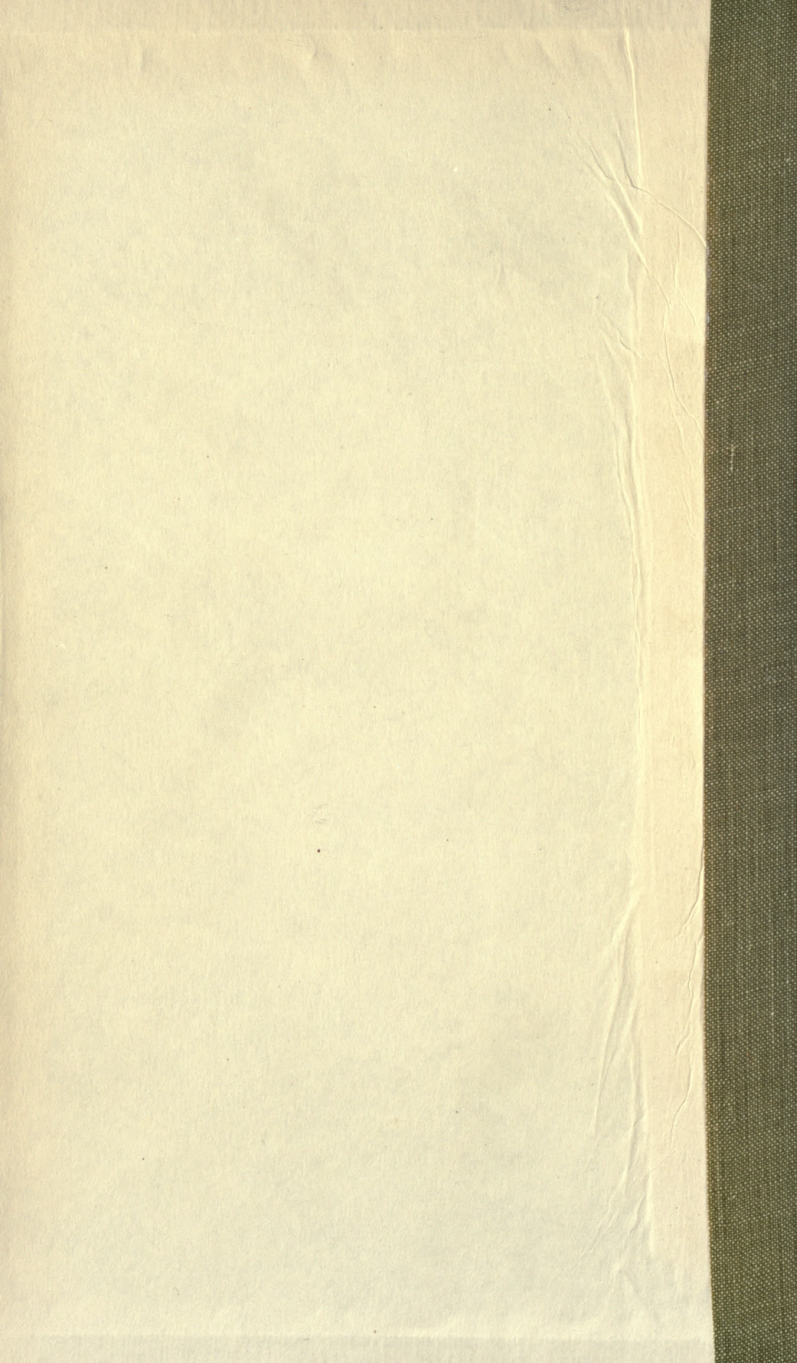


UNIV. OF
TORONTO
LIBRARY



H.B.E. 1st.

Commonwealth &

THE EMPIRE REVIEW

AND

JOURNAL OF BRITISH TRADE



EDITED BY

SIR CLEMENT KINLOCH-COOKE

VOLUME XXVIII

257553
17.2.31

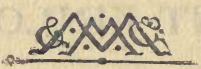
LONDON

MACMILLAN AND CO., LIMITED

1915



DA
10
C55
v.28



CONTENTS

	PAGE
THE EUROPEAN SITUATION. By DIPLOMATIST.	
(i) ON THE VERGE OF WAR	1
(ii) WAR DECLARED	9
THE CHANNEL TUNNEL. MILITARY ASPECT OF THE QUESTION. By LORD SYDENHAM, G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., G.C.I.E., F.R.S. (<i>Formerly Secretary of Committee of Imperial Defence</i>)	11
AN INDUSTRIAL DICTATORSHIP. By F. A. W. GISBORNE ..	20
CIVIL SERVANTS AND SECURITY OF TENURE. By SIR CHARLES BRUCE, G.C.M.G.	81
THE INDIAN OVERSEA. By G. H. LEPPER	89
TRADE OF CANADA. By C. HAMILTON WICKES (<i>H.M. Trade Commissioner for Canada</i>)	50
SIDELIGHTS ON COLONIAL LIFE	55, 122, 170
INDIAN AND COLONIAL INVESTMENTS. By TRUSTEE ..	68
AN APPEAL TO PATRIOTISM. By THE EDITOR	73
WAR. A POEM. By CHARLOTTE PIDGEON.. .. .	76
PRUSSIA'S MISCALCULATIONS. By A. E. DUCHESNE	77
A DOUBLE DISSOLUTION IN THE COMMONWEALTH. By F. A. W. GISBORNE	82
JUDICIAL REFORM. By H. DOUGLAS GREGORY	90, 148
ON COLONIAL GOVERNORS. By PROFESSOR H. A. STRONG (<i>Emeritus Professor of Liverpool and Melbourne Universities</i>)	105
AN AMERICA FOR THE HINDU. By G. H. LEPPER	108
THE SAILOR'S LETTER. A POEM. By ENID DAUNCEY	117
A RHODESIAN CHRISTMAS. By MADELINE CONYERS ALSTON ..	118
HOW TO INCREASE BRITISH EXPORTS. FACTS AND FIGURES CONCERNING THE FOREIGN TRADE OF GERMANY AND AUSTRIA- HUNGARY	129
ASIA AND THE WAR. By A. E. DUCHESNE	140
CANADA AND BRITISH MAGAZINES. SUGGESTED RAISING OF THE POSTAL RATES. By D. A. E. VEAL	163
THE CHINESE IN THE MALAY PENINSULA. By J. A. SHEAR- WOOD (<i>Advocate and Solicitor of the Straits Settlements</i>)	167

	PAGE
THE MEN IN KHAKE. A POEM. By DOROTHY K. SAWYER..	176
PATRIOTISM. By D. A. E. VEAL	177
OUR UNITED EMPIRE. A POEM. By ROBEY F. ELDRIDGE ..	182
CANADA AND THE WAR	184
TARIFF REFORM: A NATIONAL POLICY. By J. CHRISTIAN SIMPSON	198
OPENINGS FOR BRITISH TRADE IN COLONIAL MARKETS ..	197
NEW ZEALAND NOTES	203
OPPORTUNITIES IN ONTARIO	207
✓ CROWN COLONIES IN 1913	211
SOUTH AFRICAN PRODUCTS	219
STORY OF WEIHAIWEI	222
RECOLLECTIONS OF LORD ROBERTS.	
(i) By Lieut.-Colonel A. C. YATE	225
(ii) By General Sir IVOR HERBERT, Bart., M.P.	231
ESSENTIAL FACTORS IN RECRUITING. By THE EDITOR ..	233
MEN OF THE EMPIRE: SIR JOHN JACKSON, M.P. By X. ..	238
PRINCE MAURICE OF BATTENBERG. A POEM. By ROBEY F. ELDRIDGE	246
PETROLEUM AND ITS USES IN MEDICINE. By SCIENTIST ..	247
NATIONAL SERVICE. By J. CHRISTIAN SIMPSON	250
A DAY IN THE VELDT WITH BOTHA. By W. P. TAYLOR ..	256
FARM NOTES FROM CANADA	259
OPENINGS FOR BRITISH MANUFACTURERS	256
THE DOMINIONS AND THE WAR	269
AUSTRALIAN WAR CONTINGENT. By Sir NEWTON J. MOORE, K.C.M.G.	272
LORD MOULTON ON ANILINE DYES. A BRITISH NATIONAL INDUSTRY. By THE EDITOR	273
FOR KING AND COUNTRY. A POEM. By ALFRED SMYTHE ..	285
BRITISH MARITIME SPIRIT. By D. A. E. VEAL	287
THE VOICE OF THE MONSOON. A POEM. By ENID DAUNCEY ..	290
PRUSSIA'S CRIME. By A. E. DUCHESNE	291
THE CORNISH RIVIERA. By TRAVELLER	297
ASURIE THE SHEPHERD. A SKETCH OF THE VELD. By W. P. TAYLOR	301
NEW MARKETS FOR BRITISH GOODS. By OBSERVER	303
THE PAN-ANGLES: A REVIEW. By IMPERIALIST	307
THE DOMINIONS AND THE WAR	311
MORT AU CHAMP D'HONNEUR, 1914. A POEM. By ROBEY F. ELDRIDGE	316

THE EMPIRE REVIEW

VOL. XXVIII. AUGUST, 1914.

No. 163.

THE EUROPEAN SITUATION

By DIPLOMATIST

I

ON THE VERGE OF WAR

"THE international horizon is clouding over once again. In the Near East the sky is getting darker. The political barometer is falling in the Balkans and unrest is manifesting itself in a way that forebodes trouble." It was with these words that I began my article on Foreign Affairs last month. Subsequent events have shown my diagnosis to be unfortunately only too correct. Austria-Hungary and Servia are now on the verge of war, and Sir Edward Grey has told us that :—

"The moment the dispute ceases to be one between Austria-Hungary and Servia and becomes one in which another Great Power is involved it can but end in the greatest catastrophe that has ever befallen the Continent of Europe at one blow." No one can say, he added, what would be the limit of the issues that might be raised by such a conflict—the consequences, direct or indirect, would be incalculable.

The differences between Servia and Austria-Hungary received fresh impetus with the occupation by the Dual Monarchy of Bosnia-Herzegovina under the Treaty of Berlin, and in 1901 Servia began to free herself from Austro-Hungarian control. The tariff war, following on the controversies between Servia and Bulgaria, increased the feeling against Austria-Hungary and fanned the flame of independence. Then came the annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina, a step much resented by Servia, who had hoped to add these two provinces to her own kingdom. The Southern Slavs of the Dual Monarchy sympathised with the aspirations of Servia, but these aspirations were never regarded with favour at Vienna. The late Archduke Francis Ferdinand

was looked upon in Serbia as a formidable opponent, whereas he was a good friend to the Slavs and fully recognised the importance to the Dual Monarchy of the Southern Slav question. When war broke out in the Balkans it was generally believed that Turkey would defeat the Servians, and their ultimate success came as an unwelcome surprise to Austria-Hungary. At the Ambassadors' conference in London Austria-Hungary opposed Serbia having a port on the Adriatic, and with the help of the other Powers, and especially of Sir Edward Grey, that ambition was frustrated, although to secure Serbia's end M. Pashitch offered every possible inducement in the way of concessions. No doubt the Dual System is in a measure responsible for the discord, and Count Andrassy's anti-Slav policy assisted to widen the rift within the lute. From these few facts it is not surprising to find suspicion generating suspicion, Serbia always thinking herself assailed by Austria-Hungary, and the Dual Monarchy regarding Belgrade as the centre of mischief and intrigue.

The assassination of the late Archduke, and heir-presumptive to the Dual Monarchy, has roused the greatest feeling of indignation in Austria-Hungary. And very justly so. It was a cruel and cowardly murder, and if it can be shown that persons in authority in Serbia were in any way connected, however remotely, with the assassination, the Servian Government deserve all the degradation that Austria-Hungary seeks to place on them. But deserts are one thing and a European war another, and it is on this point that, even taking Austria-Hungary's ground, I join issue. It is an accepted fact that Russia has constituted herself guardian of the Slav interests, and therefore it would be very difficult for Austria-Hungary to go to war with Serbia without Russian intervention, and once Russia attacks Austria-Hungary the fat would be in the fire. For then Germany is compelled by the terms of the Triple Alliance to go to the aid of her ally. Nor does the case end there. Russia and France are allied nations, and it may be assumed that France would not remain neutral if Germany joined Austria-Hungary against Russia.

The position of Italy is more difficult to define. Presumably, as a member of the Triple Alliance, it would not be possible for Italy to stand aside if Germany were compelled to enter the arena. But to judge from a despatch emanating from Rome and appearing in the *Corriere della Sera* of Milan, it would appear that Italians do not altogether sympathise with the procedure adopted by Austria-Hungary. The despatch in question points out that the action of Austria-Hungary has been determined by the following three factors:—

The weakness of Serbia after two severe wars.

The division of the Balkan States that impedes a Slav coalition against the

Dual Monarchy and even renders probable the co-operation of Bulgaria with Austria-Hungary against Serbia.

The supposed unpreparedness of Russia.

And this leading Italian journal goes on to say : " The situation has long been studied in Vienna. The point at issue is : Who is to rule over the Serbo-Croatians—the Kingdom of Serbia or the Hapsburg Monarchy? The assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand furnished a pretext for the Austro-Hungarian attack." Of course this is not an official statement, but it may be assumed that the despatch would not have secured so important a platform if it were not intended to serve a purpose. What that purpose is I must leave my readers to determine.

Fortunately for ourselves we have no European alliances, but we have an entente with Russia and an entente with France. So far as one knows these understandings do not necessarily mean that we should have to interfere in a European war, but who can tell what might happen? As Sir Edward Grey observed, " No one can say what would be the limit of the issues." In these circumstances it would seem only right and proper that Austria-Hungary should pause and consider. Cannot she obtain all the security she wants without fighting? Or if compelled to fight cannot the conflict be localised? I venture to think Russia can, by her advice to Serbia, or by abstaining from going to Serbia's aid if Serbia rejects that advice, either prevent the conflagration or prevent its spreading. Unless Russia is involved, neither Germany nor France will intervene, and if their intervention can be avoided there will be no European war.

But Russia must not only exercise her power with Serbia; she must discuss matters with Austria-Hungary. Germany, too, must confer with her ally so that Austria-Hungary may be assisted in her conversations with Russia. By this means the peace of Europe can be maintained without the mediation of the Powers, and that, I take it, is what Russia, Austria-Hungary and Germany wish to avoid.

Now let us see how the present unfortunate position has been brought about. Stung to the quick by the movement in Serbia directed against the territorial integrity of the Dual Monarchy, culminating as it did in the recent terrible assassination, the Austro-Hungarian Government addressed a Note, requiring an immediate reply, to the Servian Government. That Note made the following demands :—

(1) That the Servian Government give a formal assurance that it condemns Serb propaganda against the Monarchy.

(2) That a declaration expressing this condemnation be published on the front page of the Servian *Official Journal* of Sunday next.

(3) That the declaration shall also express regret that Servian officers and officials participated in the anti-Austrian propaganda.

(4) That the Servian Government promises to proceed with the utmost rigour against all who may be guilty of such machinations.

(5) That this declaration be simultaneously communicated by the King of Servia to his Army as an order of the day, and be published in the *Official Bulletin* of the Army.

(6) That all Servian publications which incite to hatred and contempt of Austria-Hungary be suppressed.

(7) That a society styled the *Narodna Obrana* (National Union) be dissolved and its means of propaganda confiscated.

(8) That teachers and methods of education in Servia which tend to foment feeling against Austria-Hungary be eliminated.

(9) That all officers and officials guilty of propaganda against Austria-Hungary be dismissed from the Service, the Austro-Hungarian Government reserving to itself the right to communicate to Servia the names and doings of such officers and officials.

(10) That representatives of Austria-Hungary shall assist Servia in suppressing in Servia the movement directed against the territorial integrity of the Dual Monarchy and take part in the judicial proceedings on Servian territory against persons accessory to the Serajevo crime.

(11) That Servia furnish the Austro-Hungarian Government with explanations in regard to the utterances of high Servian officials in Servia and abroad who ventured to speak ill of the Austro-Hungarian Government after the Serajevo crime.

(12) That the execution of the foregoing measures be notified immediately to the Austro-Hungarian Government.*

The Servian Government sent their reply without delay. They accepted unreservedly the first eight demands, the ninth they accepted subject to proof, but the tenth was practically rejected, while the eleventh was only accepted subject to certain conditions. To the reply Note was attached a further statement to the effect that if Austria-Hungary was not satisfied with the answer the Servian Government proposed arbitration or mediation.

The reply was not regarded by Austria-Hungary as satisfactory, and on the 27th July the following *communiqué*, which may be taken as the official view, was issued to the Viennese Press and transmitted to this country by means of *Reuter's Agency*.

Baron Giesl, the Austro-Hungarian Minister in Belgrade, presented the Servian Note in reply to our claim to the Minister for Foreign Affairs on his arrival in Vienna yesterday.

* This summary of the Note is reproduced from the *Times*.

day. The object of this Note is to create the false impression that the Servian Government is prepared in a great measure to comply with our demands. As a matter of fact, however, the Note is filled with the spirit of dishonesty, which clearly lets it be seen that the Servian Government is not seriously determined to put an end to the culpable tolerance it has hitherto extended to the intrigues against the Monarchy.

The Servian Note contains such far-reaching reservations and limitations, not only in regard to the general principles of our *démarche*, but also in regard to the individual claims which we have put forward, that the concessions actually made become insignificant. In particular our demand for the participation of the Austro-Hungarian authorities in the investigations to detect the accomplices in the conspiracy on Servian territory has been rejected. Our request that measures should be taken against that section of the Press which is hostile to Austria-Hungary has been declined, and our wish that the Servian Government should take the necessary measures to prevent the dissolved Austrophobe associations from continuing their activity under another name and in another form has not even been considered at all.

Since the claims contained in the Austrian Note of July 23, regard being had to the attitude hitherto adopted by Servia, represent the minimum which is necessary for the establishment of a permanent peace in the South-Eastern Monarchy, the Servian answer must be regarded as unsatisfactory. That the Servian Government itself was conscious that its Note was not acceptable to us is proved by the circumstance that it proposes to us at the end of the Note to submit the dispute to arbitration, an invitation which is thrown into its proper light by the circumstance that three hours before the handing in of the Note, a few minutes before the expiry of the period, the mobilisation of the Servian Army took place.

The text of this *communiqué* does not leave much room for peace, but at the time of writing, although many unfavourable reports are afloat, no untoward events have happened indicating that hostilities have begun. So far so good. But it cannot be denied that the news coming in from the various capitals is most alarming, and any moment we may hear that war has been declared. It is said that Austrian troops are about to occupy Belgrade and that the Austrian-Hungarian army is already mobilised. Russia is also credited with partial mobilisation, but news from St. Petersburg is scanty and contradictory.

This silence on the part of Russia may be taken as a point to the good, as it portends negotiations of some kind either with Servia or with Austria-Hungary, and it may be with Germany. That the Kaiser is doing all he can to prevent war may be regarded as certain. At the same time it would be unwise to

hide the fact that His Majesty is at one with Austria-Hungary in her determination to put an end to the hatching of conspiracies against the Dual Monarchy in Belgrade, and fully sympathises with the measures taken by Austria-Hungary to bring Serbia to her senses.

Meanwhile Sir Edward Grey has not let the grass grow under his feet, and speaking in the House of Commons on July 27, he outlined the position of His Majesty's Government up to that date. From this statement it appears that as soon as he had before him officially the text of the communication made by the Austro-Hungarian Government to the Powers, which included the text of the demands made by the Austro-Hungarian Government on Serbia, he took immediate steps to see other ambassadors and expressed to them his own views on the situation. He told them, and rightly, that as long as the dispute was one between Austria-Hungary and Serbia alone, he had no title to interfere, but that if the relations between Austria-Hungary and Russia became threatening the question would be one of the peace of Europe. At that time he was not aware of Russia's attitude, but he did a very wise thing. He suggested to the ambassadors, and according to his own phrasing he made the suggestion as the "only chance of peace" as it appeared to him, that the four Powers, Germany, France, Italy and Great Britain, not one of whom is directly interested in the Servian question, should work together both at St. Petersburg and Vienna simultaneously to get both Austria-Hungary and Russia to suspend military operations while the four Powers endeavoured to arrange a settlement.

Directly he was informed that diplomatic relations between Austria-Hungary and Serbia were broken off he put his suggestion into the form of a proposal, and instructed our Ambassadors in Paris, Berlin and Rome, to ask the Governments to which they were accredited whether they would be willing to arrange that the French, German, and Italian Ambassadors in London should meet him in a Conference to be held in London immediately to endeavour to find a means of arranging the present difficulties. At the same time, he instructed His Majesty's Ambassadors to ask those Governments to authorise their representatives in Vienna, St. Petersburg, and Belgrade to inform the Governments there of the proposed Conference, and to ask them to suspend all active military operations pending the result of the Conference.

As a rule it is customary in diplomacy before making a proposal, to ascertain whether it will be favourably received, but time did not permit of these preliminary negotiations, so it was hardly to be expected that the answer would be received immediately. France and Italy, however, accepted without

hesitation. Germany has taken time to consider, and for obvious reasons ; she has necessarily to consult her ally as to whether such a course as that suggested by Sir Edward Grey would meet with approval at Vienna. That Germany herself is not unfavourable to mediation in principle as between Austria-Hungary and Russia is clear from a further statement made by the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, but it by no means follows she will view with favour the special form of mediation put forward from Downing Street. Indeed it may be that as mediation by the Powers is known to be distasteful to Austria-Hungary, the ally of the Dual Monarchy will not consider herself in a position to attend a round table conference either in London or elsewhere. Indeed it almost seems this is the view taken by the German Foreign Office, since Reuter's Agency have circulated the following statement gathered from an official source :—

Despite our sincere approval of Sir Edward Grey's object, and our sympathy with his efforts for the preservation of peace, we are unable to see that his idea of a Conference in London offers any prospect of finding a way out of the difficulty. Austria cannot consent to appear before a European tribunal like a Balkan State and explain her actions, and allow her policy to be influenced by the decisions of such a Court. We are convinced that Russia, too, would not consent to such a course.

As for Germany, she would be glad to join in any action which offered a prospect of success, but we cannot participate in an effort which offers none, and, in our opinion, an Ambassadorial conference in London is calculated to increase rather than diminish the difficulties of the situation. The German Foreign Office is of opinion that conversations between the Powers will afford better means to the desired end than the proposed conference. It considers that Russia, having received the positive assurance that Austria intends not to annex any portion of Servian territory, and being well aware that Servia deserves chastisement, should be content to stand aside until Austrian military measures against Servia are completed, when the opportunity might arise for useful diplomatic effort.

This statement, coming as it does from an inspired quarter, prepares the way for a negative answer to Sir Edward Grey's proposal, and without Germany it would be useless to hold the Conference. But if Germany cannot see her way to take part in a four Power Conference, she can do a very great deal on her own account. She can bring pressure to bear on Russia, supposing Russia insists on taking too active a part in the conflict, if conflict there should be, as would appear not improbable from the telegram emanating from the *Times* correspondent at St. Petersburg.

Writing under date, July 27, that authority says:—

The Servian reply, the text of which was communicated to M. Sazonoff this evening, is considered here to contain concessions of such a sweeping character that practically the whole Austrian demands, short of the points involving a complete loss of independence, have been fully satisfied. Indeed, a perusal of the Servian reply causes perplexity at Austria's continued insistence on the "ultimatum."

The general impression in diplomatic circles is that Austria-Hungary has already gained so much that it is extremely difficult to believe that she will risk war with Russia and a general European conflagration by driving Serbia to the wall.

I have every confidence in the Kaiser. I believe he will preserve the peace of Europe, and even at this late hour I feel certain His Majesty's intervention cannot fail of success. Russia may mobilise and Austria-Hungary may mobilise. Hostilities may even begin. But with the German Emperor bent on peace the area of war will not be an extended one. If, however, hostilities were to end in Austria-Hungary enlarging her borders at the expense of Serbia, that is another story. But fighting between Austria-Hungary and Serbia to enforce the demands of Austria-Hungary should not in itself necessarily involve the other Great Powers. And in this connection it must not be forgotten that whether the Servian Government were to blame or not, Serbia has put herself in the wrong; that the plot to kill the late heir to the Austria-Hungarian throne had its origin in Belgrade, which appears to be honeycombed with secret societies. In these circumstances Russia is hardly likely to be a party to the prevention of just and adequate punishment. But should Austria-Hungary be tempted to go beyond, Russia cannot be expected to hold her hand.

Sir Edward Grey's observations seem to have given the impression abroad that if a European war takes place, Great Britain cannot or will not remain neutral. Whether that was the intention of the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs I cannot say. But in view of the fact that so much stress has been laid upon the grouping of the Powers being a necessary adjunct to the maintenance of European peace, it would appear that should so dire a calamity happen, the possibility of this country standing aside is not so remote as one could wish it to be. This circumstance alone is an important factor in the situation, and one that cannot fail to make for peace. Without doubt we shall take every means in our power to bring all the influence we can to bear on the nations directly interested in the dispute to prevent any war taking place, in which it could possibly be expected this country would be compelled to take part.

And so will Germany. Like ourselves the German people are a peace-loving people. No monarch has done more in the cause of peace than the German Emperor, and with the knowledge that a war in which Austria-Hungary and Russia were engaged must, if the attack came from Russia, involve Germany, the world may rest assured that the Kaiser will exhaust every means at his command before allowing matters to drift beyond his control. That there should even be a temporary set-back in the excellent relations now prevailing between ourselves and the great continental Powers which form the Triple Alliance is a disaster too great to contemplate. Besides, neither France, Italy, nor Russia want war. Russia is just beginning to get over her war with Japan. She least of all can afford to enter on hostilities at this juncture. France, too, desires to husband her resources, while Italy has already expended much treasure and lost many lives in her encounter with Turkey. Dark as the outlook is from every point of view, in my opinion the clouds will lift, and in the lifting of these clouds Germany and Great Britain will play an historic part.

II.

WAR DECLARED

Since the above was written and in type Austria-Hungary has declared war against Serbia. The formal Declaration was published in a special edition of the *Official Gazette* dated July 28, and is worded as follows:—

The Royal Government of Serbia not having given a satisfactory reply to the Note presented to it by the Austro-Hungarian Minister in Belgrade on July 23, 1914, the Imperial and Royal Government of Austria-Hungary finds it necessary itself to safeguard its rights and interests and to have recourse for this purpose to force of arms. Austria-Hungary therefore considers itself from this moment in a state of war with Serbia.

(Signed) COUNT BERCHTOLD,
Austro-Hungarian Minister for Foreign Affairs.

In a stirring appeal "To My Peoples," the aged Emperor Franz Joseph reviews the reasons that have led him to take this fateful step, and it must be universally admitted that these reasons are conclusive. The indictment preferred against Serbia is couched in language singularly appropriate and leaves no room to doubt that Serbia justly deserves to be called to account for the wrong she has done to Austria-Hungary and to the family of the

greatly respected monarch who rules over the destinies of the Austro-Hungarian peoples.

The outbreak of hostilities in no way conflicts with what I had written before that event took place. The overtures that I thought might have been made doubtless were made, and if the result has not turned out exactly as one had hoped, the real issue, although complicated by actualities, is not in any sense endangered. What the Great Powers have now to do—and in this I include Austria-Hungary—is to see that the war is localised, that it does not extend beyond the limits laid down. And if it be correct, as doubtless it is, that Russia has received positive assurance that Austria-Hungary does not intend to annex any portion of Servian territory, I see no reason why any extension of the present area should take place. Russia, like ourselves, is fully aware that Servia has brought upon herself the punishment which Austria-Hungary intends to inflict, and if that punishment is not exceeded, and there is no reason to believe it will be, it may, I think, be assumed that Russia will not intervene until the military measures against Servia are completed.

Then will be the time for Sir Edward Grey's conference to assemble; then will be the opportunity for diplomatic effort. In no event must a European war be allowed to take place, and I do not think I shall be far wrong when I say that this sentiment is shared equally by Austria-Hungary and Russia as by the four Powers not directly interested in the Servian question.

Meanwhile, to use the weighty and impressive words of the Prime Minister, "the situation is one of extreme gravity, and His Majesty's Government are not relaxing their efforts to do everything in their power to circumscribe the area of possible conflict."

DIPLOMATIST.

THE CHANNEL TUNNEL

MILITARY ASPECT OF THE QUESTION

BY LORD SYDENHAM, G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., G.C.I.E., F.R.S.

(Formerly Secretary of Committee of Imperial Defence)

BEFORE dealing with the military aspect, I propose to allude briefly to the historical side of the Channel Tunnel Question. In 1867 a project for constructing a Tunnel was drawn up by an Anglo-French Committee, and submitted to the Emperor of the French. In 1870 the French Government asked whether the British Government would support the project. Two years later the Foreign Office, on the advice of the Board of Trade, informed Lord Lyons, our Ambassador in Paris, that, while opposed to any form of monopoly, Her Majesty's Government would be well satisfied to learn that the railway systems of the two countries were likely to be brought into connection by a Tunnel. Again, in 1874, following on the report of a French Committee which advocated a concession, the British Government decided that there was no objection, and accepted generally the proposals of the French Committee. Bills dealing with the preliminary procedure passed both the French and British Parliaments in 1875; but there was some delay in forming a British Company, and the concession granted to the French promoters lapsed in 1880. This led to a demand for an extension of the period named in the concession. Meanwhile, in 1880, the South-Eastern Railway Company, under the auspices of the late Sir Edward Watkin, evolved a scheme of its own, and began to sink a trial shaft between Dover and Folkestone.

The fact that the idea seemed to be passing out of the project stage, and that an actual hole in the ground was being made, brought military opponents into the field. The shaft was completed, and a heading was run for some little distance when, in July, 1882, the work was ordered by the Government to be stopped. A good many years ago I went to the end of this heading, and was surprised to find how dry it was. The South-Eastern Railway works, of course, remain, and I understand that

in more than thirty years the amount of water which has entered is surprisingly small.

The Committee stage of the Tunnel was now reached, and the difficulties began. The first Committee was an inter-departmental body, representing the Admiralty, War Office, and the Board of Trade. Sir Garnet Wolseley and Sir John Adye represented the War Office, and their views proved to be diametrically opposed.

Another Committee was appointed by the Secretary of State for War in February, 1882. It contained six military officers and three civilians, but no naval officer. This Committee did not absolutely condemn the Tunnel project, and made various suggestions for protecting the Tunnel. It summed up the matter by remarking that "Even the most comprehensive and complete arrangements which can be devised could not be trusted in every imaginable contingency," a most remarkable verdict, and one with which everyone will agree. Practical people must heavily discount the imagination, and provide only against contingencies reasonably probable. That is the real crux of the military aspect of the Channel Tunnel Question, and it is discouraging to note that the verdict of the Committee of 1882 has undoubtedly influenced public opinion to this day, I suppose because many people do not pause to reflect on the comprehensive meaning of the word "imaginable."

The next step was the appointment, in April, 1883, of a Select Committee of both Houses of Parliament, which could not agree upon a Report, but showed a majority against the Tunnel. Since that time eleven Bills or Motions on the question have been defeated or withdrawn, and I think the last division was taken in June, 1890, resulting in a majority of 81 (234 votes to 153) against the project. Between 1880 and 1883 Lord Wolseley's opposition had markedly strengthened, and the prestige arising from the rapid success of the operations in Egypt in 1882 materially enhanced the influence of his opinions. These opinions should be noted because, though they have been widely spread and adopted, their precise import has been generally ignored.

Lord Wolseley does not appear to have had the smallest fear that we could not defend the mouth of the Tunnel. As he said in evidence, "Fifty men at the entrance of the Tunnel can prevent an army of 100,000 men coming through it." His theory of danger was based solely upon the hypothesis that the outlet of the Tunnel could be seized with perfect ease in a time of profound peace. Let me give the words of his Memorandum on this point:

The seizing of the Tunnel by a *coup de main* is in my opinion a very simple operation provided it be done without any previous warning or intima-

tion whatever. . . . My contention is that, were a tunnel made, England as a nation could be destroyed without any warning whatever, when Europe was in a condition of profound peace. . . . The whole plan (Lord Wolseley's plan) is based upon the assumption of its being carried out during a time of profound peace between the two nations (France and England), and whilst we were enjoying life in the security and unsuspection of a fool's paradise.

I cannot believe that Lord Wolseley considered what this theory implied, or that he realised that it involved far more than the question of the Tunnel. If his theory be true, there is nothing to prevent our fleets from being destroyed wherever they may be assembled, nothing to prevent London from being shelled from air-vessels to-night. Lord Wolseley's theory is not a military opinion, but a political forecast, the accuracy of which every student of history and of international affairs is able to judge.

I do not think that Lord Wolseley realised that what he termed "a very simple operation," namely the "seizing of the Tunnel," meant capturing two strong forts at some distance from the mouth of the Tunnel and from each other. And further, if a portion of the line where it issues from the sea were carried on an exposed viaduct, as has been proposed, the Tunnel would be useless as long as a British ship of war could live in the Channel.

The political theory was supported by a Memorandum entitled "Hostilities without Declaration of War," of which a hundred cases during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were cited. Lord Wolseley selected three of those cases—The seizure of the Danish Fleet at Copenhagen in 1807; the capture of four Spanish frigates in 1804; and the sudden outbreak of the Franco-German War in 1870, as specially fitted to demonstrate the truth of his theory. They were shown to be completely irrelevant, and Lord Lansdowne's Draft Report contains the following significant statement:—

We do not take the view that the contingency of a *coup de main* struck by a Power with whom our relations had been friendly and unstrained is one which we have any right or which our experience would justify us in placing among the foremost of the probabilities with which we have to deal. It is our impression, on the contrary, that if such an attack were to be made it would have been preceded by circumstances which would have called for effectual precautions against a surprise. We observe with pleasure that this view is that apparently entertained by H.R.H. the Commander-in-Chief and by Sir Lintorn Simons.

It is perfectly true that, in modern conditions, mobilisations are very swiftly carried out, and that hostilities may be begun far more quickly than was formerly possible. But the amazing development of means of communication has at the same time made it far more difficult to take any military steps without the knowledge of something unusual becoming known. The danger

to-day is not that we shall get no warning, but that rumours may be spread without foundation.

I would ask my readers to consider whether it is possible to accept Lord Wolseley's theory of a blow struck at a time of profound peace without the least "warning or intimation." If that theory be rejected, the whole of Lord Wolseley's objections vanish, and the question of the Tunnel can be approached in a fresh spirit. We can proceed on the basis of reasonable probabilities, not on that of "every imaginable contingency." I am the first to admit that any mechanical or electrical device might fail to act on the instant. The question then is this: Can reasonable time be counted upon to ensure that any methods of safeguarding the Tunnel can without the least doubt be made effective?

Vague phrases such as "seizing the mouth of the Tunnel" are misleading. What an enemy has to do is to capture two strong forts, and to take possession of the generating station. That means three distinct operations, and unless all these are successful, he will not be in a position to control the Tunnel so as to permit troops to pass. And they must not only be successful, but simultaneous; because, even in a time of profound peace, which is the hypothesis, the seizing of one fort would provide a warning, and the other could not be taken except by siege involving a long time, and requiring the employment of heavy artillery and the power of defeating any force that we could bring to bear upon the besiegers. If we assume that the enemy was in a position to carry on the siege without interference, there would clearly be ample time to flood or permanently to destroy the Tunnel, even if all the apparatus were out of order and needed overhauling.

It has been frequently said, that owing to the heavy pecuniary loss, no government would ever give orders for the destruction of the Tunnel. Surely, however, if one fort at Dover had been captured by surprise, if the other was being besieged, and if the military position in England were such that no troops were available to deal with the besiegers, there could not be the slightest hesitation on the part of government. But as the surprise of the one fort would be possible only on Lord Wolseley's hypothesis of profound peace, there must apparently be an ample military force available to deal with the besiegers.

The surprise party must consist either of disguised persons previously resident at Dover, or of a military force sent through the Tunnel itself. To be successful it must, as already indicated, simultaneously occupy two forts, and take possession of the generating station, perhaps ten miles inland. The latter, of course, must be held and worked by the enemy for some time if a large force is to be conveyed through the Tunnel.

One must remember that trains will have been running

regularly, perhaps every twenty minutes ; that half the electrical rolling stock must be on the British side, and cannot be collected for the rapid passage of troops without interruption of the service ; that the railway telegraph will be continuously working between Calais and Dover ; that any massing of troops at Calais could not escape observation ; and that the arrival of the first armed party at Dover Station, a long distance from its three objectives, would give the alarm.

Realise all these conditions, and then ask yourselves whether you can devise any plan which would give the enemy the slightest chance of success ? I have tried hard to think out such a plan and I have failed absolutely. I do not say that a vivid imagination would not evolve something melodramatic ; but that is not the point. It is for the soldier to judge whether a military operation is practicable or not, and I defy any soldier to propound a plan which could be accepted as feasible.

I have not alluded to the suggestion that the surprise would be effected by a body of armed men who had arrived at Dover as tourists, to await in scattered hotels and lodgings the signal for action, because I cannot regard it as a serious proposition. Nor do I think it necessary to deal with the other suggestion that these tourists, with rifles and ammunition concealed under their waterproofs, will arrive by steamer, and proceed to attack the Dover forts. If the Tunnel be built, I believe there will be very little steamer passenger traffic between Calais and Dover, and in any case this suggestion seems plainly preposterous.

Now, suppose that we reject Lord Wolseley's hypothesis, as did Lord Lansdowne's Report, as did the late Duke of Cambridge, and the late Field-Marshal Sir Lintorn Simmons, and as I believe does every responsible statesman to-day. Suppose we assume that warning of impending danger is forthcoming, as it always has been in the past, and, in my opinion, always must be. Suppose that the invariable course is followed—first, diplomatic tension ; secondly, alarmist articles in the papers ; thirdly, rumours of preparations ; fourthly, a declaration of war, accompanied or shortly preceded by an act of hostility. In other words, suppose that we have clear warning, whether of days or weeks. Those who regard the Tunnel as a military danger meet this hypothesis by saying that we are a purblind people, incapable of seeing danger even when it is imminent. Or, if they admit that, in these rather hysterical days, danger is more likely to be exaggerated than to be minimised, they fall back on the assertion that, even if government and the people were fully alive to danger, no sort of precautions would ever be taken, because any precautions might tend to precipitate hostilities, or at least to create panic.

My readers must form their own judgment of these arguments. As far as the Tunnel is concerned, the only necessary precautions would be of the simplest character, of which the public would know nothing, while other precautions of a naval character would have to be taken—and as recent experience shows, would be taken—which could not be concealed. Lord Wolseley himself considered that if any warning were available, there would be no danger from the Tunnel; and I think we may agree with this view. On a declaration of war, the Tunnel traffic would cease, as happens in all cases where railways cross the common frontiers of belligerents, though mutual arrangements might possibly be made to clear off tourists on both sides under special precautions. When the traffic had ceased, the dip in the British end of the Tunnel would be filled up, to give a popular sense of security, and the Tunnel would then be useless until the enemy had captured Dover and the generating station. This filling up would be analogous to the blowing up of one span of the Rhine Bridge at Strasburg, one of the first acts of war in 1870; but it is a great advantage of the Tunnel that it can be absolutely blocked without causing any serious damage. Driven from one theory, the objector generally takes up another, and if again evicted will re-occupy his original position. That is the difficulty of this controversy.

I come now to the last military consideration. In a recent letter, a distinguished retired Admiral asks:

Has it never occurred to those responsible for the defence of this country that a descent of some considerable force may simultaneously take place at two or three or more parts of our shores, and by converging on Dover might by a *coup de main* obtain possession of our end of the Tunnel?

This plan of campaign has often been suggested, that it should commend itself to an Admiral of our Navy is a saddening fact. If that Navy, with its enormous superiority over any other Power, with more than two hundred and forty destroyers and nearly one hundred submarines, cannot interfere with the simultaneous proceedings of these considerable forces, I really do not see what function it can discharge. Until our Navy has been decisively beaten, and reduced in home waters to the position of the Russian Navy in the Far East after the battle of Tsushima, this plan cannot be carried out.

If the Admiral's plan of campaign succeeded to the stage of "two, three, or more" simultaneous landings, which must include the landing of a heavy siege train, what would be the military position of the scattered columns converging upon Dover, and open to the attack of all the forces that our great railway systems could bring rapidly to bear upon them? The Admiral's plan postulates the previous destruction of our Army as well as

of our Navy, and implies that the country has been successfully invaded.

Again the Admiral uses the phrase "*coup de main*" in a totally different sense from that of Lord Wolseley, who restricted it to the case in which there was no "previous warning or intimation whatever." On the Admiral's hypothesis, there would have been long warning, and the Tunnel would have been rendered safe many days before the siege of the forts of Dover could be brought to a successful conclusion.

I have suggested that means of blowing in the crown of the Tunnel should be held in readiness, not because I believe they are necessary; but to meet the views of critics who, like the Admiral, have no faith either in our Navy or our Army. Such people reply, "Oh, but you could never destroy the Tunnel because of the pecuniary loss," strangely forgetting that the loss would be the merest bagatelle compared with that involved in the successful invasion of this country. If we are to contemplate successful invasion, implying a great lodgment of hostile troops whom we are powerless to resist, followed by a successful siege of Dover, in order to obtain the use of the Tunnel for purposes of reinforcement, then it is logical to provide means for permanent destruction, and clearly there must be ample time to carry them out.

On the other hand, if the Tunnel Railway be fully exposed to the sea on a viaduct on both sides of the Channel, then so long as a British cruiser can remain for an hour a day in the Straits of Dover, the railway could not be used even if Dover were in the undisputed occupation of an enemy.

The measures of precaution which appear to meet every reasonable contingency are therefore:—

Means of holding up every train for examination.

Means of flooding a dip in the Tunnel, actuated from each of two independent Forts.

The forts to command the exit from the Tunnel with guns which cannot be silenced from the sea.

Exposure of a portion of the line to fire from the sea.

To these may be added.

Provision of mines, actuated from either of both forts, for destroying the viaduct.

Provision of mines, actuated from either of both Forts, for blowing in the crown of the Tunnel.

It will be noticed that the necessary precautions will throw no additional burden on our military budget. It may be unnecessary to build a new fort, though those existing will require some modifications. In any case, the cost would be borne by the Channel Tunnel Company, and the late Sir Robert

Giffen stated in evidence that "a much larger charge" even than £3,000,000 would be "an insignificant sum compared with the commercial advantages" of the Tunnel. For the rest, a few engineer specialists in charge of the precautionary arrangements would suffice for all reasonable needs.

We must never forget that the Tunnel could be used against us only by France or by some Power which had successfully invaded France, and obtained control of her Northern Railway system. I am the last to believe in the absolute permanence of any happy relations which exist between *any* countries at the present time. We have seen so many changes in the European situation during the last fifty years that no such belief can be justified. Looking forward, however, with such prescience as is possible, an attempt on the part of our friends the French seems peculiarly improbable, and in any other case a long warning is, of course, certain.

Regarding the military advantages of this Tunnel, if ever we were compelled to send military forces to France, Belgium, or Holland, through railway connection would be of enormous importance. And I need not remind any reader that, apart from any obligations towards France which may exist now or in the future, we have definite Treaty responsibilities as regards Belgium in certain contingencies. It is from this point of view that doubt may arise as to the wisdom of exposing any portion of the Channel Railway to fire from the sea. Interruption of the railway in the circumstances I have referred to would be extremely inconvenient. Provided that both at Dover and at Calais there were a few guns able to prevent an enemy's ship from lying off the coast to shell the railway, and considering that this is just a case in which submarines, of which we have heard a good deal lately, might be expected to be effectively deterrent, I cannot see any danger from this source.

As to our food supply, I believe firmly we must depend wholly upon supremacy at sea, which we must maintain at all cost as the primary condition of our national existence. It is quite possible, however, that at the outset of naval war some shortage might occur, due to the exaggeration of risks with which this country is no longer familiar, rather than to actual captures. In this case, the knowledge that foodstuffs could pass freely from France would have a steadying effect.

In conclusion, I should like to point out that from the beginning this great national question has been badly handled. For thirteen years after the project was first reduced to definite form, our Government not only raised no objection, but expressed their approval. I consider that the first official step should have been to make an exhaustive inquiry into the economic advantages.

If such an inquiry had led—as it must have done—to a most favourable conclusion, the military aspects might then have been carefully considered. In national affairs, it may be and often is, necessary to accept some small measure of risk to obtain a great economic advantage; and in this sense military considerations may have to be subordinated to national policy.

It has been my purpose in this article to show that there are no valid military objections; but there can be no doubt that the mishandling of the question, by giving official prominence to military fears, while providing no adequate estimate of the economic gain, has led to doubts and delays.

In the long controversy which has ranged almost continuously for thirty-four years, the pleasantest feature is the attitude of the French Government and the French people. From first to last they have respected the susceptibilities of our alarmists; they have never derided the fears of our publicists, and frankly offered to accept any conditions as to precautions we may consider desirable. I earnestly trust that before long we may be able to meet them in the same spirit, and I am certain that the linking of the two railway systems will lead to mutual advantages, political as well as commercial.

SYDENHAM.

AN INDUSTRIAL DICTATORSHIP

By F. A. W. GISBORNE

THE people of Australia, sheltered by the strong arm of Great Britain, have now been blessed with a period of unbroken peace more than twice as long as that enjoyed by the citizens of Imperial Rome under the mild sway of the Antonines. No other civilised community in the modern world has been so fortunate as to have escaped the miseries of war for a century and a quarter without a single interruption. It were not profitable to speculate as to how much longer this immunity from foreign attack is likely to continue. That in the political, as in the physical, world protracted calms are usually succeeded by sudden and violent storms is a mere platitude. But unfortunately history has too often proved that communities shielded from external dangers are peculiarly liable to suffer from internal dissensions.

So it is now, and for some time has been, in the case of the Australian Commonwealth. Failing a foreign foe as an object of their bellicose activities, the people of Australia have long been engaged in a kind of bloodless civil war, which has aroused passions that, unless appeased, may eventually lead to sanguinary strife. Political and industrial struggles, futile, exhausting, and exasperating, have absorbed energies which, properly applied, would have largely increased the happiness and prosperity of the inhabitants of the continent. At root, these conflicts merely gave active expression to the ancient antagonism between possession and desire, contentment and ambition. Political craft, however, has adopted various disguises to conceal the real motives actuating the aggressors. Covetousness, in the vocabulary of politics, is known as humanitarianism; class jealousy as universal philanthropy. State intervention has been demanded, and in part exercised, with a view to equalising those differences of fortune and material comfort, which are inseparable from corresponding mental and moral disparities. The attempted spoliation, under legal forms, of the abler class of citizens for the benefit of the weak and the unworthy has naturally provoked

resistance. A survey of the present industrial situation, when the Commonwealth is on the eve of an electoral struggle, whose consequences must exercise far-reaching influence over the destinies of the people of Australia, may be of interest. It is proposed to devote special attention to the results of the latest attempt on the part of the State to restore harmony between the contending forces known collectively and in the abstract by the respective designations of capital and labour.

The appearance in Australia some twenty years ago of the political party bearing the attractive though delusive name of "Labour," indicated the intention of the leaders of the organised wage-earners to transfer the struggle with the employers from the industrial to the political field. The strike, it was hoped, would be superseded by the law. By the agency of the vote the legislature would be captured, and the representatives of the workers would then be able to dictate terms to the class they regarded with hostility and distrust. For a considerable time the efforts of the apostles of the new unionism were obstructed by the resistance of the various State Councils, which bodies, being either nominated or elected on a limited franchise, afforded protection to the threatened minority. The accomplishment of Federation, however, in the main, removed these checks. A Federal Legislature, composed of two Chambers, each elected by universal suffrage, became in the hands of Australian Trade Unionism exactly the instrument it required to carry out its designs. Every effort was made, and is still being made, by the Labour Party to extend the powers of a legislative body so constituted as to represent only numbers, and to leave ability and property defenceless. Fortunately for the Commonwealth, complete success has not yet been achieved; though the movement towards unification and centralisation of authority has made dangerous headway. In one respect, unhappily, the Act creating the Australian Commonwealth gave the aggressive faction considerable advantages; and of these full use was made by the creation of one of the most extraordinary tribunals that the world has yet seen.

Under Section 51, paragraph XXXV, of the Constitution Act, the Commonwealth Parliament was empowered to legislate with respect to "conciliation and arbitration for the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes extending beyond the limits of any one State." This unhappy provision led to the passing in the year 1904 of the measure known as the Conciliation and Arbitration Act. Briefly summarised, the Act constituted a new tribunal called the Court of Conciliation and Arbitration, presided over by a Justice of the High Court under the title of President. To this functionary the Federal Government prac-

tically transferred its whole powers of industrial jurisdiction.* These, certainly, were not unfettered; for under the Constitution, so long as an industrial dispute remains confined within the limits of a single State, the Commonwealth has no right to interfere. But should, either spontaneously or by dexterous manipulation, the dispute become extended so as to involve the employers and employees engaged in the same industry in two or more States the Commonwealth, acting through the President of the Arbitration Court, is empowered to take action as pacificator.

Such interposition may be brought about in either of two ways. The Registrar of trade unions may certify to the existence of a legal "dispute," and request the good offices of the Court. Or one of the parties affected may formally file a "plaint" specifying the grievances complained of and the remedies sought. Should the latter course of procedure be adopted, the first question the President is called on to decide is whether a real dispute exists, a matter frequently denied, and with good reason, by the employers. In several cases the Judge of the Arbitration Court has decided this point in the affirmative, and proceeded to take evidence and deliver an award, which afterwards, on appeal to the High Court, has been declared to be *ultra vires*. One of the gravest of the many serious defects of the Act, as proved in actual practice, is that it does not permit of the authoritative determination of the question of jurisdiction before the commencement of proceedings. To compel suitors to accept a provisional and doubtful decision on this vital point, and to incur enormous costs in employing counsel and bringing evidence, all the time incurring the risk that the whole proceedings may finally be annulled, is an outrage on ordinary fairness. This topsy-turvy arrangement has already cost the victims of the Arbitration Court thousands of pounds; for the President's ruling on the first question submitted to him has seldom proved infallible.

Before the Court assumes its judicial functions, however, the Judge is empowered to summon the representatives of the disputants to a compulsory conference presided over by himself,

* The term "industrial matters" is defined in the Act as "all matters relating to work, pay wages, reward, hours, privileges, rights or duties of employers or employees, or the work, terms and conditions of employment or non-employment; and in particular, but without limiting the general scope of this definition, the term includes all matters pertaining to the relations of employers and employees, and the employment, preferential employment, dismissal or non-employment of any particular persons, or of persons of any particular sex or age or being or not being members of any organisation, association or body; and any claim arising under an industrial agreement; and all questions of what is fair and right in relation to any industrial matter having regard to the interests of persons immediately concerned, and of society as a whole." Twenty provincial attorneys at least, one might suppose, were required to frame this singularly terse and lucid definition.

so that, if possible, terms of peace may be amicably arranged. Such meetings, however, have very seldom led to any accommodation, owing to the uncompromising attitude generally adopted by the representatives of the Unions, an attitude based on their confidence that the sympathies of the final arbitrator were wholly on their side.

It is here necessary to emphasise the fact that the Arbitration Court, strictly speaking, is not a judicial tribunal, but an industrial legislature. Its head is an autocrat invested with powers of life and death over all the industries which, from time to time, come within its jurisdiction. Whether the Federal Parliament in resigning an important part of its proper functions to an independent, external authority did not exceed its constitutional rights seems doubtful. By the Conciliation and Arbitration Act all the powers of industrial control possessed by the Commonwealth were unreservedly transferred to a single Judge for the term of seven years. A temporary industrial dictatorship was, in fact, created. Nor was it enough to give the dictator the extraordinary powers of interference with private industries assigned him by the original Act. A later amendment virtually bestowed on him the privilege of taxing the community also. He was empowered to dictate the rates of remuneration to be paid by the Government to its own employees. Thus the new legislature embodied in a single functionary, responsible for a long term neither to people nor Parliament, was enabled, at his will and pleasure, to increase the public burdens by augmenting the salaries of those who are commonly but—in Australia at least—incorrectly styled public “servants.” A recent striking example of the manner in which this power has been exercised to the detriment of the tax-paying community will presently be given.

The Judge who has held the office of President of the Arbitration Court for the last seven years, Mr. Justice Higgins, was the nominee of the Labour Party, whose influence notoriously decided the appointment. Although not a pledged member of the Party, the newly-appointed official had long consistently supported it, and had held office in a Labour Ministry. He was known, also, to be an earnest champion of the extreme claims of the wage-earning class to increased remuneration, and to possess ultra-humanitarian sympathies with that class. Practically, then, the new President was but the Labour Party on the Bench, and endowed with legislative as well as judicial powers. His political patrons knew well, when they elected him for the office, that the cause of trade unionism would prosper in his hands.

The public soon discovered the bent of the judicial mind. When the first case came before the President, the “living-wage” doctrine was formally promulgated as an undeviating guide for the future decisions of the Court. Every “worker” (we must

carefully distinguish between the terms "worker" and "working man," as the two are by no means synonyms in these days), it was solemnly declared, no matter what his age, capacity or kind of employment, must receive a wage sufficient for the support in a "reasonable" degree of comfort of a married pair, and three olive branches. "Three acres and a cow" was the formula by which the modest agrarian policy of an estimable English politician of the Birmingham school used to be known not many years ago. Three children and a wife became that associated with the Australian economic doctrine of the living wage. No exception was to be allowed. Married and unmarried, young and old, skilled and unskilled, idle and industrious—all were classed together by the judicial doctrinaire and philanthropist. Soon afterwards, when it was gently protested that certain industries could not stand the strain of supporting five persons when they received service only from one, a second impressive pronouncement followed. The remuneration of the employee, Mr. Justice Higgins remarked oracularly, must not in any degree depend on the amount of profit made by the employer. And, to comfort the latter, much discomposed by this hard saying, the Judge compared him to a highwayman.

