the roster project with Hamilton being the next city to be tackled. There is a continuation of Jim Miller's article on Orbs. Due to the shortage of contributions there were only a couple of short notes on new sightings and a discussion of the Bobcaygeon town cancel. The Slogan Box for July and August contains an article on "Community Chest - United Way- Red Feather - Related Slogans," complete with listings of dates of usage. This is followed by a similar piece on education related slogans. From the Fancy Cancel group there is wide range of items (including illustrations of "Bogey Heads") submitted by a number of contributors. There is also an illustration of a "crown over registered" mark found on transatlantic mail, with a query as to whether this is Canadian or British. I can answer that one! It is a G.P.O. London marking, and is found on most early overseas registered correspondence. The September October *Slogan Box* contains a piece on the SQUARE

DANCE SASKATCHEWAN 1967 Slogan, used between June 6th and July 19th. This is followed by the St. Catharines Regatta Slogans 1920, 1963-1965. The balance of the newsletter consists of an updated listing by Steven A. Friedenthal of Canadian Slogan Cancels 1897-1919.

In the R.P.O. Newsletter for August '97, devoted to Newfoundland transportation history, were a number of items submitted by Don Wilson on such topics as: the "Early Postal History of Newfoundland" from an address by the Rev. Hugh Kirby of Harbour Grace submitted to the Historical Society of Harbour Grace 1940. This is followed by a piece taken from the *Mariner*, (Sept. 94) on Newfoundland Coastal Steamers, with extracts from Newfoundland Railway Coastal Steamer Schedules. Another piece recounted the first trial railway run in 1882 from Donovans to St. Johns—a distance of about 8 miles. There was also a short article on the Newfoundland Centennial Train. The newsletter was rounded out with an article by R.A.J. Miller on "The Labrador Mails." The Transatlantic Group Newsletter for August '97 continued its discourse on money letters and registered letters to overseas destinations with a listing of destinations to which registered mail would be accepted from (pre U.P.U) 1837 to (post U.P.U.) 1898.

The *Flag Pole* for June-July '97 starts off with a scurrilous article complete with illustrations? by that trickster and prankster Sally Flagstaff who managed to send the uninitiated into a frenzy looking for the illusive phantom "New Bickerdike Midget Cancel!" after 100 years. I am assured by Doug Lingard this does not exist, so any one still looking should stop now and take another look at the date line of Sally's article - April 1st.! On the more serious side, the newsletter continues with an article by Mike Rixon on Toronto "01" dater hubs. The Revenue Group's September '97 issue is devoted to an exhaustive article by Chris Ryan on "Ontario Luxury Tax [tax stamps] on Beverages."

I am happy to report that the Re-Entry Study Group has been successful in finding a new chairperson and editor to take over from Ralph Trimble. John Jamieson is now the president, secretary-treasurer and W. A. MacDonald is the new editor. The first edition of the newsletter under the new regime starts of with an article on the half cent small Queen which asks the question "Is there a Fourth State?" Reiche and Sendbuehier only listed three states. *The Corgi Times* for July and August 1997 contains the usual pot-pourri of articles on modern Queen Elizabeth II material. Margaret Chartrand, however, submitted an article of general interest to all collectors entitled "The Making of a Stamp." Other articles of specialized interest included John Jamieson on "The Wilding Issues - Unique Postal History Piece" (a 2¢ Wilding paying the printed matter rate on a 1961 Fertile Valley Annual Fair Prize List for 1961). John Hillmer wrote on "Borden Precancel Errors" on Caricature and Landscape issues. Eppe Bosch presented "Unusual Markings/Stamps & a Short Story" on the Environments issue and then there were three pieces on the commemoratives: "Varieties on the Canadian Tire Issue" by George Yarkie, "More on Semi-Postals" by Paul Tessington, and "O Canada' Miniature Pane - A Correction" by Harry Voss.

That completes the round up for this time, and as there will not be another issue of *Topics* until the New Year it just remains for me to wish one and all a very Merry Christmas and prosperous New Year. Happy Hunting and may your Christmas stocking be full of all the goodies you ever wanted.