Theory, however, is one thing, practice another. Maxims of the most unbounded benevolence are sometimes difficult to carry into practice. To apply the "living wage" doctrine to working men engaged in various kinds of employment, and scattered all over a continent, with perfect equity, proved a troublesome business. Evidently remuneration, which would fully maintain a man and his judicially prescribed family in a seaport town, could not meet the requirements of an artisan living hundreds of miles away from the nearest railway or navigable waterway. The President of the Arbitration Court soon found himself hopelessly entangled in a net of perplexities of his own weaving; and his unfortunate victims found the task of extrication extremely tedious and expensive. In one notorious case, that of the Australian Workers' Union and the Federal Pastoralists' Council, the total legal costs amounted to no less than £26,000. In the course of a series of prolonged judicial tours of investigation, and the summoning, often from great distances, of troops of witnesses, the contending parties have had to pay dearly for the blessings of conciliation and arbitration. The public has fared yet worse. Just as in the Balkan States, during the nine months that ended at the close of July last year, nearly 500,000 non-combatants perished, while less than a quarter of that number of fighting men lost their lives, so in Australia the industrial war that has raged so virulently for the last seven years has brought most distress to the general mass of citizens by immensely augmenting the costs of living on the one hand and, in many cases, reducing incomes on the other.

Lawyers certainly have benefited. To them the Arbitration Court has brought plethoric and never-failing emoluments. Active and vociferous gentlemen, calling themselves "labour organisers," or "walking delegates," have also found the occupation of creating disputes both congenial and profitable. A Mr. Prendergast, formerly secretary of the union of tramway employees, has just revealed in an affidavit submitted to the High Court by the appellants' counsel in an appeal on the part of the Tramway Companies from Mr. Justice Higgins' award (based as usual on the ground that no real dispute existed), the methods by which disputes were manufactured by the agents of the trade unions in order to justify applications to the Arbitration Court. The confession is a study in the arts of roguery and deception; and there can be no doubt but that the tribunal just mentioned has been victimised again and again. It is not too much to say that the Federal Court of Arbitration has throughout been a standing incentive to perjury and fraud.

Many illustrations might be given of the extraordinary ideas held by the President of the Court concerning general economic conditions, and the rights of employers and employees respectively. The recent case of the Waterside Workers' Union deserves particular reference. Previous to the alleged "dispute" which formed the excuse for invoking the Court's interference, the ordinary wage of Australian wharf labourers varied from 1s. to 1s. 6d. an hour with 50 per cent. added for overtime, and special additional allowances for work done on Sundays or holidays. A demand was coolly engineered by the officials of the union that the minimum payment should be raised to 2s. per hour all round, with substantial increments in specified cases. Ten shillings per hour, for instance, was demanded for work done on Sundays. It was admitted that these rates were high; but, it was asserted, the number of men belonging to the union was so great that regular employment could not be obtained for all. It was contended, therefore, that each member of the union should be paid so highly during his brief intervals of work that he would be enabled to live comfortably while idle.

The Judge accepted this whimsical contention. He did not utter a word of astonishment that scores of vigorous men should hang about the wharves waiting for an occasional job, while abundance of regular employment could be obtained in the country districts. Nor did he express any approval of the liberal offer of the ship-owners to employ regularly at rates of remuneration acceptable to the union a fixed number of men limited by their requirements. The union representatives declined to entertain the reasonable suggestion that they should restrict their membership, so that the industry might not be swamped with superfluous men; and their unreasonable attitude received no

rebuke. The Judge calmly invited the employers to "apply their minds" to the task of finding work, and high pay, for all who chose to ask for it. The lady who required the services of a cook, and received six applications for the situation, might, by the same process of reasoning, be asked to "apply her mind"—and purse—to the task of providing all the applicants with a "living wage" even at the cost of suffering six dinners a day. In the end an award was made by which, it has been declared with some authority, an extra yearly charge of about £400,000 will be imposed on the Australian shipping industry. This additional burden, like others of a similar kind, will of course be "passed on" to the general public, and will fall with particular severity on the primary producers, whose exports will be yet further taxed. There will, however, be some compensation. A large and increasing army of wharf loafers, and their official and political protectors, will be comfortably provided for.

An instance of the kindly disposition of the Court to increase taxation may be added. Last August, taking advantage of the permission granted to them by a particularly mischievous, though perhaps, in the circumstances, politic, measure passed by the late Labour Government, the Commonwealth Postal Electricians' Union appealed to Mr. Justice Higgins to fix their rates of remuneration. Their trustful attitude was suitably rewarded. The Government was forthwith ordered to pay its nominal servants wages and salaries on so lavish a scale that, the Public Service Commissioner has since affirmed, an extra yearly charge of £30,000 will be imposed on the revenue. While £3 3s. per week is the highest rate fixed by any State Wages Board as payable to an electrical mechanic in private employment, working the full forty-eight hours per week, a similar workman in the Commonwealth service will, under the new arrangement, receive no less than £186 per year; and be required on an average to work for only forty-six weeks of forty-four hours each. Thus the cost of the latter's services to the State will be thirty-nine per cent. higher than the cost of the services of a similar mechanic, engaged by a private firm, to his employers. The immediate result of this egregious award, according to the Commissioner, will be that "practically the whole of the telephone revenue of the Commonwealth will be swallowed up in salaries and wages alone." And, of course, such an example of successful spoliation must have disquieting effects both in the public service and outside it. Already the representatives of the Federal Clerical Association have produced their modest "plaint," asking, among other things, for salaries ranging from £126 to £900 a year, and a working week limited to thirty-six hours. Similar applications on the part of other bodies of public employees are sure to follow, unless, as may be hoped, the powers of mischievous interference

with the public service now possessed by the Arbitration Court be wholly abolished. Such interference, apart from the loss caused to the public, must, if continued, eventually have the most demoralising effect on the whole body of public servants, and weaken their sense of loyalty to the State.

The Commonwealth statistician has recently calculated that, since 1901, wages in the Commonwealth have risen twenty-four per cent. and costs of living twenty-six per cent. It will, of course, be understood that increases of wages have mainly been confined to the members of trade associations, while the claims of unorganised labour have largely been disregarded. Consequently there are many working men, particularly those engaged in rural occupations, who are distinctly the worse off for the favours showered on their city brethren. Even granting, however, that conditions of life among the whole class of manual labour have been slightly improved all round, there is no doubt whatever that such improvement has been purchased at the price of a marked cessation of industrial enterprise. The development of many industries, that of mining in particular, has sustained a disastrous check by reason of the enormous additional burdens imposed. Many mines that could be worked with advantage under reasonable conditions are now quite unprofitable, and their shareholders no longer receive any return for the hard earned money so invested. Some have had to be closed down entirely.* Undeveloped mining properties of great promise, which by the aid of capital might afford comfortable means of subsistence to thousands, remain neglected simply because no sane capitalist will embark money in a speculative enterprise when he knows that, even if it should prove successful, all the returns derived from it might at any time be diverted by judicial fanaticism into the pockets of those who never took any risks whatever. Thousands of working miners themselves, who were formerly perfectly satisfied with their treatment, now suffer lack of employment owing to the predatory policy pursued by a small and not very reputable minority of their fellows. No industry in the Commonwealth has suffered more through the extravagant operation of the "living wage" doctrine than that of mining. The most recent demand made by the Miners' Union is for a minimum wage of 12s. per day, a rate that would, in present circumstances, deprive half the shareholders now owning interests in Australian mines of any hope of dividends. It is painfully significant to note that not a penny of British capital has been invested in Australian mining

* The recent closing down of the Tasmania gold mine was attributed largely by the Chairman of the Board of Directors to the fact that two awards of the President of the Arbitration Court had increased working expenses by no less than 30 per cent. within the last couple of years. The suspension of operations has entailed, *inter alia*, a loss of £60,000 yearly to the working miners formerly employed. Other somewhat similar examples might be given.

properties during the first three months of this year, while millions have gone elsewhere.

Hitherto Australian agriculture has been spared the evils inseparable from the direct application of the latest economic panacea devised for the cure of all industrial ills. Indirectly, nevertheless, it has suffered severely. The farmer in Australia is now compelled to pay higher prices for agricultural implements and other necessaries, owing to the joint operation of an almost prohibitive tariff and artificially increased costs of home production. Manufacturers, naturally, protect themselves against the extortions of predatory syndicalism, aided by noxious political influences at the expense of their customers; so also do ship-owners and middlemen of all kinds; the hapless agriculturist, pastoralist, or mineowner has no such resource, for he has to face open competition in the world's markets. Just as the oppressively benevolent hand of Mr. Justice Higgins is already turning what were once profitable mines into abandoned shafts and accumulations of rusting machinery, so if applied to the farming industry, it would infallibly convert what are now tilled fields and orchards providing food and employment for tens of thousands into pastures for sheep and cattle, almost devoid of human life. It is to be hoped that the Commonwealth may not suffer this crowning calamity. Although, in the nature of things, it could be but transient, the threatened agrarian revolution would inevitably be attended by a degree of public suffering such as Australia has never yet known.

The time has come for plain speaking. The susceptibilities of individuals must be regarded as wholly subordinate to the happiness and safety of communities. The word "safety" is used with deliberation. The "living wage" may prove the last fatal illusion of a dying nation. Any kind of industrial policy, arbitrarily enforced, that shakes public confidence, undermines the foundations of security of property, unduly limits the freedom of the private citizen, stifles enterprise and honourable ambition, and scatters dissension and class hatred far and wide, must be an abiding menace to the national security. By fomenting domestic discord it forbids that close, sympathetic union between all classes of society which alone affords to a small isolated community any hope of salvation when assailed by a powerful foe. By checking the inflow of population which follows the introduction of capital, it deprives the country of the material resources that are necessary to the preservation of national independence.

The period of seven years for which Mr. Justice Higgins was appointed to act as President of the Federal Arbitration Court will expire next September. His re-appointment for a further term, and with powers equal to those which he has

hitherto so lamentably misused, would be nothing short of a national disaster. The "living wage" doctrine has become to the Commonwealth a malignant cancer devouring the healthy tissues of the industrial body. It now urgently calls for the knife of the legislative surgeon. Self-manacled by a rule of practice, which defies the ordinary principles of political economy as much as those of common equity, the present head of the Court, if re-appointed, would be constrained to follow the devastating course he has hitherto pursued. As a judicial tribunal his Court has failed to maintain the noble traditions of its predecessors in all countries under the British Flag. It has systematically discriminated between suitors. One class, always dragged with reluctance to the bar as culprits, has invariably found the scales of justice weighted against it. Another has always, with good reason, regarded the judge as an omnipotent and never-failing benefactor. The "living wage" doctrine, in its Australian interpretation, simply means this: in every industrial dispute the employees always stand to win, and the employers always stand to lose.

No matter what the merits of the case, this result has invariably followed an appeal to the Arbitration Court. In its legislative capacity the latter has issued a series of edicts which have brought confusion and loss into every industry affected.* It has also actually usurped the right of taxing the people by intervening between the employees of the State and their proper master, the public. Ample as were the powers bestowed on it by a foolishly confiding Legislature, it has consistently endeavoured further to extend those powers.† Yet, while both directly and indirectly, the Federal Court of Arbitration has brought incalculable material loss to Australia, the moral effects of its erratic proceedings have been even worse. The hateful and destructive passions of greed‡ and envy have everywhere been aroused in

* Not long ago the President of the Arbitration Court made an award substantially raising the wages payable to builders' labourers, and reducing their hours of work from forty-eight to forty-four hours per week. The results were that the inferior class of workmen was placed on an equal footing, as regards rates of remuneration, with that of a superior class engaged in the same trade, while its members were required to work four hours a week less than the skilled bricklayers and masons.

† One of the latest attempted encroachments on the part of the Court was the incorporation in an award relating to the building trade of a condition requiring a particular class of employees to comply with the requirements of the Commonwealth Workmen's Compensation Act. The employees affected appealed successfully to the High Court for relief from this condition, which, like others previously, was unanimously declared *ultra vires*.

‡ The case of the union of men engaged in the manufacture of felt hats recently came before Mr. Justice Power, acting for the President of the Arbitration Court while away on leave of absence. One of the witnesses stated that his average earnings amounted to over £5 a week for thirty-six hours' work; but he demanded £300 a year. Another, making £7 a week for thirty-three hours' labour, declared, to the Judge's astonishment, that he was satisfied with his remuneration. Hats, it is almost unnecessary to remark, are becoming dear in Australia.

the most virulent form. Harmonious relations between the two great industrial classes that should be natural friends and partners have been gravely weakened, rapacity has been encouraged on the one hand, and confidence in the administration of justice weakened on the other. It seems almost incredible that in these days, and in a British community claiming the largest measure of freedom, an industrial tyranny extending over a whole continent should have come into existence.

The censure provoked by a survey of the baneful results produced by that tyranny must not, however, be directed solely, nor even chiefly, against the agent appointed to exercise it. No one denies to the retiring President perfect integrity and rectitude of intention. For his natural, mental and moral idiosyncrasies no one can blame him. Culpability for the evils that have followed the attempted realisation by judicial process of impossible ideals must be ascribed to the creators of the institution and not to the functionary entrusted with what in any case would have been a hopeless task. The Ministry that appointed to a position of almost unlimited industrial authority a dictator, whose very virtues entirely unfitted him for discharging his overwhelming duties, even with partial success; and the Parliament that assented to such appointment were the prime offenders. Fearful lest they should affront the leaders of organised labour by refusing outrageous demands, and dreading also the odium they would ultimately incur should those demands be granted, they disingenuously tried to evade responsibility by thrusting the whole task of mediation between the contending forces of labour and capital into the hands of a single arbitrator invested with powers which should never have been so delegated. They did not themselves throw an important, but politically feeble, class of citizens to the wolves; but they placed, so far as they could, that class at the mercy of one known to listen with sympathy to the bayings of the ravenous pack. In so doing, no doubt, they saved, for the time, their political skins, but they damned their political reputations.

One useful lesson, however, their ignoble conduct has taught the world. Whatever may be the ultimate solution of the industrial problem, it will never be found in the legal sanction of a doctrine dictated by a vague sentiment of humanitarianism which disregards not only the laws of political economy, but the ordinary diversities and limitations of human nature, and the first principles of justice.

F. A. W. GISBORNE.

CIVIL SERVANTS AND SECURITY OF TENURE

BY SIR CHARLES BRUCE, G.C.M.G.

ON the 7th of May last I addressed the following letter to the Secretary to the Royal Commission on the Civil Service requesting to be allowed to give evidence before the Commissioners :—

SIR,—I have the honour to request that I may be allowed to give evidence before the Royal Commission on the Civil Service. The reasons which have delayed my request will appear in the course of this letter.

The subjects on which I desire to give evidence, although arising directly out of proceedings of the Board of Education, concern every department of the Civil Service—security of tenure and promotion. In the fourth report of the Commissioners, page 30, par. 9, the following sentence occurs :—

From the point of view of the employed, perhaps the greatest advantage of the established Civil Service is its permanency, its practical security of tenure.

The purpose of my evidence is to show that practically no such security exists.

In Chapter VIII. of the Report, on Promotion, the Commissioners deal, in par. 3, with increments, and, in par. 5, with the distinction between promotion “in ordinary course” and promotion not “in ordinary course.” The purpose of my evidence is to show the methods by which increments and “promotion not in ordinary course” are made use of as agencies fatal to security of tenure.

The evidence I wish to submit consists of official correspondence, but I shall, of course, be ready to give oral evidence in support of it if desired. It is the result of an experience without parallel, as I have been assured, and as I hope and believe, in the history of the Civil Service of the country. It extends over a period of nearly six years, and the persons concerned include Ministers of the Crown, the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury, Solicitors to the Treasury, and Counsel of eminence holding the high offices of Judge-Advocate-General and Judge-Advocate of the Fleet.

I believe the proceedings forming the subject of my evidence to be of national and even imperial importance in their bearing on the security of tenure of members of every department of His Majesty's Civil Service.

The correspondence discloses the reasons which have determined the time of this application. It also discloses the grounds on which the Board of Education, the department primarily concerned, has endeavoured to impose on me the obligation of secrecy, and at the same time the reasons that have confirmed me in the resolution not to remain accessory to the concealment of facts which I conceive to be of material importance as supplementary to, and indispensable to, an impartial appreciation of the evidence given by the Board to the Commissioners.

As regards the Ministers and holders of high office under the Crown concerned, I find it impossible to believe that they can object to the discovery to the Commissioners of material facts intimately bearing on the working of the existing scheme of organisation of the Civil Service which a Royal Commission has been appointed by His Majesty the King to inquire into and report on.

On receipt of your reply I shall be prepared to send you a copy of the correspondence which I desire to submit to the Commissioners as evidence. I am, etc.

On the next day the Secretary, Mr. Behrens, replied:—

SIR,—In reply to your letter of the 7th inst., I am desired by the Chairman of the Commission to inform you that the matters now before the Commission are strictly confined to appointments, promotion and organisation of the Foreign Office, Diplomatic and Consular Services. It does not appear from your letter that the points upon which you desire to give evidence have any direct bearing upon these questions.

In these circumstances, Lord Macdonnell directs me to say he will not trouble you to attend for examination. I am etc.

In the last week of June the correspondence was communicated to the Press, accompanied by the expression of a hope that it might be followed by a reconsideration of the decision to withhold from the Commission material facts bearing on questions of appointment, promotion and organisation common to every department of the Civil Service, and more especially on the question of security of tenure. The nature and scope of the evidence I desired to offer was also briefly stated in terms which I now reproduce:—

“Security of tenure depends on the recognition of two rights—the right to a definite statement of any charges made a ground of accusation, in order that an officer may have a

full opportunity of reply and defence, and the right to an inquiry by an independent and impartial Court or tribunal. The right to a definite statement of any charge made a ground of accusation was not long ago claimed by the Attorney-General, now Lord Chief Justice of England, for His Majesty's Ministers and the commonest criminal.

"I desire to submit to the Commission proof of the violation of this right when claimed by a member of the Civil Service. As regards inquiry by an independent and impartial Court or tribunal, I desire to give evidence, not only of the violation of this right, but of an official declaration made by a Minister of the Crown that the claim to such a right was 'downright impudence.'

"Inseparable from the question of security of tenure are the questions of the right of civil servants to pensions and of the methods of award—questions of vital interest to every department of the service.

"The Commissioners in their report, observed that they have received evidence which suggests that a short period of service as private secretary to a Minister may carry disproportionate weight with respect to promotion. The evidence I desired to offer, based on official documents, exhibits the nature of some of the service, and shows how intimately the question of promotion is linked with the questions of security of tenure and organisation.

"I cannot believe that the conscience of the country, deeply concerned in the maintenance of the honourable traditions of the Civil Service, will approve the exclusion from the Records of the Commission of the evidence I desired and desire to offer. The reasons of my delay in tendering it are shown in the official documents I proposed to submit."

The publication of my correspondence and the accompanying statement was followed on July 1st by a question addressed by Mr. F. Hall in the House of Commons to the Home Secretary who replied :—

I am informed that on May 7 last Sir Charles Bruce requested permission to tender certain evidence to the Royal Commission after the publication of the Fourth Report of the Commissioners, and that permission was refused on the ground that the evidence in question did not appear to have any direct bearing upon the questions then under consideration. I see no ground for extending the scope of the Commission's inquiry.

The reply was misleading. It implied, and has been taken to imply, that the evidence was refused on the ground that it did not fall within the scope of the terms of reference, and that to admit it would have required an extension of the scope of the inquiry. That was not the case. The evidence was refused on the ground that it did not appear from my letter to have any direct bearing

on the questions of appointment, promotion, and organisation of the Foreign Office, Diplomatic, and Consular Services then before the Commissioners. It was not pretended that the evidence I offered did not appear from my letter to fall within the scope of the terms of reference, or that the publication of their Fourth Report had exhausted their power to admit without an extension of the scope of the inquiry, evidence of the same nature and scope as that admitted before the publication. Whatever may have been the motive of the Commissioners or of the Home Secretary the result of the refusal to admit my evidence, was to bang, bolt and bar the door against my endeavours to obtain for it that publicity which Mr. Gladstone declared to be the only safeguard of our liberties. After the failure, through the action of the Home Secretary, of a petition addressed to the Crown, I made a formal proposal to the Board of Education in these terms:—

I am prepared to submit my Petition of January 8 last, with the connected documents and correspondence, to the Royal Commission on the Civil Service or to a similarly constituted Commission, and I desire no more than to be allowed to give evidence in support of the correctness of my statements, if they are impugned. I shall be glad to know whether the Board is willing to accept this proposal, which I now formally submit.

But the acceptance of this proposal would at once have defeated the extraordinary precautions taken by Ministers of the Crown, assisted by the Treasury, and supported by the auxiliary forces of the Judges-Advocates of the Army and Navy, to secure the immunity of perpetual secrecy for the methods by which a public department can dispose of the security of tenure of His Majesty's Civil Service. To the letter in which I submitted my proposal I received an evasive reply, and I am not aware whether any communication passed between the Board and the Royal Commission before my request to be allowed to give evidence was refused.

The general nature and scope of the evidence I proposed to submit are briefly indicated in my letter, and a summary of fuller information was, by the courtesy of the Editor, published in the *Daily Express*; but communications I have received lead me to believe that a more precise presentation, supported by a brief orderly narrative of facts, is demanded.

The primary question with which my evidence is concerned is the use, or abuse, of the incremental system as an instrument fatal to security of tenure, and intimately associated with this is the use, or abuse, of the services of private secretaries. Early in the year 1908, the increment of an Inspector of the Board of

Education was withheld by the Secretary after the immediate superiors of the inspector had signed the increment certificate and had refused to withdraw their signatures. After pressing in vain to be informed of the reasons, the inspector was sent for by the Secretary and advised to send in his papers in order to avoid the still more untoward consequences which might follow an investigation into matters connected with the discharge of his official duties.

Declining to send in his papers the inspector claimed a definite statement of the matters to be investigated and received a written promise of the statement claimed. The promise was not fulfilled. For the definite statement promised there was substituted a declaration that the menaced investigation was being proceeded with, and he had to continue his work under the strain of consciousness that unknown colleagues were engaged, under the direction of the Secretary, in carrying on behind his back an inquiry expected to have even more untoward consequences than the resignation of his office in order to escape the inquiry. The inevitable consequence of the strain, prolonged over months, was a nervous breakdown, and on his recovery a second endeavour was made to persuade him to resign under menace of dismissal by the automatic process of the repeated withholding of his increment, a declaration being made that the increment might be withheld without reason assigned.

Later, he addressed to the Secretary a Minute declaring that he had for nine months been appealing in vain for an impartial inquiry into the circumstances which, for over three years, had made his official life one practically uninterrupted period of mental torture. This elicited the information that eight months previously a second secret investigation into his case, of which he had received no intimation whatever, had been carried out by a subordinate officer of the Department. A few weeks later he was summoned before the then President of the Board, and was informed that his claim for an impartial inquiry by a Court independent of the Board was "downright impudence." The interview was followed by the retirement of the inspector on a small pension, and in due course by a Petition to the Crown which, on the advice of the Home Secretary, was referred to the Board of Education as Court of final jurisdiction.

The result was the appointment by the Board of the Judge-Advocate-General to hold an inquiry. Prior to the inquiry a volume of papers was communicated under a pledge of secrecy. It disclosed a Minute and Memorandum by the secretary giving the real reasons of the original withholding of the inspector's increment, accompanied by an instruction or authority to communicate them to the inspector. They had never been

communicated. The papers also disclosed the real reasons of the second withholding of the increment, and the failure to communicate them to the inspector in precisely similar circumstances. Of not less importance were the disclosures relating to the investigation, to escape the consequences of which the inspector had been advised to send in his papers. A note written and signed by a private secretary declared that the inquiry had been carried on in the expectation that the result would leave a stigma on the inspector, which might prevent him from earning a livelihood, but had revealed a skein of complications so tangled that the attempt to unravel it had perforce been given up in despair.

This was the natural consequence of holding the inquiry behind the inspector's back and violating the written promise to let him have a definite statement of the matters of inquiry. The private secretary who signed this document has since had the reward of "promotion out of the ordinary course," referred to by the Royal Commission, but the terms of the document, which failed to disclose what were the matters of inquiry, remained and left on record against the inspector the abandonment in despair of an inquiry expected to result in disclosures which might prevent him from earning a livelihood. The record made it more than ever imperative to claim the definite statement promised four years previously. An explicit and peremptory demand made by counsel for the statement was met at first by evasion and finally by refusal.

A secret Inquiry was opened * in a subterranean vault in Whitehall, the Board of Education, who had appointed the Judge-Advocate-General of the Army as referee, being represented by the Judge-Advocate of the Fleet and other counsel instructed by the department of the Solicitor to the Treasury. On the eighth day of the Inquiry, the statement promised nearly five years previously, and refused up to the opening of the Inquiry, was made by the secretary in terms which, if they had been declared at the time of the promise, or at any time before the secret inquiry referred to by the private secretary had been given up in despair, must at once have arrested all the subsequent proceedings which ruined the inspector's official career, and, for a time, even imperilled his life.

The statement, accompanied by a declaration that the circumstances which led up to his retirement arose largely from health and involved no imputation on his personal honour, was now made only after the evidence that led up to it had proved the certainty of an adequate defence, in that it showed that the inspector had acted in the matter of charge—visits of inspection

* February 4, 1913.

made to certain schools—on the direct instructions of his superior officer. And this obviously determined the conditions imposed as the price at which the statement had to be purchased, conditions of secrecy and finality designed to secure for the Board perpetual immunity from the consequences of the violation of its written promise.

From these conditions relief was sought by the constitutional method of a Petition to the King, setting out fully the circumstances in which they had been assented to. On the advice of the Home Secretary this Petition was referred, as had been the earlier Petition, to the Board of Education as Court of final jurisdiction. By this action one of the parties to an inquiry was constituted a Court to decide an appeal against its proceedings by the opposing party. On the rejection of the prayer of the Petition by the Board the formal proposal to refer the matters of appeal to the impartial tribunal of the Royal Commission, was submitted to the Board in the terms that have been stated.

Whatever may be the ultimate issue of the proposal, the proceedings, of which the nature and scope have been indicated, point to the conclusion that there can be no security of tenure for the Civil Service without the institution of a Court of Appeal. It is only by the right of appeal from administrative departments to local Executives, and from local Executives to the Imperial Government that security of tenure is maintained in the colonial services, and the institution of a Court of Appeal to be established on similar principles has long been advocated for the Home Civil Service. At present not only the tenure of office, but the honour of a civil servant is at the disposal of his superior officer, or even of a combination of his colleagues in quest of "promotion out of the ordinary course," and relying on the protection of secrecy secured by the baneful methods indicated.

It would be a grave error to suppose that the question of security of tenure is limited in its consequences to the personal interests of individual members of the Civil Service. Security of tenure is the only safeguard of liberty of opinion, and liberty of opinion the only bulwark against the tyranny of bureaucracy. At a conference of the Insurance Commissioners held at the Foreign Office on January 4th, 1912, the chairman, Sir Robert Morant, was reported, in a *communiqué* to the Press, to have "disclaimed any idea of making the Insurance Office a Government department to impose its will upon the people of this country." While it remains to be seen whether this view of the function of a Government department will be generally accepted, there can be no doubt that Sir Robert could speak with authority of the policy of the Board of Education. And that the policy indicated was not confined to the Board had been proved, a few

weeks earlier, in a case carried to the Court of Appeal arising out of proceedings of the Commissioners of Inland Revenue. In the course of this case the judges had protested against the encroachment of Government departments on the liberty of the subject, and in particular against the claim of the departments to a superiority over the law denied by the Courts to the King even in the Stuart times. In a letter addressed to the Home Secretary a few weeks later, forwarding a petition to the Crown for an inquiry into grievances arising out of the methods of the Board, I pointed out that these methods seemed to be conceived and executed in the spirit of the bureaucratic policy condemned by his Majesty's Judges. At the same time I pointed out that if the prayer of my petition were refused it would still remain for the conscience of Parliament and the people of this country to decide whether the duties of his Majesty's Civil Service are to be carried on under a system which, by placing the health, the career and the honour of a subordinate official at the disposal of his departmental superiors, abrogates security of tenure, and, as a corollary, liberty of opinion. Shortly before this the Prime Minister had promised an inquiry into the existing system of appointment and promotion in the Civil Service, and I suggested in my letter to the Home Secretary that the question of security of tenure seemed to be of at least equal importance. The Prime Minister's promise was fulfilled three months later by the appointment of a Royal Commission, and I was ready then, as I am now, to give evidence before it. Only I must add that the evidence I am now in a position to present is supplemented and supported by documents not then in my possession, but none the less important because they are of official origin and because the counsel for the Board has declared that if the matter had been in his hands I should never have got hold of them.

CHARLES BRUCE.

THE INDIAN OVERSEA

By G. H. LEPPER

THE racial and political problems which have arisen owing to the migration of Indians to various parts of the British Empire are many-sided, and their character is such that they have already called for the exercise of a great deal of tactful statesmanship (which has not always, it is to be feared, been forthcoming) to prevent the consequences of each local outbreak of irritation proving disastrous to the delicate Imperial fabric. They will, undoubtedly, demand even more careful handling in the immediate future.

Once outside his native country the British Indian is treated in a different manner by all the other political units of which our Empire is composed. In Great Britain he is welcomed and regarded for the most part as an equal. By fulfilling the residence qualification he can exercise the franchise and can, as several of his compatriots have already shown, secure election to the House of Commons. It should be remembered, however, that the Indians who visit England to complete their education or for business purposes are nearly all of fairly high social standing in their own country, belonging, indeed, to a class which is rarely seen in the newer British States. Even in Natal, whence some of the loudest complaints against harsh treatment of Indians have come, I can recall having once formed a unit of a white audience which listened with the utmost attention to a lecture by a visiting Brahmin on Indian philosophy and religion. It is true that a rather offensively patronising note was struck by a white speaker who moved a vote of thanks, but the fact that a fairly large number of white men and women could be found to listen to a lecture by an Indian in a colony in which it is the fashion to regard all Asiatics as belonging to an inferior order of beings was significant as an indication that even the most rabid "All-White" communities are prepared to treat with respect the genuinely cultured type of Indian. Incidents such as this form a refreshing contrast to the outbreaks of racial animosity which are, unfortunately, so much more frequent.

Hitherto the "coolie" and small trader types of Indian have been the only ones of which the British Dominions and Colonies have had any real experience. Even so it was not until the rapid increase in the numbers of the Indian immigrants threatened the white communities with a very real danger of being swamped by an alien standard of living that hostility to the Indians began to assume alarming proportions.

In Canada, the Indians of the labouring class (described indiscriminately, regardless of their religious beliefs, as Hindus to distinguish them from the North American aborigines, who are referred to throughout the continent as Indians, *tout court*) merely followed in the wake of Chinese and Japanese. They were received without enthusiasm but without resentment, until it was seen that the stream of unassimilable immigrants of the "cheap labour" type was attaining such dimensions that a check would have to be placed upon fresh arrivals if the Pacific Province were to retain its right to be regarded as a "White Man's Country."

The method of restricting Indian immigration adopted was ingenious. It was enacted that no Asiatic immigrant would be allowed entry unless he had travelled from his native country without transshipment. As there are no direct passenger vessels plying between India and Canadian ports the effect of the regulation was to put a stop to the greater part of this traffic. With a view to testing the barrier the s.s. *Komagata Maru* was chartered at Hong Kong last spring to convey several hundreds of Indians to Vancouver, and the events which followed the arrival of the vessel at her destination have played a not inconsiderable part in the process of embittering the relations between Great Britain and India. It so happened, apparently without the knowledge of those concerned in the venture, that, in order to prevent further congestion of the already overstocked labour market in British Columbia, an Order-in-Council, prohibiting the entry of artisans and labourers of all kinds without distinction of race, which would normally have expired on March 31, was extended by the Government to apply until further notice. Consequently the authorities were well equipped with legal weapons to use against the invaders even before their vessel sailed from India.

Speaking on the subject, Sir Richard McBride, the Premier of the Province, to quote the *Times* correspondent at Victoria, said:—

It would be idle to ignore the attitude of the people of British Columbia, and it is our desire to strengthen the hands of the Dominion Government in its efforts to oppose, as far as possible, further immigration of Orientals into Canada. It is with no feeling of hostility towards the Asiatic races that

we take this stand, but we realise that Western and Oriental civilisations are so different that there never can be any amalgamation of the two, nor can the Asiatics conform to our ways and ideals. To admit Orientals in large numbers would mean in the end the extinction of the white peoples, and we have always in mind the necessity of keeping this a white man's country.

In the face of this determination in the highest quarters it was evident months ago that the enterprise of the charterer of the *Komagata Maru* was doomed to failure, in so far as gaining an entry into Canada for her human cargo was concerned, though if, as seems more probable, his chief object was to assist in bringing to a head the whole question of the rights of British Indians outside their own country, his ambition seems much more likely to succeed. It is not the least of their grievances that they are actually at a disadvantage as compared with Chinese and Japanese, who are not even British subjects, as regards their treatment by Canada. Except on the hypothesis that the Imperial Government wished to steer clear of the dispute as far as possible, it is difficult to understand why the Indians on the *Komagata Maru* were allowed to leave Hong Kong. Still more inexplicable is the failure to stop the second vessel, which is reported to be now on the way to Vancouver from an Indian port.

At the census of 1911 there were only 2,342 Indians enumerated in Canada. The number has not increased much since then. There are possibly as many more in the Western States. It is a great pity that Indians were ever allowed to land in North America. Ignorant of the language spoken, they were, for some time after their arrival, at the mercy of every unscrupulous white man who chose to prey upon their simplicity. By accepting wages below the current scale they aroused the anger of white labourers, and their religious customs became a subject for derisive comment, if not for active insult. The winter climate of British Columbia is very different from that of India, and is hardly suited to a race whose proper home is in tropical latitudes. But, in spite of these and other drawbacks, the few thousands of Sikhs and Hindus who have found their way to North America have, during their short residence there, earned so much more money than they could have done in a similar period in their native land, that they naturally wish to remain in a country where a few years' toil makes them wealthy from the Indian point of view.

Apart from the question as to whether, as British subjects, Indians are entitled to demand free entry into all portions of the Empire, those who have actually become residents of British Columbia have several undoubted grievances. They are forbidden to bring their wives into the country, and in that Province—the

only part of Canada in which they have seriously attempted to settle—they are, together with aborigines, Chinese and Japanese, expressly debarred by section 7 of the British Columbia Elections Act from having their names placed on the register of voters of any electoral district or voting at any election. (It should be explained that in Canada the Provincial Legislatures control the franchise laws.) Thus one more indication to the Indian mind of the impotence of the British Government with regard to discrimination against the King-Emperor's Asiatic subjects has been afforded by Canada. The fact that a large proportion of the Sikhs in British Columbia have served in the Indian Army makes the circumstances still more regrettable. The exclusion of all Asiatics (apart, of course, from professional men, students and tourists) is a step which might have been taken long before their numbers had reached the present total, on the ground that European and Asiatic standards of living are altogether incompatible. Much trouble would have been avoided if this had been done. The evils that have arisen were not foreseen in time, however, and all that can be done now is to attempt to minimise as much as possible the racial friction which exists on the Pacific Coast and to prevent its repercussions from causing serious trouble elsewhere. We may conveniently return to a consideration of possible means to this end after a brief glance at the situation in other parts of the Empire.

In Australia, as the result of the experience gained by the white population following the advent of the Chinese immigrants who entered the country before exclusion was enforced, only a few thousand Indians have been allowed to gain a foothold. And although the method of exclusion, which is effected by means of an elastic language test, may be regarded by Indians as opposed to what they have been taught to believe are their rights as British subjects, the prevention of the unrestricted entry of Indians of the labouring class has undoubtedly saved Australia from having to undergo the experience which South Africa has recently suffered. From the point of view that prevention is better than cure, Australia has evinced a sound instinct in racial matters. The courageous manner in which the Kanaka problem in Queensland was tackled showed that the Australians were prepared to stand or fall by their ideal of a "White Australia." There can be no doubt that the development of Queensland and the Northern Territory could have been greatly hastened by the introduction of a plentiful supply of cheap labour. But the Australians felt that it was better to avoid the racial complications which the experience of other countries had indicated as inevitable in the event of such an influx of coloured labour being permitted and, in view of what

has happened elsewhere, who shall say that they were not wise in their generation? Hitherto the Indians have made no serious attempt to enter New Zealand, which, like Australia, has long refused to permit further Mongolian immigration, but apparently recent occurrences have not passed unnoticed, and the New Zealand Prime Minister, Mr. W. F. Massey, announced a few weeks ago that he hoped to introduce legislation next session with the object of preventing Indians from attempting to settle in that Dominion. The total number of Indians in New Zealand is under a thousand.

The South African Indian difficulty has been patched up, possibly for a long time, but few who know the country intimately will venture to assert that it has been finally adjusted, in spite of recent conciliatory utterances by Mr. Gandhi, the South African Indians' leader. There are about 160,000 Indians in South Africa, and of these over 150,000 reside in Natal. The white population of that province is only 100,000. This fact in itself explains both the vexatious treatment of Indians in Natal and the determination of the other provinces of the Union to prevent a similar growth of the Asiatic element in their midst. The Natal Indians were imported as plantation labourers in the first place, and it was the general belief when the introduction of "coolies" began that they would return to India after serving the term of their indentures. The Indians, however, saw that Natal was an eminently desirable country climatically, and one in which they could remain with great pecuniary advantage to themselves. Consequently large numbers refused to re-indenture, and availed themselves of the privilege of remaining in the country. They became market gardeners, small traders, waiters, cooks, railway servants and clerks. A few even became voters before the growth of the Indian population so alarmed the whites that legislation to exclude Asiatics from the exercise of the franchise was passed, many years before the Union was formed.

Many Indian and "Arab" traders acquired choice business and residential sites in Durban and elsewhere, and portions of Durban have to-day quite an Oriental appearance. The Indian market gardener and small general storekeeper is everywhere in evidence in Natal, and consequently much of the commercial activity which would otherwise fall within the province of the whites is in the hands of Asiatics. In their alarm at the rapid increase in the numbers of the Indian population, the white Natalians and their fellows in the neighbouring colonies somewhat overstepped the line of legitimate restriction and the Indian Government was forced to prohibit further recruiting of Indians for South African plantations. The only white people whose

interests were adversely affected by the virtual stoppage of Indian immigration were the planters in the coast belt of Natal, and these were not numerous enough to possess much voice in the councils of South Africa. Hence it is quite unlikely that the embargo on the entry of Indians will be removed. But the 160,000 Indians who are already domiciled within the borders of the Union themselves present a problem of no little complexity, and one which, although it has been temporarily adjusted, is by no means solved. The chief grievances which the Indians formulated were :—

The imposition of a poll-tax of £3 per annum on Indians (men, women and children—boys over 16 and girls over 13) who are not indentured to European planters and others.

The refusal of the government to recognise the legality of Hindu and Mahomedan marriages on the ground that these religions permit polygamy—in spite of the fact that the Native Code of South Africa recognises polygamy amongst the aboriginal population.

The restrictions placed by the Cape Province, Transvaal and Orange Free State on the entry of Natal Indians, and the insulting character of the declaration which Indians who enter the last-named Province have to sign.

The withholding from Indians of the right to appeal to the supreme courts in certain cases arising out of disputes under the Immigration Act.

Harsh administration of the restrictive laws directed against Indians.

The sense of injustice felt by the Indian community culminated in the latter part of 1913 in the pilgrimage undertaken by 2,000 Natal Indians into the Transvaal in order to lay themselves open to arrest and thus protest against the offensive restrictions placed upon their free movement within the Union. This march, described by a South African correspondent of the *Times* as “one of the most remarkable manifestations in history of the spirit of passive resistance,” was followed by a strike of the Indians employed on sugar plantations, and several riots, accompanied by bloodshed, took place. The government shortly afterwards had its hands full in connection with the industrial disturbances on the Rand and in other parts of the country, and the Indian problem receded temporarily into the background.

It soon emerged from eclipse. Eventually a commission of inquiry was held, the proceedings being watched by a representative of the Indian Government. The personnel of the commission was unfavourably regarded by the South African Indians, who declined to recognise it or assist its labours in any way. Nevertheless the commission reported in favour of the repeal of the obnoxious poll-tax, the recognition of Indian marriages, the granting of permission to Indians to introduce one wife and minor children, and the more sympathetic administration of the Indian immigration laws. Legislation to give effect to these recommendations has been passed and it is to be hoped that the question will not again

assume the disturbing proportions of a few months ago. It is too much to expect that it has been disposed of for all time either in its local or Imperial aspects, but South African legislators, particularly those of Dutch descent, must be given credit for risking considerable unpopularity with their constituents in order to meet as far as possible an Imperial obligation. Future agitation will probably take the form of a demand for the franchise, but this is unlikely to come to a head just yet.

There is another class of colony in which Indian immigrants are to be found. In Mauritius, the Fiji Islands, the Seychelles, Jamaica, Trinidad, British Guiana and the East African Protectorates large communities exist. There are 265,000 in Mauritius and about 150,000 in British Guiana—more than half the total population. In East and Central Africa there are some 45,000, in the Fiji Islands 45,000, in Jamaica 18,000. In Trinidad, Zanzibar and the Seychelles there are several thousands more, not to mention those at work on the rubber plantations of the Malay States and Straits Settlements who, as they remain within the confines of Asia, can be ignored in so far as this inquiry is concerned. Apart from these, but including those in the Union of South Africa, Rhodesia and Canada, there are rather under three-quarters of a million emigrant Indians resident in British countries.

The problem presented by the Indians domiciled in the Crown Colonies and Protectorates is of a totally different order to those arising from the treatment of Indians by the self-governing Dominions. In the first place, although they were introduced as indentured labourers and do not, in most cases, have political privileges conferred upon them, they are not the object of oppressive racial legislation, since the governments under which they live are dominated to a large extent by the Colonial Office, and are, therefore, subject to pressure from the Indian Government should this be required. Again, these colonies are tropical in climate and can never become the homes of a white labouring class, so that no conflict of civilisations takes place. What will happen, however, and has indeed happened in several cases, is that the white commercial and professional classes will be slowly but surely squeezed out, leaving the Indians in almost complete possession, save for a handful of white officials, planters and business men. In time even the few white planters and merchants remaining will probably be forced to take their departure by the competition of their coloured rivals and, but for the vulnerability of most of these colonies to an attack from warships, the ejection of the white officials might follow. A century hence India will be the mother country of quite a number of isolated tropical colonies in various parts of the world. These are not white men's

countries in any case, and that it is their eventual destiny to be homes for coloured men can hardly be gainsaid.

The two principal matters to be considered then are, first, the arrangement of a *modus vivendi* with regard to those Indians resident in self-governing Dominions and the conditions which are to govern the future entry of Indians into those countries; and, secondly, the provision of an outlet for the large numbers of Indians who will be impelled by economic pressure to seek less cramped quarters in other parts of the world. These are, of course, extremely thorny questions, but it should be possible to arrive at a fair working agreement with regard to both by the exercise of sufficient statesmanship.

As regards the first of these issues it should be plainly and authoritatively asserted that each self-governing portion of the Empire has the right to decide whether it will admit any person, regardless of his race or country of origin. As a matter of fact this privilege is already exercised in all the Dominions to exclude undesirable white men (including those of British origin) as well as Asiatics. This right is admitted by many of the most enlightened Indians, and a definite pronouncement on the subject in India ought to be made without delay. The Dominions will not permit the entry of Asiatic cheap labour, and they are merely acting in the interests of self-preservation and not from blind unreasonableness in refusing to do so. As the *Victoria (B.C.) Times*—one of the best and soberest of the Canadian newspapers—said on the occasion of the arrival of the *Komagata Maru* in May last: "We cannot afford to throw down the bars, even at the risk of India's loss to the Empire." It is, then, altogether futile to expect that the Dominions will ever consent to allow the free entry of Indians. It would be committing race suicide for them to do so, and they are fully aware of this.

Cannot the problem be approached in a different way? The question is largely one of sentiment on the Indian side, so that if it can be adjusted on sentimental as well as practical lines it may be possible for the British Empire to retain India within its limits for an indefinite period. If not the prospect of doing so is distinctly unfavourable.

There are about 185,000 Whites in India, including the army of occupation. If this number were increased to 320,000 the proportion of Whites to Indians would be 1 to 1,000. Might it not satisfy the sentimental claims of Indians if it were to be mutually arranged between India and the Dominions that the number of white men in India should not be allowed to exceed 1 in 1000 and that, conversely, the proportion of Indians in each Dominion must not exceed a similar ratio. It could be stated categorically in the agreement embodying this arrangement that the incompatibility

of Oriental and Occidental civilisations, and the impossibility of their existing side by side without friction when the numbers of each race are fairly equal, were the grounds upon which it was entered into, and that no implication of the inferiority of Indians was intended.

How would such an arrangement work out? The present population of Canada is about 8,000,000. The number of Indians to be permitted to reside in that Dominion would, therefore, be 8,000—an addition of about 5,000 to the present community. Taking the population of Australia as 5,000,000, that of New Zealand as 1,200,000, and that of South Africa (whites only) as 1,300,000, the number of Indians to be admitted by each of these Dominions would be 5,000, 1,200, and 1,300 respectively. South Africa must be ruled out for special treatment, as there are already many more Indian residents in that country than this ratio would allow even if the total population of the Union were made the basis to which the 1 : 1,000 scale is to be applied. We may return to this aspect of the proposed arrangement a little later.

Is it asking too much of Canada, Australia and New Zealand to suggest that they should agree to some such solution of the problem and to give full rights as citizens to the Indians who may make their homes within their borders, who would be unlikely to become sufficiently numerous to cause trouble? In all parts of Canada, except British Columbia, natives of India, in common with naturalised Chinese and Japanese, are accorded all the rights of citizenship, including the exercise of the franchise. It would not mean a great sacrifice on the part of Canada (or even on the part of British Columbia if, as would probably be the case, 90 per cent. of the Indians in the Dominion chose to reside in that Province) to allow 5,000 more Hindus to make their home in British North America, while in the case of Australia and New Zealand, the present Indian population is practically identical with the numbers indicated by the proposed ratio.

It has sometimes been suggested that the control of India should be shared by the Mother Country with the Dominions. As matters stand at present, India would rightly regard any association of the Dominions in the governance of the country with great resentment, and such a step might easily prove fatal to the continuance of the connection between Britain and Hindustan. Even if the Dominions will agree to meet the sentimental claims of India in the matter just indicated it would still seem highly inadvisable to attempt any system of joint responsibility for the Government of Hindustan. But the Dominions could undoubtedly make the position of the Mother Country much less difficult by a slight change of attitude towards

the people of India, and thereby give a convincing demonstration of their affection for the Empire in which they form increasingly important units. It is much to be regretted that Indian culture, with its magnificent architectural achievements, its transcendental systems of philosophy and its highly developed arts and crafts, is so little known to the people of the Dominions, who form their impressions of India and the Indians almost entirely from their experience of the low caste immigrants who reach their shores. A very small proportion know something more of the reality through the study of books, but those who have actually visited India are still fewer. Hence the attitude of the Britons oversea, faced with what they regard as the advance guard of the swarming hordes of Asia, is perfectly comprehensible. But if a definite ratio of immigration could be arranged, on the lines suggested, even the most violent exclusionists might find it possible to recede slightly from their present position in order to smooth a few of the difficulties from the path of the British statesmen charged with the task of governing the Indian Empire.

There remains the problem of finding an adequate outlet for Indians in a region where they will not come into economic conflict with white men. The need for the provision of such an outlet already exists and the passage of time will render it still more urgent. Dr. C. V. Drysdale, in the course of a most interesting paper read before the Royal Colonial Institute on February 24 of this year, entitled "The Empire and the Birth-rate," said:—

India is a chronically seriously overpopulated country. . . . That India might produce food enough to feed her present population need not be contested. But that any action on the part of the authorities will succeed in providing for an increase of ten millions annually is inconceivable. The whole Empire owes a tribute of gratitude and admiration to Sir A. Cotton, whose magnificent irrigation schemes have so greatly increased the possibilities of agriculture. They have no doubt been the real cause of the 7 per cent. increase of population in the last decade. . . . Irrigation like everything else has its limits.

Furthermore, the Irrigation Commission of 1901-3 asserted most emphatically that irrigation alone could not cure famine, so that it is fairly evident that emigration on a large scale will eventually become a very pressing necessity. Where are the emigrants to go? A small number can be absorbed by the Crown Colonies and Protectorates, and some will find an outlet in Malaya. Most of these are, however, comparatively small countries, and in some cases there is already a large negro population in the field. Others may find homes in the East Indian Archipelago, and the three Guianas will provide room for fair-sized colonies. Even so, it is necessary to seek for a larger zone for settlement by Indians. Can it not be found in East Africa and the Sudan?

In a recent letter to the *Times* in support of this idea, Sir Harry Johnston pointed out that as far back as the eighties it was suggested that East Africa should be reserved as an "America for the Hindus."

There are already fully 70,000 natives of India scattered about British East Africa, German East Africa, Zanzibar, Uganda and Nyasaland. It may be taken as fairly well established that the coast belt of East Africa and the country surrounding the great lakes are unsuited to become the permanent homes of Europeans. The native population is far from dense, and was subject to Asiatic (Arab) domination for a millennium or more prior to the arrival of the first Europeans. Indeed, there are traces of an Asiatic civilisation going back 3,000 years or more along the East African coasts. There would be room here and in northern Mozambique for millions of Indian colonists, and the Sudan could accommodate very large numbers. The existing interests of white men in these regions are not so extensive that they could not be compensated without vast expense, seeing that it would be many years before it would prove necessary for white merchants and planters to abandon operations in this area under pressure from the Asiatic newcomers. The initiation of further extensive enterprises by white men in the area to be set apart for Asiatic colonisation should, of course, be officially discouraged in order to prevent further complications. It would be necessary also to hold an international conference to secure acceptance of the principle that East Africa should be regarded as a sphere of settlement for Indians, and it might be necessary to compensate Germany in some way to secure her assent to the reservation of her East African colony for this purpose. But even without an international agreement there is room in the coastal regions of British East Africa, in Uganda, and in the Sudan for all the emigrants India is likely to export for a very long period, provided that colonisation is carried on in a scientific manner.

And it may be mentioned here that it might not prove impossible to relieve South Africa of one section of her present three-cornered racial problem by removing the bulk of the Indian population of the Union to the Indian zone in East Africa. Compensation would be necessary, and many might refuse to go, but if their numbers could be reduced to anything approaching the ratio of 1 : 1,000 it would be well worth while for the Government of South Africa to shoulder the cost and rid itself of a difficulty which must otherwise continue to become less easy to deal with as time goes on.

G. H. LEPPER.

TRADE OF CANADA*

By C. HAMILTON WICKES

(*H.M. Trade Commissioner for Canada*)

THE value of imports of merchandise may show a decline at the close of the financial year 1913-14, as compared with 1912-13. I do not, however, anticipate any appreciable decline in volume.

The flow of emigrants consisting of able-bodied men, women and their families from the United Kingdom, the United States and Europe in their hundreds of thousands continues; in the aggregate they bring with them many millions of dollars in cash. Their personal effects, at the extremely low value at which they are entered, run into millions. They are animated with a determination to find employment and make a living, and their energies provide the main source for the astonishing development that is being witnessed. To glance at one aspect, the material wants of this veritable invading army must be supplied, and it is not an over-estimate, that tradesmen, builders and contractors throughout large portions of the Dominion are encountering increased demand for services to the extent of 15 per cent. each year, without any seeking on their part. This accretion of population has a direct influence on the maintenance of the flow of imports from oversea at their high level, and incidentally on the increase in the cost of living dealt with later.

Financial Stringency.

Wealth has been, and is pouring into the country and great numbers have profited. Not a few with large sums so easily obtained have speculated—not in their own business, but unfortunately outside, and mainly in real estate. This class of speculation has been a fruitful source of trouble, leading as it has done to the withdrawal of large sums urgently needed for legitimate business expansion. In this connection it must be borne in mind that commerce in this country rests to a much larger extent than is the case in the United Kingdom upon a foundation of

* Being extracts from the Trade Commissioner's Report for 1913 to the Board of Trade, presented to Parliament July, 1914.

credit. This credit is dispensed almost entirely by banks and other financial institutions.

As a consequence a financial stringency following upon any sudden and concerted restriction of accommodation by these houses is more violently felt than would be the case in trading communities financed along different lines. Such restrictions were quite suddenly imposed here at the time of the European financial troubles arising out of the Balkan situation, and the position was further complicated by the fact that the majority of Canadian communities were at that period on the crest of a wave of real estate speculation. Transactions were based very largely upon fictitious or at the best anticipatory values, and carried "on credit" to an extent almost incredible to the more conservative ideas of British finance.

High Cost of Living.

The high and ever increasing cost of living throughout the Dominion is perhaps the burning question of the day to Canadians. The Federal Government appointed a Commission of Enquiry in December last. No time was lost, and the Commission commenced its sittings in Ottawa within a few days of its appointment, and has since been occupied in visiting various industrial centres.

Notwithstanding the much talked of depression in the east and west, in Montreal rents generally have been raised, the charges for carting have been greatly increased, and the price of edible commodities has been advanced in nearly every particular.

A year or two ago the effect of the influx of emigrants accompanied by a rapid increase of the population was hardly felt. To-day the case is different and its effect is very real and visible, particularly to the citizens of the larger cities and localities where these emigrants have to be temporarily or permanently accommodated. It is not only their feeding, clothing and housing; under modern conditions educational facilities need to be provided, new roads to be made, lighting, water and sewage works to be planned, while the capital required must in the necessities of the case be largely raised from outside sources.

The carrying out of these numerous undertakings cannot be done with sufficient rapidity. The country has grown within the last few years from a comparatively small community, mainly able to supply its own needs with a small import and export trade, to the Canada of to-day with a total export and import trade of over £200,000,000, railway mileage in operation of 27,145 miles, and a population which insists on the supply of all the necessities and luxuries enjoyed by the most modern and highly civilised States. It cannot be a matter for surprise,

therefore, that in many directions facilities for the handling of this immensely increased trade as well as due provision for the requirements of the population have not kept up with the demands made upon them. Those acquainted with the existing methods which have been gradually evolved in the older countries for coping with such conditions realise that Canada might profit by taking toll of their experience, where necessary, modifying it to suit her particular necessities ; for example, by :—

The adoption of modern equipment for the rapid and economical handling of merchandise at the ports as well as at the terminals.

The provision of further warehousing facilities, more particularly at the main distributing centres and terminals in the east.

The provision of public markets to a greater extent for the sale of perishable produce in the larger cities and towns.

Greater economy in marketing and distributing arrangements by the manufacturer and producer.

Harvest and its Effect.

The Dominion has been blessed with a bountiful harvest, and the open weather coupled with the increased facilities for its transportation has enabled a greatly increased quantity to be moved to the coast before the close of lake navigation. In previous years the larger portion remained stored through the winter in inland elevators. The rise in the value and volume of the exports this year has been the result of the timely preparations made and the exceptionally favourable conditions experienced. The fine harvest has assisted somewhat to ameliorate the stringent financial position previously existing in the west, although the period of tightness has by no means altogether passed, and commodities in the early part of this year (1914) were not easy to move. The latest reports from the west are encouraging. A needed lesson is being learned and a more sober attitude is evident among the business section in place of the extravagant optimism that had for a time previously prevailed. All this is to the good, and a slower step for the present will but store up energies more quickly, of which, later, the country will reap the benefit.

Transportation.

The Canadian Pacific Railway continues steadily pursuing its policy of building feeders and spurs, and double tracking its main line. The tunnel through the Rogers Pass will be pushed on with vigour to completion. The Grand Trunk Pacific and Canadian Northern are pushing forward towards completing their trans-continental lines, portions of which will no doubt be

brought into operation and worked before either Corporation inaugurates a through passenger and freight service over their own lines from coast to coast.

The question of internal freight charges has been and is at the time of writing under consideration by the Railway Commission. Chambers of Commerce and merchants have been agitating for their reduction. The railways at the same time are constantly urged to quote through rates from and to all points. Cities and townships, as they rise in importance, in their desire to become distributing centres, claim equal facilities to those enjoyed by the older points which have previously established their right to such facilities. The problem presents certain difficulties, as multiplication of distributing centres before they are absolutely needed entails increased cost, not only to the railways but also to the public, by whom capital expenditure must be undertaken in providing warehouses, carting and other facilities for handling the goods. It will be appreciated that unless the bulk moving in and to be moved out is fairly considerable the proportionately increased charges have to be borne by the goods and passed on to the customer, thus operating, by an unduly increased cost, to hamper development, with doubtful compensating advantages.

Manufactures.

The value of manufactured products (the last figures available are for 1910) is given as about £234,000,000, including: fruit products, and lumber, timber, and manufactures of wood, over £86,000,000. Iron and steel products about £23,750,000. Other metal products over £14,500,000. Textiles about £27,200,000. Leather and finished products about £12,500,000. Clay, glass and stone products about £5,750,000. Vehicles for land transportation about £14,000,000.

The value of the manufactures produced in the Province of Ontario represents 50 per cent. of the total output for the Dominion, and amounts to over £116,000,000; next comes the Province of Quebec with over £70,000,000.

When official particulars are available for 1913-14 for the west, the progress in this direction will, I am confident, astonish those who are not acquainted with the development taking place. The western Provinces have great natural advantages which are being systematically investigated and made known through the active, energetic action of their local public bodies and Boards of Trade. The Natural Resources Department of the Canadian Pacific Railway at Calgary is a mine of information and is doing a great work for the west.

Sir W. G. Armstrong Whitworth and Co., Limited, have purchased land and commenced the erection of a plant at

Longueil, near Montreal. In the beginning of the present year Messrs. Yarrow acquired the interests of a Canadian shipbuilding company near Vancouver. In the distributing line Messrs. Mappin and Webb have acquired the interests of Messrs. Johnston Brothers, and are located in a prominent position in the best shopping district of Montreal. This example might with advantage, it is thought, be followed by similar British houses in other lines.

The British Preference.

It has been considered advisable to draw the attention of British firms to the following:—

Goods certified for entry under the British Preferential Tariff must be packed separately from other goods. The packages, however, may be enclosed with other goods, provided the enclosure be noted on the invoice for other goods as well as on the preferential invoice.

Goods must be imported direct from some one of the countries entitled to such preference.

The source of the goods is not affected by passing through another country in transit if they were originally consigned to the importer in the Dominion for through transportation, but the goods are not permitted to remain in any intermediate country for any purpose other than for their transit.

In the case of entry of raw and refined sugars, special certificates are necessary. For copy of the form application may be made to the Commercial Intelligence Branch of the Board of Trade, 73, Basinghall Street, London, E.C.

Any article entered under the reduced rate of duty under the French Convention Act, 1908, is not entitled to a further reduction of duty under the provisions of the British Preferential Tariff.

The British Preferential Tariff applies to goods the produce or manufacture of almost any part of the British Empire.

Combined Agencies.

Attention is directed to the advantage that would be gained by British manufactures in certain lines, not directly competitive but in their nature complementary, co-operating to place their marketing arrangements through one firm in order that the agent might be strengthened through, and by virtue of, the greater range of articles that he would have to offer. At the same time the heavy overhead selling cost, distributed proportionately on the turnover of the various firms, would reduce the out-of-pocket expenses of each.

It is felt that unless the above or some similar method is evolved acceptable to, and adopted by, British manufacturers, we shall continue to find the present diffusion of energy, so far as selling power is concerned, among those who represent a restricted range of British manufactures.

SIDELIGHTS ON COLONIAL LIFE

Canadian Oilfields.

Canada is a potential and problematical rather than an actual resource for the supply of oil. The principal Canadian oilfields are situated in the peninsula of South-Western Ontario between Lake Huron and Lake Erie. The first oil was discovered at Lambton in 1862. Until recently, the two centres of petroleum and oil springs in Lambton County have been the largest producers, but in 1907 the Tilbury district in the County of Kent contributed 44 per cent. of the total production, which in that year amounted to 27,621,851 gallons of crude oil. There is oil also in Northern Alberta, where, along the Athabasca River, are "tar sands," saturated with bituminous matter, all undeveloped. Mr. R. W. Brock, Director of the Geological Survey of Canada, stated in his report of 1909 that there was evidence of the existence of an oilfield in this region. In New Brunswick the output of oil is small, but there was an increase from 1,485 barrels in 1910 to 2,461 barrels in 1911. The province has a shale oil industry, as has Nova Scotia, and in 1903 fifty tons of oil-bearing shales were sent from the New Brunswick deposits to Scotland for test at the Pumpherston Works, and gave a very satisfactory result.

Thirty miles south-west of Calgary oil was struck in the well of the Petroleum Products Company, Limited, on October 7th, 1913, at a depth of 1,562 feet. It is reported that there are 42 feet of oil in the 12 inch boring. The Kalso Testing Laboratories, Limited, analysed samples and stated that the oil is of exceptional purity. It is reported to be successfully used in its natural state for the running of automobiles in the city of Calgary, and is on sale in the local garages.

Winnipeg's Place in the Sun.

An increase of four millions sterling in the City of Winnipeg's assessment, in a year that was characterised by world-wide financial depression, is a significant illustration of its rapid growth and development. This increase has not been attained by an advance in the basis of assessment valuations, but is the result of sure and steady growth on account of the increasing population, the growing needs of commercial life and the development of industrial activities which demand larger buildings and more homes. Building prospects point to a repetition of last

year's increase. In fact, Winnipeg has made a place for herself among the cities of the world, and to-day she stands well in the money markets.

Alberta's Dairying Industry.

According to statistics the output of creamery butter in the Province of Alberta has increased from 500,000 lbs. to over 1,000,000 lbs. in six years. The output of hogs six years ago was 46,000, at the present time it is 60,700. The cattle in this province during the year 1901 numbered 322,000; in 1913 there was over 1,000,000 head. Much of the increase is due to the activities of people from the old land, who have made their homes on the fertile plains of the province and have prospered even beyond their expectations.

Permanent Farm Work in Ontario.

That farm work in Canada only lasts for the spring and summer months has undoubtedly deterred many Britishers from settling in the Dominion, and in this connection it is interesting to note that measures to solve this difficulty have recently been taken by the Director of Colonisation of the Ontario Government, who has been in communication with farmers throughout the province. The result is shown in the fact that fully 75 per cent. of the applications sent in by farmers now stipulate all the year round work. The attention of prospective settlers should be directed to the very excellent reception arrangements of the Ontario Government for new comers. Officers of the Ontario Bureau of Colonisation meet all settlers' trains at Toronto. The settlers are quickly booked for situations on farms and at domestic service, and every assistance is given to them in the matter of their luggage, etc., for their further short journey by rail. From the time they land in Toronto they are under the care of Government officials, and official interest does not stop at that; if in need of further advice or change of position, a settler has only to apply to the Ontario Government officer. By this means differences between employer and employee are reduced to a minimum, and the Department settles the few complaints that arise. All engagements are subject to one month's trial, wages being paid for that period.

Nova Scotia Industries.

Fifty per cent. of the coal production of Canada is centred in Nova Scotia; the coke made is 55 per cent. of Canada's total production; the pig iron of Nova Scotia is 42 per cent. and the steel 48 per cent. of Canada's total output. During the past three decades the value of manufactured products in Nova Scotia has increased from 23 million dollars to 53 million dollars. Now one-

third of Nova Scotia's income is from manufacturing. Some indication of the growth of industries is seen when one notes that at Sydney one large corporation has just completed additions to their coal, iron and steel plants at a cost of £700,000. At Sydney Mines extensions to steel and coal plants have just been finished costing nearly £100,000. At Halifax there are works under construction or planned to cost nearly fifty million dollars including new railway terminals, new ocean piers and extensions to manufacturing plants.

South African Products.

The total area of Spruitfontein, Winterplaats and the Pongola Bosch Forest Reserve, also about 400 acres of Rodekraal, in the province of Natal, has been pegged for oil shale. There has not been sufficient development to prove whether oil has been found in payable quantities, but it is understood from analyses made that prospects appear to be promising. The sweet potato industry in Natal has in recent years increased in extent and importance. The factors which have contributed to this increase are ascribed to the demand for sweet potatoes in Johannesburg and the erection of a starch factory at Schroeders in Natal. It is estimated that there are 2,000 acres under cultivation in the New Hanover-Dalton District, with an average yield of eight tons to the acre, the value of the crop being placed at £20,000. What is described as a most unique specimen of a gold nugget was recently found on a mine in the Transvaal. From its appearance the gold must at some time have been smelted in the quartz and then suddenly cooled. The nugget presents the appearance of a grotesque gollywog, and is estimated to contain quite a pound weight of gold.

As a field for maize-growing the Union of South Africa, especially the Transvaal and Orange Free State, is by general consent in the front rank. Mr. Burt-Davy, late Botanist in the Agricultural Department of the Union, and a well-known authority on maize growing, in the course of a lecture at the Witwatersrand Agricultural Show, stated that a point he wished to emphasise was that in spite of the fact that this year had been one of the worst years experienced for maize owing to drought, the display was one of the most magnificent ever brought together in South Africa. In his opinion no other crop could have stood the conditions which the maize crop had. He strongly believed that the time would come when South Africa would be sending seed maize to the United States of America.

Ostrich Feather Plucking.

During the course of the sitting of the Dominions Royal Commission at Port Elizabeth, the question of the supposed

cruelty attending the plucking of ostrich feathers, as affecting the market, was raised, when a witness, Mr. Evans, stated that while in London he delivered a lecture with lantern slides showing the method of plucking. After the lecture a lady told him she had not bought feathers for three years on account of the cruelty she supposed was involved in the plucking, but after the explanation which had been given, she expressed her intention to purchase some the next day.

Starting New Zealand Life on 3d.

If the world were a smaller place, and its inhabitants sufficiently interested in their fellow beings, a study of the fortunes of a family, consisting of a woman and three children, who have recently landed in New Zealand with the sum of 3*d.* on which to start New Zealand travels, might be worth while. She had £5 when the steamer arrived in Wellington, but excess dues on her luggage amounted to £4 19*s.* 9*d.* The assistance of officers of the Labour Department was readily enlisted, and the fares for the woman and her children to Lyttelton, some hundreds of miles south, were advanced, so that the party was able to proceed there without delay. The husband, who is at Lyttelton is to refund the money in brighter times.

Experiments in Soils.

Interesting and successful experiments have been made by the Government of New Zealand in North Auckland where it was supposed, only a year or two ago that soils covered with short scrub and impregnated with gum and pumice were useless for cultivation. The Government Fields Instructor on returning from a recent inspection, reported that, for experiment, this is proved to be good grazing country, and also, in some places, suitable for fruit-growing. Lucerne, too, is found to flourish. Experiments are being made that must extend, to be authoritative, over a few years, with grasses thought to be suitable for the various soils which are being sown at different periods to determine which will remain permanent.

Forest and Bird Protection in New Zealand.

It is interesting to hear of the formation in New Zealand of an organisation entitled the Forest and Bird Protection Society, with headquarters at Wellington. The objects of the Society are (a) the conservation of wild nature by inculcating among the public, especially the children, an interest in the native flora and fauna, and the protection and preservation thereof; (b) the conservation of any forest growing on roadsides on the banks of rivers, and on other public lands, and the protection of the same as far as possible; (c) the setting aside as public reserves any

privately owned reserved forest lands which are in danger of being destroyed ; (d) assisting any movement, whether organised by private persons, local bodies or the State, taken for the purpose of protecting any area of land covered with forest ; (e) assisting any movement for the protection of any native birds or animals.

Ceylon Emigration Statistics.

The term "immigration" in Ceylon is commonly used with reference to the immigration of native labour from the South of India for the tea and rubber plantations. There is no opening in Ceylon, as in the self-governing colonies, for the immigration of white labour. The number of immigrant labourers who arrived in Ceylon in 1912 was 117,475, against 97,536 in 1911, and an average during the previous six years of about 78,000. The arrivals are, however, largely counterbalanced by the departures, which in the official returns are given at 77,840 for 1912. Apart from coolies returning to their homes, the main stream of emigration from Ceylon is rather to the Straits Settlements and the Malay States than to India, and the number of Ceylonese, especially from the North of the Island, who of late years have sought a living in the countries named is considerable.

Opportunity in Ceylon.

The cultivation of tea, rubber, and cocoanuts continues to offer the chief openings for the investment of capital. Cocoanuts in particular are now attracting European capital, and, should it once be established that they can be successfully grown under irrigation, there is the prospect of considerable extension of this industry in the North-Western Province, and even in the drier districts of the North-Central Province. The plumbago mining and gemming industries, as well as the cultivation of tobacco, are almost exclusively in native hands. The market for the tobacco now produced being limited, there is little, if any, room for the extension of its cultivation on present lines. But it is believed that, with more up-to-date methods of cultivation and curing, tobacco can be grown with profit for the European market. Similarly, in the drier districts the cultivation of cotton offers possibilities as yet undeveloped.

Agriculture and the Straits Settlements.

The area under Para rubber has increased very considerably in Malacca and also to some extent in the island of Singapore : in Malacca it was 80,424 acres in 1911, it is now 115,000 acres. By the side of this increase, there has in Malacca been also an increase in land under tapioca amounting to no less than 52·3 per cent. ; for the 10,926 acres of 1911 have become 16,643

acres. Formerly the cultivation of tapioca in Malacca was on the decrease, and old tapioca land in 1909 was being put under rubber; but the need of a catch-crop to young rubber began in 1911 to cause a recovery of the lost area. In spite of the fall in price rubber continued highly remunerative both to proprietors and labourers. The wages of the latter were high enough in some cases to cause Malays to desert well-established Kampongs and long-cultivated padi fields to take up permanent work on the Estates.

In the Northern Settlement tapioca has not materially changed and rubber has increased only slightly. Nutmeg and clove cultivation has in many allotments been abandoned on account of the higher rates for labour and of the fall in the prices of these products. The extension of pine-apple cultivation in Singapore Island continues, the crop being a catch-crop to rubber, and the fruits finding a ready sale at the canning factories in Singapore. These canning factories also draw pines to some extent from outside the colony. The cultivation of pine-apples has no place in Province Wellesley.

Progress in Grenada.

Progress has been made in nearly every direction by Grenada, and the future is full of promise. It may truthfully be said, writes one closely connected with the administration of the Colony, that on June 1, 1885, when she became the headquarters of the Windward Islands Government, Grenada entered on a new cycle of her life. She emerged from a condition of semi-torpidity to one of active existence, and has since then been engaged in realising her destiny. Her future rests with her sturdy sons, and when one sees their zeal and activity, and recognises the whole-hearted manner in which they co-operate in details of the administration there can be little hesitation in predicting for Grenada a leading place in the British West Indies.

An Opening in St. Helena.

The cost of the actual necessities of life during 1913 in St. Helena was higher than in the previous year. Fresh meat was dearer, beef selling at 10*d.* per lb. and mutton at 1*s.* per lb. Fish, the staple diet of the St. Helenian, was particularly scarce, the small quantity brought in by the fishermen being sold at fancy prices. The supply of both albacore and mackerel was far short of the demand—the former in previous years could be purchased for 1*d.* per lb., whereas in the year under review it was difficult to obtain for 3*d.* Mackerel, which used to sell at from 2*d.* to 4*d.* a dozen, went up to the amazing price of 1*s.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* These inflated prices press particularly hard on the poorer classes. The situation is entirely due to the indolence of the fishermen, who by

restricting the supply keep prices up and so earn an easy living at a minimum expenditure of their labour. A small fishing business run by a local syndicate would soon reduce the price of fish to its proper level.

Agriculture in St. Helena.

In his report for 1913, just circulated, the Governor of St. Helena tells us that from an agricultural point of view the colony has made excellent progress. Owing to good rainfall, root, grain and hay crops were all above the average. Pasture was plentiful and live stock did well. Potato crops varied. In the drier localities the yield was exceptionally good, both in quantity and quality, but in less favoured situations heavy losses had to be faced owing to blight and rot, the latter due to excessive rain. Many of the smaller cultivators lost practically the whole crop and were unable to save seed. There were the usual importations of seed, about seven tons having been obtained by the Colonial Government from Messrs. Sutton and Sons and sold at cost price to growers. Vegetable seeds were also imported, and issued free to the poorest growers and market gardeners. A fair number of young trees were issued from the plantation nurseries, though not so many as in the previous year owing to the ravages of grubs and other insect pests amongst the young seedlings. About 400 young trees were planted out upon Crown lands, and about 100 issued to the public. A large number of eucalyptus trees, however, were planted in one of the Government forests which is being gradually eaten up by white ants. It is hoped in time to replant the whole of this area with eucalyptus, which, besides being immune to the ravages of white ants, is a quick-growing tree providing excellent timber.

Agriculture in Nyasaland.

Owing to the drought, the year 1912-13 proved a difficult one for agricultural development in the Nyasaland Protectorate. Native crops were affected adversely, with the result that the high cost of native foodstuffs, combined with scarcity, made it necessary for European farmers to exercise strict economy in native labour; in some cases areas which had been cleared for cultivation had to be curtailed when the planting season arrived. The drought was felt most severely in the lower levels, but the distress attendant on the failure of the native harvest in these localities was foreseen, and the measures taken by Government to provide food and seed for the native population proved adequate. The conditions in the Shire Highlands—the centre of European agricultural development—and in the North Nyasa district were much more favourable, particularly for cotton, and it was from these districts that the bulk of the agricultural exports emanated.

BRITANNIA'S JEWELS

A PATRIOTIC SONG

DEDICATED BY PERMISSION TO THE ROYAL AUSTRALIAN NAVY

WHEN on her storm-tossed pillow Dame Britannia lays her down,
 Before she sleeps she reckons up the jewels in her Crown,
 The pearl of Egypt, India's star, and others of renown,
 And, gleaming with the brightest, is Australia.

Dame Britannia's getting older, but her flag still flouts the
 breeze ;

Her Empire's getting wider, yes, far wider by degrees,
 The Lion's cubs are roaring by the shores of seven seas—
 Their voices find an echo in Australia.

John Bull's a mighty merchant, and he gathers in his net
 The merchandise of half the world—a big concern—but yet
 There's just a little circumstance he oughtn't to forget—
 He's got a junior partner in Australia.

John Bull is getting older, and he ought to take his ease,
 For his sons are getting strong, and ever stronger by degrees,
 The Lion's cubs are roaring by the shores of seven seas,
 And we've got to join the chorus in Australia !

When the war-clouds gather darkly—when the eagles scent their
 feast—

And our foes come thick as locusts from the west or from the
 east,

We will send our ships to battle, yes, and dare to hope at least,
 We shall find another Nelson in Australia.

Let us haul upon the halyards—hoist our banner to the breeze—
 Let it flutter o'er our harbours, and the ships which line our
 quays—

When the Lion's cubs are fighting on the shores of seven seas,
 Their foes will have to reckon with Australia !

G. HERBERT GIBSON.

INDIAN AND COLONIAL INVESTMENTS

BY TRUSTEE

EVEN before the arrival of the Austro-Servian crisis that is overshadowing all other influences at the time of writing, the Stock Exchange was in a distinctly depressed condition, largely because of the grave outlook in Ireland. But as regards the securities tabulated here, the position of Canadian investments has again given rise to misgivings especially in view of some disturbing reports as to the crops, so that this particular section of stocks has suffered more heavily in the decline than the rest. In the slump that has been caused by the European crisis every kind of security has fallen heavily regardless of intrinsic merit and the developments on the Continent are watched with the gravest anxiety.

Complete success has attended the Indian loan operations of the month. The Government Rupee Loan of £3,333,333 was eagerly taken up in India, and the offer in London of £3,000,000 of South Indian Railway 4 per cent. Debenture stock, guaranteed by the Indian Government, met with a gratifying reception, the loan being immediately over-subscribed. The price of issue was 97½, affording excellent terms for a full trustee security.

INDIAN GOVERNMENT SECURITIES.

Title.	Present Amount.	When Redeemable.	Price.	Yield.	Interest Payable.
INDIA.					
	£				
3½% Stock (t) . . .	91,211,186	1931	89½	37⁄8	Quarterly.
3% " (t) . . .	66,292,732	1948	76½	3½⁄8	"
2½% " Inscribed (t)	11,806,337	1926	63½	3½⁄8	"
3½% Rupee Paper 1854-5	..	(a)	95½	3⁄8	30 June—31 Dec.
3% " " 1896-7	..	1916	81	3½⁄8	30 June—30 Dec.

(t) Eligible for Trustee Investments.

(a) Redeemable at a Quarter's notice.

INDIAN RAILWAYS AND BANKS.

Title.	Subscribed.	Last year's Dividend.	Share or Stock.	Price.	Yield.
RAILWAYS.					
	£				
Assam—Bengal, L., guaranteed 3%	1,500,000	3	100	73	4 $\frac{1}{8}$
Bengal and North-Western (Limited)	3,000,000	8	100	151 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Bengal Dooars, L.	400,000	6	100	105	5 $\frac{1}{8}$
Bengal Nagpur (L), gtd. 4% + $\frac{1}{4}$ th profits	3,000,000	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	118	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Burma Guar. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ % and propn. of profits	3,000,000	5	100	106 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Delhi Umballa Kalka, L., guar. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ % + } net earnings	800,000	10	100	186 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{5}{8}$
East Indian Def. ann. cap. g. 4% + $\frac{1}{8}$ } sur. profits	1,697,154	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	98 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{2}{8}$
Do. do, class "D," repayable 1953 (t)	4,852,846	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	122	4 $\frac{1}{8}$
Do. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ % perpet. deb. stock (t)	1,435,650	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	111	4
Do. new 3% deb. red. (t)	8,000,000	3	100	74	4
Great Indian Peninsula 4% deb. Stock (t)	2,701,450	4	100	99	4
Do. 3% Gua. and $\frac{1}{8}$ surp. profits 1925 (t)	2,575,000	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	97 $\frac{1}{2}$ x	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Madras and South Mahratta	5,000,000	5	100	114 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{5}{8}$
Nizam's State Rail. Gtd. 5% Stock	2,000,000	5	100	97 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$
Do. 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ % red. mort. debts	1,063,300	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	78	4 $\frac{7}{8}$
Rohilkund and Kumaon, Limited	400,000	8	100	154 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
South Behar, Limited	379,580	5	100	101x	4 $\frac{1}{8}$
South Indian 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ % per. deb. stock, gtd.	425,000	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	109	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Southern Punjab, Limited	1,000,000	10	100	166	6
Do. 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ % deb. stock red.	500,000	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	81	4 $\frac{5}{8}$
West of India Portuguese Guar. L.	800,000	5	100	91x	5 $\frac{1}{8}$
Do. 5% debenture stock	550,000	5	100	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ x	5
BANKS.					
	Number of Shares.				
Chartered Bank of India, Australia, } and China	60,000	17	20	66	5 $\frac{1}{8}$
National Bank of India	80,000	16	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	43	4 $\frac{5}{8}$

(t) Eligible for Trustee Investments.

(x) Ex dividend.

Canadian new issues of very varied kinds have been placed during the month. The principal issue has been that of the Canadian Northern Railway under the agreement recently concluded with the Dominion Government. Four per cent. Debenture Stock, guaranteed by the Canadian Government, to the amount of £3,000,000 was offered at 94. The stock is redeemable in 1934 and, allowing for redemption, it yields as much as £4 9s. 3d. at the issue price. It is not a trustee stock, but the Government guarantee puts it in the front rank as regards security, and its yield compares very favourably with that obtainable on the direct issues of the Dominion.

Ontario, the fifth Canadian province to make an issue of stock in London since the beginning of the year, offered a million sterling of 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Registered stock at par. This issue, however, met with a very poor reception at the hands of the investing public, and can now be obtained at about one per cent. discount.

CANADIAN GOVERNMENT SECURITIES.

Title.	Present Amount.	When Redeemable.	Price.	Yield.	Interest Payable.
3½% Regd. Stock . . .	28,162,776	1930-50*	89	4½ ¹ / ₈	1 Jan.—1 July.
PROVINCIAL.					
ALBERTA.					
4% Debs.	411,000	1938	88	4½	1 June—1 Dec.
BRITISH COLUMBIA.					
3% Inscribed Stock . .	2,045,760	1941	80	4½	1 Jan.—1 July.
MANITOBA.					
4% Regd. Stock . . .	1,915,000	1950	92	4 ⁷ / ₁₆	1 May—1 Nov.
NEW BRUNSWICK.					
4% Regd. Stock . . .	450,000	1949	92	4 ⁷ / ₁₆	1 Jan.—1 July.
NOVA SCOTIA.					
5½% Stock	650,000	1954	83	4¾	1 Jan.—1 July.
ONTARIO.					
3½% Regd. Stock . . .	1,200,000	1946	85	4¾	1 Jan.—1 July.
QUEBEC.					
3% Inscribed	1,897,820	1937	81	4 ⁵ / ₁₆	1 Apr.—1 Oct.
SASKATCHEWAN.					
4% Regd. Stock . . .	1,120,792	1951	88	4½ ¹ / ₈	1 Jan.—1 July.
MUNICIPAL.					
Calgary 4½% Debs. . .	1,920,900	1930-42*	91	5 ⁷ / ₁₆	1 Jan.—1 July.
Edmonton 4½% Debs.	641,400	1918-51*	90	5 ⁷ / ₁₆	1 Jan.—1 July.
Hamilton (City of) 4%	686,900	1930-40	91	4¾	1 Apr.—1 Oct.
Montreal 4%	2,400,000	1948-50	92	4 ⁷ / ₁₆	1 May—1 Nov.
Quebec 4% Debs. . . .	384,700	1923	94	4½ ³ / ₈	1 Jan.—1 July.
Regina 4½% Debs. . .	382,500	1925-52*	89	5 ⁵ / ₁₆	1 Jan.—1 July.
Toronto 4% Bonds . . .	300,910	1922-28*	93	4½ ¹ / ₈	1 Jan.—1 July.
Vancouver 4% Bonds .	121,200	1931	90	4½ ⁵ / ₁₆	1 Apr.—1 Oct.
Winnipeg 4% Regd. . .	2,500,000	1940	93	4½	1 Apr.—1 Oct.

* Yield calculated on latest date.

Increased strength is displayed by the latest return of the Commonwealth Bank of Australia. At the end of March the savings bank depositors' balances amounted to £4,093,745, and the other deposits to £2,981,956. On the assets side of the balance-sheet, coin bullion and cash balances amounted to £1,765,440, Australian Commonwealth Notes to £61,374, money at short call in London to £1,280,000, and British, Colonial, and Government securities to £2,477,154. The cash in hand and at bankers works out at nearly 16 per cent. of the total liabilities.

It is announced that at the meeting in Sydney the Commercial Banking Company of Sydney has again declared a dividend at

CANADIAN RAILWAYS, BANKS AND COMPANIES

Title.	Number of Shares or Amount.	Dividend for last Year.	Paid up per Share.	Price.	Yield.
RAILWAYS.					
Canadian Pacific Shares . . .	2,600,000	%	\$100	192	5 $\frac{3}{16}$
Do. 4% Preference . . .	£15,173,563	4	Stock	92	4 $\frac{5}{16}$
Do. 4% Cons. Deb. Stock . . .	£32,725,388	4	"	97	4 $\frac{1}{8}$
Grand Trunk Ordinary . . .	£22,475,985	nil.	"	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	nil.
Do. 5% 1st Preference . . .	£3,420,000	5	"	93	5 $\frac{3}{8}$
Do. 5% 2nd " . . .	£2,530,000	5	"	77	6 $\frac{7}{16}$
Do. 4% 3rd " . . .	£7,168,055	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	"	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{3}{16}$
Do. 4% Guaranteed . . .	£12,215,555	4	"	80 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{8}$
Do. 5% Perp. Deb. Stock . . .	£4,270,375	5	"	108	4 $\frac{3}{8}$
Do. 4% Cons. Deb. Stock . . .	£23,722,442	4	"	86	4 $\frac{1}{8}$
BANKS AND COMPANIES.					
Bank of Montreal	160,000	12	\$100	240	5 $\frac{1}{16}$
Bank of British North America	20,000	8	50	78 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{7}{16}$
Canadian Bank of Commerce .	200,000	12	\$50	£21	5 $\frac{1}{16}$
Canada Company	8,319	50s. per sh.	1	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{3}{16}$
Hudson's Bay	1,000,000	50	1	8 $\frac{5}{16}$ x	6
Trust and Loan of Canada . .	100,000	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	6 $\frac{1}{8}$	6 $\frac{1}{8}$
Do. new	25,000	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	3 $\frac{1}{8}$	8 $\frac{1}{8}$
British Columbia Elec.) Def.	£1,440,000	8	Stock	108	7 $\frac{3}{8}$
trio Railway . . .) Prefd.	£1,440,000	6	Stock	105	5 $\frac{1}{16}$

(x) Ex dividend.

NEWFOUNDLAND GOVERNMENT SECURITIES.

Title.	Present Amount.	When Redeemable.	Price.	Yield.	Interest Payable.
3 $\frac{1}{4}$ % Sterling Bonds . . .	2,178,800	1941-7-8*	87	4 $\frac{3}{16}$	} 1 Jan.—1 July.
3% Sterling " . . .	325,000	1947	77	4 $\frac{1}{16}$	
4% Inscribed Stock . . .	320,000	1913-38*	99	4 $\frac{1}{16}$	
4% " " . . .	417,313	1935	100	4	
4% Cons. Ins. " . . .	200,000	1936	98	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	
3 $\frac{1}{4}$ % Inscribed, 1910 . . .	800,000	1950	88	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	

* Yield calculated on latest date.

the rate of 10 per cent. per annum for the half-year, leaving £57,854 to be carried forward. The sum of £50,000 was added to the reserve, making it £1,730,000.

An important event in South African financial circles has been the agreement for the absorption of the Natal Bank by the National Bank of South Africa. This acquisition will bring the total deposits of the National Bank up to the level of those of its London-directed competitor, the Standard Bank of South Africa.

AUSTRALIAN GOVERNMENT SECURITIES.

Title.	Present Amount.	When Redeemable.	Price.	Yield.	Interest Payable.
NEW SOUTH WALES.					
4% Inscribed Stock (t)	9,685,800	1933	101	3 $\frac{7}{8}$	} 1 Jan.—1 July. 1 Apr.—1 Oct.
3 $\frac{1}{2}$ % " " (t)	16,464,545	1924	96	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	
3% " " (t)	12,475,800	1935	83	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	
VICTORIA.					
4% Inscribed, 1885 .	5,959,500	1920	100	4	} 1 Jan.—1 July.
3 $\frac{1}{2}$ % " 1839 (t)	4,951,750	1921-6†	95	4	
3% " (t) . .	5,211,331	1929-49†	80	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	
QUEENSLAND.					
4% Inscribed Stock (t)	7,939,000	1924	100	4	} 1 Jan.—1 July.
3 $\frac{1}{2}$ % " " (t)	4,834,334	1921-24†	95	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	
3% " " (t)	4,274,213	1922-47†	79	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	
SOUTH AUSTRALIA.					
4% Bonds	1,359,300	1916	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	} 1 Apr.—1 Oct.
4% Inscribed Stock .	6,233,200	1916-7-36†	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	
3 $\frac{1}{2}$ % " " (t)	2,517,800	1939	90	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	} 1 Jan.—1 July.
3 $\frac{1}{2}$ % " " (t)	839,500	1916-26†	88	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	
3% " " (t)	2,760,100	1916 † or after.	74	4	
WESTERN AUSTRALIA.					
3 $\frac{1}{2}$ % Inscribed (t) . .	3,780,000	1920-35†	92	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	} 1 May—1 Nov.
3 $\frac{1}{2}$ % " (t)	3,750,000	1915-35†	86	4	
3% " (t)	2,500,000	1927	89	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	15 Jan.—15 July.
TASMANIA.					
3 $\frac{1}{2}$ % Inscbd. Stock (t)	4,156,500	1920-40†	90	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	} 1 Jan.—1 July.
4% " " " (t)	1,000,000	1920-40*	100	4	
3% (t)	450,000	1920-40†	80	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	

* Yield calculated on earlier date of redemption.

† Yield calculated on latest date of redemption.

‡ No allowance for redemption.

(t) Eligible for Trustee Investment.

AUSTRALIAN MUNICIPAL AND OTHER BONDS.

Title.	Present Amount.	When Redeemable.	Price.	Yield.	Interest Payable.
Melbourne & Met. Bd. } of Works 4% Debs. }	1,000,000	1921	99	4 $\frac{5}{8}$	1 Apl.—1 Oct.
Do. City 4% Deb. . .	850,000	1915-22*	99	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 Jan.—1 July.
S. Melbourne 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ % Debs.	128,700	1919	100	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	} 1 Jan.—1 July.
Sydney 4% Debs. . .	300,000	1919	99	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	

* Yield calculated on earlier date of redemption.

The National, which owed its origin about a quarter of a century ago to the late South African Republic, has gradually built up a big business by the establishment of new branches and

the acquisition of other institutions, including the National Bank of the Orange River Colony and the Bank of Africa. Its seat of

AUSTRALIAN RAILWAYS, BANKS AND COMPANIES.

Title.	Number of Shares or Amount.	Dividend for last Year.	Paid up.	Price.	Yield.
RAILWAYS.					
Emu Bay and Mount Bischoff	12,000	$\frac{7}{5}$	5	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{3}{5}$
Do. $4\frac{1}{2}\%$ Irred. Deb. Stock	£130,900	$4\frac{1}{2}$	100	90	5
BANKS AND COMPANIES.					
Bank of Australasia	50,000	17	40	125	$5\frac{7}{15}$
Bank of New South Wales	125,000	10	20	$43\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{10}{15}$
Union Bank of Australia £75	80,000	14	25	60	$5\frac{1}{2}$
Do. 4% Inscribed Stock Deposits	£600,000	4	100	98	$4\frac{7}{15}$
Australian Mero. Land & Finance £25	80,000	15	5	$7\frac{3}{4}$	$9\frac{1}{15}$
Do. 4% Perp. Deb. Stock	£1,900,000	4	100	$94\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{3}{15}$
Dalgety & Co. £20	154,000	8	5	7	$5\frac{1}{2}$
Do. $4\frac{1}{2}\%$ Irred. Deb. Stock	£509,749	$4\frac{1}{2}$	100	99	$4\frac{1}{15}$
Goldsbrough Mort & Co. 4% A Deb. } Stock Reduced	£994,105	4	100	$84\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{15}$
Do. B Income Reduced	£667,983	5	100	$95\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{3}{15}$
South Australian Company £15	14,200	£4	£4	70 $\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{15}$
Trust & Agency of Australasia	54,979	$12\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{9}{15}$	8
Do. 5% Cum. Pref. Stock	1,000,000	5	100	$101\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$

NEW ZEALAND MUNICIPAL AND OTHER SECURITIES.

Title.	Present Amount.	When Redeemable.	Price.	Yield.	Interest Payable.
Auckland 5% Deb.	200,000	1934-8*	104	$4\frac{5}{8}$	1 Jan.—1 July.
Do. Hbr. Bd. 5% Debs.	150,000	1917	102	$4\frac{5}{8}$	10 April—10 Oct.
Bank of N. Z. shares†	150,000	div. 15%	$10\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{3}{8}$	—
Do. 4% Gua. Stock‡	£1,000,000	1914	$99\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	April—Oct.
Christchurch 6% } Drainage Loan.	200,000	1926	107	$5\frac{3}{8}$	30 June—31 Dec.
Lyttleton Hbr. Bd. 6% } Napier Hbr. Bd. 5% } Debs.	200,000	1929	108	$5\frac{3}{8}$	} 1 Jan.—1 July.
Do. 5% Debs.	300,000	1920	101	$4\frac{3}{8}$	
National Bank of N.Z. } £7 $\frac{1}{2}$ Shares £2 $\frac{1}{2}$ paid } Oamaru 5% Bds.	200,000	1928	100	5	
Otago Hbr. Cons. Bds. } 5%	173,800	1920	97	$5\frac{1}{8}$	1 Jan.—1 July.
Wellington 6% Impts. } Loan	443,100	1934	102	$4\frac{1}{8}$	1 Jan.—1 July.
Do. 6% Waterworks	100,000	1914-29	$102\frac{1}{2}$	—	1 Mar.—1 Sept.
Do. 6% Waterworks	130,000	1929	$111\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{15}$	1 Mar.—1 Sept.
Do. $4\frac{1}{2}\%$ Debs.	165,000	1933	99	$4\frac{1}{15}$	1 May—1 Nov.
Westport Hbr. 4% } Debs.	150,000	1925	98	$4\frac{3}{15}$	1 Mar.—1 Sept.

* Yield calculated on earlier date of redemption.

† £6 13s. 4d. Shares with £3 6s. 8d. paid up.

‡ Guaranteed by New Zealand Government.

NEW ZEALAND GOVERNMENT SECURITIES.

Title.	Present Amount.	When Redeemable.	Price.	Yield.	Interest Payable.
4% Inscribed Stock (t)	29,778,302	1929	100	4	1 May—1 Nov.
3½% Stock (t)	17,568,932	1940	89	4½ ³ / ₈	1 Jan.—1 July.
3% Inscribed Stock (t)	9,659,980	1945	80	4½ ³ / ₈	1 Apr.—1 Oct.

(t) Eligible for Trustee investments.

SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT SECURITIES.

Title.	Present Amount.	When Redeemable.	Price.	Yield.	Interest Payable.
Consolid. 4% Stock (t).	8,000,000	1943-63	99½	4½ ¹ / ₈	1 Mar.—1 Sep.
CAPE COLONY.					
	£				
4½% Bonds	184,600	dwgs.	101	4½	15 Apr.—15 Oct.
4% 1883 Inscribed	3,636,395	1923	100	4½ ¹ / ₈	1 June—1 Dec.
4% 1886 "	9,596,166	1916-36*	100	4½	15 Apr.—15 Oct.
3½% 1886 " (t)	14,890,744	1929-49†	89	4½ ¹ / ₈	1 Jan.—1 July.
3% 1886 " (t)	7,484,740	1933-43†	80	4½	1 Feb.—1 Aug.
NATAL.					
4½% Bonds, 1876	758,700	1919	104	3½ ⁵ / ₈	15 Mar.—15 Sep.
4% Inscribed (t)	3,013,444	1937	101	3½ ⁵ / ₈	Apr.—Oct.
3½% " (t)	3,714,917	1914-39†	90	4½	1 June—1 Dec.
3% " (t)	6,000,000	1929-49†	80	4½ ¹ / ₈	1 Jan.—1 July.
TRANSVAAL.					
3% Guartd. Stock (t)	35,000,000	1923-53†	95	3½	1 May—1 Nov.

* Yield calculated on earlier date of redemption.

† Yield calculated on later date of redemption.

(t) Eligible for Trustee investments.

SOUTH AFRICAN MUNICIPAL SECURITIES.

Title.	Present Amount.	When Redeemable.	Price.	Yield.	Interest Payable.
	£				
Bloemfontein 4%	763,000	1954	90	4½	1 Jan.—1 July.
Cape Town 4%	1,851,850	1953	93	4½	1 Jan.—1 July.
Durban 4%	850,000	1951-3	92	4½ ⁷ / ₈	30 June—31 Dec.
Johannesburg 4%	5,500,000	1933-4	91	4½ ³ / ₈	1 April—1 Oct.
Krugersdorp 4%	70,667	1930	91	4½	1 June—1 Dec.
Pietermaritzburg 4%	814,855	1949-53	89	4½ ⁵ / ₈	30 June—31 Dec.
Port Elizabeth 4%	369,068	1964	90	4½	30 June—31 Dec.
Pretoria 4%	1,146,500	1939	90	4½ ¹ / ₈	1 Jan.—1 July.
Rand Water Board 4%	3,400,000	1935	91	4½ ¹ / ₈	1 Jan.—1 July.

management is at Pretoria, and it acts as banker to the Imperial Government and to the South African Government in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. By the absorption of the Natal Bank this function will presumably be extended to Natal also.

There was a further increase in the daily average production of gold from the Transvaal last month, although owing to the shorter length of the month, the total return compares unfavourably with that for May. The following statement gives the returns month by month for several years past.

Month.	1914.	1913.	1912.	1911.	1910.	1909.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
January . . .	2,768,470	3,353,116	3,130,830	2,765,386	2,554,451	2,612,836
February . . .	2,660,186	3,118,352	2,989,832	2,594,634	2,445,088	2,400,892
March . . .	2,917,346	3,358,050	3,528,688	2,871,740	2,578,877	2,580,498
April . . .	2,904,924	3,334,358	3,133,383	2,836,267	2,629,535	2,578,804
May . . .	3,059,340	3,373,998	3,311,794	2,913,734	2,693,785	2,652,699
June . . .	3,049,558	3,173,382	3,202,517	2,907,854	2,655,602	2,621,818
July . . .	—	2,788,917	3,255,198	3,012,738	2,713,083	2,636,965
August . . .	—	3,092,754	3,248,395	3,030,360	2,757,919	2,597,646
September . . .	—	2,999,686	3,176,846	2,976,065	2,747,853	2,575,760
October . . .	—	3,051,701	3,265,150	3,010,130	2,774,390	2,558,902
November . . .	—	2,860,788	3,216,965	3,057,213	2,729,554	2,539,146
December . . .	—	2,857,938	3,297,962	3,015,499	2,722,775	2,569,822
Total * . . .	17,359,824	37,358,040	38,757,560	34,991,620	32,002,912	30,925,788

* Including undeclared amounts omitted from the monthly returns.

SOUTH AFRICAN RAILWAYS, BANKS, AND COMPANIES.

Title.	Number of Shares or Amount.	Dividend for last Year.	Paid up.	Price.	Yield.
RAILWAYS.					
Mashonaland 5% Debs.	£2,500,000	5	100	86	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Rhodesia Rlys. 5% 1st Mort. Debs. } guar. by B.S.A. Co. till 1915. . . . }	£1,931,800	5	100	94	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Trans-African 5% Debs. Red.	£1,842,800	5	100	80 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{3}{16}$
BANKS AND COMPANIES.					
African Banking Corporation £10 shares	120,000	8	5	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{7}{16}$
Natal Bank £10	148,232	8	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
National Bank of S. Africa £10	132,130	6	10	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{3}{8}$
Standard Bank of S. Africa £20	309,705	14	5	12	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Ohlsson's Cape Breweries	60,000	8	5	5	8
South African Breweries	965,279	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ x	9 $\frac{5}{16}$
British South Africa (Chartered)	8,937,559	nil	1	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	nil
Do. 5% Debs. Red.	£1,250,000	5	100	104	4 $\frac{3}{8}$
Natal Land and Colonization	68,066	7	5	4	8 $\frac{3}{8}$
Cape Town & District Gas Light & Coke	10,000	nil	10	2	—
Kimberley Waterworks £10	45,000	5 $\frac{3}{8}$	7	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{9}{16}$

There was again only a meagre increase in the native labour supply for the gold mines on the Rand, but it compares very satisfactorily with the decrease of 9,550 that occurred during the corresponding month of last year. As will be seen from the following statement, however, the supply is still about 22,000 hands short of what it was a year ago.

Month.	Net Gain on Month.	Natives Employed end of Month.	Month.	Net Gain on Month.	Natives Employed end of Month.
January 1913 .	8,774	200,090	January 1914 .	4,190	154,202
February „ .	7,572	207,662	February „ .	3,471	157,673
March „ .	71	207,733	March „ .	5,142	162,815
April „ .	2,309*	205,424	April „ .	2,190	165,005
May „ .	7,780*	197,644	May „ .	428	165,433
June „ .	8,550*	188,094	June „ .	815	166,248
July „ .	17,852*	170,242	—	—	—
August „ .	12,019*	158,223	—	—	—
September „ .	5,586*	152,637	—	—	—
October „ .	3,755*	148,882	—	—	—
November „ .	1,313*	147,569	—	—	—
December „ .	2,443	150,012	—	—	—

* Net loss.

Rhodesia's gold output during June again constituted a "record" and exceeded the production for June last year by over 25 per cent. This table gives the monthly returns for several years past.

Month.	1914.	1913.	1912.	1911.	1910.	1909.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
January . .	249,032	220,776	214,918	207,903	227,511	204,666
February . .	259,888	208,744	209,744	209,055	203,888	192,497
March . . .	273,236	257,797	215,102	231,947	228,385	202,157
April . . .	295,907	241,098	221,476	221,296	228,213	222,700
May . . .	290,062	242,452	234,407	211,413	224,888	225,032
June . . .	306,421	241,303	226,867	215,347	214,709	217,600
July . . .	—	249,301	240,514	237,517	195,233	225,234
August . . .	—	250,576	239,077	243,712	191,423	228,296
September . .	—	250,429	230,573	225,777	179,950	213,249
October . . .	—	247,068	230,072	218,862	234,928	222,653
November . .	—	239,036	225,957	214,040	240,573	236,307
December . .	—	254,687	218,661	217,026	199,500	233,397
Total . .	1,674,546	2,903,267	2,707,368	2,647,895	2,569,201	2,623,788

The other minerals produced from Rhodesia during the month comprised 10,961 ounces of silver, 11 tons of lead, 30,345 tons of coal, 1,525 tons of chrome ore and 105 carats of diamonds, valued at £375.

CROWN COLONY SECURITIES.

Title.	Present Amount.	When Redeemable.	Price.	Yield.	Interest Payable.
Barbadoes 3½% ins. (t)	375,000	1925-42†	88	4 ⁵ / ₁₆	1 Mar.—1 Sep.
Brit. Guiana 3% ins. (t)	250,000	1923-45†	77	4 ⁷ / ₁₆	1 Feb.—1 Aug.
Ceylon 4% ins. (t) . .	1,076,100	1934	99x	4 ⁷ / ₁₆	15 Feb.—15 Aug.
Do. 3% ins. (t) . . .	2,850,000	1940	82	4 ¹ / ₂	1 May—1 Nov.
Hong-Kong 3½% ins. (t)	1,485,733	1918-43†	88	4 ¹ / ₂	15 Apr.—15 Oct.
Jamaica 4% ins. (t) . .	1,099,048	1934	100x	4	15 Feb.—15 Aug.
Do. 3½% ins. (t) . . .	1,493,600	1919-49†	88	4 ¹ / ₂	24 Jan.—24 July.
Mauritius 3% guar. } Great Britain (t) . }	600,000	1940	92	3 ⁷ / ₁₆	1 Jan.—1 July.
Do. 4% ins. (t) . . .	482,390	1937	99	4 ¹ / ₂	1 Feb.—1 Aug.
Sierra Leone 3½% ins. (t)	729,848	1929-54†	89	4 ⁷ / ₁₆	1 June—1 Dec.
Trinidad 4% ins. . . .	422,593	1917-42*	101	4	15 Mar.—15 Sep.
Do. 3% ins. (t) . . .	600,000	1922-44†	78	4 ⁵ / ₁₆	15 Jan.—15 July.
Hong-Kong & Shang- hai Bank Shares . }	120,000	Div. £4 ¹ / ₂	£84	5 ¹ / ₁₆	Feb.—Aug.

* Yield calculated on shorter period. † Yield calculated on longer period.

(t) Eligible for Trustee investments.

(x) Ex dividend.

EGYPTIAN SECURITIES.

Title.	Amount or Number of Shares.	Dividend for last Year.	Paid up.	Price.	Yield.
Egyptian Govt. Guaranteed Loan (t) .	£7,044,900	3	99	99 ³ / ₄	3 ¹ / ₂
" Unified Debt	£55,971,960	4	100	99 ¹ / ₂	4
National Bank of Egypt	800,000	8	10	14	51 ¹ / ₈
Agricultural Bank of Egypt, Ordinary	496,000	6	5	5	6
" " " Preferred	125,000	4	10	7 ³ / ₄	5 ¹ / ₈
" " " Bonds .	£2,850,000	3 ¹ / ₂	100	80	4 ³ / ₈

(t) Eligible for Trustee investments.

TRUSTEE.

25th July, 1914.

NOTICE TO CONTRIBUTORS.—The Editor of THE EMPIRE REVIEW cannot hold himself responsible in any case for the return of MS. He will, however, always be glad to consider any contributions which may be submitted to him; and when postage-stamps are enclosed every effort will be made to return rejected contributions promptly. Contributors are specially requested to put their names and addresses on their manuscripts, and to have them typewritten.

THE EMPIRE REVIEW

VOL. XXVIII. SEPTEMBER, 1914.

No. 164.

AN APPEAL TO PATRIOTISM

UNEXPECTEDLY, but fortunately for us not at our average moment, war has been thrust upon this country. At the time of writing our soldiers are engaged in battle, and it may be safely assumed before even the result of the engagement becomes known, that the British Army has well and nobly upheld the glorious traditions of its past history. We are fighting in a just cause, in defence of British interests and British honour, the same cause for which, to quote the *Times*, our ancestors fought at Waterloo and Trafalgar, "the liberties of Europe and the sanctity of law."

But we are not fighting alone. We have with us in Europe the armies of Russia, France and Belgium, and in the Far East our ally Japan has unreservedly come to our aid. We have also the sympathy of the United States of America, of Spain and of Portugal, while Italy, Holland and Denmark by remaining neutral must also be included in our list of friends. I confess one would have liked to see Holland actively joining with Belgium. For if the interests of the two countries are not identical, they are so interwoven that it surprised not a few of us the one did not at once accept the position of unity when the neutrality of the other was threatened. Nor must we forget Serbia which has dealt a very severe blow to the dual monarchy.

Regarding fleets. Russia, by force of circumstances, has but a limited navy, but the combined fleets of Great Britain and France cannot fail to prove more than a match for those of Germany and Austria-Hungary in European waters, while the Japanese Navy may be trusted to safeguard British interests in the Pacific. Officially Turkey is neutral, and while I do not trust Enver Bey, remembering past deeds, it is hardly conceivable the Turks as a whole will turn against us. In these circumstances it would seem that whatever successes the German army may gain at the beginning of the campaign, and we must

be prepared for these, the final result cannot for one moment be in doubt. Victory must and will be with the Allies.

Again, the British forces are not confined to those raised in these Isles. They are supported by the forces of the great Dominions and by the native troops of India, whose fervent loyalty in the crisis cannot be too highly commended. In short, arrayed against Germany and Austria-Hungary is the entire British Empire. It may be that all our energy will not be employed, but the fact remains that whatever be our differences, at home or overseas, the British Empire presents a solid front to the common enemy. And we shall not lay down our arms till that enemy is brought to its knees. Our foes must be taught to see the unrighteous character of the war they have engineered, they must pay the penalty of their misdeeds.