There is a note just in from the Military Study Group regarding their upcoming Second Annual Auction of Military related material. The closing date for lots to be submitted is January 23, 1998. For further information & terms and conditions contact auctioneer Jon Johnson at 9604 Kalamalka Road, Vernon B.C., V1B 1L3.

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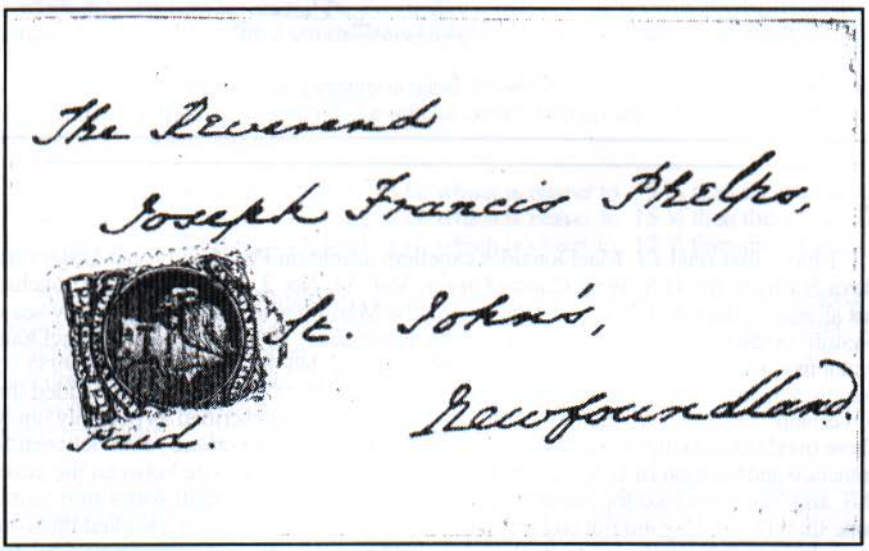
Readers Speak

This is a column where the readers of TOPICS can express their views, ask questions, and add information to previously published articles.

Sir;

The 12½¢ covers to Newfoundland covers shown below supplement the list recently given by George Arfken [1]. Figure 1 shows a cover that is similar to that recorded as cover #2 in the Arfken table, sent to the same addressee and received on the same date (ed. note: but probably not the identical cover because the item listed by George Arfken is described as a "front"). The cover was mailed from Fredericton and is backstamped St. John's Newfoundland, April 12, 1868 and with a portion of a Halifax oval. This cover shows very early usage of the stamp issued April 1 (if it travelled by the same route as the cover in Figure 2, it was mailed April 5 at the latest).

Figure 1 (Saint): April 1868, Fredericton, N.B. to St. John's Newfoundland



The second cover (as shown on the following page) was also mailed to Rev. Phelps from Fredericton. Although the post offices were ordered to no longer sell New Brunswick stamps as of April 1, 1868 [2] (the offices were also, at the same time, authorized to accept such stamps for "a reasonable time"), a few covers postmarked after this date bearing New Brunswick stamps have survived. The cover was postmarked SP 7, 1868, and is backstamped Moncton (September 8), Halifax (September 9) and St. John's Newfoundland (September 14).

References

[1] Arfken, G.B., "The 12½¢ Rate to Newfoundland," BNA Topics Vol. 53, No. 1, 23-28 (1996).

[2] Boggs, W.S., "The Postage Stamps and Postal History of Canada, Vol. II," Chambers Publishing Company, Kalamzoo (1945), p, 30-B.