But let it be known, and widely known, that the war was none of our seeking. Sir Edward Grey's endeavours to secure peace are plainly written in the published correspondence. These failed, but because they failed, and the nation thereby plunged into war, we shall not seek when peace is again restored to add to our territory. What, however, we shall do is to see that it is never again in the power of either Germany or Austria-Hungary to repeat a crime which is regarded, and rightly so, as wanton and premeditated by the whole English-speaking race.

The spirit of the Empire is indeed something to be proud of. From East and West, North and South, the King's subjects are rallying to the Flag. Nothing that has gone before compares with the enthusiasm that prevails in the Dominions to-day. From Canada alone we have news of 100,000 men coming over to fight, and another 100,000 anxious and willing to follow. From Australia and New Zealand similar help is arriving. Boers and Britons in South Africa are ready to fight under one and the same banner. In India native battalions of every nationality are hastening to the bugle call. Such a gathering of the clans has never before been seen. The true inwardness of the words, "united we stand divided we fall" is making itself felt throughout the length and breadth of the British Empire. In very truth we are one people, with one destiny, that destiny being to destroy for ever the power of the foes who have so far forgotten the ethics of civilisation as to make war not to defend themselves or their own countries from attack, but with the object of aggrandisement and self-advancement.

But while victory in the end must rest with ourselves and our Allies, it must not be supposed that we shall walk to the goal, it

will be a hard fight and a fight to the finish. Thousands of brave men on both sides will fall, many never to rise again. Great Britain's strength in the field will be tried to the uttermost and we shall need all the men we can get to fill the vacancies in our ranks. Lord Kitchener's appeal for 100,000 men has been met, and met at once, but we want another 100,000 and then another. We must not stop recruiting till the British army in the field and at home totals at least a million men. Not only the Homeland but the Empire is in jeopardy. Let every able-bodied man of fighting age sign on at least for the duration of the war. Once the enemy know they have not only to face the combined arms of France and Russia but the manhood of the British Empire and the time has arrived for them to sue for peace.

The Russian army is rolling into Germany and Austria-Hungary. The one thing now the enemy desire is to inflict a serious defeat on the British and the French. If this be done, it is hoped to turn the tables on Russia before her troops reach the German capital. But if that defeat be not inflicted what then? It will not be possible for German troops to stay in French territory with the Russians at the gates of Berlin. In the main it rests with France to drive back the oncoming foe. But if France can rely upon a constant stream of British arms so much the better for France, so much the better for ourselves.

I appeal, therefore, to the young men of this country to come forward without delay. For let us not forget that every recruit has to be trained before he is fit to go into battle. The sooner the complement is made up the greater the chance of early victory. True, if we had only listened to Lord Roberts this war might never have happened. But it is too late to think of what might have been. All our thought, all our strength must be concentrated on the position as it is. Now is the time for action, not for argument. It is not for us "to reason why," our duty, like the heroes of Balaclava, is "to do and die." Our foes reckoned on the smallness of our army when they threw down the gauntlet. Let us show them they have reckoned in vain. A month ago we could scarcely be called a nation in arms, to-day we are nearing that point. Is it too much to hope that to-morrow we shall have reached it?

Remember the Belgians. How they fought to a man in defence of their country. Their deeds of bravery will go down to posterity as no deeds have ever gone down before. Generations yet unborn will grow up to bless little Belgium which, at a moment's notice, held at bay the largest and most highly trained

force ever assembled on the field of battle. Shall we do less than Belgium? No, a thousand times no!

Sons be welded one and all
 Into one Imperial whole,
 One with Britain heart and soul.
 One Flag, one fleet, one Throne,
 Britons, hold your own!

Thank God the same spirit that animated Britons in the past is abroad in us to-day. The words of the immortal Nelson are ever with us, "England expects every man to do his duty." There is no place for shirkers. Not only have we to strike, but to strike hard, and, above all, to strike quickly. No man not disqualified by infirmity or age must hang back. One and all must rally round the grand old flag in defence of King and country. Let us never forget, as our fathers and grandfathers never forgot,

Not once or twice in our rough island's story
 The path of duty was the way to glory.

EDITOR.

WAR

At first no bigger than a man's mailed hand,
 The world looked on and feared to breathe its name;
 Then swiftly overshadowing all the land
 Ruthless and grim and terrible it came.

At last it broke, and like a thunder roar,
 The shriek of war re-echoed far and wide,
 Like lightning flash it spread from shore to shore
 Bearing black sorrow on its seething tide.

The women watch the troops with blinded eyes,
 March bravely through the City's cheering throng,
 They know that only one way honour lies;
 They know that England's cause is just and strong.

But though the blood of England's brave may raise,
 The gentle flower of Peace for after years,
 We cannot still our grief or turn our gaze
 From what to-morrow morn may bring of fears.

CHARLOTTE PIDGEON.

PRUSSIA'S MISCALCULATIONS

By A. E. DUCHESNE

It is eminently desirable we should learn to speak of our principal adversary in the present war as "Prussia" and not as "Germany." We are not fighting Germany—the home of ideals, of science, of culture; Germany of the *Lieder*, of sentiment, of domestic felicity; but Prussia the bully since the days of Frederick the Great, Prussia the militarist despot nourished on blood and iron, Prussia the mine-sower and treaty breaker.

The loose association of States known as "Germany" is dominated by Prussian supremacy, but some of these States loathe Prussia and all its ways. The fear of mediatisation is in the heart of every prince. Each time Prussian diplomacy reveals its cynical disregard of honour a fresh strain is put on the loyalty of non-Prussians to the Empire. The South German is more nearly akin to the Austrian than to the Prussian. I have often been implored by friends from Austria-Hungary, Bavaria, or Wurtemberg to distinguish between them and the Prussians. "Everyone who speaks German is not a Prussian," they protest.

The first of Prussia's miscalculations has been the ignoring of this lack of harmony between herself and the other German States. The Prussian attitude is only a safe one so long as their policy is everywhere and always successful. A check means a storm of hostile criticism, as was well seen at the time of the Agadir incident. A serious reverse might probably mean the break up of the German Empire. At present the unhappy soldier from Bavaria, Baden, or Wurtemberg is dragging reluctant feet in ill-fitting boots to a war which in his heart he knows is unprovoked and unjust. Most emphatically is this the case with regard to Belgium and Britain. Every South German is against the violation of Belgium's neutrality. Only he dare not say so.

The second of Prussia's miscalculations is with regard to

Russia. Prussian diplomacy has been completely baffled by the guileless Russ. The impression prevailed in the Prussian chancellery that Russia dare not mobilise, that her finances were chaotic, her populations disaffected, and her troops mutinous. The exact contrary is the case in each instance. Russia's resources in money, in munitions, in food-stuffs, in well-based credit are at least Prussia's equal. Her mobilisation scheme is complete, she has a far more recent experience of war and warlike preparations than Prussia. Her various races, including the Poles, are loyal, even enthusiastically so. Thus when Austria-Hungary announced her intention of coercing Servia there was no need for hesitation. Russia was able to act promptly and firmly. Eastern Prussia has to face a danger unknown to her for a hundred years.

The third miscalculation is a complete misunderstanding of Italy's probable attitude. Of all the nations of Europe Italy has most cause to dislike Austria-Hungary. From father to son has been handed down the heritage of hate and vengeance. Those who shivered and died, or tossed fever-stricken and died, in the *Piombi* are cherished by the Venetians as martyrs. To one day meet the "White coats" on an equal field is the heartfelt desire of every soldier drawn from the northern provinces of Italy. If the King of Italy were to support Austria-Hungary his throne—be he successful or not—would go down in a bloody revolution in comparison with which the Portuguese expulsion of their royal family was a summer half-holiday. It is extremely doubtful whether Italy could use her navy except against Austria-Hungary. On the other hand many Austrian sailors are of the Italian race, and Austria-Hungary faces certain risks if she were to use them against Italy. Prussia reckoned on the combined navies of Austria-Hungary and Italy to render the Mediterranean unsafe for British and French commerce.

Now that England has been compelled to declare war on Austria-Hungary, Italy will be strongly swayed towards our side. Nothing the Austro-Prussian alliance can offer her will equal what she can get from a victorious *entente*. In the first place the war itself would be extremely popular, and would immensely strengthen the position of the reigning house. In the next, Italy would hope to get back Trieste, Fiume, the Italian Tyrol and the Trentino. And that hope would be perfectly reasonable. From the Austro-Prussians she would get Cinderella's allowance—what she could get out of France. There is, therefore, very little doubt as to Italy's attitude—a resolute neutrality. If pressed by the Austro-Prussian alliance she will join the *entente* as a measure due to her dignity. Thus Prussia will be extremely ill-advised to attempt any form of coercion against Italy. Instead

of having the help of Italy's two million of soldiers and powerful navy the Prussian strategists have to keep constantly before them the possibility of a necessary diversion of the Austro-Hungarian army corps to the Italian frontier.

In the fourth place, Prussia under-estimated the degree of French preparedness. The Prussian spy system is well developed in France, but all spies are prone to send reports which they know will chime in with their employers' sentiments. Thus Prussia has always been misled as to the real effect of the agitation against the three years' service regulations. Equally has she been misinformed as to the possibilities of French finance. There has been a natural confusion between the Treasury and the nation. It has not been realised that France has resources, readily available, which lie outside the limits of a Budget statement.

A fifth element of error is the sharing of Austria-Hungary's confidence that Serbia would readily yield. Far from this being the case, Serbia has shown she is capable of taking care of herself. Austria-Hungary will not, therefore, be able to leave her southern frontier denuded of troops. It must remain one of her most important strategic problems how she is to face Russia, continue her Servian campaign, and actively assist Prussia against France.

I come now to a group of considerations lying outside the domain of higher strategy, involving ethical principles as to which the Prussian standard appears to be lower than that of the rest of the civilised world. The first of these considerations is the obligation imposed by treaty. The average man supposes that a treaty is binding on the signatory powers. Prussia agrees that it is binding on her but with one very important limitation—so long as it suits Prussian convenience to be bound by her word. Openly and unblushingly this has been officially avowed in Prussia. For years past Prussia has contemplated the violation of Belgium's neutrality. Strategic railroads, with ample siding accommodation, have been constructed on the frontier. German officers, nominally on furlough, have for the last twenty years devoted much attention to Belgium.

The anticipation has always been that Belgium, wealthy, crowded Belgium, could be bought off and would allow Prussian troops to pass unimpeded through her territory. But Belgium has declined to be the willing victim of Prussian dishonour. Since Prussia has declared that the Kaiser may break treaties in order to "hack his way through" to victory, the Belgians have determined to give them as much "hacking" as possible to do. With their 300,000 men they are prepared to face Prussia's 4,000,000. The spirit of the people is excellent. The Austro-

Prussian forces have been checked and their promenade through a neutral country most unceremoniously changed into a struggle through a hostile one.

The Prussian cynicism based on Prussian ignorance was even extended to Great Britain. It was supposed that our political differences would absolutely prevent us from going to war. The Nationalists were regarded as embryo allies of the Teuton. Our army was supposed to be small, inefficient and unorganised. Our finances were in a bad way owing to the great cost of our recent social experiments. The Socialists and peace fanatics were confidently believed to be very strong among us. We might protest against the violation of treaty right or the dismemberment of France. We might propose to bring the conduct of Prussia before the Hague Tribunal. Never should we dare to draw the sword. We declined to be accomplices before the fact to Prussia's crime. Prussia invaded Belgium. We at once declared war, and the publication of the preceding "conversations" showed how righteous was our action. The whole nation is as one man in the matter and the Prussian miscalculation has been grievous.

These seven directions in which Prussian diplomacy and Prussian calculation have obviously erred are bound to exercise a great influence over the result of her campaign. It is however extremely desirable to guard against any exaggerations in estimating the effect of Prussia's errors.

To take them in the order of their importance. Britain's adherence to the *entente* at once shatters the dream of a naval supremacy for the Alliance. The position is rendered more acute by the attitude of Italy. Clearly, to take one instance, 27 Dreadnoughts (Germany 20, Austria 3, Italy 4) to 4 (France 4, Russia 0) is a very different thing from 23 to 33 (Britain 29, France 4) (or possibly 37 if Prussian diplomacy continues its career of tactful success). The German navy has been bottled up, its most famous ship chased round the Mediterranean to safety in Turkish territory. German maritime commerce is now practically extinct, and so far the highest achievement of the German navy has been the foul crime of employing disguised merchant vessels to sow contact mines in the open sea.

Belgium's resolute defiance has delayed the preliminary Prussian operations most seriously. The Prussian salvation depends on being able to clear her western frontier before her eastern is seriously threatened. Meanwhile Russia's cohorts are steadily pouring inwards from the eastern frontier of Austro-Prussian territory. Given sufficient delay Russian troops can menace Berlin and strike at the very heart of the Empire. Should Russian strategy involve the Prussian capital in danger the Prussian troops will have to abandon the western campaign,

leaving that to the forces of the other States, and rush to the defence of Berlin. It would be distinctly unwise for the Kaiser to entrust defensive action in mid-Prussia to either his ally or any of his confederates.

Meanwhile the people's savings have been seized. All overseas trade is stopped. The *entente* countries are still able to carry on. Thus if France is not crushed by the middle of September, Prussia will be involved in the most serious difficulties. But it is precisely when she has been in difficulties in the past that Prussia has proved most formidable. Her half century of success has given her an exaggerated idea of her importance in the general scheme of things which is ludicrous to the sane observer. But Prussia humiliated, Prussia invaded, Prussia writhing under the punishment of her own mistakes; then indeed is she likely to prove formidable. We may of course be the beaten side, in which case, farewell to European liberty! But even if we are perfectly successful and see a Prussia ringed round by foes, deserted by allies, stripped of every vestige of imperial authority over recalcitrant South German States, we may even then be but at the beginning of a long and arduous conflict. Prussia will certainly pay for her miscalculations, but it behoves us to beware indeed of under-estimating the force against us.

A. E. DUCHESNE.

A DOUBLE DISSOLUTION IN THE COMMONWEALTH

BY F. A. W. GISBORNE

THIS month will be marked throughout the Commonwealth of Australia by the most thorough political house-cleaning any distracted democracy has had to undergo within recent times. For the first time since federation the drastic remedy prescribed by section 57 of the Constitution Act will be applied to a Legislature that has suffered since its unquiet birth from a complication of serious internal disorders. A double dissolution, was solicited by the Prime Minister on the contumelious rejection by the Senate, for the second time, of the short measure intended to safeguard purity of administration, twice passed by the House of Representatives; and the Governor-General, with the warm approval of every Australian citizen who regards Parliament as not the proper place for exhibitions of the burlesque, promptly granted the request.

In a few weeks, 111 legislators will temporarily swell the ranks of the unemployed, and be assigned the task of proving to the satisfaction of the electors they have justified the trust reposed in them. That a considerable portion of the disbanded regiment will be relegated to private life is to be expected, as well as hoped; but the cashiered are scarcely likely to retire without audible protest. Political death-chambers are not the abodes of silence. They invariably resound with delirious vociferations. For the next month or two each citizen of the Commonwealth, who is afflicted with sensitive ears, would like, were it possible, to live in a sound-proof cellar. *Ante turbam trepidat*—for entirely excusable reasons. But, unhappily, freedom now, as formerly, exacts cruel sacrifices. The strife of tongues has succeeded the strife of swords. The lover of liberty, in this humanitarian age, is not required to go to Runnymede or Morgarten. He is only compelled, with no great willingness, to undertake periodical visits to Babel.

These observations will not, perhaps, commend themselves to the many stalwart democrats to whom the prospect of a general election brings more delight than the vivacious Irishman finds in the anticipated excitements of Donnybrook Fair. But I am not fortunate enough to be numbered among the politicians. I am only one of the many frogs, whose supplications in Australia to-day are for release from the voracious rule of King Stork. The average Commonwealth elector, not devoid of intelligence, and, unfortunately perhaps for himself, not blessed with destitution, votes under present conditions solely in self-defence. He finds little pleasure, though much possibly wholesome exercise, in making frequent excursions to various polling places at the bidding of his quarrelsome rulers; but he performs these tasks with resignation, and in the faint hope that, if he cannot confer supreme legislative authority on Solon, he may at least succeed in excluding Barabbas. The struggle in free communities between the two rival parties which, whatever names they may—for reasons of expediency—assume, simply consist of those who have and wish to keep, and those who lack and wish to seize, is becoming one largely of physical endurance. The side whose supporters excel in punctual attendance at the polling places must eventually win. Viewed in this light at all events popular representative institutions should favour improved national physique. What with pre-elections, referenda, political meetings and general elections, it may be said of the problem of government in Australia, quite literally, *solvitur ambulando*.

The present crisis, however humorous it may appear in some of its aspects, must nevertheless be treated with becoming seriousness, for it closely affects the destinies of the inhabitants of a continent. Not inappreciably, too, it may influence the history of an Empire. Socialism is the sworn foe of Imperialism. Conclusive evidence could be given to support that statement; and Socialism is the moving force behind one of the two great political parties in Australia, although the name itself be disavowed. How far democracy and universal suffrage have been justified as yet in the Commonwealth by their political children, both animate in the form of legislators, and inanimate in that of legislative enactments, is a question on which, no doubt, wide and perfectly conscientious differences of opinion exist. But the latest family of the former at least, it can hardly be denied, has not proved altogether tractable.

Since the last election the House of Representatives has been a temple of discord. An Opposition, numerically weaker by only a single member than the Government party, has carried obstruction to the utmost lengths. Novelties in the way of parliamentary procedure have been introduced. Pillow fights,

fisticuffs, strikes, prolonged attacks of sleeping sickness induced by all-night sittings, vicious attacks on the Speaker, who, on one occasion discovered that nimble hands had spirited away the mace and certain books of reference—incidents such as these have added variety, if not dignity, to legislative proceedings. The Government, dependent throughout for its existence on the Speaker's casting vote, has enjoyed but the hospitality of Dionysius. At any time the desertion, or temporary physical collapse, of a single supporter might have brought about its ejection from office. But for an almost unexampled display of fidelity and endurance on the part of the Ministerialists, Mr. Cook and his colleagues must have succumbed ere reaching the goal just achieved. What they aimed at throughout was, not victory, but defeat; for the latter was the necessary prelude to the former. While struggling against tremendous difficulties in the House of Representatives, they were in a position of absolute impotence in the Senate, where their friends numbered only seven, and their opponents no less than twenty-nine.

The Labour majority in the Senate gave no quarter and showed no spirit of tolerance or chivalry. The conduct of business was taken completely out of the hands of the Government's representatives. No important official measure received even the pretence of consideration. Partisan committees were appointed to inquire into, or rather to condemn, ordinary measures of administration; and on one occasion a Minister of the Crown was actually summoned to justify himself before a packed body of self-constituted judges. To crown all, an amendment was added in the Senate to the Address-in-reply to the Governor-General's speech on the opening of the last session censuring that high functionary's advisers. Such foolish and unmannerly displays of party spite naturally reacted to the detriment of the political reputation of those who descended to them.

The Australian, like the Briton, does not like to see kicks administered to the man who is down. "Push" tactics are not entirely creditable to legislators. By yielding to the worst excesses of party rancour the majority in the Senate, indeed, proved themselves the Government's best friends. Finally, by their unceremonious rejection for the second time of a Bill introduced by the Ministry with the express object of forcing a crisis, they enabled Mr. Cook and his colleagues to obtain the sanction of the Governor-General to the complete dissolution of the most turbulent, obstructive and inefficient body of legislators Australia has yet seen.

The test measure referred to was one consisting only of a single clause prohibiting the granting of preference of employment in the Federal Public Service to members of trade-unions.

Every self-respecting Australian citizen might blush to think that the need to introduce such a measure should ever have arisen. But the lamentable truth is that, among a numerically—though not intellectually, far less morally—strong party of Australian politicians a packed Legislature, a packed Civil Service, and a packed Judiciary have become avowed objects of policy. To attain the first, the trade-unions have been transformed into mischievous political associations analogous to the societies like the Camorra, whose leaders enforce the subordination of individual will and judgment to the tyranny of a secret junta. Since Australian trade-unionism touched politics it has become defiled. It is now smeared from head to foot with the pitch of Socialism. To attain the second, the late Labour Ministry introduced the practice of giving preference to applicants for positions in the Federal Public Service to members of trade-unions who were pledged partisans. An intention to carry out the third has been openly declared by at least one influential leader of the party. New democracy thus follows the path of old despotism. To restrain its evil progress by preventing, if possible, the introduction of the poison of privilege into the ranks of the State employees the Government will shortly appeal to the people.

While both parties are busily engaged in preparing for the fray a glance may be taken in turn at the programme of policy, or "fighting platform," as the incongruously absurd phrase goes, adopted respectively by each of the combatants. The party that calls itself "Liberal" in the Commonwealth, which may be regarded as corresponding with certain modifications to the Unionist party at home, has formally adopted a number of important proposals. These include electoral reform; the abolition of preference to trade-unionists; concerted action on the part of the Commonwealth and the States with a view to protecting the people against the operations of mischievous trusts or combines; certain important financial measures affecting the powers of the Commonwealth Bank, the issue of paper money, and Federal control of State indebtedness; the encouragement of immigration by *per capita* payments on the part of the Commonwealth to the States; the active development of the Northern Territory and Papua by railway construction, and the granting of assistance to those engaged there in agricultural or other industries; the establishment of a central agricultural bureau; and the revision of the tariff, so as to remove existing anomalies. Both parties, happily, agree in supporting the maintenance of an effective system of defence on land and sea.

Mr. Fisher, the leader of the Opposition, has just announced at Bundaberg the policy his party intends to pursue if returned to power. Pensions occupy a prominent place among the proposed

legislative benefactions. Widows and orphans are to be included among the great and increasing army of State dependants. The recipients of the old age and invalid pensions are to have their weekly allowance increased from 10s. to either 12s. 6d. or 15s.; the precise amount of the increase does not appear yet to be decided. The reason assigned to justify this proposed liberality is the increased cost of living, a boon which, by grace of Mr. Justice Higgins, has certainly not been conferred solely on pensioners. Maternity grants are, for the present, to remain unaltered; but perhaps teething allowances will be added later. In this connection it is pertinent to notice that at the end of last year about 90,000 persons in the Commonwealth were receiving old age pensions, and over 14,000 more invalid pensions, at a total yearly charge of approximately £2,500,000. In addition, within the space of fifteen months, no less a sum than £810,415 had been spent in affording consolation to happy fathers. What additional burdens the Australian tax-payer may anticipate in the event of the proposed augmentations being added cannot yet be reckoned with complete accuracy; but an annual Charity Vote of not less than £5,000,000, or about £1 per head of population, seems probable in the near future, assuming a change of Government.

The other "planks" consist of the imposition of increased duties on manufactured goods intended to facilitate the introduction of the New Protection; the immediate introduction of a standard gauge for all Australian railways; the payment for naval and other public works out of revenue instead of borrowed funds; the establishment within a short period of a Commonwealth line of steamships to trade with oversea countries, as well as between the States, and certain other extensions of Government action in the industrial sphere. The Arbitration Act, also, is to be again altered, in a direction it is scarcely necessary to explain. No encouragement of immigration, however, is promised. The closed door is still a cardinal feature of the Labour Party's policy.

On the question of finance Mr. Fisher and his friends are not very communicative. Borrowing, we are told, is to cease; but we are not told from what source the substantial sum, estimated by the Prime Minister at £56,000,000, required to carry out the constructive portion of the Party programme is to be derived. Besides increased duties augmented land taxes are hinted at. Good trade unionists own little land and, if required to pay more for manufactured necessaries, will receive a more than proportionate increase of wages to compensate them. Yet but a moderate effort of Ratiocination is needed to show that, if the objects aimed at by the New Protection be achieved, the application of that economic panacea will result in a decline rather than increase of Customs revenue. The greater the

quantity of dutiable goods produced at home, the less must be the quantity required from abroad. And, it may be added, the Commonwealth steamers returning empty, or nearly so, from foreign countries will do little by their earnings to make good the deficiency. If export freight charges be raised to make the steamers profitable, primary production will be checked; and there will be a diminution in the amount realised from land taxation. Obvious considerations like these are entirely ignored by modern professors of politics, skilled in the art of persuasion. They can always convince a large section of the electors that it is possible both to eat one's cake and have it.

Apart from the fundamental question of private or State enterprise, individualism or collectivism, the chief point of difference between the Liberal and the Labour policy lies in the matter of immigration. Against the introduction of possible competitors in the home labour market, Australian trade-unionism blindly and resolutely sets its face. Certain very interesting and sadly suggestive figures lately published by the Commonwealth statistician, an official to whom the public is most deeply indebted for many illuminating investigations, show clearly that the increase of the political power of the Australian Labour Party has been attended by a marked diminution of the rate of increase of population. Mr. Knibbs has prepared a comparative return showing the population growth of Australia and Canada respectively at decennial intervals for the sixty years intervening between 1851 and 1911. Without entering into close details it seems that during the half century following the year first mentioned the population of Australia increased from 437,665 to 3,824,913, while that of Canada rose from 2,384,409 to 5,371,315. For the whole period, therefore, Australia gained 400,342 more inhabitants than Canada.

The next decade, however, showed a complete reversal of previous tendencies. Between 1901 and 1911 Canada's gain of population exceeded that of the Commonwealth by no less than 1,089,729. Taking the whole term of sixty years the Dominion, therefore, established a lead by little short of 700,000. In 1913 the population of the Commonwealth was, approximately, 4,872,000, while that of Canada was about 7,500,000.

It will be observed that, since the era of Federation, Australia has fallen far behind, while Canada has rushed to the front in the race of population. The Federal Government, either directly or indirectly, has been controlled by the Labour Party for almost the whole period since the creation of the Commonwealth. Since that event all the States save two have, for greater or longer terms, had Labour Ministries. Prior to the end of the year 1900, the various States had between them

expended the large sum of £10,249,666 in assisting immigration ; while during the first seven years following Federation, owing chiefly to labour hostility, but partly also to the fact that the Commonwealth Government deprived the States of by far the greater portion of the revenues they had up to that time derived from the Customs and Excise, only a pitiful sum of £154,585 was devoted by the State Governments to that purpose.* One of the longest successions of prosperous seasons Australia has ever known was marked by a stagnation of settlement more pronounced than had been experienced in the course of the previous fifty years.

Apologists for the Commonwealth urge the greater accessibility of Canada from Europe, and the impetus to settlement given by the construction of the great railway between the world's two largest oceans. Granting the former advantage, it may fairly be claimed that, owing to vastly improved facilities of sea-transport, the difference both in respect to cost and time between the journey to Canada and that to Australia is now comparatively negligible. No emigrant thinks much of an extra week or two spent at sea. As a matter of fact population poured most abundantly into Australia in the days of sailing ships, when the voyage out took months. As to the railway, Australia might have had her trans-continental line built by private effort on the land grant system years ago ; but her rulers neglected the opportunity, and failed to show the prescience and breadth of outlook that have long characterised Canadian statesmanship. With a railway connecting Port Darwin with Adelaide managed by a progressive company, and judicious Government regulations by means of which settlers in the tropical districts could obtain suitable labour, the still desolate and neglected northern region of the continent might ere this have been transformed into a land of cotton, sugar and rubber plantations, rivalling in wealth production the golden west of Canada. Instead, the Commonwealth Government now proposes to build the railway at an enormous cost to the taxpayers, and to persevere in a policy that must render it utterly unprofitable. The reasons why Canada has progressed so rapidly of late years, and Australia has fallen behind, are political rather than economic. By checking the healthy inflow of population Australian trade unionism has done almost irreparable mischief.

If only for its appreciation of the fact that the Commonwealth needs people rather than pensions, the present Federal Government merits the sympathy of every true Imperialist. "Australia is a frame without a picture," remarked an Australian banker to Mr. Ernest Aves, the author of a luminous report compiled for the Home Government a few years ago. It were, perhaps, more

* 'Australian Socialism,' by Senator St. Ledger, Appendix D.

correct to say that it is half a frame with but a minute fragment of a picture. The task before a patriotic Government is that of completing and strengthening the frame, and supplying a living landscape of cornfields and pastures, tillers and harvesters. Three or four over-grown cities cannot expect to be allowed to keep a continent almost empty from selfish and ignoble motives. Such a policy of fatuous obstruction must break down in the end. It may be hoped that, at the coming election, the voice of prudence and patriotism will prevail; and that the legislators of the next Parliament will use every effort to redeem past errors, and instead of wasting the public revenues by pampering the weaklings at home, will apply a liberal portion of those revenues to the introduction from abroad of virile settlers capable not only of adding to the national wealth but, if necessary, of defending the integrity of the Commonwealth.

F. A. W. GISBORNE.

RURAL HOUSING IN NEW ZEALAND

The Labour Department of New Zealand is considerably developing its housing schemes. Its most recent undertaking is a scheme for the housing in certain localities of rural workers, and is of special interest. Each house is to be built on a five-acre plot, and some of the best land for horticultural purposes is being chosen. By an amendment made last year to the Housing Act, county councils in New Zealand are now authorised to expend money in acquiring land and erecting homes for workers in rural districts in much the same way as dwellings are erected by the Labour Department in the towns. It is hoped by these rural housing schemes to place workers on small farms and at the same time to provide a regular supply of labour for the larger farms.

JUDICIAL REFORM

By H. DOUGLAS GREGORY

DURING the last few years there have been frequent complaints of the unsatisfactory state of the legal system in this country, due very largely to the growing congestion of the courts, and the consequent uncertainty and expense of litigation. A Joint Select Committee sat on the question in 1909, and duly issued a Report. Finally in December, 1912, a Royal Commission was appointed to consider the whole subject of delay in the King's Bench Division, this being the department concerning which the most serious complaints have been made. A large number of important witnesses were examined between January 23 and June 26, 1913, and much valuable evidence is in consequence now available. In December last the Commission issued their Report—a very notable and weighty review of present outstanding judicial difficulties, and a contribution of a comprehensive and authoritative scheme of reform, most especially useful inasmuch as little additional legislation is required to give effect to the proposals, whilst they are of a character to deal effectively with the crux of the problem.

Accordingly I wish to discuss certain aspects of the evidence given before the Commission, and certain of the most important of the proposals contained in the Report. It is manifest that in the space at my disposal it is impossible to do more than this—complete examination of all the various leading points on which suggestions have been made is quite out of the question.

Now in reading through the evidence one of the most prominent subjects that force themselves on one's attention is the congestion of business in the King's Bench Division in London, and it is apparently clear that the existing circuit system of the country is largely responsible for this.

That system is founded upon arrangements made centuries ago, when conditions were totally different, and consequently in many respects it appears incongruous at the present day. The Assizes on many of the circuits are held at small country towns, access to which is frequently difficult. These towns in bygone

times were the most important and the most convenient centres in their respective counties, but now they are in many instances surpassed both in size and in easiness of access by other towns in the same shire. Consequently the present arrangement of civil and criminal business in the country is responsible for much waste of judicial time.

In order to eradicate this evil elaborate schemes of "grouping," based on the present distribution of population, have been proposed. Let us therefore consider this aspect of the problem, and the more readily to do so it will be advisable to conduct our discussion under the two heads of criminal and civil business.

The question of grouping criminal assizes arouses apparently far deeper opposition than that of grouping civil business. A review of Mr. A. Denman's* evidence on this subject will be at once interesting and instructive. A previous attempt was made at grouping criminal work under the Winter Assizes Acts, 1876 and 1877, and the Spring Assizes Act, 1879. "The 1876 Act says that any county in which, by reason of the small number of prisoners 'or otherwise,' it is usually inexpedient to hold separate Winter Assizes, may by Order in Council be united to any neighbouring county for the purpose of Winter Assizes. Then the jurisdiction of the Central Criminal Court was extended for November, December, or January to certain neighbouring parts of the counties; and by the Winter Assizes Act, 1877, the Winter Assizes Act, 1876, is extended also to the months of September and October. Then by the Spring Assizes Act, 1879, all the provisions of the Winter Assizes Acts are made to apply to the months of March, April, and May, in substitution for the months of November, December, and January for the purpose of holding Spring Assizes; but 'neither this Act nor the Winter Assizes Acts are to affect the custom of holding separate Assizes in and for each county twice a year.' "†

Commenting on these Acts, Mr. Denman quotes the 'Encyclopædia of the Laws of England,' volume 3, page 83:—"The system of grouping under these Acts was adopted for some years but it was found to be attended with great inconvenience, particularly to the witnesses, who were often kept waiting at the assize towns for a considerable time at a long distance from their homes. This led to its discontinuance in the year 1888." And of his own experience he says:—"I well remember how loud and how frequent the complaints were; and, knowing something of the subject, I have no hesitation in describing the grouping of criminal business as an iniquitous system, except in one or two very unimportant instances."‡

* Clerk of Assize, South Eastern Circuit.

† Question 1406.

‡ Question 1407.

As against this general system of grouping, Lord Justice Phillimore proposes a modified scheme for the Home Counties. He suggests that all criminal cases from Hertfordshire, South Bucks, East Berks, and East and Mid Surrey should be tried in London.* Mr. Denman, for the following reasons, is equally opposed to this. Firstly, it would cause great inconvenience to witnesses. Secondly, there would be a grave risk in temporarily withdrawing the police from the counties to give evidence. Thirdly, expenses would be "enormously increased." Fourthly, by imposing on London jurors cases from outside their own area a big additional burden would be placed upon them, and a serious injustice therefore inflicted. Fifthly, "a man on his trial frequently says that he desires the attendance of a witness whose name is not on the back of the indictment, but who is within reach of the assize town." "Inability to secure the attendance of such a witness" might cause a grievance, false or otherwise. Sixthly, "the coming of a 'red Judge,' even now, when the Assizes are shorn of most of their paraphernalia, has a far-reaching and beneficial result, both on the populace and on potential criminals. This effect would entirely be done away with by the removal of prisoners for trial in London. Lastly, the work at the Central Criminal Court is already so heavy that the greatest difficulty is experienced in getting through it. When a Judge sits there he only tries a carefully-selected list of heavy, complicated, or important cases. The sending, therefore, of all manner of business from the rural parts of counties round London to be tried in London would amount to a denial to many of them of their right to be tried by a High Court Judge."†

These are weighty reasons and they seem on the whole to be supported by a consensus of legal opinion. Grouping of criminal work, whether on the general lines of the Winter and Spring Assizes Acts or in reference solely to the Home Counties, appears to excite a balance of strong opposition against it. The middle course, therefore, recommended by the Commission appears to be a wise one. "We think that the Assizes and Quarter Sessions Act (1908) might usefully be extended. By that statute it was enacted that 'if not more than five days before the Commission Day it appears to the proper officer that the attendance of jurors will not be required at the Assizes by reason of there being no business to be transacted for which they are required, their attendance may be dispensed with and the Assizes not held'; and provision was made for enabling any person committed for trial by justices after they had been informed that the Assizes would not be held, to be tried 'at any other Assize about to be held at any place or town convenient for the trial,' in the same or

* Evidence, vol. i., appendix, p. 133.

† Questions 1412-1421.

any other county. This Act relieved the Judges from quite unnecessary visits to a few of the smallest Assize towns, and carried somewhat further the principle, already established, for the Autumn Assizes, that prisoners may in certain circumstances, and at certain places, be properly tried in counties other than those in which the offence has been committed. We recommend that it should be amended in such a manner as (1) to allow a prisoner to be tried, with the assent of the Circuit Judge at any Assizes in a county other than that in which the offence was committed; (2) to relieve the judge and jurors summoned to attend, from the obligation to attend at any Assize town unless, not less than seven days before the Commission Day, there shall have been committed for trial at such Assize town at least three prisoners not triable at Quarter Sessions, or for special reasons, proper to be tried at Assizes, unless the circuit Judge is satisfied that by reason of the gravity or special circumstances of any case so committed such Assizes ought to be held. When such Assizes are not held, and any prisoners have been committed for trial there, the Judge should bear in mind, in fixing the place for their trial, first, convenience in the particular cases, and second, the advantage of alternating Assizes between existing Assize towns. Power should be given to the Judge at the trial to allow the additional cost, if any, to prisoners tried out of their county.”*

Evidence has been given by several witnesses of the time wasted at small Assize towns by the trial of one or two paltry cases, and the Commission's recommendation is only a very moderate extension of an already existing and justifiable principle. If the present Assize towns are to be retained inviolate some such reform as this is absolutely necessary. Mr. C. H. Morton, one of the members of the Commission, in a Memorandum attached to the Report, dissents from the proposal on the ground that evidence is “emphatically opposed to the removal of the trials of prisoners.” This is undoubtedly so in respect of any general scheme of grouping, but as I interpret the evidence, there is no weight of opinion against the very moderate scheme of emergency grouping suggested in the Report, and I certainly, therefore, think that the reform should be adopted.

Essentially connected with this question of grouping criminal work is the question of the reorganisation of Quarter Sessions. Various suggestions have been made, but the great majority of the witnesses examined on this subject were opposed to any material change in jurisdiction. There are two main reasons against wider powers being granted. The first is stated very clearly by Mr. W. J. Disturnal, K.C.: “Personally, I have a very strong objection to increasing the jurisdiction of County

* Report, p. 17, para. 30.

Quarter Sessions, and I can state my objection without making any reflections upon any particular courts. Everyone who has had experience of Quarter Sessions knows that these tribunals vary immensely in different counties. You have got in effect in the counties elected judges; sometimes they are men of very great capacity; we have High Court Judges sometimes sitting as Chairmen of Quarter Sessions, and we have distinguished King's Counsel sitting too—men of very great capacity and very competent, but in other counties we have not got men of the same experience, and for that reason I should not like to see the jurisdiction of Quarter Sessions increased. It hink that a body of magistrates sitting together to try a case with a jury is not altogether a satisfactory tribunal especially in difficult cases. I may say that I have known at Quarter Sessions one case which excited a great deal of interest some years ago in which I prosecuted—a certain cattle-maiming case in Staffordshire. I am perfectly certain that if that case had been tried before a High Court Judge, there would have been no trouble or dissatisfaction about it.” *

The second reason is given by Mr. Justice Channell, and is endorsed by the evidence of other witnesses: “I venture to say that in my opinion it is very undesirable to seriously diminish even the number of small cases that the Judges have to deal with. I do not mean to say that they ought to try all small cases, but it appears to me that if the Assizes Relief Act is ever thoroughly understood and administered there will be not too many of the smaller cases. . . . In my opinion small cases are really more difficult than serious ones, especially in the matter of punishment, which is a very important matter indeed. . . . I venture to think that the Judges have very greatly improved the law within the last, say, fifty years, to which my recollection goes back, and it is desirable, in my opinion, in the interests of the public, that the Judges should try a certain number of small cases as well as the serious ones. In addition to that in recent times there has come a very substantial reason for taking that view by the institution of the Court of Criminal Appeal. . . . I am very strongly of opinion that the Court would rapidly become inefficient if the Judges who sit in it were not in the habit of conducting criminal trials, and that so far as regards the reviewing of sentences in minor cases they would become an inefficient Court if they had not themselves to deal with the question.” †

These are two very cogent reasons against extending the jurisdiction of Quarter Sessions, and the weight of legal opinion is opposed, and I believe rightly opposed, to such an advance. Some authorities, however, are in favour of a remodelling of the

* Question 925.

† Question 2140.

system. Thus, Mr. Justice Shearman thinks that "the system carried out within the area of the Central Criminal Court of holding monthly instead of quarterly sittings, should be introduced throughout England in counties and boroughs, and that all cases now cognisable at Quarter Sessions should be tried by County and Borough Recorders sitting once a month. The Judge of Assize would then try cases cognisable only by a Judge and a few other suitable cases. This would not only save the time of the Judges but would render criminal justice more speedy. . . . It would be much better in all the large towns if the criminal system were the same as it is in London, where everything works most satisfactorily and expeditiously. There is no delay at all. Witnesses give their evidence immediately after the occurrence, and therefore are much more exact and much more credible. . . . In the counties at present the Chairmen of Quarter Sessions do the work and there are not Recorders. One of the difficulties of the reform is that there are a great many small boroughs throughout the counties where even if they only sit once a quarter there is very little work to be done, but they all come down once a quarter. It would be a better system to gradually abolish these sittings and for large boroughs and counties each to have their regular Recorder or Chairman of Quarter Sessions," preferably a Recorder, who would of course, be a "permanent legal official." * At present, owing to the length of time between the various sessions, cases are frequently committed to the Assizes, which under such a system as this would be tried before the Recorder.

Mr. W. J. Disturnal, K.C., is in favour of a somewhat similar scheme. He would retain the present arrangement of Quarter Sessions intact, and super-impose in each county a Court similar to the Central Criminal Court, i.e., this Court should sit about four times a year side by side with the existing Borough and County Sessions. In addition to the usual Quarter Sessions cases, the Recorders of these Central Courts should take all cases, pleading "guilty," and inflict the sentences. They would, however, consult the Assize Judge beforehand, and reserve for him any cases of this description which presented special difficulty. †

Of the two schemes Mr. Justice Shearman's seems the more useful, inasmuch as it would probably be less expensive, and the Courts would sit with greater frequency. Doubtless, however, it would arouse the greater opposition, since it conflicts more seriously with existing local privileges and prejudices. Either proposal, however, I think, would gravely restrict the present experience in small cases that the High Court Judges gain, and which Mr. Justice Channell and other witnesses value so highly. I should not, therefore, be in favour of either suggestion.

* Questions 749-766.

† Questions 872-884.

But although neither an extension of the jurisdiction nor a remodelling of Quarter Sessions appears desirable some reform of the present system seems necessary. At present "the Quarter Sessions are at fixed dates according to statute," i.e., on October 11, December 28, March 31, and June 24, "with liberty under the Quarter Sessions Act, 1904, to put the dates fourteen days before those specific dates, or fourteen days later." * Consequently it so happens that there is frequently a much shorter interval between the date of committal and the date of the Assizes, than between the date of committal and the date of Quarter Sessions, and for this reason magistrates often commit cases to the Assizes which should in reality be tried at Quarter Sessions. "By the Assizes Relief Act, 1889, Parliament provided, in order to relieve the Judges of Assize from unnecessary work, that persons charged with offences triable at Quarter Sessions should be tried at Quarter Sessions, unless the Committing Justices for special reasons directed otherwise. Power was given to a Judge of the High Court to direct any such persons to be tried at Assizes instead of Quarter Sessions. This Act has not fulfilled the intentions of its authors. In many cases Justices have treated the mere fact that the Assizes preceded the next practicable Court of Quarter Sessions as constituting by itself a 'special reason' for committing to the Assizes." †

This practice necessarily tends to overburden the Assizes, and the Commission accordingly "recommend that Section 3 (1) of the Assizes and Quarter Sessions Act, 1908, should be repealed, and power conferred on Courts of Quarter Sessions similar to that which Recorders have, of holding their Sessions when convenient. They should be held, either by adjournment or otherwise, shortly before the Assizes; and the Judge assigned to go the circuit should be empowered to direct prisoners wrongly committed to Assizes to be tried at the Sessions preceding his Assize." For this purpose "the Clerk to the Magistrates who commit any prisoner for trial at the Assizes should be required, under penalty, immediately to inform the Clerk of Assize that he has been committed, the length of time the case occupied before the magistrates, and the probability, judging from the conduct of the case, of the prisoner's pleading guilty or not, and to forward the depositions to the Clerk of Assize on the day following the committal." ‡

This seems a necessary and satisfactory reform which would reduce waste of time on circuit, whilst retaining for the High Court Judges their power of gaining experience of small cases. It is a reform which should most certainly be made, as from the

* Mr. W. E. Harrison, K.C., Question 1376. † Report, p. 17, para. 31.

‡ Report, pp. 17, 18, para. 31.

evidence before the Commission there is no doubt that at present a very large number of really trivial cases are improperly committed to the Assizes.

One final alteration in the present criminal system is advocated by the Commission, i.e., the abolition of the Grand Jury both at Assizes and Quarter Sessions.* This is a subject on which there is a considerable difference of opinion, and in fact of the witnesses who gave evidence on the question only Mr. Justice Scrutton was in favour of such a proposal, and even he, in view of the opinions of several of his colleagues, would not be inclined to press such a reform.† His objections to the institution are that whilst at the present day it is really unnecessary, it prevents flexibility in arranging the dates of the Assizes in the various towns on circuit, and is inconvenient to the witnesses since they have to attend once before the Grand Jury, and then again in many cases on the following day, or perhaps even at so long an interval as a week or so afterwards before the Petty Jury. For these reasons Mr. Justice Scrutton would be in favour of abolishing the Grand Jury, but, as I have mentioned, his views are not supported by the other witnesses who gave evidence. Lord Justice Phillimore, Mr. Justice Channell, and Mr. L. Sanderson, K.C., all expressed themselves as opposed to such a course, and other legal witnesses agreed with them. The points urged in favour of the Grand Jury are that it gives the County Magistrates a valuable insight into the true administration of justice, and the opportunity of securing important directions as to the true legal interpretation of new and intricate Acts of Parliament, that it affords a protection to the subject against unfounded voluntary bills of indictment—although it should be observed that the right to prefer such voluntary bills has been almost abolished by the Vexatious Indictments Act, 1859—and that it serves as a very useful vehicle of public opinion on matters of public interest, and is a potential instrument of great value against tyranny.

These reasons are certainly of weight, and an institution which has played a prominent and valuable part in national history for centuries is not lightly to be set aside. Admittedly, however, conditions have changed very considerably during the last hundred years. As the Commission urge in their report, “it must be remembered, that for centuries the consideration of bills of indictment by the Grand Jury was the only preliminary investigation before the accused was put upon his trial. Now, even the right to prefer voluntary bills of indictment is greatly curtailed—indeed, it is almost abolished by the Vexatious Indictments Act, 1859 (22 & 23 Vict. c. 16)—and the charges are so thoroughly investigated by magistrates, many of them learned in the law,

* Report, p. 22, para. 38.

† Question 3104.

before any committal takes place that the investigation of the same charges by the Grand Jury may well be considered a work of supererogation.”*

Whilst, therefore, from the point of view of the accused the institution seems at the present time superfluous, there appears little doubt that the retention of the system renders the Assizes largely inflexible as to arrangement, and therefore is an important cause of delay. The evils of the present difficulty in satisfactorily arranging the dates of the Assizes are referred to by many of the Judges in their evidence, and this difficulty is well described in the Report. “At present the approximate dates and allowance of time at or between each place being named in the Order in Council, the Judge going the circuit has power to alter them so as to provide for anticipated business, or the anticipated absence of business. He now fixes the exact date from a month to a fortnight before the circuit begins. He has at his disposal the information obtained by the Clerk of Assize, which in criminal cases is in practice the number of depositions he has then received for each town, with some information as to the apparent length of the cases. This sometimes includes returns from the Governors of gaols as to the number of prisoners awaiting trial. It does not usually include information as to the number of prisoners out on bail, whose depositions have not yet been received by the Clerk of Assize, and it is quite uncertain which of the prisoners will plead guilty and which will have to be tried. In civil work the Judge has practically no information; as the last day for setting down cases is usually seven days before the Commission day and only two at Manchester and Liverpool. The Clerk of Assize knows nothing. The Judge, therefore, usually follows the Order in Council dates which give a sort of average time. These are specially untrustworthy where the work is light, as even one heavy case will disturb the calculation. So the Clerks of Assize are apt to suggest more time than is necessary—the Judge does not like to curtail it—and the amount of time wasted on some circuits” is therefore considerable.†

To overcome this evil the Commission suggest that the Judge of Assize “should not, as now, fix the date for opening the Commission at each place where Assizes are to be held before beginning the circuit. He should fix the dates for each place in turn so as to give a clear fortnight’s notice to each, and no more, informing the sheriff at the same time of the number of cases to be tried, so that no more jurors should be summoned than are likely to be required. Seven clear days’ notice to jurors should be substituted for the present notice of ten days. If the Assizes at any place have to be postponed, notice should be given by

* Report, p. 22, para. 38.

† Report, p. 21, para. 37.

telegraph to those concerned, and the time allotted to the smaller places should not err on the side of excess and might be only provisionally fixed at first, the jurors, as now in London, being told not to attend until they receive a further intimation.*

Now the retention of the Grand Jury would seriously interfere with this desirable reform, if indeed it would not wholly prevent it, and since its retention is not really necessary nowadays for the protection of the accused, I do not think the other advantages, although undoubtedly of some importance, are sufficiently great to warrant the continuance of a system which stands in the way of a more regular administration of justice. I think therefore the Commission's proposal on this head should be carried into effect.

We come now to the question of civil grouping on circuit. Very considerable difference of opinion has been aroused on this subject, and it is desirable therefore fully to appreciate the opposite points of view.

Now one of the most striking facts that have appeared in the course of the evidence is the very large decrease in civil business of late years at smaller Assize centres, and the consequent growth in the number of civil cases tried at London. This appears mainly due to "the uncertainty and delay caused to the parties and their witnesses when and because only one Judge goes to a town by having to wait until the criminal business is disposed of." † There is complete uncertainty beforehand at these smaller towns as to the amount of work in prospect, and owing to the dates of assize at the various centres on circuit having been definitely fixed previously, it necessarily results that "if a case in one town is not finished when the date fixed for the next town has arrived the Judge is compelled either to work at high pressure and for long hours to finish the case, or to return upon the first available opportunity, for the express purpose, to the great inconvenience and expense of the litigants, jury, and witnesses. In the large centres or in the last places on the circuits the list of causes is finished before the Judge leaves the particular town." ‡

This is a very grave evil, since it accentuates the congestion of business in London, by driving unnecessary cases to the Courts there, and tends to produce injustice in respect of those causes

* Report, p. 21, para. 37. The Commission point out that the various suggestions they make "for providing the judge with earlier and better information as to the criminal and civil work before him, will enable him to allot the time necessary for that work much more accurately than at present." I have already described some of those suggestions, *i.e.*, the abandonment of an Assize where there are less than three prisoners for trial, and the holding of Quarter Sessions shortly before the Assizes, and the others I shall discuss subsequently.

† Report, p. 18, para. 32.

‡ Report, p. 20, para. 35.

actually tried at the smaller centres, owing to the high pressure at which the trials are necessarily conducted.

The actual division of civil work in the country at present is instructive. The Judicial Statistics for 1909 show that whilst 450 cases were tried in that year at five centres—Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds and Glamorgan—only 249 were tried at the remaining 51 Assize towns. The figures for 1911 are practically identical—435 cases at the above mentioned five towns, and only 246 at the remaining 51 centres.

Commenting on this the Commission point out:—"The facilities now given for the trial of civil causes in the provinces are strangely inconsistent. Many of the Assize towns are small places where little and sometimes no civil business stands to be transacted, such as Oakham, Warwick, Huntingdon, Appleby, Welshpool or Newtown, Dolgelly, Ruthin, Mold, Lampeter, Brecon, and Presteign. In no one of these places did the average number of civil cases tried or disposed of at all the Assizes for each of the three years 1909-1911 exceed two, and at Oakham, Brecon, Hertford and Huntingdon in 1911, and at Mold, Dolgelly, Newtown and Welshpool and Oakham in 1912, there was not a single civil case. It is very seldom that there is a civil action at Oakham. On the other hand, many large towns with enormous populations have to go long distances to find the justice which is supposed to be met with at their doors. We need not say more than that such places as Hull (with a population in 1909 of 278,024, whilst the entire population of the county of Salop was 246,300), Sheffield, Plymouth, Brighton, and many more very large centres have no Assizes."*

It is further urged that "the trial of a few cases in so many places is productive of great inconvenience." Both Lord Haldane and Lord Loreburn emphasise this. The former, in his evidence, says:—"The difficulty of fitting in judicial business is very great, and it probably means the waste of a considerable amount of the Judge's time and also of the suitors' time at a small place trying to dovetail in the arrangements between the criminal and civil business."† Lord Loreburn makes a very similar remark.‡

For these various reasons civil grouping is strongly advocated in some quarters, and the Commission propose a scheme of that nature:—"We think that it would not only save the time of the Judges, but be to the real advantage of all concerned if the Circuit Judge were empowered to change the venue of all the civil business of the circuit to the last place on the circuit, so that no civil business should be taken at any other place, unless at least four civil causes were entered for trial there; or unless in

* Report, pp. 18, 19, para. 33.

† Question 4654.

‡ Question 4301.

his opinion and with the consent of the parties, any particular cause involved boundary questions, or necessitated a view, or required a specially large number of local witnesses, and would, therefore, be better tried upon the spot. In order to inform the Judge, before the dates of the Assizes at the various towns are fixed, what civil business there will be to be disposed of, a rule should be made that at all places other than the last places on the circuits (viz., Leeds, Birmingham, Bristol, Lewes, Cardiff and Swansea), and Manchester, Liverpool and Newcastle, causes must be entered not less than three weeks before the date mentioned in the Order in Council for the Assizes. . . . At the places above named, causes might be entered up to the opening of the Commission, or later, by leave. . . . If the causes listed for any place seemed to require it, two Judges should attend there."*

Mr. C. H. Morton dissents from these proposals in his memorandum attached to the Report, and in this he appears to be expressing the views of a very large and distinguished body of legal opinion. Indeed the number of witnesses examined on this subject who are hostile to any scheme of civil grouping far exceeded those who give their support. Thus Lord Alverstone, Lord Justice Phillimore, Mr. Justice Scrutton, Mr. Justice Bankes, and Mr. Justice Shearman all intimated their opposition, whilst Mr. Justice Channell gave only a qualified approval—litigants should be "encouraged" to resort to certain centres.

The objections against civil grouping are well summarised in Mr. Morton's memorandum, and I will therefore quote from this. "The place of trial of an action is primarily fixed by order, as being the most suitable and convenient to the parties and witnesses. The parties have now the right to ask the District Registrar to fix the place of trial at a large centre, and when they select a small Assize town it is for a good reason, and because there is some advantage in doing so. It is difficult to conceive on what grounds the Judge could exercise his discretionary power to set aside the primary order. Inasmuch as the list of causes will be complete three weeks before the commencement of Assize,† the Judge is able to allot sufficient time for the work. It is obvious that the time occupied in trying the causes at the Assize town in question, will take no longer than at the last town on the circuit, and the Judge being actually in the place to try prisoners, there is no waste of the Judge's time in travelling to such place. On the other hand, there is a material saving to the parties in travelling and hotel expenses of themselves, their solicitors, clerks and witnesses. The costs incurred by witnesses would be seriously increased by changing the venue. The larger

* Report, p. 20, para. 36.

† One of the Commission's recommendations.

the cause list at the centre, the greater the uncertainty when a particular action will be called on for trial ; this means that witnesses will probably be kept waiting in the Court two or three days ; additional railway fares and hotel expenses are incurred, and the total of reimbursements and allowances to witnesses (especially to professional and expert witnesses) materially augmented. In addition, the difficulty of inducing witnesses to give evidence is greatly increased. A man may be willing to assist a suitor by giving evidence if he can be assured that he will only be summoned to the Court by telephone at the last possible moment ; but if he knows he must attend the Court at a distant town, and must put in an appearance on each day that the case is in the list, he will refuse to give the parties, or their solicitors, any information whatever at any stage of the action for fear of being subpoenaed."

These are undoubtedly weighty objections, and require careful attention. Mr. Morton considers the recommendation that the list of civil causes shall be complete three weeks before the commencement of the Assize, secures all that is necessary towards rendering the dispatch of civil business certain, and therefore that the Judge will be "able to allot sufficient time for the work." Whilst this reform, in conjunction with the proposals as to more exact information in regard to criminal work in prospect, would certainly produce greater regularity, and therefore less waste of time on circuit it seems very doubtful whether in itself it would remedy the existing evils. The evidence conclusively shows that of late years civil business at Assizes has diminished on account of the uncertainty as to when it will be taken, and the probability that it will have to be disposed of at high pressure in order that the next Assize town may be reached. The suggested measure of grouping gives suitors the assurance that the causes will be heard in reasonable time, and that they will be tried without undue pressure. The civil business has always to wait until the criminal trials have been finished, and whilst the Commission's recommendations as to earlier and more precise information should enable the Judge to gauge more accurately beforehand the amount of the latter class of work, and to arrange accordingly, there must always be some uncertainty as to the time required, since an apparently simple case may prove highly complex, or a number of cases may unexpectedly collapse. Although the Commission's proposals would render the Assize system more flexible, nevertheless this uncertainty as to the *actual* weight of criminal business, combined with the necessity of reaching the next Assize town as early as reasonably possible, will militate against the satisfactory transaction of civil business at most of the existing centres.

Again it is very doubtful whether, as Mr. Morton alleges, the time occupied in trying civil actions indiscriminately at different Assize towns does take no longer than at the last town on the circuit. As we have seen, both Lord Haldane and Lord Loreburn emphatically dispute this, and Mr. Justice Channell, in reply to a question on the point, agreed that grouping would lead to a saving of time.*

Further, in regard to the alleged increased cost through such a scheme to litigants and witnesses, the Commission justly observe:—"It appears that . . . such cases are very few; and of them, only a small portion can come from the Assize town or its immediate neighbourhood. The argument loses strength with every mile of increased distance from the Assize town, and would not apply at all to many parts of an ordinary county. Indeed, as in the case of Gateshead, Newcastle, and Durham, or Henley, Reading and Oxford, it may not infrequently happen that the County Assize town is more inconvenient and expensive as a place of trial than some other place outside the county." †

Moreover, some indication as to the effects of a large cause list at a particular centre can be gained from the experience of Liverpool, and Manchester, which enjoy the privilege of four Assizes every year. Sir W. Cobbett, a leading Manchester solicitor, in his evidence referred to the great advantages of this arrangement, and gave it as his opinion that more causes were entered for trial in consequence than formerly.‡ Actions are tried expeditiously, and with an absence of pressure, and the large cause lists at these centres do not apparently deter litigants. The cases are of course mainly local, but the satisfactory and regular manner in which the lists are cleared would seem to show that the transference of civil cases from small Assize towns to the last town on the circuit would not have the discouraging and highly expensive effects on litigation which Mr. Morton and his supporters fear.

For these reasons, therefore, it seems to me that the Commission's recommendations should be carried out; the more especially as they are the necessary complement to the emergency grouping of criminal work which has been proposed; for if the present system of trying civil cases indiscriminately at all Assize centres be retained, it may well happen that one paltry civil action may render necessary a particular Assize, which, under the revised criminal procedure, would not otherwise have been held. Again the introduction of *certainty* into civil work on circuit would probably lead to the growth of such business at particular Assizes, and therefore to a relief in the present con-

* Questions 2396, 2397.

† Report, p. 16, para. 29.

‡ Questions 1653-1664.

gestion of the London Courts. Therefore, I think the proposed scheme of civil grouping is necessary; particularly since the interests of litigants are thoroughly preserved by the power given the circuit Judge to try at the nearest Assize town in the county any specific cause involving boundary questions, or necessitating a view, or requiring an unusually large number of local witnesses.

Indeed the Commission indicate that in their opinion a widespread reorganisation of Assize centres throughout the country is desirable, but they refrain from advocating this, because they believe local opposition would be so strong as to prevent such a scheme being carried by the Government. Unquestionably there is a vast mass of local prejudice in favour of the existing centres, antiquated and inconvenient as these often are, but the resultant evil of delay is so grave as to be worth a cautious attempt at exploration and reform in this direction. For such a purpose procedure by Resolution in the first instance would be the most effective. If the principle were laid down that, subject to the Commission's recommendations in connection with criminal and civil business, each county should be entitled to a separate Assize—in itself, I think, a perfectly defensible and salutary proposition—it might will prove possible to arrange more convenient centres for the different counties. Even if only a very partial readjustment were secured this would be so much pure gain, and the necessary Bill could be founded on the Resolutions as finally approved. The evidence as to the very great inconvenience and delay caused by many of the present towns is so clear and so convincing that in my opinion some such attempt as this should be made. The reforms suggested by the Commission would doubtless effect much, but a complete cure cannot be obtained without the removal of antiquated conditions. This is no party question, and the Government can, without any loss of prestige, accept the directions of the House of Commons. If an honest attempt at such a reform failed we should of course have to accept the situation and make the best of existing conditions, but, in my opinion, a judicious attempt should most certainly be made before we resign ourselves to this as inevitable.

H. DOUGLAS GREGORY.

ON COLONIAL GOVERNORS

BY HERBERT A. STRONG

(Emeritus Professor of Liverpool and Melbourne Universities)

It would be good for our over-sea possessions and for the old country alike if our statesmen, more especially our Secretaries of State for the Colonies, could be induced to spend a few months in the Dominions. I refer chiefly to the great self-governing communities of Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. A short stay in one or other of these countries *incognito* would enable them better to appreciate the thoughts and ways of the inhabitants, and to learn the supreme importance of sending out the best possible governors to the Dominions.

For though a governor's political powers are very limited, his influence for good or for evil is unlimited. And it is no exaggeration to say that the loyalty and affection of the proud sons of our splendid transmarine possessions are strengthened or weakened by the words and actions of the Governor. He is supposed to represent the best tone prevalent in the society of the Mother Country, he starts with the prestige attaching to an ambassador, and besides this prestige he enjoys actually some of the power of the President of a Republic. He and his family and his *aides-de-camp* form a petty court, but one in which the etiquette insisted on seems rather to belong to the king of Yvetôt than to that of Louis XIV. of France. To be received at Government House stamps the guest as "in society," and to be received on intimate terms in that august quarter is a hall-mark of something more than ordinary respectability. The Governor and, still more, the Governor's wife, should possess above all things the virtue of tact in discriminating between the different "sets"; for, contrary to the ordinarily received opinion, caste feeling exists in the colonies in only a less degree than in the old country.

The Governor should be hospitable and ready to entertain in different ways various classes of society, always maintaining a dignity free from hauteur and what the colonists call "putting on

side." He need not be deeply learned, but he must have sympathy with education in all its branches, for he will be expected to make addresses at the local universities and schools, and if he is able to suggest real improvements they will be accepted on his proposal more readily than from any other authority. He must be something of a sportsman and show interest in the great racing event of the year, for racing is the sport *par excellence* in most of the colonies. At the same time he must ostentatiously abstain from betting, for gambling has led to their ruin countless young men in the colonies. Above all he should be of a lofty moral character, and should remember that the eyes of all the community over which he rules are fixed on him, and that it is taken for granted by many in his community that what he does and says is precisely what the highest authorities in the old country would wish him to do.

The statement that a colonial governor should be possessed of all these virtues is obviously a truism, but truisms demand repetition when their stale but salutary precepts are not acted upon. It unfortunately happens that too often the loyalty and allegiance of colonists are put to a severe strain by the appointment of unsuitable persons, men who in the old country would be regarded as nonentities or even undesirables. It has fallen to my lot to witness the effect of the domination of governors of several types, good, bad, and indifferent. I remember an extremely pompous and verbose gentleman who used to deluge his unfortunate hearers with long perorations couched in quasi-academic language. He was also, morally speaking, a great coward, and in a constitutional crisis would button-hole his various acquaintances and pour out the tale of his perplexities into their ears. Finally he would seek to relieve himself of all responsibility by referring his difficulties to the Colonial Office. On a particular occasion, however, he received a severe rebuke, being told that it was his business to act on the advice of his constitutional advisers, and if he saw reason to act otherwise, he must take the responsibility on himself. Colonists love neither a bore nor a coward.

Another type of governor I call to mind is the gentleman of high rank and slender fortune who regards a colonial governorship as a convenient post to hold while nursing his estate. This type is distinguished by an exaggerated form of the virtue of parsimony which renders the ruler anything but popular with his paymasters, who are wont to think the coins they disburse on his salary and the upkeep of his house might well be spent in some other way. But the worst type of all is the toper, the voluptuary, the spendthrift. Yet, sad to say we have not been without examples of this type of governor in quite recent times.

Of the good types, one of the very best was a nobleman who had served in the navy and had preserved the frankness and simplicity which seem to be among the characteristics of that Service. He was loved by great and small, for he was constantly seeking to learn to look at the world through the spectacles of his people, and to correct, where possible, any aberrations of vision on their part. He did not pretend to be particularly learned, but thought that all students should have "a good sound knowledge of English."

The fierce light which beats upon a throne in Europe is quite eclipsed by that which beats upon a colonial governor and his household, inasmuch as he and his family are from the nature of things much more accessible to the public than an European sovereign. And it is well-known that our kindred over the seas are great talkers, and much of the conversation of great talkers must be admitted to partake of the nature of gossip. Thus to a community whose obvious characteristic to an European is the lack of reticence in the members who compose it, the moral consequences of the defects or vices of its governor are more far-reaching than some of our statesmen seem to think.

H. A. STRONG.

AN AMERICA FOR THE HINDU

By G. H. LEPPER

THE sudden conflagration in Europe, referred to as a possibility in an earlier article,* has happened, and the history-making operations now in progress at our doors have diverted attention from other world problems, however important. Nevertheless, it seems likely that the world will soon have an opportunity of reconstituting itself on a better and more lasting basis, and in the settlement it is sincerely to be hoped that the interests of all nations and races will be consulted with a view of achieving not merely a European but a world-wide peace. To effect this the claims and aspirations of the non-white races will have to be carefully considered and, as far as possible, conceded.

It is rather unfortunate, perhaps, that the far-seeing people who, in the eighties, realised the necessity for setting apart a suitable region as "an America for the Hindu" were not sufficiently numerous to secure the delimitation of East Africa as an Indian zone before the white settlements on the East African highlands had attained their present importance, and before the difficulties which have since arisen in South Africa and British Columbia had begun to cause bad blood between the white and the dark-skinned branches of the Aryan family. Even now it is not too late to reserve a large area in Africa for Indian settlement, but every year that passes makes the task more difficult. Indeed, if it is to be done at all, it must be done quickly.

There are several weighty arguments in favour of regarding this portion of the world as a Dark Aryan area, apart from its climatic suitability and its proximity to India. Not the least important of these is the support lent by the past history of the region. In a paper † recently read before the Royal Colonial Institute, Mr. R. C. F. Maugham, now H.B.M. Consul-General in Liberia, but formerly stationed at various points on the east coast, said that comparatively recent discoveries had indicated the existence

* 'The Shadow of Racial Conflicts,' April No.

† 'The Early History of the East African Coast.'

of a surprisingly advanced Asiatic civilisation three thousand years or more ago. The region from the Red Sea to Sofala in Mozambique has been under Asiatic influence from Phœnician times until the present day apparently without intermission.

Captain J. H. Speke, the discoverer of Lake Victoria Nyanza, which he afterwards proved to be the source of the Nile, mentions a curious fact in support of the belief that communication between India and the interior of Africa existed several thousand years ago. Before leaving Zanzibar he says* :—

Colonel Rigby (the British Consul) gave me a most interesting paper with a map attached to it about the Nile and the Mountains of the Moon. It was written by Lieutenant Wilford, from the 'Puranas' of the ancient Hindus.† . . . It is remarkable that the Hindus have christened the source of the Nile *Amara*, which is the name of the country at the north-east corner of the Victoria Nyanza. This, I think, shows clearly, that the ancient Hindus must have had some kind of communication with both the northern and southern ends of the Victoria Nyanza.

Even in the past century or so the close connection between India and East Africa can be plainly traced in the diplomatic history of this region. Thus the dispute between the two sons of the Sultan of Oman (of whose dominions East Africa formed part), on the death of Seyyid Said in 1856, was settled by the award of Lord Canning, the Governor-General of India—an acknowledgment of the paramount interest of India in East Africa and Southern Arabia. By this award the Sultan's dominions were divided and the East African portion became an independent sultanate, thereafter to be known as Zanzibar. The Sultan of Zanzibar was required to pay £8,000 annually to the Sultan of Oman as compensation, but some years later this payment was made by the Indian Government.

When the British East Africa Company commenced to operate under the charter secured in 1885 it employed educated Indians in its service, and the Protectorate Government which took over the administration a few years later followed its example. When the old "cowrie" (shell) coinage was superseded it was the rupee system which took its place, though, by some unusually brilliant flash of official inspiration, the decimal Cingalese coinage of rupees and cents was selected instead of the Indian system.‡ Again, when the Uganda Railway was built, it was constructed on the metre gauge, which is in use for the less important railways in India, regardless of the fact that the 3 feet 6 inches gauge—some 2½ inches wider—is in almost universal use in British Africa. Indian coolies were imported to build the line,

* 'Journal of the Discovery of the Source of the Nile,' p. 13 (Blackwood & Sons, 1863).

† 'Asiatic Researches,' Vol. III., 1801.

‡ In Ceylon 1 rupee = 100 cents. In India 1 rupee = 16 annas.

and it is operated at the present day largely by Indians. There is, therefore, abundant evidence of historical continuity in support of the suggestion that East Africa should be regarded as a zone for colonisation by Indians.

As Sir Harry Johnston has pointed out, it is not alone British East Africa which is suitable for settlement by Indians. Taken as a whole, Portuguese East Africa, German East Africa and the Sudan are very sparsely peopled, and while it would certainly be necessary to set apart extensive areas as reserves for the aboriginal inhabitants, these countries would provide room for a very large Indian population. The Zambesi River forms a natural frontier of considerable importance, and it would perhaps be inadvisable to allow the Indian zone to extend further south than this waterway. The interior limits of the Indian area might follow the present Anglo-Portuguese frontier to Lake Nyasa and extend thence northwards along the line of the great African lakes. In the north the Abyssinian border and the boundary between Egypt proper and the Sudan would form convenient limits. The region thus bounded, which would, of course, include several large negro reserves, would have a total area of about 1,900,000 square miles. The present population is about 21,600,000, the density per square mile being only $11\frac{1}{2}$. It is, therefore, one of the least crowded of the habitable portions of the world. Of the total population some 12,750 are whites, 70,000 Asiatics and the remainder negroes, negroids and mixed races of various kinds. The following table shows how these totals are made up:—

TABLE SHOWING THE AREA, PRESENT POPULATION AND DENSITY, OF THE PORTION OF EAST AFRICA WHICH MIGHT BE COLONISED BY INDIANS.

Territory.	Area. Square Miles.	Population.				
		White.	Asiatic.	Negro.	Total.	Density.
British East Africa .	250,000	5,000	30,000	4,000,000	4,035,000	16·14
Uganda Protectorate	117,681	1,000	3,000	2,850,000	2,854,000	24·25
Sudan	984,520	500	..	3,000,000	3,000,500	3·05
Zanzibar and Pemba	1,020	250	25,000	175,000	200,250	196·3
German East Africa .	384,000	5,000	10,000	10,000,000	10,015,000	26·08
Mozambique (N. of Zambesi))	150,000	1,000	2,000	1,500,000	1,503,000	10·02
	1,887,221	12,750	70,000	21,525,000	21,607,750	11·5

Of the total white population, amounting to between twelve and thirteen thousand, a large proportion are officials, and probably these, together with the urban commercial element, represent three-fourths of the entire European population, the balance being engaged in planting or farming. The latter class is

confined almost entirely to the highlands of British East Africa and the Usambara district of German East Africa. Although not very important numerically these white settlers represent a good deal of capital, and they would, no doubt, contrive to make themselves plainly audible in opposition to the proposed introduction of large numbers of Asiatics. But the question must be seriously asked as to whether the protests of a few thousands of white settlers can be allowed to prevent the carrying out of an adjustment which, if neglected, may conceivably lead eventually to a terrible conflict born of land hunger between Europe and Asia. The proposed arrangement would, moreover, involve little or no hardship to the existing white population, since a long time must elapse before the settlers would find it necessary to migrate to other portions of the world within the white zone of colonisation. Provided that settlement by white men in East Africa is discouraged in future, in order to prevent the growth of large vested interests, the reservation of this region for Indian colonists does not seem to be altogether impracticable, assuming that an agreement to this end could be reached by the governing Powers. The matter has been simplified by the insanity which has plunged Germany into a conflict which can only end in her elimination as a World Power. Whatever may be the eventual destiny of the other German colonies in Africa, her East African territory should be taken over by the British in order that it may be devoted to the purpose of a zone of settlement for Indians and to enable the construction of an All-Red Cape to Cairo Railway. The compensation of Portugal should not present any insuperable difficulties.

Regarding the protection of the rights of the aborigines it would be necessary to delimit a number of large areas as native reserves, except perhaps in the case of the Sudan—which might be earmarked to receive Mahomedan Indians—and these would be somewhat unequally divided between the various countries included in the Indian zone. Zanzibar and Pemba may be ignored as they already carry a very dense population. In the other territories the greatest number of persons to the square mile is found in German East Africa, where the density is as high as 26—just about twice the average for the entire continent of Africa. Yet German East Africa contains only a small proportion of sterile land by comparison with other portions of the continent. Assuming then that it would be necessary to set apart one-half of the total area of the German colony (384,000 square miles) as native reserves, the density would rise in these to 52. In the remaining 192,000 square miles, allowing for an equal density of population, some 10,000,000 Indians could eventually be accommodated.

After German East Africa the most thickly peopled territory

in this part of the world is the Uganda Protectorate, where the density is 24½. For several reasons Uganda is less suited for colonisation by Asiatics than the regions nearer the coast. Perhaps the most important is the prevalence of sleeping sickness, which renders it highly inadvisable to add to the present population any elements which do not appreciate European sanitary and hygienic methods until this scourge has been overcome. When the discovery of an antitoxin or a means of exterminating the fly which acts as a carrier of the terrible sleeping-sickness trypanosomes has been made, it might be possible to find room for a large Indian colony—which would possibly number two or three millions in the course of time—in Uganda, but until the disease has been stamped out, or at least brought under effective control, it would be the height of folly to provide it with additional prey.

In British East Africa, where the density is rather over 16, different conditions are met with. The native population includes many warlike native tribes who have never been conquered and who, in consequence, have had to be handled with a good deal of tact. The recent trouble with the Masai regarding their removal to a fresh location, and the fighting which has taken place from time to time along the Abyssinian frontier, are instances of the imperfect control exercised by the Protectorate administration over the native peoples under its rule. Again, much of British East Africa is a somewhat arid region, becoming desert-like in the northern portion. Whether irrigation works on a large scale would result in bringing much of the arid or semi-arid areas into cultivability is a matter for expert opinion to decide, but it is clear that without irrigation large tracts are quite uninhabitable in their present condition, except by nomads. Along the coast belt of British East Africa room could, no doubt, be found for a large number of Indian settlers, and, as this region is climatically unsuited to Europeans, there is little to be said against its colonisation by immigrants from British Asia. Sir Harry Johnston has suggested 100,000 as the number which could be absorbed in this area, but he is probably speaking only of the immediate present. It seems likely that ten times as many could eventually find homes in this belt, since the Indian is a skilful intensive cultivator, although he falls short of the Chinaman in this respect. It may be assumed then that British East Africa could accommodate, in the course of the next century, at least one or two millions of Indians without encroaching on either the highland area at present in process of colonisation by white men or the reserves set apart for the use of the aboriginal population. If extensive irrigation works proved practicable, this number could be very considerably increased. The prospects

of the white colony on the highlands will be discussed when the time comes to deal with the relations between Whites and Negroes in Africa.

The portion of Portuguese East Africa which might be regarded as falling within the Indian zone would be the territory bounded on the south by the Zambesi river, on the west by British Nyasaland and Lake Nyasa, and on the north by German East Africa. In this region, which has an area of roughly half the total area of Portuguese East Africa—say, 150,000 square miles—and a population of about 1,500,000, the density is only ten persons to the square mile. One-fifth of the total area would probably suffice for the use of the native races, leaving 120,000 square miles available for Indian immigrants. At fifty to the square mile there would be land enough for 6,000,000. It may well be doubted, however, whether it would be possible to leave the administrative arrangements in connection with Indian immigration into Mozambique, assuming, of course, that the assent of Portugal to such a proceeding had been duly secured, in Portuguese hands. The treatment accorded to subject-races in the various Portuguese colonies, where slavery flourishes under the thinnest of disguises, has had the effect of placing Portuguese colonial administrations under a cloud. The difficulty might be solved by the purchase from Portugal of this area, or it might be arranged for Great Britain to co-operate with Portugal in the colonisation of this portion of Mozambique by Indians, as she is already doing in railway building and mining operations in various parts of Portuguese Africa.

Taking northern Mozambique, German East Africa and British East Africa together it may be said that, if a well considered policy of colonisation by Indians, under European direction could be adopted, between 15,000,000 and 20,000,000 could be settled in East Africa in the course of the present century. There remains to be considered the almost empty Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. The sterility and unsettled condition of British and Italian Somaliland, which may perhaps be considered as lying within the proposed Indian zone, render it necessary to ignore them at the present day, though the time may come when the pressure of increasing population will cause many regions which are now regarded as hopeless wastes to be brought under cultivation. The 3,000,000 inhabitants of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan represent an average density of only three to the square mile. As they are in occupation of only a small fraction of the total area the actual density in the inhabited tracts is very much higher. Much of the Sudan is uninhabitable at present, and before any addition to the existing population can be considered, very extensive barrage and irrigation works will have to be under-

taken. The Government has already committed itself to the carrying out of a comprehensive development scheme, which, it is hoped, will result in the establishment of an important cotton-growing industry along the two Niles. The Sudan would appear to offer a particularly favourable opportunity to attempt an Indian colonisation project on a large scale. Nor should it be as necessary to segregate the natives and the newcomers if Mahomedan Indians were introduced, since the negroid Sudanese are themselves followers of the Prophet. Yet perhaps there would be as much danger of conflict as the result of the collision of two rival sects of the same faith as there would be if totally different religions were involved. At any rate the past history of religious feuds would seem to indicate that the quarrels of sects are at least as bitter as those of diverse faiths.

How many Indians the Sudan would eventually be able to accommodate there is no means of estimating at present, but there should be ample room for a very large number, which, in addition to the possible figures for East Africa and to those Indians who will find an outlet in the insular colonies of the tropics and in British Guiana, should greatly exceed the probable volume of emigration from India for a long period of time. The fact should not be lost sight of that the extension of irrigation works, the growth of industrial activity and the settlement of some of the fertile but as yet thinly populated regions in India itself will absorb a proportion of the total increase in the population of the peninsula. The remainder should be amply provided for in the regions which it is suggested should be regarded as reserved for Indian settlers. In view of the general thinness of population in Africa it might be as well, perhaps, to earmark other regions than those previously mentioned in the equatorial zone for this purpose, since they cannot be effectively occupied by the Negro race and are climatically useless for settlement by Europeans.

If the Indian problem is to be taken in hand before it has had time to split the British Empire into two rival camps—those who favour the retention of India within the Empire, and those who would be glad to see it cut adrift from the white portion of the King's dominions (and the latter section is daily gaining adherents in the oversea States)—something must be done without delay to stem the growing agitations to which the present wholly unsatisfactory situation has given rise. The Indians, on the one hand, feel that they are being unfairly treated and that the equality that they were taught to regard as a corollary of British subject-hood is a myth. The people of the Dominions, on the contrary, are becoming annoyed at the frequently recurring crises resulting from the periodical putting forward of the Indians'

claim to enter and reside in any part of the Empire, a claim which even an Englishman cannot successfully press unless he is regarded as a desirable immigrant by the State to which he may be proceeding. It is certain that the makeshift and roundabout measures by which the Dominions have hitherto succeeded in excluding Asiatics have ceased to meet the needs of the case. The imposition of a language test, which could be used to exclude a man with half a dozen European tongues at his command, is a hypocritical and un-British weapon which does not even possess the merit of soothing the feelings of those who are rejected by its means. The right to exclude any individual must rest on something firmer than trick legislation of this type, and it is to be hoped that the New Zealand Cabinet, which is now considering the introduction of a measure of the kind, will endeavour to achieve its object in some less objectionable way.

Unless a permanent settlement of the Indian difficulty satisfactory to both sides can be arrived at we shall not only lose India at no distant date, but we shall greatly add to the probability of the formation of a huge Asiatic combination to resist the claims of the white race to monopolise the surface of the earth. And this is said with a full appreciation of the splendid spirit which India has displayed in the present crisis. If on the contrary a *modus vivendi* can be arranged, on the basis of the exclusion of Indian labourers and artisans and traders from the self-governing Dominions, over and above the proportion of 1 to 1,000 of the white population; the exclusion of white men from India in an exactly inverse ratio; and the provision of an adequate zone for colonisation by Indians in Africa, the question arises as to how the third part of the agreement is to be carried out. To do this it might be found necessary to create a large colonisation fund, to which India would contribute its share. This could be employed in the preparation of areas for settlement, the construction of irrigation works where this was necessary, and the advance of passage money and working capital to Indians wishing to take up land in the prepared tracts. The land could be disposed of on the instalment system, and the "ready-made farm" scheme initiated by the Canadian Pacific Railway in connection with its lands in Western Canada might prove useful as a model. It ought to be possible to secure a fair return on the capital employed if the work of colonisation were conducted in a businesslike way.

Lest it should be feared that the Indian colonists in Africa might prove to be dangerous competitors of white farmers in other parts of the world, it is advisable to point out that the Indians would not be likely to produce a great excess of the staple crops over their own immediate needs. Lacking the

energy and the strong desire for wealth which animates the white agriculturist, the Indians would be hardly more likely to become his rivals in the event of their settling in Africa than if they remained in Hindustan. The climate of equatorial Africa is little, if any, more conducive to excessive exertion than that of India. Again, much of the cultivation the Indian settlers would engage in would be the growth of tropical crops, which cannot, in most cases, be produced with white labour. The production of tropical crops is one of those industries which the Europeans will have to abandon sooner or later to the coloured races.

It may, perhaps, be urged that the Indians who have attempted to enter British Dominions would not be content to take part in a colonisation scheme in which only men of their own race were concerned, for much the same reason as that which prevents our Hebrew friends from developing much enthusiasm for the Zionist projects which are put forward from time to time. Their object in emigrating, it is said, was to secure the higher rates of wages paid in White countries by slightly undercutting their European rivals. That there is a good deal of truth in this view may be readily admitted. Such attempts must continue to fail, and Indians will have to recognise that they will not, under any conceivable circumstances, be allowed to enter these countries to undersell white labour. The White race has done all the pioneering work necessary to render these countries habitable, unassisted by Asiatics, and it is only fair that the race which has borne the burden shall reap the reward. But, if Indians really desire that a region should be provided in which they would have the opportunity of showing their ability as pioneers, and developing the best of their civilisation under freer and more favourable conditions than those now existing or likely in the future to exist in their motherland, surely the White race, as the present arbiter of the world's destinies, should recognise the obligations of its self-assumed leadership, and endeavour to arrange a fair allocation of the earth's more or less unoccupied regions between the great racial divisions of mankind.

The most enlightened Indians are quite prepared to concede the justice of the Dominions' claim to decide who they shall admit as immigrants, and they are level-headed enough to recognise that the European and Asiatic civilisations are so different that they will not mix. But they cannot reasonably be expected to acquiesce in the view that the people of India should be forever penned up in Hindustan, while there exist vast regions which do not now support one-tenth of the number of people to the square mile that India can show. Such a contention is absolutely indefensible. It is high time that the White race recognised that it will shortly have to choose between abandoning

its dog-in-the-manger like attitude with regard to those portions of the world which it is unable to occupy effectively and meeting the infuriated hordes of Asia in a desperate struggle for territory. Because Asia is in no position at the moment to resist European aggression is no reason for assuming that this will still be true a century hence. The example of Japan should afford sufficient evidence of what might happen in India and in China if the requisite stimuli were to be applied. The removal of the incentive for India to league itself with the Mongols might be effected in some such way as has been indicated. The Mongol problem is much more complex and much more international in character. Consideration of its many aspects will furnish material for several subsequent articles.

G. H. LEPPER.

THE SAILOR'S LETTER

THOUGHTS below your worded surface
Bring your world to me . . .
Memories of sunny harbours,
Visions of the sea . . .
Half-forgotten dreams of coast-lines
In a golden noon,
Splendid sunsets, Eastern twilights
Tropic stars and moon . . .
Flitting memories of evenings
Opalescent grey . . .
Wide, mysterious spells of ocean . . .
Ships that melt away.

ENID DAUNCEY.

A RHODESIAN CHRISTMAS

By MADELINE CONYERS ALSTON

WE all slept under the stars, as usual, on Christmas Eve. To shut oneself up in a room from the delicious South African night is simply to miss one of the joys of living. "No one knows the stars who has not slept, as the French happily put it, *à la belle étoile*. He may know all their names and distances and magnitudes and yet be ignorant of what alone concerns mankind—their serene and gladsome influence on the mind." Stevenson surely would have loved Rhodesia for its nights alone.

One great advantage of the long drought from which we have been suffering—in Rhodesia one must needs be an optimist or die—is that there are practically no mosquitoes and very few flies, so that the stuffiness of a mosquito curtain is unnecessary. Conventionality, too, disappears under the stars. There is no suggestion of impropriety in eleven people—parents, children, uncles and aunts—sleeping side by side under the roof of heaven, and not even any sense of lack of privacy, for we are conscious only of God's peace and the beauty of the world, and that we are on holy ground.

The night was cool and silent, except for the distant howl of a jackal and the occasional hoot of an owl. About 5 the life of day began to stir, and the sun gradually turned the mopani and mimosa trees to a golden green and bathed us in the scent of mimosa blossom: the go-away bird called impertinently from a bush close by and two green paroquets flew over our heads. Then one little sleeper after another rubbed his eyes and crept to the foot of the bed to fathom the treasures of the Christmas stocking. As the sun rose higher tongues were loosened, and soon crackers cracked, and trumpets, six of them, were heralding the morn, if not exactly in the manner of the angels, the noise worried no one. But when we had had enough we dispersed to seek baths, and some of us were even energetic enough to have a round of golf before breakfast.

One by one the bachelor guests appeared, every one in white,

from their various huts. Married people in Rhodesia would not dream of enjoying Christmas without inviting lonely men from far-away farms and outposts to share it with them. The festival of Christmas is a civilising link throughout the Christian world, and nowhere more so than in such a vast sparsely populated region as Rhodesia. Men are so apt, in isolation, to revert to primitive ways, and only women, who have civilised the world, can keep it civilised. When men in South Africa persistently avoid the homes of women, invariably one finds they have gone back to the ways of uncivilised man. One poor boy—a gentleman and as kind-hearted and chivalrous a young fellow as ever lived—who had deliberately cut himself off from those who might have helped him, and chosen to live in a loneliness which was tragic, fell ill on Christmas Day, we heard afterwards, of blackwater fever and died in a few days, his condition being only discovered by a neighbour when it was too late to send for the necessary assistance, and one of us had the painful duty of sending the news to his poor mother. Truly, women pay dearly for this Empire of ours.

At breakfast the grown-ups exchanged presents, mostly books. Jeffery Farnol, W. J. Locke and R. L. Stevenson were the favourite authors—one kept picking up 'Amateur Gentlemen' all day. There was also 'Sinister Street' and 'V. V.'s Eyes' and Sir Gilbert Parker's 'Judgment House' on the table. And after breakfast the children had their big presents: books that made one sigh to be a child again, kites, cricket bats, golf clubs, mechanical toys, dolls and dolls' paraphernalia. One might linger to discuss the ethics of the abundance of good things heaped upon children in these days. One reason of it is, of course, that families are small, and each child receives more than uncles and aunts could afford to give when families ranged in number from six to twelve. But the children are no happier; they are only not contented with so little. One does not see the child of to-day hoarding little things—rubbish if you like—such as shells and beads and Christmas cards, and receiving real joy from the possession of such treasures, the joy that Walter Pater remembered when he wrote: "On the top of the house, above the large attic, an infinite, unexplored wonderland of childish treasures, glass beads, empty scent bottles still sweet, thrum of coloured silk among its lumber." But we were not at all inclined to be ethical on Christmas Day. We flew kites, played with "Meccano" and looked at picture books, and at 11 o'clock we had a simple church service and carols in our little church.

The heat increased until, when we sat down to turkey and plum pudding in flames, the thermometer registered 106 degrees in the shade. Salad and ices would have been more common-

sense fare, but no one had the courage to suggest departing from custom or disappointing the children of the orthodox Christmas dinner. Besides, English customs are a part of education in English traditions. When all the crackers had been cracked and all the chocolates and raisins and preserved fruits and ginger had gone from the table, and the room was littered with paper caps and toy whistles and jewellery of doubtful quality, not even the little boys demurred at being sent to rest for an hour—I believe they even slept, but that was an unacknowledged weakness of the flesh.

As the heat of the day abated some of us panted off to the golf-links, some to the tennis court, and some of us played cricket with a golf ball, and kerosene tins for wickets—nice, noisy, indisputable wickets. Everyone over three played, and the highest score was made by the not very slim mother of four of the players.

After undignified games of ring-a-ring-a-roses and hunt the slipper the small people went to bed—tired, but not more tired than their mothers. For them in the colonies, Christmas Day or Sunday makes little difference, so far as rest is concerned. Dinners must be cooked, children must be tended, rooms dusted, no matter what the occasion may be. I picked up a feminist book by a man called George the other day, and my eyes fell on this illuminating sentence: "The enemy of woman is the home." Probably he is right if the chief end of woman is a *dilettante* form of self-development, irrespective of the claims of others and of the race. But if we believe in God and the service of mankind, remembering, in the words of the Bishop of Pretoria when speaking to me of life on the veld, that "nothing in the world worth doing is done without sacrifice," we cannot fail to see that all culture and civilisation depend upon the home. We realise this most clearly in the colonies. We send out our sons in thousands to the wild places of the Empire, but too often theirs is only a light that flickers and goes out; unless homes spring up civilisation makes no advance. The world, in truth, without the home would revert to barbarism. We who have lived in isolated parts of the world know only too well how men degenerate through indifference, or perhaps mere laziness, or some other form of moral weakness, when they lose touch with family life.

Christmas is the festival of the home. If feminism ever advances far enough to sweep away what it is pleased to call its enemy, then Christmas as a time of meeting and rejoicing and goodwill will cease to be recognised. If at times we women in the colonies are inclined to demur because our days run past in doing apparently trivial things, cooking and dusting and running round after never-still babies (the most exhausting of all occu-

pations), it is cheering to remember that life on the veld saves us from so much that was trivial in the life we have left behind—the kind of life so sympathetically described by a distinguished essayist: “Such a long dull road, such everlasting plans, fittings-in, calls, letters, cards, bills, shopping, talkings, proprieties—why, there is not one sensible, well-educated, middle-aged lady, surely, who does not want sometimes to shriek and flee away like Lucretia’s ghost.” After all is not cooking, dairy-work, gardening, sewing, and the personal care of one’s children a more satisfactory and less dissipating expenditure of energy than Mr. Stephen Paget’s dreary list. Life may be beautiful, in any part of the world, according to the spirit in which it is lived.

We revived sufficiently after sundown to enjoy the evening meal out-of-doors. There was a quiet talk, mostly on Rhodesian politics; some were in favour of the Chartered Company, others for responsible government, but all, to a man, dead against Union; then some music and a game of bridge, and “so to bed,” in the words of Mr. Pepys, but not to the close atmosphere of Mr. Pepys’ bedroom in Axe Yard or Seething Lane, but to another glorious night under the stars. I wonder, by the way, if washing of his feet gave Mr. Pepys a cold, what would have been the result if he had awakened to find the dew of an African night on his pillow? Quite fifty fits, I should think.

As one looks upwards at the Southern Cross one’s thoughts wander to the myriads of human beings tucked up in stuffy rooms all over the world (all rooms seem stuffy once you have slept out-of-doors), to the people who are content or compelled to live in streets or squares or what are euphemistically called “Gardens,” to the ancestors who slept in four-poster beds curtained off from every breath of pure air; and to the poor people of slums; and one says with selfish thankfulness: “But for the grace of God that might have been me.” All the same, I wished that night the dogs had been more silent.

MADLINE CONYERS ALSTON.

SIDELIGHTS ON COLONIAL LIFE

Canada and the War.

"Canada stands united from Pacific to the Atlantic in her determination to uphold the honour and traditions of the Empire." These are the words of the Duke of Connaught, and they accurately express public opinion in the Dominion. Canada lost no time in discussing the pros and cons of the situation. As soon as it became evident that war was inevitable she rallied to the assistance of the Mother Country, and a meeting of the Cabinet was held at Ottawa, at which measures were discussed and arrangements made for participation in the coming struggle. Offers of troops at once began to pour in, and had it been necessary 100,000 would have been forthcoming as rapidly as transports could have been got together to ship them to Europe. So far 20,000 men have been accepted, and will sail for Europe immediately. Others will no doubt be accepted as the situation develops and if their services are required.

Following immediately on the offer of men, the Canadian Government purchased two submarines and placed them at the disposal of the Admiralty, while the Canadian cruisers, *Niobe* and *Rainbow*, were similarly placed for the protection of commerce.

A Canadian voluntary field hospital contingent has also been organised. This represents the gift of Canadian Freemasons.

Then came Canada's magnificent offer of 1,000,000 bags of flour, as a gift from her people to the people of the United Kingdom, a gift as handsome as it was spontaneous, and of itself affording to the world a distinct proof of the unity of the British Empire. This gift, which weighs 43,750 tons, represents a total of 2 lbs. for every individual in the United Kingdom and is sufficient to make 31,500,000 quartern loaves. In addition to this, the Government of Alberta has offered the Imperial Authorities half a million bushels of Alberta oats for the use of His Majesty's Forces. Nor have the men on service been forgotten. The women of Canada are organising a hospital ship for the British Navy, and the Duchess of Connaught has inaugurated the fund with a gift of £200.

Canada's Inland Sea.

To ensure the safety of Hudson Bay and Straits for navigation purposes, three wireless stations are being erected in the straits, and at the entrance to the bay, in order that a continuous line of communication may be established from Port Nelson and Fort Churchill to the Atlantic. The charting of Hudson Straits is being carried on, and Government vessels are taking soundings and mapping the harbours at Port Nelson, Fort Churchill, and at the mouth of the Nottaway River. Two lighthouses are to be commenced this year, one on each side of the entrance to Port Nelson, while another will be built upon a newly-charted shoal some miles out in the bay. The charting being done at the mouth of the Nottaway River is preparatory to the construction of the proposed railway from the south-east to the National Transcontinental in connection with the alternative route from Port Nelson across the northern end of James Bay and thence by rail to Montreal. The Government plans for building the southern half of this line from the National Transcontinental, together with an appropriation of £200,000 for preliminary surveys, were passed last session. The Clerque Syndicate had originally planned to build the whole of the line, but the Government has decided to be responsible for the cost of that portion between Montreal and the National Transcontinental.

Ontario Staff Volunteers.

Practically all the members of the staff of the Ontario Government office in London have volunteered for service, and on behalf of the Government, Mr. Richard Reid, the Agent-General, has undertaken to provide for the dependents of those called up for service. Many Ontario men, resident in and visiting London, including medical men and surgeons, have called on the Agent-General with the object of, through him, placing their services at the disposal of the Crown.

Sugar Plant for Winnipeg.

Winnipeg should be amongst the first to profit by the turn of events which can scarcely fail to follow the war. 800,000 lbs. of sugar, approximately, were imported into the city last year. The Industrial Bureau is anxious to remedy this state of affairs, and plans are being prepared for the establishment of a mammoth sugar factory in Winnipeg. With so much sugar imported yearly for the city's requirements, the wholesale firms have for some time been faced with the problem of obtaining a home-grown product which would obviate a considerable amount of the expense that prevails at the present time. The solution of the difficulty is the cultivation of the sugar beet in

Manitoba. At the instigation of members of the Industrial Bureau, sugar beets have been grown, as an experiment, on farms in various parts of the province. Samples have been sent to the experimental station at Ottawa, and the reports received from there are to the effect that each sample submitted has been found highly satisfactory.

Building Record in Winnipeg.

Winnipeg continues to keep up its building permits record. For the first three months of the present year the total exceeded five million dollars, which is higher not only than the three corresponding months of last year, but higher even than the value of the permits issued for the same three months in 1912, which is recognised as the "banner" year for building in Western Canada. A feature of this building activity is the fact that so much of the money represents dwelling houses, chiefly for the working classes. The returns are also indicative of the disappearance of the monetary stringency from which a few months ago Canada suffered in company with every other country in the civilised world. At no period within the past year were there more than 5,000 men out of work in the City of Winnipeg, and 50 per cent. of these remained unemployed from choice rather than accept employment in occupations to which they have not hitherto been accustomed. The remaining 50 per cent. were the usual unemployed workmen connected with the building trades who are invariably short of work during the winter months.

Farming in Canada.

The Minister of Agriculture for Manitoba has purchased on behalf of the Provincial Government, seventy acres of land adjoining the lake at Killarney, in that province, for the purpose of a demonstration farm. A portion of the land will be used to demonstrate the growing of hardy fruits, shrubbery for hedges to be supplied to farmers free of cost, and the remaining portion will be operated in order to demonstrate the growing of grain and grasses, and the rotation of crops. The new Dairy Act passed at Ottawa during the recent session will come into effect on September 1st. Butter containing whey is to be marked when sold as "whey butter." Mixtures of creamery and dairy butter are to be branded as "dairy butter." Cheese, into the manufacture of which skimmed milk has entered, must be branded on leaving the factory with the words "skimmed milk cheese." No person may use the word "Canada" on butter and cheese packages unless the product has actually been made in the Dominion. Anyone found ignoring these regulations will, for each offence, be fined from £2 to £6. The Minister of Agri-

culture for Saskatchewan predicts that winter rye will become a staple crop of that province within the next ten years. He says the crop is a valuable one, and it could be seeded and harvested at periods when the pressure of work on the farm was lowest. The world production of winter rye is about one-half that of wheat, the yearly crop amounting to approximately 1,300,000,000 bushels. Although there is no local market for this grain at present, the Minister is of the opinion that such a market will be created.

Shipbuilding at Vancouver.

The opening of the Panama Canal is expected to have a markedly beneficial effect on the shipbuilding and allied industries on the western coast of Canada. The first sod has been turned for the new works of the Dominion Shipbuilding and Dry Dock Company at Vancouver. The construction work involved in the erection of these premises means a vast amount of employment, and ultimately, when the various shops and sheds have been completed, it is anticipated that a large permanent staff will here find steady and remunerative work.

Storing the Harvest.

The Canadian Dominion Government has selected a site for a new transfer elevator to be built in Vancouver at a cost of £200,000, with the view to preparing for the trade which is expected to accrue from the opening of the Panama Canal. The elevator is to be erected on a site situated on the Government Dock in Vancouver Harbour. It will furnish a facility much needed on the Pacific Coast, but especially valuable in view of the opening of the Panama Canal. The construction of this waterway has long been expected to prove one of the greatest factors in building up the Pacific Coast trade of Canada, and it was this that influenced the Government in the erection of the new elevator, which will complete a chain extending from East to West. Interior storage elevators are now being built, or under contract in Calgary, Saskatoon, Moose Jaw and Fort William.

Fruit-Growing in New Brunswick.

Fruit has been grown for a number of years in considerable quantities in the districts along the valley of the St John River and in portions of Charlotte, Albert and Westmorland, New Brunswick. Many fine orchards attest the capabilities of this province to produce fruit of splendid colour and quality. It is only within recent years, however, that definite data have been secured and made available to the general public as to the varieties of fruit which may be planted commercially with every

confidence and hope of profit. The Provincial Government, through the Secretary of Agriculture, and the Provincial Horticulturist, has put new life into the New Brunswick fruit industry, and this province is taking active steps to secure its proper place as an important fruit-producing section. The list of apples recommended for New Brunswick covers the season and provides a class well suited for export shipment as well as for supplying the local markets. With cheap and rapid transportation by water, with an overseas market very close at hand, plenty of suitable land, with the knowledge that has been secured as to the proper varieties to plant, and with the active co-operation of the Government, the success of New Brunswick as a fruit-producing area seems assured.

Timber and Grazing Lands.

The forest branch of the Department of Lands of British Columbia had a very busy year during 1913, which brought the revenues from timber up to about £600,000. A system of patrols has been initiated which makes it much easier to keep down losses by fire, and also to curtail waste in the cutting of timber. Another innovation is the inauguration of sales of isolated stands of timber, which renders possible the utilisation of timber which would otherwise become unsaleable owing to the discontinuance of adjacent logging operations. The work of the forestry branch has been facilitated by the installation of 360 miles of field telephone lines. Included in timber holdings in this province is a good deal of land suitable for grazing, and it is anticipated that a large amount of revenue may be secured under this head when certain regulations governing the use of lands for this purpose have been prepared and published. From rough estimates already made it is said that there are about 17,500,000 acres of timbered grazing lands which can be utilised from five to eight months of the year. There are also 2,000,000 acres of open range available from eight to ten months, with 2,000,000 acres of mountain range which will afford grazing for from two to five months per annum.

School for Farm Labourers.

The Union Government of South Africa propose to take over the Tweespruit Stud Farm, the stock on which was recently disposed of, for the purpose of establishing a school for training farm labourers. The idea is to give students such instruction as may fit them for doing work on farms, as distinguished from the existing agricultural schools or colleges which turn out students able to supervise such work. The instruction at

the school farm will include elementary carpentry and blacksmith's work.

South African Butter.

Notwithstanding the severe drought of last year the amount of butter manufactured in South Africa was greatly in excess of an estimate formed earlier in the season. In the course of his address to the shareholders of the Nel's Rust Dairies recently, Mr. Baynes remarked that he looked forward with confidence to the time when dairying will rank foremost of all the industries of the Union. The coastal districts were admirably suited for the purpose. Given a few good seasons they would see South Africa supplying all its butter requirements and the commencement of an export trade oversea. He warned his audience against the unprofitable competition created by the multiplication of small and unpayable butter factories in districts not sufficiently developed to support them.

Wattle Bark Industry.

The exports of wattle bark from the Union of South Africa have increased during the seven years ended December 31, 1912, by 85,003,557 lbs. valued at £193,686, the figures for the years 1906 and 1912 being respectively 33,215,466 lbs., value £89,374, and 118,219,023 lbs., value £283,060. Notwithstanding the heavy export of tan bark by private individuals, the Chief Conservator of Forests for the Union states that no serious attempt appears to have been made to produce an extract in solid form. This is essential if the exports of South African grown tan bark are to be absorbed in the markets of the world. The area under wattle in Natal in 1912 was between 160,000 and 200,000 acres and the prices realised in the European markets that year ranged from £6 16s. 3d. to £8 for chopped bark, and from £7 7s. 6d. to £8 5s. for ground bark. The only bark exported from the Cape Province was from Government plantations, and the price realised was £7 5s. (chopped bark). Considering the bad state of the market at the time, and the unfortunate arrival of the consignment while a dock strike was in progress, this is considered very good.

New Zealand Honey.

The honey industry, though one of the infant ventures of New Zealanders, is developing rapidly into an exceeding healthy child owing to the encouragement given by the Department of Agriculture to apiarists. Between May last year, when the first shipment was consigned to the Old Country, and May this year, no less than sixty tons had been exported. As the price of honey

on the London market when the last lot left was about £45 per ton, and one province in the South Island alone will be able to export a couple of hundred tons annually, apiarists have every reason for optimism. As far as the grading is concerned, the Government place their experts at the disposal of the exporters gratuitously.

Fruit by Post.

An interesting scheme, by which the services of the middleman are disposed of, is in force in New Zealand, where fruit may be obtained by the consumer direct from the producer through the medium of the post office. Under this system an order coupon is supplied by the Department on payment of a fee of 2*d.* which covers postage to the destination. The coupon is filled in with the requisite particulars, and addressed by the purchaser. It is then handed in at the post office, together with an amount covering the price of fruit as advertised by the vendor, charges due for transit and delivery and ordinary commission on postal notes. The fruit is subsequently consigned to the purchaser by the vendor through the Railway Department.

Election Reform.

For the New Zealand elections which take place towards the end of the year an interesting scheme of compiling the rolls has been evolved that is thought to be in advance of the method hitherto employed of having temporary canvassers. By arrangement with the Postal and Police Departments, the enrolling and checking of enrolment forms is to be carried out by letter-carriers and members of the police force who will be paid by the Electoral department for these services. Through the letter-carriers' system every householder whose name appears on the roll, or who wishes to be enrolled, will be carefully checked, while in certain cases, should doubts be entertained as to the validity or genuineness of any enrolment forms, the Postal Department will be able to afford a complete check. The services of the members of the police force will be used mostly in the outlying districts. By these means it is hoped to secure a better roll than hitherto and at a very considerably reduced cost. This will not interfere in any way with the enrolling of electors by any of the political organisations.

NOTICE TO CONTRIBUTORS.—The Editor of THE EMPIRE REVIEW cannot hold himself responsible in any case for the return of MS. He will, however, always be glad to consider any contributions which may be submitted to him; and when postage-stamps are enclosed every effort will be made to return rejected contributions promptly. Contributors are specially requested to put their names and addresses on their manuscripts, and to have them typewritten.

THE EMPIRE REVIEW

129

VOL. XXVIII. OCTOBER, 1914.

No. 165.

HOW TO INCREASE BRITISH EXPORTS

FACTS AND FIGURES CONCERNING THE FOREIGN TRADE OF GERMANY AND AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

THE Board of Trade deserve all praise for the prompt and effective manner in which they have dealt with the possibilities awaiting British manufacturers owing to the war. In a series of pamphlets issued since hostilities commenced, some timely facts and figures are given for which the Commercial Intelligence Branch of the Department take responsibility. It would not be possible in the space at our disposal to examine all these pamphlets, or, indeed, to examine any one in detail. Yet so essential is it that the British manufacturer should become acquainted with the opportunities at his command that even a cursory glance at some of the markets in which British trade is placed in competition with that of Germany and Austria-Hungary cannot fail to serve a useful and patriotic purpose.

But if British trade is to profit by the unexpected situation, not a moment should be lost in seizing the chances that present themselves. No doubt there are many and weighty matters to be considered. In some cases it will be necessary to lay down new plant, and much will depend on the amount of capital the manufacturer can raise or has at his disposal, while to secure for a second time a firm hold on markets that long since passed into the hands of the enemy will require a good deal of hard work and not a little fresh initiative. It must not be supposed that our rivals remained content where they began. Their travellers left no stone unturned to show interest in their customers' requirements, and when a special line of goods was wanted it was not long on the way. No request was considered too small, no suggestion turned aside.

Thus it came to pass that Germany and Austria-Hungary, and especially Germany, built up an ever-increasing trade in markets which at one time were controlled by this country. If,

then, these are to be regained, as without doubt they can be, the British manufacturer must abandon the old conservative idea of thinking that what he turns out is good enough for anyone, and the merchant will also have to look to his laurels. Not only will the manufacturer have to adapt his methods to the requirements of his customers, but the merchant must so pack his goods that they reach their destination in saleable condition. In the comments made by His Majesty's Trade Commissioners will be found many excellent hints in these directions. We commend them to the notice of manufacturers and merchants in this country who desire to secure for themselves the markets left open by the war. That Britain will not have a walk-over is clear from the steps already being taken by the United States, and if we are to be first in the field now is the time to move.