Ronald Saint

Figure 2 (Saint): September 1868, Fredericton, N.B. to St. John's Newfoundland

Sir;

I have just read J.J. MacDonald's excellent article on Post Gold Rush Letters from Nova Scotia to the U.S. West Coast (*Topics*, Vol. 54, No. 2, 1997, p. 5). He concludes that all mail in the late 1850s and 1860s from the Maritimes to California went by sea *via* Boston or New York and Panama to San Francisco. In his Postscript, MacDonald mentions a note on Overland Mail in the *PHSC Journal*, No. 82, pp. 192-193 (1995) . As one of the contributors to that note, I can perhaps clarify its point. This note added three "Overland" examples to one that Bob Carr had previously described as possibly unique. These overland markings would refer only to the United States overland route between San Francisco and the eastern U.S. The note says that the Overland route between the eastern U.S. and San Francisco for pre-confederation British Columbia mail was a rare route. I hope that its wording did not suggest that a great proportion of mail travelled that route. Deaville's *Colonial Postal Systems* (p. 21 and p. 42) says that after 1849 mail from Canada and the United Kingdom came by sea to Vancouver Island through New York, Panama, and San Francisco. Late in 1859 (there was a typo of 1858 in the PHSC Journal note), the United States government agreed to carry Canadian letters overland. However, this was not an entirely satisfactory route, and some letters were lost. Deaville and MacDonald both comment that the overland route did not save much time compared to ship *via* Panama. The situation that continued until 1869, when the railway was completed between San Francisco and Chicago, was that some letters were carried overland but most letters and all parcels and newspapers were carried through Panama. A few covers in the 1860s from B.C. to Canada bear Chicago transit marks, and therefore also went overland. Most covers bear no indication of their route. For my covers, I assume that any mail before about September 1859 came *via* Panama, and that from September 1859 until the

completion of the Union Pacific Railroad in May 1869, covers were carried by Panama unless otherwise indicated. We will require help from our colleagues who study U.S. postal history of this era so that we can perhaps recognize other overland covers. Perhaps the finding of a half dozen or so overland covers involving B.C. is just an indication that there are more transcontinental B.C. covers than Maritime-to-west coast covers. Yes, there is much to be learned on the topic of transcontinental mail of this period. My only cover between the Maritimes and Vancouver Island was mailed in Victoria to Halifax, and bears a Victoria, V.I. crown oval and PAID. The U.S. stamps were cancelled in San Francisco on NOV 25, 1861. There is a U STATES / C arc in red, which Allan Steinhart told me was applied on a coastal steamer (probably Cunard) between Boston and Halifax. Finally, there's a Halifax oval H/DE 30/1861/NS receiver.

Gray Scrimgeour

Sir;

Richard Kiusalas developed two gauges based on the Imperial system of measurement, the one to match United States perforations, the other Canadian. Each provides a pair of numbers for each perforation variety, *e.g.* 11-72 on the former or 12-66 on the latter. The second number is the actual number of thousandths of an inch that the perforations were separated. The first is related to the standard perforation specification (the Standard Gauge, S.G., based on the 2 cm measure) found in many catalogues, including Scott's.

If the first number in these pairings is taken to be the *equivalent* of the standard gauge to the nearest ½, then there appear to be several errors, two on the United States gauge and one on the Canadian, namely:

United States:	81 thou = 9.7210	S.G. which is nearer to	9 ½ than the 10 shown
	51 thou = 15.4392	S.G. which is nearer to	15 ½ than the 15 shown
Canada:	64 thou = 12.3031	S.G. which is closer to	12 ½ than the 12 shown.

What is surprising is that Kiusalas knew this! In his article which introduced the gauges and provided the rationale for their use (*Specialized Perforation Gauges*, The United States Specialist, February 1966, pp. 60, 61), he presented detailed tables that show these discrepancies explicitly. He allowed that a change to his gauge "would also be a bit too revolutionary, so a little compromise is in order." Here is how he goes on to describe the number pair:

> "A system of classification that would use the present listing in Scott's Catalogue, combined with our system, seemed ideal. Thus, perf 72 would be classifies as an 11-72, and although the latter number is the only number of real significance in identifying this particular perforation, the former number is very helpful in identifying the stamp."

This clearly did not state that the former was the S.G. *equivalent* of the Kiusalas' gauge number. But what else could it mean? Did Kiusalas have some reference set of United States or Canadian stamps in mind for which the former numbers were their perforations as listed in Scott's Catalogue. If that was the case, he neither commented on it further or identified any such set. And, if the equivalent was really what he intended, how does one explain the three discrepancies identified above—and his apparently deliberate inclusion of them in his tables?