I.

FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL CONDITIONS OF IMPORTING COUNTRIES.

Before attacking the markets we must know something of the financial and commercial conditions of the countries that have been importing German and Austro-Hungarian goods. With this object in view, cables were dispatched on August 14 to our Trade Commissioners in Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and to British Consular officers in South America, China, Japan, and Egypt. These officers were also asked to ascertain the likelihood of regular payments being forthcoming for goods supplied. The replies quickly came to hand, and it may be convenient to give the official summaries, adding the telegraphic reports received on the 9th September at the Foreign Office from our representatives in Italy and Norway.

Canada.—The financial condition of importers in Canada (August 16th) is generally satisfactory. The approximate value of import trade from Germany is £3,000,000. The following is a list of certain goods in which British firms might extend their trade as the result of existing conditions:—

Bristles.	Ivory.	Fabrics for neckties.
Brooms.	Perfumery.	Gelatine.
Brass articles.	Purses.	Glassware.
Brass tubing.	Leather.	Gloves.
Boiler tubes.	Medicinal materials.	Gunwads.
Beans.	Chinaware.	Hides.
Combs.	Carbons.	Hops.
Clothing.	Cutlery.	Lamps.
Crude glycerine.	Carding machinery.	Rubber.
Litharge.	Copper tubing.	Skates.
Lead pencils.	Electric apparatus.	Socks.
Locomotive tyres.	Enamelled ware.	Toys.
Optical instruments.	Furs.	Velvets.
Piano-keys.	Ferro-silicon.	Zinc bars.

Australia.—The financial position in Australia (August 17) is strong. The Federal Government is prepared to support the banks if necessary, and the execution of Federal, Public, and State works will be continued. The commercial position appears to be sound, as the banks are adequately supporting merchants. He considers that there is a good opportunity for manufacturers to secure valuable trade. Firms should cable to their agents that they are able to fill orders if they are in a position to give this assurance. Particular attention should be directed to trade in fencing-wire, mild steel, wire netting, cotton hosiery, minor articles for apparel, rubber goods and china-ware.

New Zealand.—The conditions of trade in New Zealand (August 19th) are disturbed, but the Commissioner anticipates this is temporary and considers prospects to be good, and regular payments likely to be maintained. The demand for necessaries is not likely to diminish. An increasing demand for British goods may be expected, but prompt overtures should be made so as to anticipate competition from America.

South Africa.—The depression in South Africa, primarily due to drought, has been accentuated by the war. Prices for foodstuffs rose to a high level at first, but concerted action by the merchants and the reassuring statements which the Dominion Government was in a position to make resulted in prices of present stock being fixed at 10 per cent. more than the normal market price. The action of H.M. Government regarding insurance against war risks is highly appreciated. The banks are fully prepared to finance reputable merchants as hitherto, and merchants are ready to carry on trade. Indents supplied previously by Germany and Austria will be executed by the United Kingdom and France. The unavoidable decrease in the exports of diamonds, hides and feathers will affect the community proportionately. This report is dated August 17th.

Brazil.—Our Consul-General at Rio de Janeiro reports (August 18) that an opportunity certainly offers for British firms to secure trade now in German hands. Traders should make arrangements for payment in gold and not in paper currency, since the Government propose to make a large local issue of paper, and in all probability exchange will decline sharply. British firms desiring to transact business should send competent representatives possessing the necessary technical knowledge to study local conditions. Further (August 31):—According to telegrams from New York, United States of America, firms are preparing to send a veritable army of commercial travellers to South America, especially to Brazil, Argentina, and Chile, with a view to the capture of German trade in those markets.

Argentina.—Our Consul-General at Buenos Aires reports (August 14) that the preponderating share of the trade is already in the hands of British firms. Banks refuse to give credit and there is no money to be had. Grain stocks cannot be moved because bills cannot be drawn on Europe, and the banks can no longer finance cultivators. Regularity of payments cannot be relied upon. There is a danger of depreciation in the value of currency; and it is stated that the Government propose to prohibit the exportation of wheat, the effect of which would be to diminish purchasing power.

China.—The British Consul-General at Shanghai reports (August 15) that Shanghai merchants are fully alive to the situation. The difficulty in getting shipments away is reacting on the import trade, but Chinese merchants are confident that business will shortly be resumed on a small scale. Silk spinning mills, cotton mills and industrial undertakings generally are working, but the market is oppressed by the stock of cereals which under normal conditions would have been shipped to the continent of Europe. Further (8th September):—Business may be said to be more or less at a standstill. The situation is governed by the export trade, which is held up; and money is tight principally on account of this stagnation. The Germans are accepting export cargo which is being deposited in godowns, but Chinese sellers are at present without payment. This fact will undoubtedly react in favour of British interests.

Japan.—H.M. Commercial Attaché in Japan reports (August 25th) that chiefly owing to rapid buying, the consequent rise in prices of accumulated stocks, and the special conditions resulting therefrom, payments have improved. The financial position is said to be fairly satisfactory, but it is difficult to say precisely whether regular payments will be possible in the event of the market becoming congested. The Attaché is of opinion that the German Empire's large share of the trade is almost entirely due to excessive credit facilities, and although (presumably under ordinary circumstances) he would not consider such a course desirable, it may be necessary for British interests to extend credit facilities.

Export trade is seriously disorganised owing to the stoppage of Continental purchases of silk and the big fall in prices in the United States. Transactions in habutæ, braids, and in general export trade are being very much interfered with on account of serious difficulties as to shipment and exchange, but the present position is slowly improving on account of assistance promised by the Japanese specie banks. Prospects for the rice crop are encouraging.

The following are German or Austro-Hungarian goods with

which British manufacturing interests should be able to compete: Drugs (especially); galvanised iron wire, worsted yarns, and electrical machinery.

The iron and steel supply is calculated to suffice for six months; wire, gauge No. 8, has advanced to 9*l.* 15*s.*, c.i.f., and other gauges in the same proportion. Mild steel bars, round, basis sizes, have advanced by roughly 40 per cent., and sheets in the same proportion. The above prices are for stocks, and there is no forward business being carried on. There has been a very large rise in the price of drugs, especially *santoninum*, acid *carbolicum*, cocaine hydrochlor, *morphia*, German proprietary medicines. British manufacturing interests are strongly recommended to take advantage of the opportunity which must offer for the supply of enemies' goods, but it is absolutely essential that experts should pay a visit to Japan.

The present stock of yarns is believed to be small, on account of the depression in the *mousseline* trade early in the year. There has been a 20 per cent. rise in prices of paper owing to the shortage in the supply of pulp and other necessaries for its manufacture. Domestic pulp is only suitable for newspapers. There has been no change of importance in the textile import trade. No better opportunity is likely to occur for the supply of dyes and malt if supplies are forthcoming. There has been a big rise in price of industrial chemicals and glass sheets.

The greatest energy is being displayed by American firms, and Japanese firms will also take advantage of the opportunity.

In a further cable, dated September 5th, the same authority tells us, that business is being very seriously hampered by international difficulties which have arisen. It is suggested that United Kingdom firms transacting business with Japan should consult exchange bankers with a view to having their shipments to the Far Eastern markets financed. The attitude of the Japanese Banks is exceedingly cautious.

It is estimated that at present the stocks of dyes in Japan are sufficient for six months' requirements. Large Australian contracts for wool and lead are being held up owing to difficulties of finance.

As regards exports, shipments of silk continue to show a falling off, while copper shipments are at a standstill. Exports to China of cotton yarn for the manufacture of *guncotton* have fallen off 20 per cent. It is officially stated that the rice crop is expected to exceed 57,000,000 *koku* (about 232,885,000 bushels).

Egypt.—H.M. Consul at Alexandria reports (31st August) if the cotton crop is successfully financed the conditions and prospects of trade will be favourable. The United Kingdom should secure a large proportion of the German Empire's very

valuable trade with Egypt, in all manufactures of good quality such as machinery, especially artesian well apparatus, canvas hose machine tools, gauges, wrought iron pipes and tubes, files, bolts, etc., and in textiles imitating popular patterns. Successful competition is improbable in inferior goods such as crockery, pewter, ironmongery, hosiery and haberdashery. Our serious difficulty is that long credit (six or twelve months) is indispensable, as fellaheen pay only by instalments.

Italy.—The British Ambassador at Rome reports (5th September) that he is informed that the present moment would be a favourable one for a competent commercial traveller or agent to go to Milan and obtain orders for goods hitherto supplied by Germany. Amongst such goods for which there would be a demand are carbons for arc lamps, magnesium, silica, bricks, and special types of steel.

Norway.—His Majesty's Minister at Christiania reports (1st September) that supplies of medical drugs, which are usually drawn from Germany, are stated to be very low in Norway at present. Representatives of the drug industry who were sent to America have reported that drugs are very expensive there, and it is considered that there is a good opening for British products of this nature in Norway.

II.

MARKETS TO ATTACK.

Now let us see in what markets German and Austro-Hungarian competition can be attacked with success by British manufacturers.

Hollow Glassware (glass bottles, tumblers, etc.).

The aggregate value of these goods exported from Germany in 1912 was £2,690,000, and that of similar goods exported from Austria-Hungary £1,568,000. It does not appear possible to give the exact corresponding figures for this country, but under the headings, "glass bottles" and "glass manufactures, unenumerated," goods to the value of £1,100,700 were exported.

More than one half of the British exports are sent to the Oversea Dominions and India. In India and Australia the competition of Germany and Austria-Hungary is keen, but in Canada and South Africa, particularly in Canada, we hold a commanding position over both competitors. In Argentina and the United States this country has a fair share of the trade, but in the principal foreign markets we have but a small holding. In Western Europe (Denmark, Netherlands, Belgium, France,

and Switzerland) Germany has a long lead, while the same may be said of South America.

It is obvious, therefore, in these markets that the situation offers great opportunities for the extension of British exports at the expense of Germany and Austro-Hungarian trade. The Board of Trade estimates the aggregate amount of the enemy's trade now thrown open to British manufacturers of hollow glass as follows: In the home market German trade (1912) £604,550, Austro-Hungarian trade (1913) £258,900. In Colonial and neutral markets, German trade (1912) £1,683,150, Austro-Hungarian trade (1913) £625,300, a grand total, taking the two together, in one year of £3,167,900.

Machine Tools.

The value of Germany's export trade in machine tools in 1912 was £4,200,600, that of Austria-Hungary (1913) £41,300, and the United Kingdom £1,012,800. In view of the facilities for the production of machine tools in this country our market is of less importance to Germany than some other European markets. German-made machine tools have a strong hold in Russia, France, Italy, Switzerland, Holland, Brazil, and Argentina. Large quantities of wood-working machines are also sent by Germany to the same markets. Compared with the German export trade in machine tools the exports from Austria-Hungary are insignificant. It may, however, be convenient to note that the chief Austro-Hungarian markets for these goods are France and South-Eastern Europe.

After comparing in tabular form the value of machine tools exported from Germany, Austria-Hungary and the United Kingdom to the various markets, the Board of Trade pamphlet goes on to say that it appears from the figures given that British-made machine tools are preferred in Australia and in Japan. Our share of the trade in Canada is less than it might be, and could be extended. In France, Italy, Russia, and Brazil we do a fair business, but except in Australia and Japan there is a very large field for the extension of British exports of machine tools.

The aggregate value of German and Austro-Hungarian made machine tools hitherto supplied to the United Kingdom and the principal Colonial and neutral markets which might be displaced by British made tools of a similar character, taking the year 1912 for Germany and 1913 for Austria-Hungary, amounted to £3,094,645. Of this sum £2,857,720 belonged to Germany.

Lace and Embroidery.

The exports from Germany of lace and embroidery in 1912 were valued at £5,119,700, from Austria-Hungary (1913) £422,100,

and from the United Kingdom £5,392,100. The more important of Germany's markets are the United Kingdom (£1,485,600), United States (£1,477,200), and France (£258,400). Appreciable amounts are also taken by British India, Canada, and Australia among the Colonial markets, by Sweden, Denmark, Spain, and Russia in Europe, and by Argentina, Brazil, and Cuba. Turning to Austria-Hungary, it will be found that her markets are much the same as those of Germany, the United Kingdom, United States, and France, while Italy, the Balkan States, Turkey, and Egypt are markets of considerable importance. The aggregate value of lace and embroidery exported from this country to markets where they compete with similar goods from Germany and Austria-Hungary for the year 1913 was £3,974,000, or 74 per cent. of our exports of this class of goods to all destinations.

Although owing to differences in classification it is not possible to compare exactly the particulars for the respective countries the Board of Trade Summary gives some interesting information on the point. Thus as regards *cotton lace and articles thereof* it appears that the position of the United Kingdom is strong in our chief Colonial markets (British India, Canada and Australia), though German competition is somewhat keener in Canadian markets than in the other two. In Western European markets we hold an unusually strong position in the Dutch and Swiss markets, while we have also the larger portion of this trade in Portugal, Spain, Russia and Roumania. In the Middle and Far Eastern markets we have a very fair share of the trade. Our exports to the United States are nearly 30 per cent. larger than those of Germany, while in Central and South American markets our position is on the whole somewhat better.

Our exports of silk lace and embroidery to Colonial and neutral markets are relatively unimportant, amounting to less than £30,000 in 1913, as compared with Germany's £172,650 (1912) and with Austria-Hungary's £51,700 (1913). Two-thirds of British exports of silk lace, etc., go to the United States and Canada. Our exports to other Colonial and neutral markets are of no great importance. For these goods there are openings of some value in the United Kingdom itself, in France, Switzerland, Spain and Italy, in the Levant, in South America, and in the United States.

As regards embroidery and needlework it appears that £944,700 worth, or practically one half of the German exports of these articles, are sent to the United Kingdom alone. The diversion of this trade to British manufacturers is therefore a point of considerable value. We hold the major portion of the trade in the Canadian and Australian markets, and we do a fair

trade with India, though Germany competes strongly in that market. To the United States Germany supplied embroidery and needlework to more than twelve times the amount supplied by the United Kingdom.

By taking advantage of present circumstances we might reduce the lead Germany has obtained in the United States, in South America, in Western and Southern Europe, and in the Levant.

In short, it should be possible, in one year, on the basis of the figures given for Germany (1912) and Austria-Hungary (1913), to divert to British manufacturers German and Austro-Hungarian trade in lace and embroidery (a) in the United Kingdom to the amount of £1,550,600; (b) in Colonial and neutral markets to the amount of £3,340,200.

Electrical Appliances and Apparatus.

First let us take the exports of dynamos, electro-motors and other electrical machinery. The value of German exportation was £2,521,000 in the year 1912, that of Austria-Hungary (1913) £62,000, and that of the United Kingdom (1913) £2,269,000. The principal markets for German dynamos, etc., are Argentina, Russia, Italy, Japan, Spain, Netherlands, Brazil and the United Kingdom, the greater part of the trade being in the heavier kinds of machinery. The principal markets for Austro-Hungarian dynamos, etc., are Italy, Roumania, Bulgaria, Turkey and Greece. The aggregate value of British exports of electrical machinery to the principal countries where there is competition with German and Austro-Hungarian manufactures amounted in 1913 to £1,336,100, compared with a combined German and Austro-Hungarian total for exports of dynamos, electro-motors, transformers, etc., of £2,583,000. Accordingly there would seem to be ample scope for the development of British trade with these countries in this class of goods.

Now we will pass to electric glow lamps. Of these the exports from Germany in 1912 reached a total value of £2,477,000, and from Austria-Hungary (1913) £223,000, while the figures for the United Kingdom (1913) are given as £152,503. The chief markets for German metallic filament lamps are the United Kingdom, France, Italy, Russia, Spain, Argentina, Brazil and other South American countries, China and Japan. Carbon filament Nerust, etc., lamps go mainly to the United Kingdom, Italy, Russia and Brazil. The chief oversea markets for Austrian-made glow and other electric lamps in 1913 were Italy, European Russia, the United Kingdom, Roumania, the United States and Norway. The value of electric glow lamps of United Kingdom production exported in 1913 to these

markets and others where they are brought into competition with German and Austro-Hungarian made goods, was £128,900 as compared with the combined German and Austro-Hungarian exports valued at £2,081,800. Obviously we have here a great opening for the extension of British trade.

A third important section of electrical appliances which if attacked with firmness should prove most beneficial to British trade is that including appliances for illumination, transmission of power, etc. Under this heading Germany's export in 1912 was valued at £2,082,000 and that of Austria-Hungary for 1913 at £77,000. This is a general comparison as the items differ somewhat in the two cases. Details of the exports of British-made electrical appliances similar in character to those exported by Germany and Austria-Hungary are not available, but if we take goods under the heading "unenumerated electrical goods and apparatus", and include the markets that take German, Austro-Hungarian and British appliances, it will be seen that the aggregate value of British exports to these markets amounted in 1913 to £607,500, whereas that of Germany and Austria-Hungary combined reached the substantial sum of £1,482,700. Here, then, is an opportunity that British manufacturers will do well to note. Moreover, the British figure probably covers a larger number of articles than the figure given for the rival combination, so that the opening for British trade in these classes of goods would appear to be even more extensive than is indicated by the respective sales.

Cutlery.

Taking cutlery generally, the value of the German export trade to all destinations in 1912 was £1,747,600 and that of Austria-Hungary (1913) £78,200, while our own exports (1913) reached the sum of £836,200. Almost one-half of Germany's export of coarse knives and shears went to thirteen countries, and to the same markets went two-thirds of Germany's export in fine knives and scissors. In all, these markets absorbed German goods of the classes named to the value of £1,128,700 in a single year. Of this amount, cutlery to the value of £120,000 came to this country.

The United Kingdom's exportation of cutlery to the same countries in 1913, excluding the Dutch West Indies, and of course the Home market, and adding the markets of Turkey, Egypt and British Africa, amounted to £573,000. The two figures show considerable scope for the extension of our own trade in those countries in which we have been competing with German goods of a similar class. The Austro-Hungarian exports to competing markets are small, but, by securing those left open by the war, a further £37,500 could be added to the value of our export trade in

cutlery. In all, there is £1,166,200 awaiting us in the Home, Colonial and neutral markets.

Toys and Games.

With Christmas barely three months away a glance at the position of the toy trade is instructive. For a long time Germany has held the lead in the export of toys. We in this country lag very far behind both Germany and Austria-Hungary. In 1912 Germany's total export was valued at £3,903,900. Of this £2,756,700 went to neutral and Colonial markets, and £1,147,400 to the United Kingdom. Taking the exports of Austria-Hungary, a similar condition of affairs prevails. The total export trade for 1913 is given as £214,500, of which £104,500 came here, whereas all our exports put together only reached the insignificant value of £629,200. Next in importance to the British market, both as regards Germany and Austria-Hungary, is the United States, the value of the goods exported being respectively £1,404,500 and £87,900.

From these figures the great importance of the United Kingdom market to our opponents is obvious, while as regards neutrals, Germany dominates all the foreign, and competes severely in our Colonial markets. No time should therefore be lost in picking up this business. The Home market is in our hands, and even if we do not secure much extra trade with the United States, we ought to get a firm footing in the foreign markets, and capture entirely the markets of the Dominions oversea.

(To be continued.)

ASIA AND THE WAR

By A. E. DUCHESNE

IN any consideration of the Asiatic attitude towards the present conflict Turkey must on no account be lost sight of. During the centuries that the Turks have maintained a footing in Europe they have never lost their Asiatic characteristics. Nor have they altogether foregone their Asiatic ambitions any more than they have been deprived of their Asiatic possessions. The strongest claim of Turkey to the general adherence of the Muhammadan world rests on the belief that the Sultan of Turkey is, as such, the Khalif, the head of Islam.

It is true that as the only Muhammadan sovereign admitted to the comity of European nations, as the last representative of that tremendous conquering impulse which at one time threatened to subdue the West, and as the visible embodiment of the old tradition of Muhammadan supremacy, the Sublime Porte expects and receives the homage of Muhammadans of every country. Nevertheless it is a mistake to suppose that the Sultan has always and everywhere been recognised as the Khalif. It is essential that the Khalif be an Arab of the tribe of Kareish, the tribe of Muhammad the prophet. On this point Islam is unchangeable, and its doctors agree. The orthodox text-books are unanimous on the point. The Delhi text-book says: "It is a necessary condition that the Khalif be of the Kareish tribe." A former Grand Mufti of Cairo states: "It is the unanimous opinion of the ancient doctors that the Khalif must be of the Kareish tribe."

The point is interesting historically. When Selim conquered Egypt the Khalifate ceased *ipso facto* to exist, inasmuch as the spiritual and temporal powers thereof, hitherto united in one personality, were separated. The Sultan seized the temporal and political power, whilst the spiritual power was placed in commission with the Ulema, represented in Turkey by the Sheikh-ul-Islam. That this is recognised in the Ottoman Empire is abundantly evident from the fact that no act of the Sultan, even of a political or administrative character, is valid till it has received the sanction of the Sheikh-ul-Islam. This is a practical recognition of the fact

that the Ottoman dynasty, not being of the Kareish (being in fact of Central Asian and not of Arab descent at all), cannot exercise the spiritual powers of the Khalifate. The Sublime Porte has never had any recognition of its pretensions to spiritual supremacy in Arabia, Afghanistan, Morocco, Persia, or in India under the Mogul Empire.

When the "Young Turk" revolution was accomplished, it is extremely doubtful whether the limited Khalifate enjoyed by the ex-Sultan was handed on to his successor. At any rate, very few Indian Muhammadans would now be prepared to admit that the Khalifate is vested in the Ottoman sovereign.

Nevertheless the intrigues of Prussia in Turkey owe their origin to this belief in the Turkish Khalifate and its widespread influence. If we may take von Bernhardt as in any way authoritative, we find in his book, "Germany and the Next War," continual reference to the Pan-Islamic movement, to the supposed intrigues of England in Arabia for the creation "of a new religious centre in opposition to the Caliphate." Turkey is regarded as "the only State which might seriously threaten the English position in Egypt by land." Again: "It is our interest to reconcile Italy and Turkey as far as we can." "Turkey is an essential member of the Triple Alliance." "Turkey is of paramount importance to us. She is our natural ally; it is emphatically our interest to keep in close touch with her." "Turkey is the only Power which can threaten England's position in Egypt, and thus menace the short sea-route and the land communications to India. We ought to spare no sacrifices to secure this country as an ally for the eventuality of a war with England." "Pan-Islamism, thoroughly roused, should unite with the revolutionary elements of Bengal."

Accordingly, German effort has for years past been directed towards three ends in Turkey. First, to induce in the Turks an oblivion of Britain's past championship of their cause, particularly of the Berlin Congress, and to persuade them that "Codlin is the friend, not Short." To this end terrible stories are circulated of the miseries of Muhammadans under British rule. The occupation of Egypt is continually referred to as flouting Turkish suzerainty, and the operations in the Soudan consistently misrepresented as a deliberate attack on Islam.

Secondly, the endeavour is to Prussianise Turkey's Army, Navy and Finance. This has been going on steadily for years. Von Goltz's training of the Turkish army was not conspicuously successful, but Turkey is still leaning on the Prussian reed for her finance and her navy. Amid the cloud of confused and contradictory reports regarding the *Goeben* and *Breslau* this much appears to be true: that Germany has sent money and officers to

Constantinople, and that the crews of the derelict warships are still available to man those two ships.

Thirdly, Turkey is being urged to assert the Khalifate, to preach *Jehad* in Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria, Morocco, and India. This is, of course, primarily to embarrass Britain and France, but also to compel Italy's active co-operation with the Triple Alliance. Turkey, like Austria in the Schleswig-Holstein affair, is to be the catspaw of Prussia. Whatever the final result of the war, she will share Austria's then fate. So far as this country is concerned, interest naturally directs itself to Egypt and India. The absence from Egypt of Britain's strong man may perhaps tend towards the revival of that turbulent intrigue which Lord Kitchener's energy, devotion, and tact had so effectually quelled, but the situation so far would seem to present no alarming features.

In any case the disquiet in Egypt was never among the fellahaheen, rapidly waxing prosperous under British protection, but among the former instruments of tyranny and corruption, uneasy at the loss of their nefarious influence and their infamous emoluments, irritated by the restraints of the Occupying Power, and appealing to the vanished suzerainty of the Porte to support their retrograde ambitions and to cloak their sinister designs. It is among this class that Prussian intrigue has been most active. When I was in Egypt in 1906 these intrigues were frequently mentioned in conversation with my acquaintances among the trading classes in Cairo and Alexandria. This was more particularly the case with the domiciled Jews, who owe everything to British justice. Surprise was expressed that attention was not given by the British authorities to the many German, Austrian and Levantine commercial employés who were prominent in the campaign of vilification of everything British. Doubtless, however, by this time all necessary precautions have been taken.

In India there is not a cloud on the horizon. The "revolutionary (!) elements in Bengal" have indeed united with the Muhammadans, but it is to express their honest and fervent loyalty to the Empire. The Muhammadans everywhere have shown their traditional loyalty, and indignantly protest that "The (German) insinuation that Mussulmans are likely to prove disloyal is an impudent and dastardly libel." A resolution of the British Moslems' Association declares:—

Our Holy Faith enjoins upon us to be loyal to whatever country under whose protection we reside. Recognising the religious liberty, equity, and justice accorded by England to the Mussulmans who dwell under its flag, we feel confident that our brethren throughout the British Empire will decline to listen to the wicked behests of Germany, and refuse to be made the tools of a selfish, brutal, and unprincipled nation, which disregards treaties, even though signed by itself, and has plunged Europe into a bloody strife.

The Association desired to affirm the Moslems' "unflinching loyalty to King George, and to assure him that all his subjects of the Islamic faith were fully prepared and burning with a desire to shed their blood on behalf of England side by side with the sons of Islam, natives of Algeria, who were already fighting for France." The Moslems "now know Germany to be like *Shaitan* (the Devil)"! Prayers for British success are now offered in all the mosques throughout India.

The Prussian idea of our position in India is derived from their own psychology. Because the Prussian ideal of government is a domination to which weaker races must bow, we are pictured as holding India in the same way as the Alsatian Reichsland or Polish Prussia is held. Nothing could be farther from the truth. We do not hold India by the sword, nor could we administer it effectively in accordance with the canons of justice and tolerance if we did. It is true that we *have* fought in India. We fought against the decadent Mogul power at Plassy, against the Marathas at Assaye, against mutinous Brahmins and Moslems at Lucknow, Delhi, and Cawnpore. But in each case there were men of Indian race and Moslem or Hindu religion who fought for us. Thus our wars in India have been much less of conquest than of administration. In every one of them we have had the assistance, the cordial co-operation, of our Indian fellow-subjects. Those whom we have subdued have in very brief space of time become our allies and supporters.

Men soon recognised that with all our faults we were in the main honest, and that loyal co-operation with us was the shortest road to happiness and prosperity. Even with this recognition our task has been a difficult one. Without it the attempt to impose peace, to evolve order out of chaos, to establish and enhance the prosperity of city and district, would have been doomed to ignominious failure. Differences, of course, there have been, differences of ideal, of tradition, of habit, of mode of expression; but on the whole the contact between Briton and Indian has been one of mutual esteem and appreciation. The officer sahib swears by the men of his regiment. The men regard him as their father. To the Anglo-Indian sportsman there is no one like his old shikari. The district officer is full of the many good points of his people. This appreciation is well repaid by a touching devotion of which numberless instances could be given.

The ineffable Bernhardt, misunderstanding the position in India, says: "England so far, in accordance with the principle of *divide et impera*, has attempted to play off the Muhammadan against the Hindu population." I cannot do better than refer the reader to the *Asiatic Review* for August. In this Dr. Pollen, the Honorary Secretary of the East India Association, gives a

complete refutation of the "divide and rule" theory of our Indian administration.

At the present moment a tremendous wave of enthusiasm is passing through India. It is recognised that Britain is fighting the fight of liberty, that she is actuated by the same honourable determination as keeps inviolate the treaties and agreements between the Government of India and the Feudatory States. From the Nizam of Hyderabad and the Maharaja of Mysore down to the smallest chieftain of Kathiawar or Scinde all the Chiefs have poured forth offers of men and money, hospital ships and equipment. The regular Indian Army is of course silent, but the Chiefs are transported with delight at being allowed the privilege of sending their own State forces to the Empire's war. Hyderabad, Bhopal and Bahawalpur are Moslem, Mysore and Baroda are Hindu, Patiala is Sikh, the independent State of Nepaul is mainly Buddhist; but all are of one faith in this, that they believe in the justice of our Empire's cause. The Dalai Lama has tendered Tibetan troops, and prayers are daily offered in Tibet for the success of our army.

This manly enthusiasm is not confined to the Princes and nobles. The lawyers, merchants, bank employés, shopkeepers, peasants, and petty traders: all have joined in the protestations of loyalty, all have proffered their services. The Bengali barristers desire to form a volunteer corps in Calcutta. The Parsis, who are already permitted to belong to the Poona Volunteer Corps, would dearly love to send a contingent to the front. The leading Indian citizens have guaranteed the freedom from disturbance of their districts during the war. Factions are abolished. For the first time in history the terms "cow-slayer" and "idolater" are banished from the Indian vocabulary. Tilak, who has suffered a long imprisonment for sedition, proclaims an admiration for the British adherence to the pledged word, and calls on his fellow-countrymen, the erstwhile turbulent Marathas, to be loyal and support the Government. Surendranath Banerji and Dadabhai Naoroji, old champions of the Congress attacks on the Government, have issued similar adjurations.

Thus we may consider with every confidence that the internal peace of India is assured. Externally as long as our naval supremacy remains there is absolutely no fear of foreign aggression. The turbulent tribes on the North-West Frontier may endeavour to make themselves objectionable, but they will be very easily dealt with. The Amir of Afghanistan has loudly proclaimed his neutrality. It would indeed be the unforeseen which would require the presence in India just now of any large body of our troops.

The Indian Government, then, has done well in yielding to

the expressed desire of the peoples of India that theirs should be a share in the struggle, theirs the privilege to fight side by side with the Briton in Europe as they have fought side by side with him in Asia. The Indian Army has long suffered from a species of injustice, having its genesis, it is true, in equity but nevertheless galling to the proud Rajput or the martial Sikh. That injustice was the idea that Indian troops should as little as possible be employed beyond the limits of the Indian Empire. By a sort of concession to Imperial needs we garrison Ceylon, Singapore, and Hong Kong with Indian troops, but these are insignificant exceptions. Obviously we do not wish that an army with the glorious traditions of the Indian Army should degenerate into a mere band of mercenaries, paid by whatever British Dominion—now African, now Australian—required its services. On the other hand, it is equally obvious that we must not saddle the patient Indian taxpayer with the cost of defence of other dominions than his own. In the present war we are fighting for the whole British Empire and all it represents. If we go down, farewell to liberty, farewell to all the hopes and aspirations of our Indian comrades. Hence, neither of these objections weighs now. Whoever bears the actual money cost, the battle is as much in defence of India as Britain. As a matter of fact, it has now been settled that India bears such proportion of the expense as would have been incurred if the troops had not left the country, while the magnificent contribution of £333,000 from the Mysore State goes towards the cost of the actual expedition. This has the approval of all India.

The recent decision to grant real commissions to Indian officers is a step in the right direction. Such a notification as that in the *Gazette* of India of July 11 is full of happy augury: "No. 630. Lieutenant Kunwar Amar Singh to be Captain." There will be many more such promotions when the Indian troops get effectively to work.

The German Ambassador at Washington, referring to the subject of native soldiery, is reported to have stated that Great Britain and France had no right to condemn the Louvain outrage since they were employing coloured troops to hinder Germany's mission of culture and civilisation. Such a statement, if it were made, is inexcusable. As to the Indian troops, it was well said by Lord Crewe that they were high-souled men of ancient civilisation. The Rajput of "Solar" race traces his ancestry back to a date when the Prussians were unheard of. The Panjabi has often Greek blood in him. All are chivalrous with that unassuming chivalry which has made Lord Roberts describe our soldiers in South Africa as constituting an army of gentlemen. Among the princes coming with the force are such typical

Indian Chiefs as Sir Pertab Singh, the very perfect, stainless knight of Indian chivalry; the Maharaja of Bikanir, equally distinguished as an administrator, a courtier, a soldier, and a mighty hunter; the Maharaja of Patiala, head of the great Sikh State, and renowned sportsman.

From every point of view the employment of the Indian troops is to be commended. It exemplifies to the world the unity and majesty of the British Empire. It fills the soul of all India with the joy of fulfilled aspiration. It is in no sense the calling of a mercenary horde to the assistance of our tottering power, but the admission of well-trying and proven comrades to the inner brotherhood of our militant order.

The magnificent proclamation of the King-Emperor, dignified, gracious, and inspired, rings like a trumpet blast through the mists of Prussian falsehood, awaking an echo in every Indian heart.

To those who know the East and have watched the steady growth of Japanese influence in the Western Pacific, the Japanese ultimatum gives no occasion for surprise.

In the first place Japan is under treaty obligations to this country, which she is perfectly willing, and indeed eager, to fulfil. It is provided that there must be no disturbance of the peace in Eastern waters without Japan coming in as our ally in war as in peace. Since Germany is in a state of war with Great Britain, the presence of any armed forces of Germany—whether naval or military—in the Pacific regions gives very good reason for Japanese intervention. To take measures “to remove the causes of all disturbance of peace in the Far East” is not only to act in accordance with the terms of the treaty of alliance, but also to safeguard Japanese and Chinese interests. Ostensibly it is unfair that European warfare should be waged in Asiatic waters or on Asiatic soil. The disturbance to the comity of nations Asiatic caused by the presence of forces of the belligerent powers on the China coast need not be endured by those nations if any one of them is strong enough to enforce her will on either of the Powers concerned. It is merely parallel to what would happen in similar circumstances on the Eastern Pacific or the Atlantic if the United States decided to act under their Monroe Doctrine.

But there is no doubt that Japan has other and more personal reasons which urge her to action against Germany. It is to German intervention that Japan, with much reason, attributes the snatching of Port Arthur out of her victorious grasp after the Chino-Japanese war. To Germany is debited the cost in blood and treasure of recovering that influence in Manchuria which Japan considers to be rightly hers. It is significant that the

Japanese ultimatum was worded almost precisely in the terms of Germany's notice to Japan over Port Arthur.

Further, any action taken against Germany is bound to be very popular with all classes in Japan. At the time of the Boxer troubles the military men noted, and have not forgotten, the contrast between the British and Prussian treatment of Asiatics. Even Japanese officers of position were exposed to the boorishness which seems inseparable from the Prussian attitude towards those considered inferior. At times the friction threatened to become serious, and British self-effacement in allowing a Prussian officer to be generalissimo of the combined forces occasioned surprise and a certain amount of adverse comment. The German interference with all Japan's schemes of finance has merely inspired the sublime Oriental patience of the Japanese, who are content to wait till the hour has struck for reprisals. That hour is now striking.

At the present moment the German navy may be ruled out as an effective world force. There is nothing in Pacific waters to cope with Japan's navy. At least three Dreadnoughts are immediately available with a due proportion of vessels of other types. Thus Japan has at comparatively trifling expense safeguarded the transport to Kiao-Chau of a force sufficiently large to effectively invest Tsing-Tao, the garrison of which cannot be more than about 3,000 men of all types. The Japanese are well aware of the rule that a blockade to be acknowledged must be effective, and have taken very vigorous steps to render it so. The whole territory leased by Germany from China will shortly pass out of German control, and ultimately be restored again to China. The Mikado's Government has with true instinct refrained from embarrassing us by any designs on Samoa, the Carolines, or New Guinea.

New Zealand has already annexed German Samoa and Australia has made a vigorous beginning in the archipelago off the coast of New Guinea. A German *pied-à-terre* so near the Australian coast has always been a source of disquietude to the island-continent. We have perhaps already forgotten that thirty years ago a vigorous Queensland administration did annex Papua, but the move was disowned by the British Colonial Office, and Australia has ever since lamented that ill-judged weakness.

Japan's action is striking evidence of the world-wide antagonism which Prussian aims and methods have aroused. The whole of Asia applauds the Mikado's prompt decision.

A. E. DUCHESNE.

JUDICIAL REFORM

SECOND ARTICLE

BY H. DOUGLAS GREGORY

IN a previous paper * I dealt with the question of circuit reform, one of importance in itself, but possessing special significance, in view of the fact that the present arrangement of Assizes has a two-fold effect on London work. It increases the congestion of business, and causes much difficulty in coping with the heavy trial list, the number of judges available being decreased by wasting time in the provinces.

The reforms previously mentioned are designed to check both these evils, and it is now necessary to see whether, in order to perfect this scheme of readjustment, any reorganisation is required in the disposition of the London business itself. In this article, therefore, my remarks will be mainly confined to the conduct of business in the King's Bench Division in London, although inevitably the discussion will in some respects embrace also the Assize system, the two departments being so interdependent.

I. ON EMPLOYMENT OF JURIES IN CIVIL CASES.

The first subject I propose to consider is that of juries in civil cases. Opponents of the present system urge that juries in civil actions are biassed, and that trials before a jury take longer than before a judge alone. Lord Sumner (formerly Mr. Justice Hamilton) gave important evidence before the Commission on this subject.

Like other judges, [he says] I have been often very much surprised at the acumen and the fairness of juries, but I do not think that for the bulk of actions they constitute a very convenient tribunal. I have had more experience in the Commercial Court than in other courts, where, though we had juries, they were infrequent. I have seen in earlier days the same kind of action tried with juries at Liverpool, and Liverpool juries were supposed to be for cases of that kind, as I have no doubt they were, as well equipped as any juries that could be found; but I have no doubt that for all cases of that class a jury is an inconvenient tribunal.

* See September No.

And he goes on to point out that the same is true as to all cases involving complicated questions of fact, and in which one has to ask the jury to decide one question before proceeding to another, and then to invite them to weigh a second or third question in different ways, according to the answer given to the first question or the second. He arrives at the conclusion that, if he were selecting a tribunal as a law-giver he would suggest that a jury was not an appropriate tribunal where no question of personal liberty was concerned or personal reputation at stake. As to matters of personal injuries, in his opinion these perhaps require special consideration.

But he adds it is undoubtedly the case that the jury, the constitutional popular tribunal, is a tribunal which should not be closed to the litigant unless the general sense of the public agreed that to be the best way of dealing with business. He is strongly of opinion that the public would not deprecate trying business questions, and questions about property, and mixed questions of figures and law, and so forth, by a judge alone. That he thinks would be the better tribunal, but he is loth to go further in the direction of restricting the right to a jury. By thus limiting trial by jury there is no doubt in Lord Sumner's mind that time would be saved; that costs would be saved; and he thinks appeals would also be saved; but, of course, as he very rightly says, the great thing is that the litigants themselves, with their friends and the public, should be satisfied.*

Lord Justice Swinfen Eady is also opposed to juries in actions other than libel, slander, and allied cases. The Chancery Division try several cases which might be entered in the King's Bench Division, and he argues from his experience as a Chancery Judge that cases can be more satisfactorily heard without the intervention of a jury.†

The Master of the Rolls (Lord Cozens-Hardy) gives valuable evidence:—

I should have thought from what I have seen in the Court of Appeal that there were a great number of cases which are now tried by a jury which certainly ought to be tried by a judge alone. To try before a jury a case involving a great pile of correspondence or many documents, which the jury cannot see and which they have no copy of, strikes me as almost hopeless. I never cease to admire the tact and ability of judges who succeed in putting the questions in an intelligible way before a jury in such cases.‡

As to the allocation of business between the Chancery and the King's Bench Divisions, he remarks:—That it is almost an accident whether an action involving allegation, say, of a fraudulent prospectus, is brought in the Chancery Division for rescission

* Questions 2803 and 2804.

† Questions 1330-1339.

‡ Question 518.

of a contract to take shares or is brought in the King's Bench Division before a jury. "A case in the Chancery Division involving charges of fraud is tried by a judge alone, but in the King's Bench it is almost certain to be tried before a judge and jury."* Finally, he agrees that juries are biassed—notably in personal injury claims, and in railway and carriers' cases.†

Lord Loreburn's evidence is of a similar nature :—

I think [he says] many cases, most cases, would be better tried by a judge. I will give you a mere physical reason. In the jury box the jurors have not a table and pen and ink before them. They have no paper. They cannot take a note. They cannot examine the documents, and many times the decision of a case turns upon collation and examination of documents. They have got merely to listen without the assistance and aid that the judge has by looking at the papers, and also there are undoubtedly certain classes of cases in which, although I am sure they mean to be honest, juries are very biassed—they are very much apt to be biassed—and I think, in short, if I were right, I should always like to have my case tried by a judge, if I were wrong I might like to have it tried by a jury.

As regards questions of personal character and fraud quite as many I should think are tried in the Court of Chancery by one judge, and with complete satisfaction to the mercantile community, as are tried before a jury. Limitation of right to a jury would, moreover, certainly shorten the duration of a trial, and give much more time; it would do better justice and give more expedition.‡

It will thus be seen that a strong body of distinguished legal opinion favours some curtailment of the right to a jury in civil actions, and I may mention that in addition to the witnesses quoted, Lord Haldane, Sir A. K. Rollit, Sir J. Macdonnell (Senior Master of the Supreme Court) and Master Chitty (of the Supreme Court) gave evidence of a similar character.

On the other hand, the opposite side of the case is presented by Mr. Justice Bankes, who attaches very great importance to the trial, not only of prisoners but of civil cases, by juries who know all the local conditions and the habits and dialects and very often the character of the parties and the witnesses who come before them.§ Mr. Justice Scrutton favours juries because a good many people prefer to have the judgment of twelve of their countrymen they understand to a judge they do not understand, || and Mr. Justice Shearman, after long experience, also trusts juries. When they go wrong their prejudices are healthy. But he adds, "Juries are unsatisfactory if they deal with questions they do not understand. There are a certain number of cases which, I think, one recognises when one comes across them which juries ought not to be allowed to try, and I have no objection to

* Question 522,

† Questions 4316 and 4318.

‡ Questions 519 and 523-525.

§ Questions 3765, 3766.

|| Question 3295.

giving the judge further powers to order the jury to be dispensed with."* Mr. Disturnal, K.C., holds a similar opinion.†

Lord Alverstone and Lord Justice Phillimore are undecided. Both apparently lean towards a retention of the present system, for the late Lord Chief Justice observes:—"It is a very large question to interfere with the right to trial by jury. . . . Trial without a jury is absolutely inapplicable to actions for libel, slander, and fraud."‡ And Lord Justice Phillimore tells us:—Except in a few cases, he does not find much mischief from juries; no doubt they make cases somewhat longer, but on the other hand perhaps they prevent judges from being too summary. But he adds he has no very decided view on the subject.§

The main reasons in favour of the jury system seem to be the value of local knowledge and the fact that the legal training of a judge may dispose him to be too summary—a defect not to be found in a jury. To illustrate this point, let me refer to one particular type of case. A personal injury is sustained by the plaintiff owing to the grave and almost criminal negligence of the defendant or his servants. The purely legal mind is apt to look only at the claimant's out-of-pocket expenses, and to regard the item "pain and suffering" as a minor matter, consequently awarding very limited damages in this respect. A jury, on the other hand, trying such a case will usually mark their displeasure at the grossly lax conduct of the defendant by returning substantial damages, and I fully agree that in an instance of this kind the prejudice is undoubtedly a "healthy" one.

Highly culpable negligence, in the interests of the public, requires branding, and the most effective way in which to do this is to inflict very heavy damages on the offender. In this class of case trial by judge alone might therefore not be so satisfactory as trial by judge and jury.

Local knowledge is undoubtedly in some cases a valuable asset, but viewing the subject broadly I am inclined to agree with the opinions expressed by those witnesses who wish to see the right to a jury in civil actions curtailed. The most serious charge against the modern jury is their bias, and there can be no doubt as to its existence. It is most difficult for either an insurance company or a motorist to get justice before a jury, frequently in these cases damages are vindictive and far in excess of what would be dictated by a mere "healthy prejudice."

Again, apart from those purely commercial cases tried by a judge alone in the Commercial Court, there are numerous actions involving highly intricate and technical questions with which a jury are not competent to deal. Take a case of collision between

* Questions 772-777.

† Questions 950-962.

‡ Questions 126, 127.

§ Question 1036.

two motor cars in which elaborate expert testimony is called as to the deduction to be drawn from certain indentations on either or both of the cars, and caused by the accident. If there is, as is usually the case, a complete divergence of evidence between the two sets of lay witnesses, the evidence of the professional witnesses may quite easily bewilder the jury, and the most confident of these experts will probably carry the day, although their side may quite possibly really be in the wrong. A judge, on the other hand, has far more experience in such cases—he sets a proper value on the expert evidence, and knows that it is frequently necessary to discount its apparent plausibility. Consequently an action of this description is far more equitably tried before a judge alone.

Expert evidence in jury cases is of course by no means confined to actions relating to motor car collisions. I simply mention this class of case as a typical illustration. Professional witnesses play an even more important part in claims arising, for instance, out of the explosion of a boiler or a gas engine. Experts are constantly to be found in the courts before juries, and these tribunals are most unsuitable for dealing with technical questions of this kind.

In fact, owing to the progress of science, modern life is far more complicated than the life of fifty years ago, and consequently there is a marked tendency for actions to be more intricate than they used to be. Thus whilst juries on the whole were competent to try the comparatively simple issues of fact arising in former times, this competence is no longer adequate for many of the questions coming before the courts for solution at the present day.

I consider, therefore, that the right to a jury in civil causes should be limited, and the Commission are evidently of the same opinion, for they remark :—

The Home Office Departmental Committee on Jury Law and Practice, presided over by Lord Mersey, reported this year by a majority of six to three (Joint Select Committee Report 6877 (Section 219–222)) “ that it would not only ease the burden of jury service, but also materially improve the administration of justice without inflicting any hardship on litigants, if in civil cases trial by jury were only allowed as of right either when both parties to a suit concur in demanding it, or in cases affecting personal character, such as actions for fraud, defamation, malicious prosecution, etc., when either party should be entitled to appeal to a jury. In all other cases it should be settled by the judge whether the particular action is one that calls for the assistance of a jury.” We have no doubt that the present system leads to an increased expenditure of time in the trial of civil actions and to the imposition upon jurors of a considerable burthen. It has also been argued with much force that the result of a trial with a jury is more uncertain than that of trial by a judge alone—that it is possible that the jurors may be biassed or even tampered with, while there is serious risk of disagreement which may lead to a new trial entailing very heavy expense.

There is also risk that the judge may misdirect the jury, in which case,

after an appeal with its attendant costs, there is a new trial at far greater expense than on the first trial. This question must be largely decided by considerations that are beyond the scope of our inquiry, but we trust the recommendation of the Departmental Committee may receive the early attention which in our opinion it deserves.*

The recommendations of Lord Mersey's Committee are cautious and moderate, and I certainly think they should be carried out.

RETIREMENT OF HIGH COURT JUDGES.

We come now to the question of the retirement of High Court judges. It has been suggested that judges should retire at a particular age. Thus, the Solicitor-General, in his evidence says :--

It is to my mind obvious that, for the most efficacious administration of justice, it is necessary to secure the services of the best men at the best period of their lives. At present, whenever a man is appointed, he cannot be removed, whatever his age, except by resolution of both Houses of Parliament; and this fact has in certain cases produced deplorable results. I am unwilling to mention names in this connection, but I can, if desired, give them.

In my experience I have known and actually practised before men sitting on the High Court Bench, one of whom was ninety, two of whom, through the infirmity of advancing years, were suffering from obvious mental decay; one was so deaf as to be unable without great difficulty either to hear the witnesses or counsel; and four whose age had materially impaired their powers. This number may seem slight in relation to the length of my experience and the number of judges,† but I have only taken marked and prominent cases. To my mind this number is sufficient to show the risk that arises through indefinite tenure of office. My own suggestion is that sixty-five years should be the limit of age for a judge in the Courts of First Instance, and seventy in the Superior Courts, with power to extend the period of service if necessary in any particular and special case.‡

Both Lord Loreburn and Lord Haldane favour a retiring age being fixed, the former regarding seventy as the proper age for both Judges of First Instance and Judges of Appeal,§ and the latter considering seventy-two "a very good age";|| whilst Sir D. Brynmor Jones, K.C., sees no objection to retirement at seventy, unless the judge be requested to continue, although he points out that "it is an extraordinary thing that many a judge at seventy is more competent than ever he was. However, the suggestion that he might be asked to continue" removes this objection.¶

There is, however, a strong volume of opposition to any proposals of this character. Thus, the witness I have just

* Report, pp. 25, 26, paragraph 46.

† Eight marked cases in thirty years.

‡ Question 2840.

§ Questions 4468-4478.

|| Questions 4648-4649, and 4907-4912.

¶ Question 2181.

quoted offers some pertinent remarks on the other side of the question :—

In my time [he says]—I was called in 1876—I have not known any case of a judge becoming inefficient simply because of his age. In the only cases which I can recollect the inefficiency was due to infirmities, which might occur quite as often in the forties or fifties as at a later period.* It should be observed in this connection that the reason why in the Civil Service a man of sixty is usually compulsorily retired is not on the assumed inefficiency through old age of the individual, but on its necessity for accelerating that reasonably swift flow of promotion without which the most competent recruits would not enter the service, and the efficient staffing of the service might be made impossible at the present scale of salaries.

Promotion in the judicial service of the Crown is practically never made (except from the High Court to the Court of Appeal or the House of Lords). Judges of the High Court are chosen invariably, or almost invariably, from among barristers who have, or have had, large or very considerable practices. Until the judicial service is organised on a settled plan I deprecate any hard-and-fast age limit for retirement. It would not secure the advantages it produces in an organised service, while it would deprive the Bench of the services of men who might be exceptionally competent and add to the expense of the establishment from a Treasury point of view.†

Mr. W. E. Harrison, K.C., assuming that the limit suggested would be sixty-five to seventy years, points out that this would deprive the Courts of the assistance of many experienced and efficient judges. He also very truly observes that it would have the effect of preventing the appointment of any judge over fifty to fifty-five years of age, and would largely increase the pension list. As to the possibility of continuing any particular judge on the expiration of the age limit, Mr. Harrison thinks any system of continuation of particular judges would be objectionable. It would, he adds, be a difficult jurisdiction to exercise, and he thinks considerable pressure might be put on the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Chief Justice, and the Master of the Rolls either to get a judge to retire or continue. †

The judges themselves, as perhaps might be expected, are entirely adverse to the proposal. Thus Lord Alverstone says :—

I should certainly not retire a judge as long as he can do his work. I am quite satisfied that the best years of the judges' lives in my lifetime have been the last ten years of their work. You want to learn to be a judge. It is astonishingly difficult; a man may be a great lawyer and yet not a great judge, and a man may be a poor lawyer and yet be an excellent judge. Judges are appointed much younger now than they used to be, but the great men I have known have done their best work between the ages of sixty-five and eighty, or certainly between sixty-five and seventy-five. §

* This remark deserves careful notice. Sir D. Brynmor Jones has had a rather longer legal career than Sir S. O. Buckmaster, but his experience appears to be rather the reverse of the latter's.

† Question 2128.

‡ Questions 1364-1367.

§ Question 122.

Again, Lord Sumner remarks :—

In my opinion the prestige of a great lawyer who has been long in the eye of the public and long enjoying the confidence of the profession is itself a public asset. I do not mean to say that there may not be colleagues or successors who would do his work quite as well, but the fact that there is some judge of great and growing repute whose dicta have almost the weight of judgment is of itself most important for the purpose of solving legal questions which have to be solved one way or the other. Often it does not very much matter which way, but for the purpose of solving these questions, the weight of authority of a person such as that is a public asset, which I am quite sure it is most undesirable to depreciate.*

I have a strong conviction that the test in judicial business is much more the capacity of the judge to do his work to the satisfaction of the public than his attaining a particular age. It is, perhaps, more a matter of conviction than of reason, but that is constantly the experience in a profession where the merit of the work consists in a certain point of view, in a certain poise, a certain independence, a certain trained ability to keep all the considerations both sides before your mind up to the point when it is time to strike; there experience continues to increase a man's faculties; whereas if he was put upon an administrative job he would no doubt be getting too old. †

For similar reasons, Lord Justice Phillimore, Lord Justice Swinfen Eady, Mr. Justice Channell, Mr. Justice Bankes, and Mr. Justice Scrutton all declare against any alteration of the present practice. It is, moreover, noticeable that several of these witnesses endorse the remark made by Mr. Harrison, K.C., as to the difficulty and invidiousness of the task which would be imposed upon the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Chief Justice, and the Master of the Rolls in deciding as to whether a particular judge should be requested to continue on the expiration of the age limit.

The great majority of the witnesses who gave evidence on the subject are opposed to an age limit, but the Commission consider that a judge of the King's Bench Division should be required to retire on attaining the age of seventy-two or after a prolonged absence from Court, unless he were requested to continue in office for a period to be named, by a Committee consisting of the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Chief Justice, and any person who has held the office of Lord Chancellor and continues to sit as a Lord of Appeal. A judge absent from the sittings of the Court for more than six months should be taken to have vacated his office.

This change should be accompanied by an alteration in the system of pensions to judges. At present, under Section 7 of the Judicature Act, 1873, the office of any judge of the High Court may be vacated by resignation; and by Section 14 of the same Act the Sovereign is enabled, by Letters Patent, to grant to any retiring judge who has served for fifteen years, or who is disabled by permanent infirmity from the performance of the duties of

* Question 2774.

† Question 2791.

his office, a pension by way of annuity for life of £3,500. Under this system, a judge who retires in good health after less than fifteen years' service can get no pension at all; while, on the other hand, a heavy charge is now imposed on the Consolidated Fund for full pensions to judges who have retired after very short service on the ground of ill-health.

The Commission do not wish to see judges appointed late in life; but it seems unfair to compel one who has been so appointed, to serve perhaps for some years beyond a reasonable age for retirement before he can obtain any pension; unfair to the Lord Chancellor, to limit his choice of judges to men below a certain age; and unfair to the taxpayer, that in this department of the State alone permanent infirmity should entitle a person, irrespective of his length of service, to the same pension as that to which he would have been entitled had he served the full term. The judges compelled to retire by ill-health or by the age limit should only receive pensions in proportion to the length of time they have served, on the following scale: after five years' service, or less, £1,500 with a further £200 a year for each completed year, when the maximum of £3,500 should be reached.

The saving effected by this change in the opinion of the Commission should be devoted towards providing pensions on voluntary retirement after a service of ten years on conditions which it is believed would remove the want of a reserve of judicial power, which is now so great an obstacle to business-like methods in the administration of justice. Judges should be allowed after ten years' service to retire on a pension of £2,500, increasing by £200 a year for each completed year's service up to fifteen, when the maximum of £3,500 would be reached, on the condition that, if called upon to do so, they will serve in London or on circuit during such a period as will make up the full fifteen years from the date of their appointment. Any retired judge so serving should receive such a sum as, with his pension, will secure to him remuneration at £5,000 a year during the time he is so serving, together with remuneration at £400 a year for a clerk for the same period, and, if he goes circuit, the usual circuit allowance.

All retired judges should be supernumerary judges of the High Court and eligible without further appointment, at the request of the Lord Chancellor, to sit either in London or on circuit, but should not be obliged to sit if they have served for fifteen years on the Bench, or been obliged to retire on the ground of ill-health or on reaching the age of seventy-two.

Even two or three retired judges available in times of pressure would prevent the accumulation of arrears which are not only bad in themselves, but lead inevitably to further arrears, and

would also prevent recurrent applications to Parliament for an increase in the number of judges.*

Personally I do not agree with the proposal of an age limit for judges of the King's Bench Division. The argument in favour of the innovation seems wholly to be that because there have been a few instances of judges remaining in office after they have ceased to be mentally or physically fit for the work, therefore, save in exceptional cases, all judges should retire on attaining the age of seventy-two. That is the burden of Sir Stanley Buckmaster's evidence, and it is noteworthy that he is really the only witness in favour of the suggestion who gives any express reason for his convictions. Neither Lord Haldane nor Lord Loreburn—the other two strong protagonists of the reform—explain their attitude; they merely state their adherence to the proposition.

On that evidence the Commission have seen fit to advise this very important change. Apparently, under this scheme, only a judge of very exceptional ability would be requested to retain office after reaching the age of seventy-two. Now many a judge at seventy-two is an efficient and experienced member of the Court—a judge of sound and reliable attainments—although he is not a lawyer of exceptional brilliance. He is merely a lawyer of average capacity, but none the less, without towering above his colleagues, is a useful and thoroughly satisfactory member of the Bench.

As I read the evidence and the Report such a man would, under this system, retire compulsorily at seventy-two. Because he is not of outstanding eminence, therefore he must go. I venture to think that a regulation of this kind would be productive of grave loss to the judicial service of the country. As Lord Alverstone truly remarked: "You want to learn to be a judge. It is astonishingly difficult." Further, in his experience, the great men have done their best work between the ages of sixty-five and eighty, or certainly between sixty-five and seventy-five. Again, Lord Sumner emphasised the value attaching to veteran knowledge and prestige. But, under this proposal, we are to sacrifice a man of tried worth, a man still physically and mentally fit, and in his room to appoint a younger man, who, whatever his legal attainments, is without that knowledge and prestige, and will take time to acquire these valuable properties.

If, on the other hand, only those judges who have proved incapable, or are manifestly physically or mentally unfit, are to be requested to resign at the age of seventy-two, it seems to me

* Report, pp. 40-41, paragraphs 64 and 65. The limits imposed by the inquiry precluded the Commission from considering whether a similar scheme should be applied to judges of the Chancery or Probate Divisions or of the Court of Appeal.

that a most invidious—in fact, an impossible task is being imposed on the suggested Committee. For such judges are in a very small minority, and the step will have therefore such a stigma attaching to it that it will be a cruel and inhuman course to adopt—cruel to the victim, and cruel also to the members of the Committee.

These cases of incapacity are few and far between, and they constitute, in my opinion, the price we must pay for the inestimable advantages of long experience and sound learning. When we remember the services rendered by such veterans as the late Lord Brampton (Mr. Justice Hawkins),* the late Lord Macnaghten, who died in Lancashire at the age of eighty-two, Lord Halsbury (now eighty-eight), Lord Cozens-Hardy (now seventy-six), Lord Justice Vaughan Williams (now seventy-five), we shall hesitate, I think, to inaugurate a system which may seriously interfere with the prospects of retaining judges, old in years, but reliable and of tried and proved capacity.

But whilst I disapprove of this particular recommendation, the proposal as to a revision of the pension scheme is excellent. The reasons advanced in the Report for such an alteration are of considerable weight. As the Commission justly remark, the provision of a judicial reserve would be most valuable for dealing with those sudden times of pressure which, under present arrangements, lead to an unwieldy accumulation of arrears. This reform is suggested as a corollary to the scheme of an age limit, but it, of course, in no way depends on the latter, and could quite satisfactorily be enforced separately.

III. CIVIL ACTIONS IN LONDON COURTS.

I will now briefly refer to the present procedure in regard to civil actions in the London Courts. Several judges in their evidence mentioned the extreme confusion in the existing arrangements, and the consequent inconvenience and delay to suitors, witnesses, and jurymen. This confusion seems to be due to the lack of continuity in the judges' work. It is never known when a judge is going to sit, or when he will be called away to take the place of someone else.† There is absolutely no definite programme of work for each individual judge. The same judge will intermittently during one Sittings be going circuit, taking jury and non-jury cases in London, and assisting in the Divisional Court or the Court of Criminal Appeal. If a judge is taken ill on circuit one of his colleagues will be sent from

* Eighty-one when he retired from the Bench; and he took a prominent part in the judicial work of the House of Lords for some years afterwards.

† Mr. Justice Rowlatt. Question 3491.

London to relieve him, to the detriment of the work being performed at the moment by the latter.

The chaos existing can be illustrated by the actual record of the Hilary Sittings, 1913. "At some time or other during the Sittings eight judges dealt with the Special Jury list, ten judges with the Common Jury list, seven judges with the Non-Jury list, while thirteen judges at one time or another sat in the Divisional Court or in the Court of Criminal Appeal."* Naturally so flagrant a want of system must lead to a great waste of time, and, therefore, contribute to the present congestion.

The judges are unanimous in their desire for a regular and orderly arrangement of work, and the experience of the Chancery Division and of the Commercial Court tends to show that this ideal is not impossible of achievement. "The witness actions in the Chancery Division are now placed in three separate lists, and are tried by three judges of that Division, each of whom disposes of a list, sitting continuously throughout the Sittings without interruption, never being taken off his work for the performance of other duties. Lord Justice Swinfen Eady said the great advantage of the Chancery system is continuity of business, especially as to witness actions,"† and in that assertion he was supported by the evidence of the Lord Chancellor and the Master of the Rolls.

This satisfactory system has also been followed in the King's Bench Division by the allocation of a special list of Commercial Causes to a specially appointed judge for the Commercial Court, who is never diverted from his special work so long as there are cases to try. The result has been quite satisfactory to everyone. It has in its way effected a great reform and is beneficial to suitors. ‡

The work of the King's Bench Division cannot of course be precisely compared with the work of the Chancery Division or of the Commercial Court—the demands on the time of the judges are more numerous and more distracting; the circuit system alone is apt to introduce an element of uncertainty. But the judges are of opinion that it should be possible to introduce the Chancery system in modified form into the practice of the King's Bench Courts, and the Commission share this view. It is recommended, therefore, that

A printed list for each class of work should be issued, containing all matters entered up to one week before the commencement of the sittings. No further list should be issued till that list is nearly exhausted. The list should show the work to be done daily during the sittings and the names of

* Report, p. 31, paragraph 50.

† Report, p. 29, paragraph 49.

‡ Report, p. 29, paragraph 49.

the judges who will deal with it; power being reserved to order Special Courts to sit for such matters of extreme urgency as occasionally arise; and in normal circumstances there should be no departure from this arrangement.

Judges should be assigned to definite lists for a sittings at least. One judge should be put in charge of each of the special, common, and non-jury lists and should remain in town throughout the sittings. He should be responsible for his list, should take all applications relating to it, and should, as far as possible, decide what cases shall be in the list for hearing each day. All cases in a list for any day should be liable to be taken in any Court taking that list. It should be stated before the commencement of each week that cases beyond a certain number would not be taken during the coming week.

There should be attached to the judge in charge two other judges selected according to the time they go to and return from their Circuits, one of whom should always be available to assist the judge in charge of the list, so that there would always be at least two judges available for such list. In addition there would be required a judge in Chambers and a Commercial Court Judge, each of whom should act in that capacity for at least half the sittings or for the whole if possible. This would leave, on the basis of a permanent staff of eighteen, seven judges available for the Divisional Court work, the Court of Criminal Appeal, the different Special Lists, Bankruptcy, etc., and the Central Criminal Court.*

If a judge were taken ill his place should not be taken by a judge to whom other work had been allotted; a supernumerary judge (or commissioner if the illness be on circuit) should be called in for the purpose. Each list should bear its own misfortunes as is the case in the Chancery Courts. One or more of the seven judges could assist as required with the witness actions after provision has been made for the due constitution of the Divisional Courts and the other Courts for dealing with matters which have to be specially arranged for. †

This seems an excellent scheme of reform, and it should probably be effective, as it is based upon experience, and is moreover largely similar to proposals made by some of the King's Bench Judges themselves. It would involve a small increase in the number of the judges in the Division, but this is a minor consideration, and the necessity for such an increase has been emphasised by several legal witnesses. The provision of a reserve judicial force is of course an integral part of this proposed system, and thus the reform advocated in the pension scheme becomes of very considerable importance, since this reform would

* I should mention that whereas at the present time the Divisional Court is always composed of three judges the Commission propose that the Court "should be constituted of only two judges in all cases where there is an appeal from it, except on appeals from County Courts which should be heard by one judge, an appeal being allowed from him (without leave) only if he differed from the County Court Judge. Power should be reserved to constitute Courts of more than two judges in cases of special importance." (Report, p. 44, paragraph 67 (19)). Further, "proceedings relating to the assessment to or recovery of death duties should be transferred to the Chancery Division." (Report, p. 44, paragraph 67 (21)). These alterations in procedure would somewhat relieve the work in so far as Divisional Court and Revenue cases are concerned, and probably, therefore, seven judges would normally be adequate to deal with this subsidiary business.

† Report, pp. 32-33, paragraph 52.

probably, as I previously remarked, secure the reserve which is so essential.

Obviously the withdrawal of a judge from his own duties to relieve a colleague who has been taken ill would break down the regular operation of the suggested procedure, and this contingency is guarded against by the employment under such circumstances of those supernumerary judges who would probably be rendered available under the revised pension rules, and, in the case of Assizes, of commissioners. Doubtless, even for the circuit work under such an emergency, it would be possible sometimes to send a supernumerary judge rather than a commissioner, and this, in my opinion, should be done wherever feasible, as the employment of the latter is not popular; there is not the same prestige as in the case of a judge, however eminent a barrister the substitute may be. These proposals have evidently been carefully thought out, and should do much to remedy chaos in the London Courts.

One final reform in this direction would, however, seem necessary. Judges of the King's Bench Division at present are frequently diverted from their own duties to assist the Court of Appeal or the Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division. This naturally increases the existing disorganisation of King's Bench business, and the Commission, realising this fact, very properly remark:—

It may be occasionally imperative that this assistance should be given, but we are strongly of opinion that the work of the King's Bench ought not to be delayed by the judges of that Division being taken away for other duties, and it is only in very exceptional circumstances that the Lord Chief Justice should agree to their being taken to assist other Divisions. We anticipate that the passing of the Appellate Jurisdiction Act, which will enable Lords of Appeal in Ordinary to sit in the Court of Appeal and increase their number, will result in the judges of the King's Bench Division being relieved from sitting in the Court of Appeal, and we think that if the state of business in the Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division is such that it cannot be dealt with by the present staff, other arrangements should be made to enable that Division to cope with its work without calling on the judges of the King's Bench Division for assistance.*

It is highly desirable that this advice should be followed, as the existing practice certainly increases confusion, and will seriously interfere with the successful application of the scheme of reorganisation which is recommended. Evidence has been accumulating of late months as to the growth of arrears in the Court of Appeal, and it would seem as though the presence of three additional Lords Justices may be required in order to deal effectively with the work. However that may be, it is most imperative that the efficiency of the other Divisions should not be

* Report, p. 24, paragraph 44.

imperilled by the temporary withdrawal of some of their judges from their ordinary duties to render the necessary assistance.*

These various suggested reforms in the circuit system of the country and in the arrangement of the London work are calculated to introduce regularity and efficiency into an organisation which at the present day is in many respects seriously defective, and consequently productive of much delay and inconvenience. I have in the space at my disposal only been able to review certain of the most interesting and important features of the Evidence and of the Report. Several far-reaching and technical changes in respect to procedure have also been advocated by the Commission; they form a corollary to the main proposals, which I have discussed. The Report deals comprehensively and effectively with a big problem, the urgency of which has grown considerably of late years. The proposals have now been before Parliament for several months, but not the slightest indication has been made that any action will be taken. Apparently the Report, exhaustive and valuable though it is, has been consigned to the scrap-heap as so much waste paper. The evils revealed, however, are widespread, and unless rectified will doubtless continue to grow. It is time therefore that active consideration should be given to the whole subject, and that definite and comprehensive steps towards reform should be taken.†

* In point of fact at present the King's Bench is the only Division from which judges are temporarily *withdrawn* to assist the Court of Appeal, for the President of the Probate Division is by right a permanent *ex officio* member of the superior Court.

† Since this article was in type war has broken out, and it is, of course, obvious that Parliament cannot legislate on this subject whilst hostilities are raging, but it is to be hoped that the whole question will be given early attention on the restoration of peace.

H. DOUGLAS GREGORY.

CANADA AND BRITISH MAGAZINES

SUGGESTED RAISING OF THE POSTAL RATES

By D. A. E. VEAL

THE agreement by which British newspapers, magazines and trade journals sent from the United Kingdom to Canada are able to secure preferential rates has been extended until December 31 next. The cause that brought about the arrangement in the first instance was the wider circulation of American than British periodicals in Canada. It was considered advisable to give some special encouragement to the latter, to compensate for the advantage of proximity which American magazines and newspapers enjoyed over British.

The postal rate for magazines is now only a penny a pound. The whole of this penny goes to the Imperial Government, nothing to the Canadian for handling and delivering the publications. This caused Canada to complain, and the answer of the British Government was a proposal to raise the postal rate for magazines to Canada, the suggestion being that the Post Office should charge a penny for every half-pound with a minimum charge of $1\frac{1}{2}d.$, and the suggestion is still the subject of negotiation between the Home and Colonial Governments. If a decision to raise the postal rate is reached, it cannot but be a matter for regret to all who have the cause of the Empire at heart. For the agreement cannot be accused of failing in its object, if that object was to encourage the circulation of British periodicals in Canada. The *Times* Canadian correspondent writes:—"The figures show how greatly the lower rates have aided the circulation of British periodicals in the Dominion. Is it not certain that higher rates will lead to a proportionate reduction?"

The question of Canadian postal rates affords an opportunity of reviewing the greater question of Canada's relations to the Empire with which it is so closely connected. These have now reached a very critical stage in their development. The period through which we are now passing is that in which it is probable that their final character will be settled and determined. Careless

handling will vitally affect the whole structure and future of the Empire.

The circumstances of Canada tend to draw her from the Empire to the United States. There are two principal centrifugal forces. First we have what Burke calls "the immutable condition, the eternal Law, of extensive and detached Empire," the disintegrating effect of distance. "In large bodies," he says, "the circulation of power must be less vigorous at the extremities." Secondly, there is the democratic spirit generally so strong among colonials. These associate with the Old Country such institutions as an Established Church, hereditary Second Chamber, feudal privileges, social distinctions. When they emigrated they repudiated all these things, and their attitude towards them is the aggressively hostile one of the religious or political convert towards the creed or party which he has renounced. This democratic spirit is also extremely jealous of the autonomy of the countries where it is prevalent, and hangs back from schemes of Imperial Union, suspecting that they may be plots to subject the colonies to the authority of the mother country.

I will now proceed to show how Canada is situated with respect to the United States and the Empire respectively. Canada has in common with the first all that she has in common with the second, blood, traditions, faith, language, spirit, ideals. But the force of community in these is not her only force of attraction to the United States. To begin with there is that of geographical proximity. No natural boundary, no three thousand miles of ocean separates Canada from her southern neighbour. In the States the former's aggressive spirit of democracy meets with hearty sympathy. Community in thought and sentiment draws them together and other circumstances co-operate with them. The Dominion does more trade with the Federal Republic than with any other nation under heaven; her sons imitate the Yankees in sports and attend labour and trade union gatherings at their centres, which are in American cities. There is, moreover, a very considerable American leaven in the Canadian lump. In some provinces, the prairie provinces in particular, the American element is the predominant one. American publications are more widely read in the Dominion than those of any other nation. The Americanisation of Canada is the almost inevitable result of geographical proximity. The American newspapers, which Canadians so largely read, naturally give a great deal more space to events of American than British interest. For instance, lately, they have been giving columns to the Mexican affair and only a few lines to the Home Rule Question. The newspaper reader is a lazy reader who mechanically reads what attracts his eyes in

big type, and the questions in which men are most interested are naturally those of which they have read most; so there is a fear that Canadians may become more interested in American than British politics.

Up to the present time Canadian loyalty has stood its exposure to all the adverse influences detailed above. That it should have done so at first sight appears to be a matter for some wonder. The Americans cannot understand it; for they have always regarded the country to the north as the heir of an entailed estate regards the property that must one day be his. It is somewhat difficult to fully understand what has kept them apart. One cause has been the strength of loyalty in the British section of the population, a number of whom are descendants of the United Empire Loyalists who stood by Britain in the War of Independence. Another cause has been the antipathy to America that is so strong in the French section, who have adhered to Britain as the one protector sufficiently powerful to save them from incorporation in the Federal Republic. The policy which the States have pursued towards the Dominion has not been calculated to improve the relations between them; and the offensive airs of ownership that they have assumed have been much resented. So in all controversies in which Britain and America have taken opposite sides Canada has invariably sided with Britain. There is a feud of many years' standing which time has kept open between the two great British States in North America.

But it is not safe to found predictions of Canada's future on what has been her character in the past. Within the last decade an event has been taking place which may transform the nation into one entirely new, one in which the old French and British elements no longer predominate. This event is the great immigration. Every year immigrants, generally representative of all nationalities, are pouring into Canada in their hundreds of thousands. According to the last census the total population of Canada was 7,206,643. Of these 1,823,150 were English, 1,050,384 Irish, and 997,880 Scots. Of French they had 2,054,890, and of Germans 393,320. They had also 129,103 Austro-Hungarians, 9,503 Belgians, 5,875 Bulgarians and Rumanians, 54,896 Dutch, 3,594 Greeks, 2,342 Hindus, 9,021 Japanese, 27,774 Chinese, 45,411 Italians, 75,681 Jews, 33,365 Poles, 43,142 Russians, 107,533 Scandinavians, 6,625 Swiss, and 185,032 of doubtful or undiscovered relationship. As a tree that has been successfully grafted takes the nature, fruit, and name of the graft which, and not the original stock, it resembles in all things, so it may happen that Canadian thought and sentiment may be finally shaped and determined by the influence of the alien immigrants. A new nation may arise, one that no more

resembles the old than the Saxon settlers in Britain in the fifth century resembled the ancient Britons whom they had dispossessed.

But it is certain that the British will be a strong if not a predominant element in the new Canada. The nation is now passing through a period of great importance in the formation of its character, and when much depends on the influences brought to bear upon it. In these circumstances it is not wise to neglect any instrument, however apparently insignificant, that helps to attach Canada to the Mother country. One means to this end is the circulation of British periodicals in the colony. To raise the postal rates the British Government would be taking a course unprecedented and undemocratic as well as anti-Imperialist. Alas! the conduct of Imperial affairs by the Government now in office has not been such as to suggest that the last consideration has much weight with them. It causes one to fear that Tennyson boasted too soon:—

“ Never more,
Careless of our growing kin,
Shall we sin our father's sin?
Men that in a narrower day—
Unprophetic rulers they—
Drove from out the mother's nest
That young eagle of the West
To forage for herself alone.
Britons, hold your own.”

D. A. E. VEAL.

THE CHINESE IN THE MALAY PENINSULA

By J. A. SHEARWOOD

(Advocate and Solicitor of the Straits Settlements)

PROBABLY nowhere in the world have the Chinese a better time than in the colony of the Straits Settlements and the adjoining Malay States. In the United States and in Australia the evils of competition caused by Chinese cheap labour have attracted Government attention, and their immigration to those countries has been discouraged, but to the Malay States they have always been welcomed, with the result that they occupy a prominent position in almost every branch of industry.

The Chinese were first drawn to Malaya by the discovery of tin, and some of these immigrants or their children who came as coolies are now wealthy and prosperous. Many possess extensive sugar estates and are the owners of mines in Perak and Selangor. They run the Straits opium and liquor farms and supply the lion's share of the revenue. In return we give them honest rule, treating them on an equality with Europeans and allow them a small representation in the Legislative and Municipal Councils. We have had at times instances of eleemosynary munificence from them. One rich Towkey, Chean Eok, erected a clock tower at Penang in commemoration of the 1897 Jubilee. Another offered to supply the whole funds necessary to establish a Pasteur Institute at Selangor. This would have been a great boon as rabies breaks out at times, and Saigon and Batavia, the nearest places where Institutes exist, are a week's journey from Malaya. But for some reason or another the proposal was not accepted. The Chinaman's generosity, however, remains a fact.

In numbers the Chinese preponderate over the original inhabitants of the peninsula, the Malays, and industrially there is no comparison between them. The Malays are indolent and content with going on as their fathers did before them; the only occupations which attract them are to be syces * or petty

* Fishermen.

cultivators of land. Occasionally one finds them in service as "boys" * (there are no female attendants in Malaya), but most menial offices they consider beneath their dignity. On the other hand, the Chinese will undertake anything. The lower classes are coolies on the estates, some indentured, some working as free coolies, others become rickisha men, of these there are probably over twenty thousand. Most remain coolies, but many rise. The first step up the ladder is to become a petty shopkeeper. The Chinaman takes the name of some "chop," an expression signifying a firm or an association. The name of the chop is not usually that of the partners, or when there is only one, which is usually the case, of the proprietor, but some fancy name is chosen. If the trade is successful the business extends and the proprietor or partners, as the case may be, become well-to-do. If it fails, owing to the device of taking a fancy name, it is often difficult to discover the real debtors, though a law is now in contemplation for the registration of partnerships.

The Chinese trader is daring and speculative and shrewd in his forecast as to matters touching trade. He is also a clever calculator, though his methods of reckoning differ from the European systems. Every European banking house employs Chinese as "shroffs," that is for managing Chinese accounts; they are useful as clerks in Government offices and in private firms. In short, there is no industrial department in which the Chinaman is not to be seen in some capacity or another.

Chinese immigration continues to increase. Every month thousands arrive from China to be employed on the mines, though many elude their engagements, which are made for them by headmen in China, and turn rickisha men. The jin-rickisha is a favourite mode of conveyance amongst the Asiatics, and to a great extent amongst Europeans, being convenient and economical. The rickisha men are cheerful and willing, content with their legal fare and have some humour in a childish way. Their charges are regulated by authority, averaging less than twopence a mile in English money, or rather in English reckoning, for they are paid in cents, the local currency being dollars and cents. They run fairly fast, keeping up with the garries, that is, the one-horse vehicles. The distance they can trot is amazing; often they will go ten miles without a break, and with a tropical sun overhead; but it is said their lives are generally short. The majority are men of poor physique, except about the legs, which are muscular owing to incessant exercise.

The industry of the Chinaman is indeed remarkable; at earliest dawn he may be seen at work, and he continues to labour till late into the night, when the Malays and other Oriental races

* Footmen.

are sleeping. But this energy is only called into play when the Chinaman is working for himself; if in the employ of others, he does not do more than is necessary.

It cannot be said that the Chinaman is by nature straightforward or honest, yet in spite of this defect he is by no means an unsatisfactory person with whom to have business dealings. He has the sense to recognise that honesty is the best policy, and bears trade losses with considerable equanimity; indeed, when an embarrassed man has to deal with his creditors with a view to a compromise, he will find the Chinese firms the most considerate of any of them. It is when he is employed as a shroff at a bank or some other position of trust that the lack of commercial morality displays itself. For instance, now and then one hears of a shroff who has conducted himself properly for years suddenly bolting with a large sum of money and everybody being surprised. It is because the opportunity has never before presented itself.

The Chinaman who really gets on not infrequently settles in his adopted country. His children are styled "Straits-born," and in many cases they do not even know their own language; they enjoy more personal freedom and property security than they would do in their native land, and there is no inducement for them to return. Coolies, however, as a rule, do not stop; as soon as they have made a little money they return to the families which, in most cases, they have left behind. The same with the Klings, that is, the immigrants from Southern India; and with the Chitties or native money-lenders, all these return as speedily as they can. The Chitties usually keep a firm or firm's name permanently in the Straits, but different members relieve one another in the management, each stopping about two or three years.

In spite of all that has been said against the Chinaman on account of his immoralities and habits abnormal to European instincts, it is only right to say that under a firm and just government, where his secret treasonable societies are resolutely suppressed and his industry encouraged, he makes a fairly satisfactory citizen, and contributes no mean share towards the growth and commercial prosperity of the community.

J. A. SHEARWOOD.

SIDELIGHTS ON COLONIAL LIFE

"Business as Usual."

While Canada is sending her sons to fight the Empire's battles on the plains of France and Belgium she is also concentrating attention on matters that will concern not merely herself and the Empire, but the whole world later on. She is thinking of the ruined harvest in Europe and of the crops for next year's harvest that cannot be sown and she is preparing to put every acre possible under crop. There will be a market for all she can grow, prices will be good and the impetus to agriculture for which the war has been responsible will do much towards attracting back to the land many, who, as in England, had deserted it for towns and cities. Similarly in regard to her industries, Canada is determined that the motto shall be "Business as usual," as is exemplified in the announcement that the Postmaster-General has issued instructions for the resumption of money order business between Canada and Great Britain, though as yet on a somewhat modified basis. Only by keeping the wheels going round at home and the industrial machinery in good working order can any country withstand a prolonged war of the dimensions of that now in progress in Europe.

No Financial Stringency.

That the Canadian Government should be in such a sound financial position at this time is particularly fortunate. There are ample funds to meet the emergency, continue construction of public works and provide an adequate relief fund for any deserving cases that may require it. Reports which have been circulated to the effect that the gold reserve will be used to meet necessary and emergency expenditure are entirely without foundation and are extremely misleading. They tend to create a nervous feeling in financial circles for which there is no justification. Canada's reserves will remain unimpaired, and every justifiable call on the Treasury will be met. There will be no cessation of public works construction. There will be adequate assistance for settlers, and every necessary aid to the Empire will be forthcoming without straining the financial resources of

the Dominion, or affecting the financial position of the Government.

Defence of Canada.

As a result of a mass meeting held at Winnipeg, two requests have been forwarded to the Dominion Government. The first was that, in order to have a sufficient number of trained men available to meet whatever calls will have to be made for volunteers to serve abroad and to perform whatever duties may be necessary for the defence of Canada, the Government should proceed at once with the organisation, recruiting, equipping and training of an additional force of 100,000 men. The second request is that the Royal North-West Mounted Police force should be raised to 3,000 for service between the Great Lakes and the Pacific. Recent events have disclosed the necessity for watchfulness and readiness at home, particularly in view of the withdrawal from the Dominion of so many units of her army for service in Europe.

Canada's Frontiersmen.

Despite the fact that many of their members have left for active service with some of the local military units, the Legion of Frontiersmen of Winnipeg are steadily drilling and preparing for the call to arms. The Legion of Frontiersmen is composed of older men than those who, as a rule, are members of the active militia. The local organisation has been in existence in Winnipeg for two years, and previous to the outbreak of war was one hundred strong and thoroughly drilled. The organisation is divided into two divisions, one being men who are able to volunteer for active service, the other, men who are not in a position to leave the country but are ready at a moment's notice to turn out for home defence. The corps is a self-supporting one, the men furnishing their own uniforms and equipment, and in time of service, when they are a mounted corps, their own horses. Many of the members of the Legion of Frontiersmen throughout Western Canada have joined the Princess Patricia Light Infantry. They have opened a recruiting office in Winnipeg, and as the organisation is recognised by the War Office they are hoping for an early call to arms. The Legion of Frontiersmen originated in "Driscoll's Scouts," who played such an important part in the South African campaign.

Canada's Naval Volunteers.

Although the Canadian Naval Service Volunteers have been in existence as a national auxiliary only a few months, they have already proved their capacity for supplying material assistance to

Canada and the Empire in time of war. The naval volunteers on the Pacific coast have been doing splendid work and the Naval Service Department speaks in highly complimentary terms of their performances. The Quebec naval volunteers are being utilised for examination service and patrol work around the docks, while others are doing duty at Halifax.

Contributions in Kind.

The Province of Ontario has given 250,000 bags of flour to Great Britain. The flour is offered on the same conditions as the Dominion's gift of 1,000,000 bags, a considerable portion of which has already arrived in England. The value of Ontario's contribution is over £100,000, which, combined with the Dominion's gift, makes the total nearly £600,000 for flour alone. Arrangements have been practically completed for the purchase and transfer of Quebec's gift of 4,000,000 pounds of cheese. Prince Edward Island's offer of 100,000 bushels of oats has been accepted by the Imperial Government, and will be forwarded immediately. Saskatchewan's gift of 1,500 horses is one of the most practical and most useful so far recorded.

Prince Edward Island.

Prince Edward Island, in common with the rest of Canada, has readily responded to the call of duty. She has sent 140 men to guard the mines at Sydney and the cable at Canso. She has also sent a Field Ambulance Corps, amounting to about 70 men in all, to Quebec to serve as a permanent hospital until further orders. About 50 men have been contributed to the Canadian Overseas Contingent, including infantry, signallers and ambulance corps, while a number of artillerymen are awaiting orders. The ladies of the island have also been busy and have already collected nearly £900 towards the Canadian Hospital Ship. A Red Cross Society has also been organised. Thus every part of the Dominion is bearing its share of the burthen, and the women of Canada are as active and as determined as the men.

Ontario Sugar.

The suspension of imports of beet sugar from Germany and Austria, from which countries Great Britain receives a great deal of her supplies, will undoubtedly give a further impetus to the beet-growing industry in Ontario, which is already of very large proportions. Of recent years the farmers of the province have been encouraged to cultivate the beet, which provides a sure and profitable crop, and no less important, maintains the soil in excellent condition. In ten years the acreage devoted to beet-growing has increased twenty times, and the sugar factories have

increased proportionately. Farmers have learned that the beet is the most profitable crop they can produce. It is interesting to recall that Napoleon was the first man of prominence to recognise its value as a soil improver. At the beginning of the nineteenth century the soils of Europe had reached their lowest point of production in their history. Napoleon instructed his scientists to find a remedy, and they reported that it lay in the scientific cultivation of sugar beets. He then issued a decree that all importations of sugar were to be absolutely prohibited, that 79,000 acres should be planted in beets the following year, the acreage to be parcelled out among the farmers; 300 factories were to be built under Government control, and the crop to be delivered to these factories at a price dictated by the State. Several hundred students, then at the universities, were to study the scientific cultivation of the sugar beet and the manufacture of sugar from the root.

Fruit-growing in Manitoba.

The site chosen by the Provincial Minister of Agriculture, Mr. Lawrence, in order to demonstrate the suitability of that province for the cultivation of fruit, has been amply justified by results. The orchards at Killarney have been loaded with fruit this season. Plums, equal in appearance and taste to the best grown elsewhere, have had a wonderful yield, while apples of different varieties have been abundant. Mr. Lawrence's demonstration farm will be of great value in determining the best varieties of fruit to grow and also in other respects as a guide and model for local fruit farmers to follow. It will also be of service in obtaining successful settings to enlarge the present orchard area of the province. Manitoba thus proves its capabilities not merely as a wheat-growing province and as a land for mixed farming but also as a land of orchards.

A Million-Bushel Elevator.

The first unit of what is eventually to be a million-bushel terminal grain elevator is to be constructed in Fort William without delay. This unit will be of 100,000 bushels capacity and is to be equipped with the latest model of cleaning and drying machinery. The new terminal elevator will be used in connection with the line of interior elevators recently purchased by the N. M. Patterson Elevator Company, and will permit of direct handling and quick despatch, items of importance in the annual grain rush to the Lake ports. During the past three months the movement of grain, for this time of year, has been phenomenally large, between $1\frac{1}{2}$ and two million bushels of grain moving eastward each week. Shipments still continue to be large,

1,772,035 bushels being received in one week. Owing to the war, it has been considered necessary to guard the terminal elevators and docks of the twin cities (Port Arthur and Fort William) at the head of the great lakes. This is being done by the local corps, the 96th Lake Superior Regiment.

Ontario's Prosperous Fruit Sections.

In Ontario every branch of fruit-growing is prospering to a degree never known before. The south-east or Niagara Peninsula still holds the banner in the growing of tender fruit, such as peaches, grapes and cherries, with enormous production and great success. Essex County, South-West, grows peaches to perfection, and small fortunes are made annually. But it is a mistaken view that Niagara and Essex are the only districts that grow peaches commercially with profit. Norfolk County and other parts in the South are gaining wide distinction. This county has a large acreage, and all along the shores of Lake Erie some excellent orchards are to be found. Lambton County, on the shore of Lake Huron, is laying a foundation not excelled by any other part of the province; it has at least 250,000 trees of various ages in commercial orchards, and is fast coming to the front, and sections as yet little known will soon be in close competition with the old-established districts, particularly in the markets of Western Ontario. There is still much to be learned before the growers as a whole can hope to equal the best of the province, nevertheless there is progress, and the peach industry of Ontario has a great future. In the Georgian Bay district there is a great revival in the care and scientific treatment of apple orchards, and the output is increasing fast. The Eastern counties, flanking Lake Ontario, are making remarkable progress, and so, also, are other areas in several parts of the province.

Bible in New Zealand Schools.

The Religious Instruction in Schools Referendum Bill before the New Zealand Parliament provides that a poll is to be taken simultaneously with the forthcoming general election under the provisions of the Electoral Act, each voter being entitled to one vote. The form of the question set out in the schedule is as follows:—"That provision be made for the reading in public schools, within school hours, of selected Bible lessons from a reading book to be provided by the Education Department, such reading to be conducted under the supervision of the public school teachers, but no sectarian teaching to be allowed; that provision be made for religious instruction to be given within school hours to children by a minister of their own denomination or by an accredited substitute; any parent to have the right, if

he chooses, to withdraw his child from Bible reading or from religious instruction, or from both." The issue will be put in the following form:—"I vote in favour of the above system," "I vote against the above system."

Private Emigration Enterprise.

The first party of cadets for the Sargood Training Farm—a first-class estate of thirty-three thousand acres—at Wanaka in New Zealand, are now on their way to the Dominion. All except four of these are town boys from East London. Travelling expenses are advanced by Mr. Sargood, a well-known New Zealand resident, and the boys are to work only forty-five hours a week, their wages commencing at 7s. 6d. a week. Of this the boys get 2s. a week pocket money, the rest being paid into their savings bank accounts until sufficient to repay the passage money advanced has accumulated, when the loan will be repaid. The boys will be encouraged in all forms of sport, and drill, and military training and shooting will be compulsory. They will be put through every department of the farm, spending several months in each, and in the evening periodic lectures will be given by experts on the theory and practice of agriculture, bush carpentry, smithy work, irrigation, fruit and cereal growing, and everything connected with sheep and wool, so that at the end of three years—this being the period for which the lad undertakes to remain on the farm—each should be a thoroughly efficient all-round farmer.

New Zealand Leather.

New Zealanders apparently do not believe in allowing lower grade goods to be imported into the home market and sold in competition with the "genuine article." The New Zealand Federated Boot Trade Union is congratulating itself on the successful results of its representations against the importation of "brown-paper boots." Since July 1 statutory restrictions upon the sale of "shoddy" footwear have been in force. Information has been obtained by the Boot Trade Union that footwear made in New Zealand is being sold by some dealers as imported, and that imported goods are being sold as locally made. With the object of preventing such practices the union has introduced a stamp symbolical of New Zealand with which manufacturers can brand all goods so that purchasers may distinguish the locally-made from the imported article.

South Africa and the Panama Exposition.

A meeting of merchants dealing in ostrich feathers, wool, and mohair, and farmers was held recently in Port Elizabeth, at which a resolution was adopted to the effect that it was desirable

that South African products, such as feathers, wool, mohair, fruit, wines, gold, diamonds, etc., should be worthily represented at the Panama-Pacific Exposition. The meeting pledged itself to do all in its power to further the organisation of such exhibits, and a committee was formed to organise representative committees. A commissioner was also appointed to tour the country in order to urge farmers to participate in the exhibition of ostrich feathers.

THE MEN IN KHAKI

WHAT of the men in Khaki, Britons!
 Who march to the lilt of a ragtime lay,
 Who kissed their girls, and sped away,
 To answer the call across the sea.
 They're only doing their duty,
 But they're heroes to you and me!

What of the men on the long grey ship!
 That floats low on the sparkling wave to-day,
 Who breathe the breezes with laughter gay,
 'Neath the sun and the moon they guard the sea.
 They're only doing their duty,
 But they're heroes to you and me!

What of the men on the downland free!
 Who have left their work or their play, ah, which?
 For some are poor and others are rich,
 They're serving England this side of the sea.
 They're only doing their duty,
 But they're heroes to you and me!

They're the heart and the soul of England!
 Those men of ours who seemed vanished away,
 We knew not whither and nor did they,
 On the land, in the air, on the deep sea,
 They're only doing their duty,
 But they're heroes to you and me!

DOROTHY K. SAWYER.

THE EMPIRE REVIEW

AND

JOURNAL OF BRITISH TRADE

VOL. XXVIII. NOVEMBER, 1914.

No. 166.

PATRIOTISM

In his history of Ancient Greece Professor Bury remarks on the changed attitude of the citizen to the city in the later days of Athens. He says:—

The citizen of Athens has become a citizen of the world. His duty to his country may conflict with his duty to himself as a man, and thus patriotism ceases to be unconditionally the highest virtue. Again, men begin to put to themselves, more or less explicitly, the question, whether the State is not made for the individual and not the individual for the State—a complete reversal of the old unquestioning submission to the authority of the social organism.

Man is tempted to adopt this attitude when, in his development, he has reached that stage where he hesitates to act on his emotions till he has first examined and analysed them.

Love of country is an impulse which man has inherited from his forefathers. They had inherited it from their forefathers. So patriotism may be traced back and back till it becomes lost in the shadows and obscurities of a dim, prehistoric past. In the beginning man was a primitive creature susceptible to every passing emotion, whether good or evil, as the leaves of a forest tree are swayed by every passing breeze. Later he learnt to distinguish between them. The knowledge taught him to be cautious. He hesitated to act on an impulse till he had satisfied himself of its merits. It is not good for man to be the slave of impulse, but the hesitating and deliberating habit also has its dangers. For one thing, all the impulses which move men are not evil impulses. The effect of some, in action, is far purer and grander than that of the conclusions of men's thinking powers. It is as the glorious melody wrought by one into whom the gods have breathed genius, whereas the second is but as the performance of a painstaking mediocrity. Moreover there lie encamped about the soul a whole army of selfish and evil

instincts, and in the moment of its indecision they see their opportunity and press their assaults with the greatest vigour. There is always the danger that if man pause too long in indecision his native egotism may prompt him to award this casting vote to the evil rather than to the good impulses. Thirdly the reflective habit, if it is carried too far, may impair man's ability to see things in their true colours. To him everything is blurred, all is a muddled grey, he has become unable to distinguish black from white.

The doctrines advocated by some democrats are not conducive to patriotism. Democracy supports the principle of popular education, it favours the training of men's thinking and reasoning powers. Men are thereby led to inquire into the why and wherefore of things. The intellect can afford no adequate explanation of patriotism, because the sentiment is the greater thing. Democracy also favours the principle that every man should be given a voice in the government. Now education by itself is a thing to be encouraged. A democratic government may be the best system to which man has given a trial. It is very difficult to determine which is the best, but English people generally favour the democratic system.

But the evil of the demagogue has to be guarded against where democracy is in the ascendant. To the question, "Ought I to make sacrifices for my country?" he answers, "No." He wishes to procure the votes of the people for himself and his cause. He thinks that he is more likely to do this by promising them presents than by demanding from them sacrifices. He teaches them that the State was made for the individual and not the individual for the State. It only exists for their benefit, to give them Old Age Pensions and maintain them in sickness and find them bread and recreation. The old idea that they ought to expend time and money in the cause of national defence is a worn-out superstition. It should be a matter of indifference to a man to which country he belongs. Patriotism is a worn-out superstition, by which primitive people were moved to do great things, but out of which we, of this generation, have long since grown. People are now more broad-minded. They have come to consider their country as the world, and to look upon the claims of humanity at large as superior to those of a single nation.

The passage quoted at the beginning of this article shows that sentiments similar to these were very generally shared by the people of Athens during the period that immediately preceded her decline. And in that circumstance lies the explanation of that decline, for that nation whose citizens have ceased to be patriotic must decline, and it will eventually cease to be a nation

at all. The thing is inevitable because patriotism is the cement which keeps the State together. At the period to which Bury's passage refers the Athenians were menaced by the formidable military power of Macedon. Demosthenes repeatedly warned his countrymen of their danger, but his warnings like those of Cassandra, were disregarded. To these degenerate descendants of the brave ancestors who had championed the cause of western freedom at Marathon and Salamis it had become a matter of indifference whether or not their country became the appanage of a foreign power. They lived to see her reduced to that condition. Of late years, sentiments similar to these have been too frequently expressed in Great Britain. The present time of war and stress has had at least one gratifying result. It has shown many to be better patriots at heart than the professions of their lips would have led one to hope.

Over-indulgence in the reflective habit may impair men's ability to see patriotism in its true light. A man may lose the power of realising how odious a thing it is not to love his country. Certain of our own poets have expressed with no uncertain voice what is the general, natural, and right feeling of mankind on this subject. For a man to betray his country into the hands of her enemies was, in the opinion of Tennyson, a crime tantamount to matricide and worse than perjury. Shakespeare made the epitaph of such a one to run as follows :—

The man was noble,
But with his last attempt he wiped it out;
Destroy'd his country, and his name remains
To the ensuing age abhorr'd.

Scott described the man, whose heart at sight of his native land did not "within him burn," as "a wretch concentrated all in self," who,

Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
And, doubly dying, shall go down
To the vile dust from whence he sprung,
Unwept, unhonoured, and unsung.

Patriotism is one of the good impulses that move men. Our hearts are as harps in the hand of a Great Master, and patriotism is one of the tunes that He makes them play at times when He sweeps His fingers across the strings. Those who have responded to His touch act as though they were under a spell. This beautiful impulse effects in one brief hour what philosophers and teachers are unable to effect in long years. These last appeal merely to the reason and understanding, the ideals after which they urge men to strive are cold abstractions. But the heart answers to the call of patriotism which suggests to men a glowing,

living reality that both lettered and unlettered can understand and love. The wise and beneficent Being Who made each individual a member of a family, and each family a part of a greater organism, the nation, is not contrary and capricious. He did not deliberately place man where he would have to war against every natural impulse. He did not design his natural affections for his family and country to be hindrances but aids to his moral development. He did not intend him to prefer mankind at large, nor any and every country to his own.

At the present time the action of patriotism on the hearts of men has had the effect of temporarily raising the whole nation to a higher plane. Out of the sordid caves of egotism in which they habitually grovel they have been lured on to the pure invigorating uplands. Like the banner with the strange device "Excelsior," patriotism entices men up rugged mountain paths, "mid snow and ice," where spectral glaciers shine ahead, along narrow and perilous passes where "lowers the tempest overhead," and below the torrent roars "deep and wide," where in front the awful avalanche may be lying in wait to engulf them. Through and by it they are made strong against the evils of famine, wounds, disease, and peril of death.

In a time of patriotic fervour public opinion raises the moral standard which it sets for men. Dazzling courage, superhuman endurance, godlike self-sacrifices are accepted as no more than the nation's due. Not to be ready, even eager to endure cold and wet, hunger and thirst, pain and weariness in their most extreme forms is to deserve the worst reproach that can be applied to any son of Adam. And yet self-sacrifice is the queen of virtues. A man cannot do more for his King and country than lay down his life for them. With it he lays down everything else that attaches him to this world, wealth, rank, honour, fame, friends and home; his soul sets out upon its lonely voyage to the strange, mysterious land from whose bourne no traveller returns.

For who, to dumb Forgetfulness a prey,
This pleasing, anxious being e'er resigned,
Left the warm precincts of the cheerful day,
Nor cast one longing, lingering look behind.

Yet in time of war thousands simply and cheerfully make this supreme sacrifice. Nor do they think, nor expect others to think that they are doing some great thing. They are just performing the duty that the country requires of every able-bodied man.

Emerson says that the best courages are inventions, inspirations, flashes of genius. "The hero could not have done the feat at another hour, in a lower mood." What is occurring in a great part of Europe seems to bear out the truth of the saying.

The courage and steadiness displayed by the little English army during the retreat from Mons, the indomitable resolution and patient endurance of the sorely tried Belgians, the self-denial exhibited by the Russians in the matter of the prohibition of the sale of alcohol, these are instances of how extraordinary trials and perils will call forth in whole bodies of men a corresponding virtue. And it is not only the brave, virtuous, and self-denying who perform heroic and self-sacrificing acts in time of war. Of how many as of "The Private of the Buffs" it may be written :—

Poor, reckless, rude, low-born, untaught,
 Bewildered and alone,
 A heart, with English instinct fraught,
 He yet can call his own.
 Ay, tear his body limb from limb,
 Bring cord, or axe, or flame,
 He only knows that not through him
 Shall England come to shame.

In response to the call of their country, men attain to a degree of heroism, virtue and self-sacrifice that hardly any other appeal, if indeed any, is potent to call forth. Why this should be the case is one of those mysteries that are hidden from our ken. It is urged that other claims ought to be equally all-compelling. The fact remains that they are not. It is contended that all men ought to live up to the same high standard in peace as many do in war. A few men of rare virtue do so on all occasions, a great many more do so on rare occasions. The fact emerges that it is to war, in spite of its accompanying horrors and attendant evils, that we are indebted for lightning flashes of godlike virtue in the great mass of ordinary human beings. It is to war that we owe those masterpieces in art and literature, in poetry, music, and the drama that derive from it their inspiration.

DOROTHY VEAL.

OUR UNITED EMPIRE

BY ROBEY F. ELDRIDGE.

WHO but thanks God, in this our day of stress,
That, through the storm and change of centuries,
Britain has held to that indwelling strength
Which finds its outward symbol in our King.

A noble heritage the past has left
To him, beloved and honoured, who now holds
The sceptre of this myriad-peopled realm;
And we thank God that our King read so well
The temper of his people—our fixed resolve,
Be the cost what it may, to have no more
Of this base traffic in the lives of men—
This crushing of the weaker to the wall
Regardless of morality or law,
This ruthless savagery, sparing none.
The world is sick of men of blood and iron
Who, as with scythed chariots, cut their way
Through slaughtered thousands to their destined goal.

The land that loved him as its sailor Prince
Loves him the more as King, inheritor
Of all its great traditions of the past,
And worthy of them, since he has withstood
The shameless urgings of our wily foe
To break the solemn pact, which, conscienceless,
He cynically trampled under foot.

So now this newer England has awaked,
Wherein, to-day, all petty party feuds
Are healed, faction is stilled, old enmities
Composed, and men, one and all, have risen
To heights alone achieved when patriot zeal,
Touching each heart with its Enchanter's wand,
Ennobles all. Thus is it in our isles
Of Britain, and where'er their King holds sway.

“What orders, Sire, for me and for my men?”
So—concise, but thrilling—came from afar
The question, put by a loyal Prince of Ind,
Who, when our King-Emperor took his seat
Upon the jewelled throne of old romance
Of those dread Conquerors, the Great Moguls,
Paid him his homage as his Over-lord.

“What orders, Sire?”—The self-same question comes
From all our great Dominions overseas,
Eager, each with the other, to attest
The unity of our Imperial realm
And to launch forth upon this high emprise.

For not alone is this a fight to save
Ourselves, our homes, our liberties, our rights;
But it is more: it shall ensure henceforth
That Truth and Progress, Purity and Peace,
Shall ever flourish and abound on Earth.
Further—they who, in overweening pride,
Would bind the whole world in chains, shall fail.
Our King hurled back their insults in their face!
And, taking up their challenge, Great Britain
In its might, wielding its puissant arm,
Rouses itself to stem this turgid tide,
And, as it ever did in ancient days,
So now, it shall sweep onward to Success,
Until the vanquished foe shall sue for Peace,
And Victor's laurels crown our Monarch's brow.

ROBEY F. ELDRIDGE.

CANADA AND THE WAR

Last Man and last Dollar.

The people of the British overseas dominions recognise that Great Britain is fighting for her very existence against an enemy who if victorious would show her no mercy. She would certainly be deprived of the best of her possessions, which would be quite unable to withstand the yoke of their new rulers, and the people of these great undeveloped States are aware of the fate that would await them. Hence the patriotic activity that is everywhere manifest, and nowhere more marked than in the great Dominion of Canada. Men, money and material have been flowing in, and if 100,000 men are wanted for the firing line they will be forthcoming. Officers are serving in the ranks, cities are organising corps, and wealthy citizens are providing machine guns on motor carriages. As a prominent Frenchman said a few days ago, "The whole British Empire is coming to our assistance."

A French-Canadian Contingent.

In connection with the French-Canadian brigade now being formed in Quebec for service at the front, it is stated that the sentiment of that province in favour of a French regiment was absolutely unanimous. French-Canadians would be proud to wear the King's uniform and to have their commands in English, but they would like to be, as far as practicable, brigaded together. This was the plan of Lord Kitchener. It would also intensify national pride. It was not asked specially that the commandant be a French-Canadian. For the present only one regiment is asked for, but probably four will be raised in the province. Ten thousand pounds have been given towards the corps by Dr. Arthur Mignault, who has also offered his services.

The Muse and War.

This war, like every other in modern times, has been responsible for a considerable amount of activity among the poets. Some of the results have been excellent, many have been

forces." Dr. Thompson states that the force could "be gathered together and brought to the East within three weeks. £1,200 were raised in two days by the daughters of the Empire in Dawson for the Canadian patriotic fund."

Aldershot of Canada.

That the Canadian Military Authorities are looking after their recruits in an expeditious and practical manner is shown by the following extract from a letter received from the now famous camp at Valcartier, Quebec, the "Aldershot" of Canada: "From top to toe the recruit entering the sentried portals of Valcartier is transformed in almost the proverbial 'three shakes.' The boys are all in the best of health, spirits and condition. The organisation is just perfect, the veriest detail having been carefully planned beforehand. In the rapid transformation effected from recruit to equipped soldier, even the safety razor is remembered. Within the camp a large moving picture show is being constructed. There are no 'wet' canteens, and the warning issued by head-quarters to the effect that any man found under the influence of liquor will be sent home has proved very effective. In order to encourage shooting the Colonel of the Headquarters Staff has offered a cup for company shooting, the competition for which will take place as soon as the organisation of companies is completed."

Refilling the Ranks.

A meeting of the Third Field Company Canadian Engineers has been held for the purpose of arranging the training of a headquarters' section in Ottawa. The ranks have become so depleted by the enlistment of members of the Third Company in the Canadian Expeditionary Force that it is the intention to reorganise the company and fill up the many gaps thus caused. Already between thirty and forty engineers, mostly men of science, have intimated their willingness to join the company, and it is also expected that a large number of others such as engineers and architects will enter the ranks. The various units are experiencing no difficulty in filling the places of the men who have joined the Expeditionary Force.

New Campaigning Contrivance.

Proofs are daily being given of the up-to-dateness of Canada in war time in the matter of equipment for her troops. The latest illustration is a spade slung across the shoulders in a leather case. It can be utilised as a shield and rifle rest, the rifle being thrust through an oval hole in the centre of the blade converting it into a shield from the enemy's fire. When

not required for this purpose, it can be used for trenching. Although it weighs only four pounds and can be carried with ease on long marches, it is practically bullet-proof. The spades have been subjected to the keenest tests, but it was only after they had been shot at from a distance of 200 yards with heavy ammunition that any impression was made, and then they were only cracked. Machine guns, it is said, have been directed on them but with no effect.

The Imperial Ranch.