Furthermore, if he had identified such a reference set, that is one that justified the pairings on his gauges, what would he have done with another stamp which perfs the same on his gauge but is identified differently (than the 'reference' stamp) in Scott's Catalogue?

The inescapable conclusion seems to be that in order to use these gauges in a way related to the Standard Gauge, the numbers for these three pairs should be corrected to read "9 ½ - 81", "15 ½ - 51", and "12 ½ - 64", respectively (whatever, Kuisalas meant). My own bias is to use only the Kiusalas Gauges for determining the perforations on the stamps of the United States, Canada (both before and after confederation) and several issues of Latin American countries for which the same perforating machines were used.

R. A. Johnson

Sir;

Envelopes used by the Canadian Dead Letter Office from the late 1800s to the 1970s come in many different varieties and sizes, and many types have an identifying form number (*e.g.*, 1D.L.(g), 5D, 5½D, 6D, 12½DL). Each type appears to have been used for a specific purpose (*e.g.*, "5D½" is a bilingual envelopes used to return a normal small size envelope to its sender). The question is: for what use was each envelope type intended? The type designations used on envelopes for particular purposes were sometimes changed. Occasionally, a designation type seems to have been reassigned to an envelope used for a different purpose. Any information would be appreciated.

Marc Eisenberg

Sir;

I have just read Horace Harrison's article dealing with octagonal registration marks (*Topics* Vol. 54 #2, pp. 57-64). I would be interested in his comments on the cover (shown in Figures 1 and 2) from Chesley Ontario to Harrogate England.

The cover passed to Toronto on 23 September; the octagonal registration handstamp is dated 25 September, two days later. Can we conclude that the octagon was applied at Toronto? (Before your recent articles, I assumed, based on Mr. Harrison's 1971 book, that the octagon was applied only in Halifax.) It might have been that the cover had to wait around in Toronto for two days until it was put in a closed bag--but it seems more likely (doesn't it?) that the octagon was applied further down the line.

The registered crown poses another problem. It is in red, while the Leeds and Harrogate are in blue and black, respectively. Was it applied in Liverpool?

In any event, I enjoyed the article.

David Handelman

.....

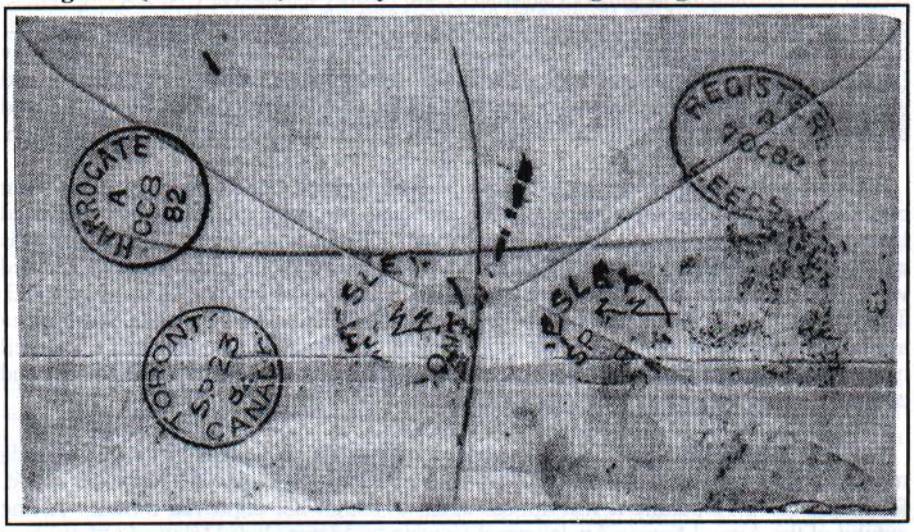
Horace Harrison responds:

The letter arrived in Toronto on Saturday Sept. 23, 1882, missing the Allan Line sailing of the *Sardinian* from Quebec on the 23rd. On Monday, Sept. 25, the letter was placed in the closed bag for the U.K. The crown over "Registered" in red on the face was applied in the U.K., probably at Liverpool, but there is no consistent sailing tables for the

North Atlantic past 1875, except for the Allan Line as set forth in Arnell's "Atlantic Mails." The item was sent to New York as requested, and sent on the first available steamer.

Figure 1 (Handelman): Chesley Ontario to Harrogate England, 1882, front

Figure 2 (Handelman): Chesley Ontario to Harrogate England, 1882, back



Sir;

I received a letter from Maggie Toms commenting on the letter illustrated as Figure 1 in my 'Stories Behind My Covers 29' in the April/June 1997 issue. In it, she argued that

the British accountancy mark 'GB/1^{F} 60^{C} ' was incorrect and that the proper mark should have been 'GB/2^{F} ', which was the correct one for British North America. She pointed out that the additional four decimes represented the B.N.A. colonial postage of 4d. Stg. per 30 grammes.

I believe that she is in error on this point, for although I am unable to confirm it, I believe that Newfoundland was considered for purposes of the Anglo-French Conventions a British colony *(Colonies britanniques)*, which was covered by Article 34 of the 1 January 1857 convention at the lower of the above values. The 1 January 1858 modifications to the convention included La Scie and Le Degar du Cheval as two Newfoundland offices subject to the increased two franc rate in Article 42, suggesting that the rest of Newfoundland was unchanged. The additional changes of 1 January 1862 included British colonies in Article 42, which should have raised Newfoundland to the two franc level, but apparently did not.

In addition to my Figure 1, Maggie Toms sent me a photocopy of a very similar 1864 cover from St. John's, and Robert Pratt in his definitive postal history of Newfoundland on page 606 lists an 1857 cover from Petit Oise and an 1860 from La Scie, which all have the 'GB/1^{F} 60^{C} ' accountancy mark. This seems to confirm that rightly or wrongly this was the rate used on Newfoundland letters until 1865 or 1866, when we know that the higher rate was used.

If anyone can clarify this point, I for one would appreciate it.

Jack Arnell

Sir;

Last year I wrote in the R.P.O. Cowcatcher column (Vol. 53 No. 4) some candid comments regarding the judging of Canadian Postal History exhibits at CAPEX'96. These covered in detail the judging of Ross Gray's classic Railway Post Office exhibit. This year there were a few Canadian Postal History exhibits at PACIFIC'97 which were judged by (among others) a Literature judge, a student of Irish philately, and a U.S. exhibitor and judge. They had done their homework, and studied the standard references, but still lacked the finer points. They did their best, but I fault the system which left them in this position.

Our member Bob Heasman of Victoria, B.C. showed one of the best exhibits in existence of the development of early Canadian machine markings. It achieved International Vermeil level, which is excellent. While this overall point rating was indicative of the quality, some individual marks were not, and none of the judges contacted were able to explain how these were arrived at, or why some low marks were awarded. This is not a useful critique. An exhibit on the Pacific mails between Canada, Australasia and the Orient, entered by Alex Unwin of Belleview, Washington also received a Vermeil medal. Here also, the over all level was probably satisfactory, but the individual marks and comments were not explained in a helpful way.

A very broadly based exhibit with a general title on the early postal history of Canada received a silver medal. It had some lovely early material, but required a narrower scope, focus and title. Hopefully it will appear again in somewhat improved format. A fine exhibit of the Armed Forces Air-letters of Canada by Major Dick Malott of Ottawa was re-classified by the judges from the Postal Stationery category to Postal History, and received a bronze medal. It may have done better if judged in Postal Stationery.

Lastly, the writer submitted a new exhibit of Canadian Mail Censorship during World

War I. This had received a national vermeil award at the 1995 RPSC exhibition, and obtained a silver medal at PACIFIC'97. It is still in the formative state, and requires considerable work before further exhibition - but it still received 74 points - one short of a large silver award. There is some cause for optimism.

In the previous article I mentioned the difficulty in obtaining qualification as an International Judge in the Postal History specialty. The F.I.P. has now placed an additional hurdle in the way - they will no longer accept apprentices over the age of 55 years. How many people under this age do you know who are qualified, ready, willing and able—financially and otherwise—to accept such a challenge? Meanwhile, CAVEAT EXHIBITOR.

William G. Robinson

Sir;

Re.: "EDMONTON, ALA." (April/June 1997 issue of Topics)

Jeff's letter perked my interest. Though I cannot answer his questions, I think I can provide some information and comments that point to the correct answer. The card is interesting for other reasons too.

Question 1:

I checked my own collection and I do have an example on post card. It is struck in violet and dated 25 JU? 1919. I had noted on my album page that it was an odd abbreviation of Alberta. I am more inclined to think that the abbreviation "ALA." is an outright error. I have no firm evidence of this; however, other information tends to support this:

First, I do not know of any other Alberta handstamp that used this abbreviation. I did a quick scan of all the regular and miscellaneous handstamp proof data and covers I have in my Alberta collection and did not find any other example of date stamps from Strathcona with an "ALA." abbreviation, or for any other Alberta office for that matter. This does not mean they do not exist; but if they do, they would be a rare exception.

Second, "ALA." could be confused with the abbreviation for Alabama, USA. I think "ALTA." was the official post office abbreviation of Alberta and suggest that any other abbreviation would have been regarded as a typographical error. Note "AB" is now the official post office abbreviation of Alberta; "ALTA." remains the standard abbreviation of Alberta for writing or text.

The handstamp proof Jeff mentions, dated 30 JUL 1919, may have been the replacement for the "error"; but it could conceivably have been a replacement of a damaged, worn or lost handstamp. One could probably rule out replacement due to wear as rubber handstamps are known to survive heavy usage for over a year. I favour the idea that the hand stamp proofed in July was intended as a replacement for the error.

It is also noted that proofs of similar General Delivery hand stamps, with "letter codes" other than "A", are illustrated in Lee/Hughes Vol. XXIII, pp. 53-54, and are dated some

years later. I do not know the reason for these letter codes. Other larger post offices used general delivery handstamps with similar letter codes. I know that at the main Edmonton post office this style of handstamp was also used, and the usage of the various letter codes overlapped but I have not seen overlapping usage of different hammers for the same letter code. This suggests that there was a need to uniquely identify these type of handstamps or clerk responsible for the handstamp, and that later proofs of the same letter coded handstamp were for replacements. An apparent anomaly in the proof records is Edmonton Strathcona General Delivery date stamp dated APR 22 1921, but does not have a letter code. This was possibly intended as an office dater for administration purposes as opposed to a dater intended for mail; however, a look at similar proofs for other large cities in Canada indicate that the lack of a letter code was not uncommon. Does anyone know why letter codes (if that is what the letters represent) were used on the rectangular General Delivery handstamps?

Questions 2. & 3:

Strathcona post office and locality went through a number of name or status changes. The post office opened as South Edmonton in 1892. South Edmonton was the northern terminus of the Calgary and Edmonton Railway completed the year previous. The name was changed to Strathcona in 1899 after town status was obtained. City status was obtained in 1907. Amalgamation with the City of Edmonton occurred in 1912. The post office status change to Edmonton Strathcona Postal Station occurred in 1919. The postal station name was changed to Edmonton South Edmonton Postal Station in 1931.

The "CHANGE OF POSTMASTERS" record card for the Edmonton Strathcona Postal Station indicates that the change in status to a

postal station was.1- 9-1919 (*i.e.*, September 1st, 1919). It is doubtful the date meant January 9th as the person who transcribed the information on the record card used the(Day / Month / Year format on all other dates on this card and all other cards. Also, very few post office openings occurred on days other that the first of a month. It is possible that the date was transcribed incorrectly by the person preparing the record cards. Strictly speaking though, one should check the source of information that the CHANGE OF POSTMASTERS record card was based on (if this is possible) because occasionally the information on some of the record cards for other post offices is suspect. I do not have cards for Strathcona or Edmonton South Edmonton Postal Station. The card for South Edmonton did not go beyond the date of the name change to Strathcona.

I think it is also relevant is that the City of Strathcona amalgamated with the City of Edmonton several years prior to the change in status of the post office. The post office department was probably well prepared for the change in status, and likely several months in advance. The change in status would have been a big change administratively as Strathcona was a fairly large post office, which included letter carrier staff. It would not be unusual to order hand stamps in advance of the change.

Other Strathcona Postal Station hand stamps are known dated earlier than September 1st, 1919. An oval registration date stamp was proofed MR 12 1919 (Lee/Hughes Vol. XII, p.55). The first steel date stamp recorded for the postal station was proofed AM/MR 15/19 (this was the first Strathcona "globe" date stamp, see Lee/Hughes Vol. VIII, p.46).I have an example of this date stamp on cover dated PM/AP15/19. Apparently the date of the change in status was not of paramount importance in dating the mails, if one accepts that September 1st, 1919 is the correct date for the change of status.

I have no definite information explaining why date stamps intended for the Strathcona Postal Station were used prior to the change in status. Perhaps the change of status was intended to be earlier and the clerks simply began to use the new hand stamps when received. Another possibility is that because the change of status was known well in advance, needed replacement hammers for Strathcona for the interim period were ordered with the new status identification to prevent premature obsolescence. Unfortunately I do not have examples of the old Strathcona date stamps being used after 1918, though examples should exist to least late March 1919. Examples found after April 15, 1919 would tend to support the notion that the importance of the office status was not great in dating mail. The only published source that tracks any of the date stamps used by Strathcona in this period is Robert Lee's duplex handbook, and so far no Strathcona duplexes are reported for 1919.

Another possible angle (a bit remote) to explore is the legal name change. There are cases for post offices in Alberta where the post office name is completely different than the accepted locality or town name (*e.g.*, for the locality of Granada, the post office was named Northville). I have always assumed in these cases that the post office address was the legal address. But is this really so? Perhaps the use of the Postal Station date stamp relates to a change in the legal address, tying it to the City of Edmonton. Remember officially the City of Strathcona no longer existed in early 1919. Perhaps one of our members with a legal background can set me straight on this. I would like to know this on a general basis.

Other:

The address on Jeff's find presents a couple of minor mysteries to me. The addresser of the post card used the designation "Sandy Lake, Strathcona. . .", rather than using a street address. By 1919, Strathcona had a grid street system with individual house

numbers. Most addresses on covers of the period give a specific house number along with a numbered street or address. I presume Strathcona post office had box service by this date also. So why the notation Sandy Lake? I have no information on a locality called Sandy Lake near or within Strathcona. Occasionally one finds this format of address for post offices served by postal routes directly out of the Strathcona post office. The examples I have of these are generally of outlying post offices within a few miles of the city and of an earlier period. However, as far as I know, there was no post office in Alberta named Sandy Lake. One prominent landmark in the western extremities of Strathcona at the time was McKernan's Lake. Though it no longer exists, it's importance predates Strathcona as it was the location of a stopping house on the old Edmonton to Calgary trail. At the time Jeff's card was posted, McKernan's Lake was a popular recreation spot, at least for winter skating, as can be seen on some period picture post cards. Housing development in Strathcona had also reached the shoreline by that time. Perhaps Sandy Lake was the name of a property or estate adjacent to the lake.

The fact that the card was handstamped with a general delivery marking is curious as it appears that the address was unofficial and insufficient. One wonders how the recipient would know when to call in at the post office, unless he or she had already established their address as general delivery. I would like to find a satisfactory explanation for the "Sandy Lake" address, and why the general delivery marking was used without any other reference by the addresser to general delivery or *poste restante*.

Rick Parama

.....

Jeff Switt responds:

I greatly appreciate Rick's very informative letter. I should also mention I received a reply from Joe Smith pointing out that the hammer contains two errors, not one: the word "Delivery" is misspelled "Delivey"—I totally missed this.

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