The value of Western Canada as a remount preserve for the British and Canadian Armies has long been recognised by the War Office. Unfortunately for the Empire its merits have also been recognised by the other War Offices in Europe. It may be assumed, however, that a change has now come over the situation, and that our present experience will not be forgotten. In spite of the numerous advantages of motor traction, the Army demand is still for horses and yet more horses. The wastage has naturally been enormous. Whole batteries of artillery have had to be left behind by the retreating armies, the horses having been killed, and the cavalry of all the armies has had an enormous mortality among its mounts. Whence can this loss be made good? Canada at an early stage of the war adopted a patriotic policy in regard to its supply of horses, and it is from that part of the Empire that the British War Office will hope to secure a large part of its requirements. From the three prairie provinces alone it is computed, that 30,000 of the finest cavalry and artillery horses in the world can be drawn, and the other provinces can enormously augment these highly creditable figures.

The Sifton Battery.

What is known as the Sifton Auto Machine Gun Battery is training at Lansdown Park, Ottawa, and is preparing for service at the front. It is composed partly of Toronto men and partly of Montrealers, with a few from Ottawa and other cities, and the cost is contributed by three or four Canadians. The battery includes twenty guns mounted on sixty horse-power motor trucks capable of doing forty miles per hour, eighteen motor cycles, trenching, repair and officers' cars. The guns are able to fire 400 shots per minute each. There will be just over a hundred men in the battery.

Machine Guns.

A member of the Winnipeg Grain Exchange, who is providing a squad to man two quick-firing guns for active service,

has left that city for Aldershot, to undergo special training. He was accompanied by fourteen gunners. Canada has contributed about 300 machine guns; of these, 150 have been given by wealthy Canadians, and it is anticipated that many more will be forthcoming in the very near future. All the guns will be mounted on armoured trucks.

Coal Ports.

It being obviously essential to secure an uninterrupted supply of coal for domestic and naval purposes during the continuation of the war, one of the first matters to receive attention by the Canadian Military Authorities, after the outbreak of hostilities, was the protection of the coal supplies of the Dominion. The heaviest and most modern ordnance in the country has been placed in carefully selected positions guarding the various coaling stations and coal ports, and these are in charge of some of the finest gunners in the Canadian service. Ample magazines of ammunition have been supplied, and forces of infantry detailed to support the batteries. The coastal coal depôts, east and west, have been quietly transformed into strong defensive positions armed with powerful guns.

Safeguarding Health of Troops.

A feature of the organisation of the Canadian Expeditionary Force that is engaging a great deal of attention is that which involves the health of the men and the proper care of the wounded. Elaborate preparations have been completed for the hospital and ambulance sections in the line of communications of the Canadian force, and it is certain that the men will be given the best attention. But even more important are the preventive measures which are being taken. It will be remembered that in South Africa more men died from enteric fever and cholera than were killed in action. Having this in mind the Canadian authorities have appointed Dr. G. G. Nasmith, Director of Laboratories for Toronto, as analyst and advisory officer on sanitation. He will accompany the troops to the front, and is at present training a class of 150 men, chiefly medical officers, in water analysis. As far as possible, all the water used by the Canadian troops at the front will be chlorinated, and in this way much sickness should be avoided.

Berlin in Ontario.

The Chairman of the Berlin (Ontario) Patriotic Fund, has forwarded the following cable to Lord Kitchener: "2,500 subscribers to our Patriotic Fund, total amount £19,000. Of this, £3,500 was subscribed by factory hands, mechanics and labouring

people giving from 6*d.* to 8*s.* per month for twelve months. All subscribers will duplicate again if needed. Canada would welcome several million German immigrants with open arms to live under the best Government of the world. We are with you." To which Lord Kitchener has replied: "I congratulate you and those working with you on the response to your appeal."

Providing for Dependents.

The Central Organisation of the Canadian Patriotic Fund has issued a statement as to the eligibility for relief of dependents of Canadian soldiers serving with the expeditionary force. The regulations are as follows:—(1) To have a just claim on the fund it must be shown that at the time of reporting for duty the soldier was a resident of Canada and was supporting in Canada the wife, family or dependent relative who now applies for aid. (2) The fund recognises as being on the same basis, not only Canadian volunteers and regulars, but also British army and navy reservists, and French, Belgian, Servian, Russian and Japanese reservists, who, leaving dependents in Canada, have gone to join the colours. (3) Aid can be granted only while the soldier is on active service. It may commence, however, from the time that he gives up his employment or leaves his home, and be continued as long as he is with his regiment, allowing reasonable time for his journey to his home in Canada. The names of the families receiving help should be transmitted to the central executive for verification and record.

Britain's Food Supply.

The Minister of Agriculture in Ontario points out that during the past season over 3,300,000 acres of land were devoted to pasture. Now that there is every prospect of a good supply of labour he thinks a great deal of this land could with advantage be broken up and put into crop. Aside from the question of price, it is undoubtedly the patriotic duty of every farmer to do his best to help in relieving the Mother Country from any occasion to worry over the food supply, either of the men at the front or those at home. Incidentally it may also result in establishing trade connections which will be of great value long after the war is over. This can best be done by using as large an acreage as possible, and by adopting the best methods of cultivation available. The department is doing everything in its power to this end, and an official letter has been sent to the forty-three district representatives of the department, urging them to take up the matter at once in their respective districts. These officers will place before the farmers the changed situation from the standpoint of food supplies by reason of the war. The general lines of Great

Britain's supply, the channels of which will be interfered with, it is pointed out, are wheat and flour, meat, butter, cheese and poultry, and in all these lines Ontario is in a position to aid in filling any deficiency that may exist because of the decreased production in countries from which Great Britain has drawn in the past.

Next Year's Wheat Crop.

While thousands of Canadians are clamouring for admission to the various regiments mobilised for service in the European war, there are many thousands more against whom the military door is bolted and barred, some on account of age and some for other reasons. Many of these are acting upon the principle that if they cannot fight they can feed the fighters, and are taking up land in Western Canada. Thus, during one week recently, no fewer than 379 homesteads were taken up, 70 of these being by emigrants of English birth. This represents a total of over 60,600 acres, a large portion of which will no doubt be under crop for next season. Thus Canada is doing her share not merely in the fighting line, but in making good the food deficiency consequent on the destruction of a large proportion of this year's European harvest, it being also absolutely certain that over the same area no harvest can be reaped next year, since in the absence of the labourers the fields cannot be sown.

Settling the Prairies.

Judging from statistics recently to hand the war is having no ill-effect upon the general routine of the agricultural world in Western Canada. Quite the reverse appears to be the case. For instance in Manitoba during the month of September, no less than 289 homesteads were taken up, representing 46,240 acres of land. During the same month last year only 176 were taken up, so that there was actually an increase of 113 homesteads. The greater number of these homesteads have been taken up in the area between Lake Winnipeg and Lake Manitoba, where splendid railway facilities have been established. During the month of August no fewer than 2,001 free homesteads were taken up in Western Canada. At 160 acres each these figures represent a total of 320,160 acres. Many of the settlers, however, augmented the free grant to a considerable extent, so that this grand total was enormously exceeded during the month.

London's Generosity.

The British portion of the population of London, Ontario, propose to form a "Motherland Patriotic Fund," Dominion-wide in scope. The idea is that British-born residents of Canada may subscribe to a fund for the dependents of the Old Country

soldiers at the front. Those responsible for the movement point out that the British troops are not as well paid as the Canadian soldiers, and that therefore in case of casualty their dependents are proportionately handicapped. These men are fighting for the retention of Canada within the Empire, and Canadians, it is held, should appropriately recognise their services.

Free Transporting of Gifts.

The Government of Ontario has offered the Admiralty 100,000 lbs. of evaporated apples for the men of the fleet. These have been accepted by the Admiralty. Arrangements have been made by the Ontario Government to pay the cost of transportation to Montreal of all gifts of produce which the farmers of Ontario are making to the Motherland, and which the British Government have accepted. Among the gifts to be sent from various counties are oats, beans, potatoes, apples, cheese and butter. This action on the part of the counties is independent of that of the Dominion and Provincial Governments. Nothing is more striking than the activity shown by the women's organisations in the farming communities in providing comforts for the soldiers and for the unemployed in the industrial centres.

Attitude of Bakers.

Local bread bakeries in Saskatoon announce that there will be no advance in the price of bread. Bakers all over the West are taking a similar attitude. They look upon bread as one of the first necessities of life which, under prevailing conditions, it is for them to preserve at as low a cost as is possible, and notwithstanding the advance in flour and wheat. So far, Saskatoon is scarcely conscious of war prices for food. Such increases as have been made are of a trifling character involving no hardship. There is a strong public feeling against the speculative advance of foods, and a conviction that while the Empire is at war, any such tendency should be controlled. That the tribulations of the Empire should be turned to speculative profit at the expense of the people does not appeal as sound patriotism.

Patriotic Fund.

A resolution has been adopted by various cheese boards throughout Ontario suggesting the setting aside of one day's production of cheese towards the Canadian Patriotic Fund. The farmers will give the milk free, the dealers will deliver it free, and the cheesemakers will manufacture it free. The proceeds from the cheese when sold will be handed over for the fund to aid the families of volunteers. The Canadian Society of New York has cancelled its annual dinner together with all other

functions. Instead of holding the usual celebration, the funds will be contributed to the relief of the families of Canadians who have gone to the front, each member contributing the amount they would have spent for their guests and themselves at the annual dinner. It is explained that this course has been adopted owing to the desire of Canadians not to participate in festivities while fellow Canadians are bravely confronting the enemy and laying down their lives on the battlefields of Europe.

Khaki for Canadian Guards.

The Governor-General's Foot Guards may probably adopt khaki uniform for drill purposes instead of the historic scarlet serge and blue trousers with red stripe. As in England the scarlet tunics would be retained for ceremonial occasions. In the past the expense of the uniforms kept many young men, who would have made excellent officers, from taking commissions. The cost of the uniforms, it is stated, amounted to about £160. The decision is to take place at once. Nothing has been more remarkable than the rapid and very general adoption of the khaki dress for military purposes.

Fraternity in Toronto.

The various fraternal orders in the City of Toronto have decided to pay the insurance premiums of their respective members whose offers for active service in Europe have been accepted. The decision will apply, it is stated, whether subscriptions have been paid up to date or not, the brethren recognising that the circumstances are exceptional, and that they are warranted in showing their appreciation of the action of their comrades in volunteering for the front. It is estimated that about 5,000 of the men who have been mobilised are members of one or other of these fraternal organisations. This is a striking and practical application of the precepts for which these organisations stand.

No Industrial Disputes.

In Canada there are no industrial disputes, no conciliation boards and no applications for boards. At least there are no records of any in the Labour Department at Ottawa. This is an exceptional state of affairs and is one of the salutary effects of the war. It is one more illustration of the unifying influence of the world conflict which has caused the cessation of quarrels between employers and employed, as well as between political factions. No application has been received by the Labour Department for a conciliation board under the Industrial Disputes Act since before the declaration of war. In the month of July there were six boards and two applications recorded.

TARIFF REFORM: A NATIONAL POLICY

By J. CHRISTIAN SIMPSON.

Two statements made by Mr. Asquith at the Mansion House banquet in 1912 are of special interest just now, when the future development of our Imperial and international commercial relations is being considered. The country was then told by the Prime Minister that in foreign affairs "His Majesty's Government would deprecate the raising and pressing of isolated questions, which if handled separately and at once, may seem likely to lead to irreconcilable divergencies, but which may well assume a different and perhaps a more tractable aspect, if they are reserved to be dealt with from a wide point of view of a general settlement." He further acknowledged that "things can never be again as they were before. It is the business of statesmen everywhere to recognise and accept the accomplished fact." If these two expressions of opinion are capable of realisation in domestic as well as in foreign affairs, it should be all the easier to see how the trade of the British Empire will benefit in due course, not only while the war is in progress but more particularly after peace has been declared.

In a previous paper in *The Empire Review* * I showed in tabular form the enormous and almost universal character of the Natural Resources of the British Empire. It is now up to us to develop many of these hitherto neglected Imperial sources of raw materials, to increase and consolidate our Imperial trade, and to capture and retain new industries and new markets for our manufactures, markets and industries we should already possess, had a reasonable policy of preference, reciprocity and fiscal reform been adopted years ago. This is the only country in which the two great parties are unfortunately in a state of "irreconcilable divergence" of opinion on the "isolated question" of a reform in our fiscal policy, which has been "handled separately" to the great injury not only of the United Kingdom but of the Empire. If this divergence of opinion be analysed it may be found to be based on a purely imaginary conception in Radical minds, viz., that such a reform

is only a one-legged stool which they chose to call "Food Taxation" and try to hang round the neck of the Unionist Party for electioneering purposes. It must not be forgotten, however, that the Chancellor of the Exchequer refused to accede to a petition signed by over one hundred Radicals, asking for a remission or reduction of existing food taxes, as of course it was impossible to do so under Free Trade conditions. Things can never be again as they were. Mr. Asquith recognises this, accepts it, but what will he do? He has acknowledged for himself and his followers certain accomplished facts. There has been a very substantial rise in the price of necessaries that has not been met by a corresponding increase in the rate of wages, and this was one obvious and unmistakable source of discontent among wage earners.

Free Trade can neither reduce unemployment nor increase wages, while Preference has been beneficial to and conferred an enormous advantage upon the British manufacturer and the Dominions, the great resources of which it is in the interests of this country to develop. The whole Empire has rallied to the call "one Crown, one flag," in the most wonderful way the world has ever seen. Is the door once more to be banged, barred, and bolted against these loyal colonists as well as against our own British workmen? I trust not. Radicals and Free Traders must consent to deal with this as a national and Imperial question, as has been done in every other civilised State. They must deal with it "from a wide point of view of a general settlement" and cease to treat it as an isolated question which, in other respects, His Majesty's present advisers deprecate raising and handling separately. Up to now, it has been the good fortune and pride of the great overwhelming bulk of the Unionist Party, to fight for this great national question against unscrupulous Radical attacks and misrepresentations of the perfectly well-known and recognised effects of tariffs in the rest of the world. Is it too much to hope that in due time, this narrow party method of viewing such a question will be changed to a wide Imperial and national policy. Reform of our fiscal system is the first step towards the still larger and more complicated question of social reform, for any efforts at social reform cost money, so that money must be forthcoming from somewhere, if the lot of our British working men is to be brought into a more desirable condition. There are three important questions which all, irrespective of Party prejudice, must be ready to consider. The first is the raising of increased revenue, the second, the possibility of a rise in real wages, and the third, the possibility of an increase of employment.

The great outstanding difference between American duties

and duties levied in the United Kingdom is, that nearly all the duties collected in Great Britain are a direct tax on the consumer, because our duties are levied on a limited number of uncompetitive products. In the United States, however, the duties are levied on competitive products only, and about one-half of their entire revenue for the support of the Government is obtained from their tariffs. One of the first readjustments, therefore, should be a change of the incidence of taxation in the United Kingdom, a broadening of its basis, a discrimination between what we can, and what we cannot or do not produce. At the present moment we have the opportunity of realising how needlessly dependent we have become on foreign countries, for many goods and raw materials that we could ourselves make or supply. The answer to the question "who pays the duty" depends on this point, and the revenue raised by the United States is the concrete example. There would be much educational benefit if some of our newspapers would follow the example of the *Weekly Cape Times*, which publishes in its columns the amounts and values of articles imported into the Union, which it is considered are capable of being produced or manufactured within the country. So far as the size of the duty on any article is concerned, it is determined by the amount that is or will be found to exact the utmost from the foreign exporter, as that is the duty which can best improve the position of the home producer, without permitting him to raise prices at the expense of the consumer.

The beneficial effects of the Patents Act are now known to all. So far as foreign traders are concerned, they regard it as a forerunner of Tariff Reform, as it is strictly protective in action and principle. It is thus practically a foregone conclusion that an increase in trades of all sorts is assured, and so a decrease of unemployment as a consequence. It is therefore absolutely opposed to strict Free Trade principles, which are more liable to breed and encourage unemployment, as the two following examples show. China clay, our raw material, is exported to Holland and returns to us as cups and saucers free of import duty. Our British workman plays the coolie for coolie's wages, for Dutchmen to get skilled labourers' wages in making up our raw material! Again, the glass bottle industry was a flourishing one in certain parts of Yorkshire. In 1892 the Bottle Trade Union could report less than 5 per cent. of unemployment. About that time the Germans began making similar glass bottles, and exported their excess to this country at the rate of about 400,000 gross per annum. Yorkshire bottle unemployment rose to 16 per cent. After a time the German bottle men struck work, free imports ceased. For a time British unemployment sank to below 5 per cent., only to rise to its former height when the Germans resumed

work and free imports to our markets. Other industries are similarly placed. There is but one remedy—a reform in our fiscal policy and readjustment of our business relations with our competitors. And now is the time for action. This is the one and supreme matter for all trade unionist as well as non-unionist workmen to concentrate their minds upon. It is for them to find leaders, who will devote their time to such vital industrial questions as the increase of real wages and the decrease of unemployment, so that any rise in the cost of living can be met as far as possible.

In addition to reforming our fiscal policy, other industrial changes in the shape of co-operation, co-partnership, profit-sharing, and such-like, may be of great assistance in aiding and securing a stability in our trade on which we must depend to pay the enormous cost of the war. The Board of Trade and the Colonial Office have begun excellent work in connection with the trade war, and it is hoped their efforts will be energetically continued and greatly extended in scope. British manufacturers should be given some guarantee and security that their capital, now invested in new industries or enlarging old ones, will not be thrown away after the war, by a resumption of the unbusinesslike system of free imports of competitive products. The latest Memorandum issued by the Tariff Commission is also most useful. Indeed, on all sides we are reminded how much and how far we can advance in this struggle, on which our subsequent greatness and strength as an Empire will largely depend.

J. CHRISTIAN SIMPSON.

OPENINGS FOR BRITISH TRADE IN COLONIAL MARKETS

OFFICIAL STATEMENTS AND FIGURES

I.

GLASSWARE.

Canada.

IN his report for 1913, His Majesty's Trade Commissioner tells us that the value of earthenware, china and glass imports into the Dominion reached £1,720,000; from the United Kingdom about £680,000, from the United States £537,000, and from other countries about £500,000. The British manufacturers meet with competition from the United States both as regards earthenware and glass, and while British imports are slightly greater than those from the United States in regard to earthenware, they are somewhat less in respect to glass. Other countries also secure about a third of the total imports. In chinaware the manufacturers of the United Kingdom meet with competition from the Continent. It has been reported to the Board of Trade that closer supervision is required of the agencies or buyers "with control" acting on behalf of British manufacturers of china and porcelain ware. Consumers say that prices are increased by an excessive amount; that agents or buyers "with control" obtain orders of chinaware on behalf of British manufacturers, and later send orders for replacements and supplies to the Continent for the pattern and style to be copied.

A similar examination of Canada's trade in this class of goods for 1912 made by the German Consul at Montreal reveals the fact that the imports of glassware from Germany amounted to \$230,918 out of a total of \$4,080,804. Table glassware, demijohns, bottles and lamp glasses were chiefly imported. Of recent years, adds the Consul, the Canadian glass manufacturing industry has made great strides, especially as regards the production of bottles and lamp glasses.

South Africa.

Commenting on the position of this country and Germany in the South African market in respect to the importation of cheap glassware His Majesty's Trade Commissioner says :

"Taking the figures for 1906-12 inclusive, it will be found they are very unsatisfactory. They show that British manufacturers do not even hold the first place in this market as regards the imports of glassware. Moreover, we have actually lost ground since 1906, while the total imports to the country have shown a decided increase. In 1906 the value of imports of glassware from the United Kingdom amounted to £18,558, or 38·02 per cent., while in 1912 they stood at £18,271, or 28·92 per cent. Against this, it should be noted that in 1906 Germany's imports were valued at only £12,646, or 25·91 per cent., as against £20,320, or 32·16 per cent. in 1912. Belgium comes next in importance as a foreign competitor, her trade having increased from £12,012, or 24·61 per cent., in 1906, to £15,411, or 24·39 in 1912. Common fancy glassware is almost entirely confined to the Bohemian and Belgian houses, although some excellent lines in epergnes and vases are being supplied from Stourbridge and district, of good quality, reasonable in price, and well packed at a moderate charge. They are quoted (as a rule) carriage paid to port of shipment and are likely to obtain an increasing sale."

The same authority emphasises the necessity of manufacturers appointing local agents, whose business it is to call upon wholesale merchant houses at all large centres in the country. This method of working the market is the only sure one if United Kingdom firms wish to retain their hold on the trade, or if those not yet engaged in the South African trade are desirous of obtaining a foothold.

Australia.

The values of Australian imports of glassware in 1912, out of a total value of £285,986, were from the United Kingdom £85,997, from Germany £98,133. Commenting in the same year on the import trade of the Commonwealth in 1911 in empty bottles, flasks and jars, His Majesty Trade Commissioner points out that British trade, compared with the preceding year, had declined and been diverted to the United States and Germany, the United States obtaining 32·05 per cent. in 1911 against 21·02 per cent. in 1910, and Germany 24·36 against 17·77 per cent. The principal importing State in Australia is New South Wales.

New Zealand.

The imports of glassware into New Zealand in 1913 were from the United Kingdom £8,042, from Germany £15,924, from Belgium £5,578, from United States of America £5,471, out of a total from all countries of £53,212.

A recent American Consular Report states :—"A certain glass lamp chimney with fluted top is being made and exported from Germany to New Zealand, which is stamped 'American' over a trade-mark of a double six-pointed star, one around the other, apparently to mislead the public by having it appear that it is of American manufacture. A shipment of these chimneys has been made from a Hamburg firm to a wholesale crockery and glassware firm in Auckland, in fulfilment of an order sent to London for execution. The chimneys are probably of much inferior quality to the article of the same kind made in the United States, but as the cost of them is low they can be sold here at 85 cents per dozen."

India.

A recent issue of the "Handels Museum" (Vienna) states that there is a good demand for glass and glassware in India. Amongst the articles in best demand are mentioned glass bracelets for native women. These are imported from Germany, Austria, Belgium, and Japan. Bottles for effervescent mineral waters also find a good sale, as well as glass reservoirs for pedestal lamps.

The Austrian Consul-General at Calcutta states in his report for the fiscal year 1912-1913, that Japan competes to a considerable extent in the trade in glassware, especially beads. In the year under review the volume of business done in bangles, of which Austrian manufacturers usually contribute about 85 per cent., was not up to the average. Bottles are drawn chiefly from the United Kingdom, but German goods are also found on the market. Belgium supplies large quantities of table glassware, while Austria-Hungary and Germany are the chief suppliers of lamps and glasses.

The Austrian Consul at Madras mentions that glass bangles form a considerable proportion of the total imports of glassware into India, the bulk of the imports being from Gablonz. The imports of so-called glass pearls were double those of the previous year, Japan contributing increasingly large quantities.

A report by the Austrian Consul at Rangoon for 1911-1912 states that in that year the imports of glass ornaments and jewellery decreased. Austria-Hungary supplied the bulk of the imports, while Germany and Japan supplied small quantities.

Trade on the whole was not satisfactory as considerable stocks remained on hand from the previous year. Glass dishes and plates, lamps and other glass goods showed an increase; imports from Austria-Hungary declined, while those from the United Kingdom and Belgium rose correspondingly.

A recent American Consular Report states:—"The bottles used in the Indian brewing and distilling industries are mostly those which originally contained imported English or German beer, wines, &c., and have had their labels removed. There are a number of local bottle dealers who purchase empty bottles for sale to Indian breweries and wine factories, which then attach their own labels. A considerable quantity of empty bottles is also purchased by merchants who import spirits of wine, petrol, &c., in bulk for retail sale in bottles. Local brewers and distillers dislike to import bottles direct from other countries on account of the large freight expense and fear of serious loss by breakage."

The German Consul at Bombay states in a recent report:—"Glass does not play so important a part in Indian as in European households. Glass bottles or decanters for the storing of liquids are practically never used by the Hindu. He also seldom uses drinking glasses, but pours the liquid from the flask into the mouth, or drinks out of the hollow of the hand, cocoanut shells, tin mugs, &c. Lamp glasses and globes are gradually coming into universal use. Glass bangles, rings, and beads are used as ornaments by the native women. Glass lustres are in fair demand for festive occasions. Altogether, the consumption of glassware in India is not very great. The requirements are supplied from three sources—the handworkers, the Indian manufacturers, and the importers. The handworkers make chiefly coarse glass rings and glass pearls."

Hong-Kong.

The German Consul at Hong-Kong states in his Report for 1913 that table glass and all kinds of wine-glasses and artistic glassware are usually imported from Bohemia, British and Italian manufacturers of glassware being in many cases unable to compete successfully with the Bohemian makers. Cheap water-glasses and carafes, as well as cylindrical lamp-glasses of poor quality, are imported by the Chinese from Japan; the efforts which have been made to produce cheap glassware in Japan have not proved very successful. The best lamp-glasses are supplied by Germany and Austria. The Chinese like to decorate their homes with bright glassware, and if they can afford it readily purchase very bright coloured opaque vases, glasses and lamps.

Straits Settlements.

The Board of Trade correspondent at Singapore recently reported as follows—"Bottles for aërated waters and druggists, &c., are from the United Kingdom almost entirely, the value in 1911 reaching over £13,000, compared with a little over £1,000 value from the Continent, but Japan sends water-bottles and decanters to the value of nearly £12,000. Window glass is of Belgian make, also lamp chimneys, which represent a considerable business, while Germany sends cheap glass lamps, probably often declared as glassware. The Continental trade is being cut into by Japan, which sells goods comparing favourably with the cheapest German make as low as 7*d.* a dozen for half-pint tumblers, and others in proportion. The fancy class of vases and flower holders are mainly Austrian. The same reason, viz., price, curtails sales of English glassware, which is bought only by the European and richest class of Chinese."

Egypt.

The following figures show the value of the imports of glassware from the countries indicated in 1912 and 1913 :—

	1912. £E.	1913. £E.
United Kingdom	5,513	4,355
Germany	22,363	24,803
Austria-Hungary	45,245	58,357
Belgium	18,977	12,741
France	9,139	8,211
Total from all countries	108,573	114,123

It will be seen that the United Kingdom occupies a very unsatisfactory position in this market, Austria-Hungary alone contributing about half of the total imports.

The Austrian Consul-General at Alexandria states in his Report for 1912 that the trade in glassware, in which credit is a very important factor, was unsatisfactory in the year under review. On account of the small volume of retail business conducted the imports fell from £E139,532 in 1911 to £E108,573 in 1912. In this large decrease were concerned principally those articles which are bought by the Arabian population in bazaars, while the better quality goods, such as are sold in the European shops, did not show any appreciable decrease. Imports from Austria, consisting principally of hollow glassware and cylindrical lamp-glasses, decreased from £E62,548 to £E45,245. Imports from Germany, chiefly lamp-glasses, lamp-shades, and medicine bottles, experienced proportionately a still greater decline, falling from £E31,306 to £E22,363. On the other hand, imports from Belgium, chiefly cut and pressed glass, those

from France, consisting of best quality cut-glass and crystal-ware, and those from the United Kingdom, also mostly expensive cut-glass, were not much smaller than the previous year's. Gablonz glassware, for which there is a large demand, did not find so ready a sale as in 1911.

In his report for the previous year the Consul mentions that, in consequence of the decreased demand for high-class glassware in that year, the United Kingdom and France, which contribute chiefly expensive goods, did a smaller volume of trade, while Austria-Hungary, Belgium, and Germany supplied larger quantities of cheap goods. The class of goods in demand in Alexandria has not shown any signs of change for some years past; customers are very conservative. The imports from Austria and Hungary consist of cylindrical lamp-glasses and all kinds of hollow and cut glassware. Germany also contributed cylindrical lamp-glasses, large quantities of medicine bottles of all sizes, and smaller quantities of hollow and cut glass. France supplied fine cut-glass and crystal-ware for the use of clubs and hotels. Belgium occupied a predominant position in the table glass trade, the United Kingdom supplying only very small quantities.

MONTREAL TO NEW YORK.

It is stated that the United States Government propose to construct a waterway to connect Montreal with New York. It involves the construction of a movable dam near St. John in order to increase the level of the Richelieu River where it leaves Lake Champlain, and thus overcome the rapids around which the Chambly Canal now provides a route. It is proposed that the waterway be 12 feet deep. Water communication exists at present of course, but it is not sufficiently deep to be practicable. The plan was first suggested some few years ago in Canada, but after a government investigation as to the possibilities of the project nothing further was done. Now that the United States has taken it up it is anticipated that the Canadian Government will be asked to co-operate in the scheme.

NEW ZEALAND NOTES

Naval and Military.

H.M.S. *Philomel*, which was handed over by the Imperial Government to the New Zealand Government as a training vessel, was, on the outbreak of war, given back to the Imperial Government in accordance with an Act passed last year, on the recommendation of the Imperial authorities. She is now an ordinary Imperial warship, under the control of the senior naval officer in New Zealand waters. Amongst the gifts presented to the reserve of the New Zealand Expeditionary Force—composed of those New Zealanders who were in the United Kingdom when war broke out, and who are in training to join the eight thousand men from New Zealand who are going to the front—are some machine guns of Vickers' latest pattern. The New Zealand gunners are undergoing a special course of training in handling these guns. Signalling apparatus, range-finders, numbers of pairs of very valuable field glasses, telescopes, and a £450 motor ambulance are also amongst the gifts received.

Capture of Samoa.

Commenting on the capture of Samoa by the First New Zealand Expeditionary Force, the Prime Minister said: "It must be very satisfactory to all the people of New Zealand that we have been able to take possession of the island with so very little trouble. Apart altogether from the fertility and the area of the island, which is approximately 1,000 square miles, Samoa is of very great strategical importance to both New Zealand and Australia. There is already a very powerful wireless station some distance inland from Apia, probably the most powerful in the Pacific, and we have reason to believe that it is still intact. Though we have secured it much more easily than we expected we have to hold Samoa." Mr. Massey added—"A strong force will be required to garrison the island for some considerable time to come."

A National Brand.

In connection with the movement to assist New Zealand industries by the use of a distinctive national brand, it is proposed

that a Dominion Industries Week should be held throughout New Zealand simultaneously, when business firms in every town are to be induced to show New Zealand goods in their windows, and the Government asked to grant excursion fares on the railways in order that country people may be able to visit the centres and purchase New Zealand goods. It has also been proposed that a continuous display should be made in a central part of every town in order that local productions should be kept before the public all the time, and a suggestion has been made that printed cards should be hung on the walls of the primary schools.

Dredging for Gum.

An experiment of considerable interest is that being embarked on in New Zealand, where a company with a capital of £30,000 has recently been formed for the purpose of working the first gum dredge in the Dominion. Never before has dredging been applied to win the gum which is known to exist in large quantities in many of the swamps in the Northern Peninsula, and the movement is one which will probably result in important developments in the near future. A gold dredge is being altered to the requirements of gum dredging and will be capable of dealing with some 6,000 yards of wash-dirt per day. The whole of the gum, it is claimed, may be extracted from the soil and cleaned by means of special appliances. There are many thousands of acres of swamp in the gum-bearing areas of the North, and it is anticipated that the dredge about to be placed in commission will be the forerunner of many others. There is now a good demand for the cheaper classes of gum, a great deal of which is found in the swamps, and the prospects of gum-dredging are regarded as very bright. Special appliances are to be provided for the removal of stumps and logs from the swamp ahead of the dredge. The swamps after being dredged will be drained and will then be available for cultivation. The land will make excellent dairying country, and should be brought into profitable occupation shortly after the gum is extracted.

Willow Tree Growing.

A farsighted settler has written to one of the Chambers of Commerce in New Zealand, making an interesting proposal concerning tree growing on a more commercial basis than the Dominion, which rather specialises in afforestation, has hitherto attempted. It is suggested that swamp lands should be planted with the kind of willow trees (*Salix alba*) suitable for making cricket bats, which would mature in twelve years, and would give immense returns. English bat-makers, it appears, pay up to £40

for a good-sized tree, and the quicker the tree grows the better it is for bat-making. For the past thirty years they have been both expensive and scarce over here. The writer points out that if the Government used prison labour to plant the willows, as it does other varieties of trees, in suitable places in New Zealand, they would get a splendid profit in twelve years.

Effect of Underwood Tariff.

Under the provisions of the Underwood tariff law, now in effect in the United States, most of the principal products of New Zealand are admitted into the United States free of duty. Tin was always free, but the Underwood law added meat and meat products, coal, wool, hides, lumber, and reduced the duty on butter from 6 cents to $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound. California is especially interested in the reform, and an analysis giving the value of free and dutiable imports by California from 1910 to 1914 shows that if the present rate of importing is sustained the total sales of New Zealand and Australian goods in San Francisco for the first year after the Underwood law became effective will be between five and six times what they were under the old law five years ago; that the imports of free goods will be about fifteen times what they were, and that the imports of dutiable goods will be about twice as large, due to the receipts of butter at the lower rate of duty.

Whey Butter.

In defence of the assertion that whey butter will keep just as well as ordinary butter, an experience that will probably interest English butter makers is being related in the Dominion. Some time back the captain of an English liner which regularly trades to and from New Zealand, visited a butter factory and took away with him a couple of pounds of the whey butter that is manufactured there. One pound was consumed before the vessel left port, but the other was placed in the cool chamber. After the vessel had made two trips to and from the old country, the pound that had been stored was tried and declared to be as good as any fresh butter.

Purging the Rolls.

The purging of the rolls for the elections in New Zealand has been accomplished on a quicker, cheaper and more satisfactory basis than ever before. The saving to the country is estimated at £3,000. Each postman had 360 houses to cover, and the business was done inside a fortnight, as against four months. Instead of the postmen taking an elector's census, and leaving enrolment forms to be collected later, the method adopted was for each

returning officer to supply to the postmen of his district (who have been formally appointed agents) cards containing the name and address of the person on the roll, whether voters at the last election or not. If the elector was still at the same house, the postman certified accordingly. If it was a case of "gone, no address," he stated it. If the new address was known he filled it up. Where new electors occupied a house, he left enrolment forms, and collected them afterwards. The returning officer numbered his cards in their alphabetical order. The postman had to disturb the order in his canvass, but once having completed the list he slipped them back and they were ready for the printer. The new process, besides being cheap and quick, ensures a pure roll and has proved a great success. The work was regulated so that it would not interfere with ordinary deliveries but fitted into slack time.

State Loans to Settlers.

The Government has removed all limits and restrictions, except those imposed by law, from advances and loans to settlers and local authorities. The maximum allowed to workers by the law is £450, while settlers may have up to £2,000 and local authorities £60,000. In addition to this the Government provides a State guarantee for loans and makes special provision for settlers who go out into the back blocks.

Museum Additions.

Two valuable additions have been made to the Canterbury Museum in the shape of a pair of Baikal teal picked up by the Museum taxidermist while in England, at the Birmingham Game Markets, where they formed part of a consignment of frozen game from Siberia. The birds are very handsome, and are said to be the only pair in existence in Australasia. They are commonly found in South-Eastern Siberia, in the vicinity of Lake Baikal, from which they take their name, and are also found in India, China and Japan, and occasionally on the shores of the Mediterranean, where they were first known. The late Canon Tristram, a well-known naturalist, who was much interested in these birds, sent two collectors to obtain specimens, but they returned after a season's work with only two. The numbers recorded in the catalogue of the British Museum are very small.

Hat Pin Bye-Law.

Christchurch, the capital of the province of Canterbury, has decided to follow the lead of the two North Island capitals, Wellington and Auckland, and introduce a bye-law forbidding women to wear unprotected hatpins in the streets, public conveyances and places of amusement.

OPPORTUNITIES IN ONTARIO

An Avalanche of Wheat.

A PETITION has been forwarded to the Canadian Dominion Government for an additional 5,000,000 bushels storage capacity to the Government-owned terminal elevator situated between Fort William and Port Arthur. The petition draws attention to the fact that storage facilities are inadequate in case of a sudden crisis such as is being at present experienced. With the increased acreage certain to be under crop next season what has been described as an avalanche of wheat is anticipated at the head of the lakes.

Farming Trains.

The Ontario Department of Agriculture conducts "Better Farming Special Trains" from year to year, made up of several exhibition cars and regular coaches. These cars are equipped with all up-to-date equipments used by fruit growers, with samples of spray mixtures and an exhibit of insects, and diseases prevalent in orchards; modern dairy appliances with samples of butter and cheese; bacterial samples showing proper care of milk; samples of corn and methods of storing and testing seed corn were shown; samples of grain, grasses and noxious weeds; poultry foods and small up-to-date houses; drainage tools with an exhibit illustrating the results of proper systems. The trains are manned with competent lecturers from the Agricultural College and elsewhere and stops are made at many stations. The novelty as well as the practical nature of the lectures arouse great interest, and thousands of people attend the demonstrations.

Openings for Investment.

The Agent-General gives us some useful information as to the openings for the investment of capital:—

Agriculture is our chief industry, and although Ontario is at the head of the Canadian provinces as regards the value of her agricultural products, there is still room for extensive development in all branches of farming. There are 15,000,000

to 20,000,000 acres of virgin land in New Ontario still to be brought into productivity.

Dairying is a very profitable branch of farming, and now that the hydro-electric power supply has been distributed throughout the western portion of Old Ontario, one of the chief obstacles to dairying—the difficulty and cost of securing common labour—has been overcome. Successful milking machines operated by hydro-electric power are now in use on many dairy farms. The same power is used to separate the cream, grind feed, groom cattle, and perform other work formerly done by hand. There is an unlimited market for dairy products across the border and in this country. Dairying and fruit farming are both occupations which provide splendid returns on the capital invested. I have just had a call from a Yorkshire manufacturer, who has lost £80,000 as the result of the war, and is anxious to take up fruit farming in Ontario.

As regards manufacturing, almost all branches offer strong inducements to British investors. The production of implements used in agriculture is already undertaken in Ontario on a sufficiently extensive scale to meet Canadian requirements and to provide a good surplus for export, but there are few other branches of industry which could not be established with success. The manufacture of all classes of ironmongers' wares, particularly of the kind used by house furnishers (locks, keys, etc.) is one of the most needed branches. The cotton industry is only in its infancy. Large mills are being established in Welland and Cornwall, but there is room for many more, as well as for silk mills and boot and shoe factories.

In many branches of manufacturing a start has still to be made. For instance, pottery and china works are non-existent. Chemical works would find a large market for their products. The mines have been using large quantities of heavy chemicals imported from Germany, and quite a lot of German-made drugs have been consumed in the province hitherto. The growth of the mining industry should lead to the establishment of chemical works in the province. Then there is scope for the employment of capital in developing the mineral resources of Ontario. The province is already a large producer of silver, gold, nickel and other metals, but its existing mineral output does not represent anything like its potentialities in this respect.

Educational Facilities.

Ontario is a province which makes a special appeal to heads of families, who take into consideration not only their own careers, but those of their sons and daughters. To them the educational system is of interest. The public school system has a world-wide reputation. There are, including kindergartens, night schools, high schools, collegiate institutes and continuation

classes, 6,942 public schools—all free—the yearly attendance of pupils being 500,000. Training and household science have now been introduced, also trade schools to give technical education, with the hope of rivalling Germany in that respect.

The Upper Canada College and the Toronto University are historic institutions. Dr. Parkin, it will be remembered, resigned the headmastership of the Upper Canada College to become one of the commissioners to administrate the educational bequest of Cecil Rhodes. His place was filled by an Oxford graduate of high standing. Toronto University has nearly 5,000 students. These institutions are not free, but are in no way extravagant. The various religious bodies have fourteen colleges, four universities, ladies' colleges and schools.

College of Art.

Art and education receive a large share of attention. For example, a few years ago the provincial Government of Ontario appointed Dr. Seath, Superintendent of Education, to make an extensive tour through the principal European countries and the United States, for the purpose of reporting as to a desirable and practical system for art and technical education for the province. As a result of his tour Dr. Seath drew up a report two years later in which he recommended the extension of the provision of art and drawing facilities in the primary and secondary schools; the establishment of a central art school in Toronto with day and night classes, for students and teachers in the fine arts, and for apprentices and workmen in the applied arts; the establishment of art schools and departments in the principal centres of population in the province, and the more generous support of art generally by legislative grants. Following these recommendations, the Ontario College of Art was opened as an independent art teaching corporation under direct authority of the Department of Education. This has been described as remarkable in *personnel* and equipment and unequalled on the American continent in scale of excellence. A feature of the college is the antique gallery of plaster casts of world-famed sculptures acquired for the old school of art more than fifty years ago.

Open-Air School.

A very lively interest in the health of school children is an outstanding feature in Ontario. In Toronto, for instance, they have what is known as the "Forest School," which takes its name from the fact that the teaching of the children is conducted under the trees in the parks of the city. The plan of operation is very simple. Boys and girls who are run down in health, and

who will be benefited by prolonged open-air treatment, are taken each day from their homes by private car to the park, where their day is divided into school, rest and recreation periods. This system means that for almost six months of the year they are under the same course of treatment and are obliged to follow a definite line of action for that period of the time. All their work is taken out of doors; plain and wholesome meals are provided for them and a regular rest insisted upon. The health of the child is vastly improved, and the all-round effect is most satisfactory.

Military College.

Most of the officers commanding the Canadian contingent going to the Front received their training at the Royal Military College, Kingston. Each year seven commissions in the Imperial Army are given to graduates made up as follows:—engineers, 1; artillery, 1; cavalry, 1; infantry, 1; Indian Army, 1; army service corps, 2. The college has already given to the Empire several officers of distinction, and students leave, not only with a military education, but fitted for civil life in every form. It is a Government institution, adapted on Woolwich and Sandhurst lines, and the commandant and military instructors are officers on the active list of the Imperial Army. The course is three years, of nine and a half months' residence each year.

Artificial Flowers and Feathers.

The removal of the competition of cheap German artificial flowers and feathers, as a result of the war, is stimulating activity in the artificial flower and feather factories of Canada. The imports of these goods from Germany to Canada during the last fiscal year amounted to nearly £36,000, and Canadian manufacturers will be called upon to supply the deficiency. The factories in Toronto have experienced greatly increased activity since the war began. Under normal conditions these have about two hundred employees. Since the commencement of the war this number has been considerably increased, and it has been necessary for many of the employees to work overtime several nights a week in order to cope with the increased business.

CROWN COLONIES IN 1913

Progress in Sierra Leone.

THE total revenue from Customs last year was the largest yet obtained in the Colony. The net revenue, after deducting drawbacks and refunds, amounted to £326,033, exceeding the return for 1912 by £16,110. The increase was almost entirely collected in Freetown. The decrease in the receipts from the Port of Sherbro may be regarded as temporary, being due partly to a decline in the revenue derived from spirits consequent upon the laying in of large stocks in 1912 in order to forestall the Trade Spirits Ordinance (No. 9 of 1912), and partly to the unsettled state of trade caused by unrest in the Northern Sherbro District in consequence of measures taken by the Government to repress the activities of the Human Leopard Society. The items chiefly responsible for the increase in import duties were spirits, cotton, tobacco, kerosene oil and metal manufactures. The decrease in the import duties on sugar, salt and provisions was due to their exemption from duty, dating from the month of August.

Imports show an increased value of £325,439, or 22·84 per cent., compared with 1912, and exceed all previous records. Government imports amounted to £146,053, as compared with £74,630 in the previous year, representing 8·34 per cent. of the total imports, against 5·24 per cent. in 1912. This large increase is due to the extensive Government works in process of construction and to a larger importation of railway materials, including rolling stock, which became necessary to cope with the expanding traffic with the Protectorate.

There are no export duties in Sierra Leone. The value of the exports from the Colony for 1913 was £1,731,252, showing an advance of nearly £200,000. Of this sum £1,376,603 is represented by the produce and manufactures of Sierra Leone, against £1,222,946 in 1912, showing an increase of £153,657. Specie was exported to the value of £240,964, a rise of £50,382.

Nature of Exports.

The exports of palm kernels show a falling off in volume of 1,550 tons, but an increase in value of £127,765. In a year when

prices have been the highest yet recorded, and when more tracts of country have been opened up by railway communication, it is unsatisfactory to have to record a decrease in the volume of this commodity. This decrease, however, is adequately accounted for by the temporary withdrawal of labour from the palm kernel industry to the railway construction. Germany continued to be the chief market for palm kernels. Out of a total tonnage of 49,201 tons, 43,016 tons were destined for Hamburg; the greater part of this amount was carried in British bottoms. The export of this commodity to Germany has again increased, and that to the United Kingdom has again decreased, as compared with the preceding year.

Palm oil was exported during this year to the value of £56,659. 509,688 gallons were shipped to the United Kingdom and 69,786 gallons to Germany, as compared with 639,394 gallons to the United Kingdom and 63,447 gallons to Germany in the preceding year. The export of kola nuts reached an aggregate of £328,003, representing 1,865 tons, as against £276,530, representing 1,652 tons in the preceding year. The increase is probably due to the greater demand in French and Portuguese Guinea, Dakar, and the Gambia, owing to the prosperity of those places consequent upon an exceptionally successful ground-nut season. The extension of the railway and the entrance of Syrians into the trade has also contributed to the increased exports. Although the market for this commodity is still almost entirely limited to West Africa, it has become one of the most important exports from Sierra Leone. The quantity of exported ginger was 2,048 tons, valued at £35,468, as compared with 2,200 tons, valued at £44,864, in 1912. The decline of exports is due to the fall in prices caused by over-supply in the European market. At least one third of the crop was not harvested. Almost the whole of the ginger exported is consigned to the United Kingdom. The exports of piassava reached 839 tons, valued at £12,280, as against 1,146 tons, worth £15,462, in 1912. Of this quantity the United Kingdom received 302 tons, while 537 tons were sent to Germany. The number of hides exported is returned as 9,789, this being 458 less than in 1912. The value, however, was £208 greater. The further decline in these figures is attributed to the growth of a native export trade over the frontier to French Guinea, where better prices are obtainable than in Freetown. 24 tons of gum copal were exported, as against 17 tons in 1912. The value was £2,682, as compared with £1,607 in the preceding year. The whole quantity was shipped to the United Kingdom. 21,546 bushels of rice, valued at £3,990, were exported, showing a decrease of 9,169 bushels, and £1,723 as compared with the corresponding return for 1912.

Practically all the rice exported is consigned to other West African countries. Only 6 tons of rubber were exported as compared with 10 tons in 1912; the values were £1,292 and £2,962 respectively.

Competing Markets.

The aggregate trade with the United Kingdom showed an increase as compared with that of the preceding year, being £1,368,774 as against £1,184,749, while its proportion to the total trade continued to show a slight sinking tendency, being 39·31 per cent. as against 39·95 per cent. in 1912. The United Kingdom is responsible for 65·06 per cent. of the import trade and of 13·29 per cent. of the export trade, as compared with 64·01 per cent. and 17·70 per cent. in 1912. The decline in exports is due to smaller shipments of ginger and palm products. Germany is responsible for 9·95 per cent. of the import trade and 47·49 per cent. of the export trade. These figures indicate a rise of about 4 per cent. in exports and a fall of about 2 per cent. in imports as compared with 1912. After the United Kingdom and Germany the other British West African Possessions come next in importance, and show an increase with regard to both imports and exports, which has in both cases, however, been contributed by specie. As pointed out above, in this Colony the movement of specie bears no relation to trade demands. Foreign West African Possessions have advanced their transactions in total trade with this Colony by £57,807. There is a substantial increase in exports represented by large shipments of kola nuts to Dakar. The trade with the United States of America continues to progress favourably.

1,989 vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 2,931,085 tons, were entered and cleared, as compared with 2,139 ships, aggregating 2,676,471 tons, the year before. The large increase of tonnage is a further indication of the continued prosperity of the Colony. British and German tonnages entirely dominate the shipping trade of the Colony, their percentage proportion to total tonnage entered being 70·19 and 27·86.

Agricultural Department.

One of the main objects of the Agricultural Department is to improve the present wasteful system of farming by demonstrating the superiority of scientific methods. In 1913 more land was opened up at the Experimental Farm at Mano, and an experiment was made with deep hoeing. This was shown to be of great benefit to the succeeding crop. Many more varieties of local rice have been planted this year than in 1912. The area under Indian rice has been increased, and it has now been proved that this rice

will grow in Sierra Leone. It is intended next year to distribute samples of Indian rice for trial in the various chiefdoms. An experiment in growing ground-nuts in lines was made this year with the object of facilitating the harvesting, but it was found that no advantage is to be gained on the flat by such a method. Native cocoa plantations have been formed in the Northern Sherbro District, and many chiefs have shown themselves interested in growing this product. Cocoa plantations have accordingly been formed at the Experimental Farm, where, in spite of the long dry season, they appear to be doing well. Shade has been afforded by banana trees. Pigeon pea, black gram, and various other crops are being planted for experimental purposes. Pigeon pea is found wild in some parts of the Protectorate, but it is not used by the natives as a foodstuff. A trial was again made this year of West Indian cotton, but it did not do so well as in the previous year. A great proportion of the cotton became affected by the red rust fungus. The Experimental Farm is now getting more widely known, and many chiefs have visited it during the year under survey. Various seeds have been distributed to chiefs for trial in their own chiefdoms. During the year several agricultural shows were held in various localities. The suspicion with which in some cases the chiefs tended to regard this innovation was due to a large extent to the conservatism natural to hitherto unprogressive races. On the whole the shows were a great success, and it is hoped that, by holding them annually in future, the interest of the people in agriculture will be stimulated and maintained.

Afforestation.

A most important development was the demarcation and survey of a forest reservation extending over an area of nearly 6,000 acres, and comprising the gum copal forests which are situated on the Kassewe Hills, some twenty-four miles north-east of Moyamba and six miles east of Yonnibanna. The trees have been greatly over-tapped, but it is anticipated that a complete rest of five or more years will restore them to a healthy condition. Under proper management this area should give an annual yield of between 80 and 100 tons of gum copal. Work continued to be carried out in the various nurseries and plantations, and altogether thirty-four specimens were added to the Forestry Herbarium. The Roman Catholic Missions throughout the Protectorate have done excellent work in planting the various rubbers; the school children are taught the proper method of cultivation. At Serabu twenty Para trees which were tapped gave a yield of 14 lb. of rubber. This yield is quite up to the average.

New Traders.

Summing up the position generally for the year under review the Acting Colonial Secretary tells us that, "A new era has dawned for the Protectorate, and a new spirit is beginning to pervade its more accessible parts—that of commercial enterprise. This spirit is illustrated by the activity of a number of substantial traders along the new branch line of the railway, by an increase in the number of Syrian traders in the Karene District, and by the numerous petty traders and trading centres which exist, in spite of the hitherto bad system of communication, in the Northern Sherbro District. Nor is it confined to Europeans, Syrians and Sierra Leoneans, it is taking root in the native population, as seen from the general increase of hawkers' licences. Messrs. Lever Brothers' factory at Yonnibanna, which has been opened, is not only a token of future development, but also a landmark in the economic history of Sierra Leone.

The broadening influences of commerce have not been without effect on the social life of the people. In one district, at any rate, the common folk are awakening to a sense of their true position in the tribe. Men and women who were formerly merged in the family of a powerful relative are beginning to realise their own importance and to demand their rights as individuals. True progress must come from within and cannot be imposed from without. This symptom is, therefore, one of the most promising signs of the times. Though the germ may take a long time to mature, it is hoped that by fostering it in the years to come it may ultimately develop into a robust and progressive organism.

Sierra Leone's Gift.

The following telegrams have passed between the Governor of Sierra Leone and the Secretary for the Colonies:—

The Governor to the Secretary of State for the Colonies :

"I have much pleasure in informing you that a vote of £5,000 has been passed by the Legislative Council as a contribution to Imperial funds. It is suggested that the sum mentioned should be devoted to National Relief Fund or to any other purpose sanctioned by His Majesty's Government.
—MEREWETHER."

The Secretary of State for the Colonies to the Governor :

"Your telegram of October 21.—His Majesty's Government gratefully accept contribution of £5,000 from Sierra Leone funds. Contribution will be devoted to Prince of Wales's National Relief Fund.—HARCOURT."

Gibraltar Improvements.

The financial condition of Gibraltar continues to be satisfactory. The revenue is well maintained and the year 1913 ended with a surplus of £22,557 and an asset balance of £237,195. There is a steady improvement in the coaling trade of the port, the steamers actually coaling numbering 2,184, and the quantity of coal taken amounting to 288,725 tons, the largest export since 1900. The extension works at Waterport, which are to provide increased wharfage and storage accommodation for the general trade of the port, as well as improved facilities for the landing and embarking of passengers, are proceeding rapidly. The new road outside the walls of the garrison is partly constructed. The Catalan Bay Road, on the eastern side of the Rock, is being extended by the Sanitary Commissioners as far as Sandy Bay, and when finished will provide an agreeable and healthful addition to the necessarily restricted promenades of Gibraltar. Increased facilities for communication with Spain have been afforded by the extension of the hours of closing the land gates from sunset to 9 p.m. in winter, and 10 p.m. in summer, and the opening to traffic of a new road across the neutral ground between La Linea and Gibraltar, over which an improved motor omnibus service is running. The extension of this road from La Linea to Campamento is under construction.

Gold Coast Imports.

The United Kingdom contributed 70 per cent. last year of the total increase in Gold Coast imports. She contributed the whole, or practically the whole, of the increases in ale and porter, building materials, beef and pork, coal, furniture, hardware, provisions, soap, cigarettes and woollen goods; and a considerable share of the increases in carriages and carts, cotton goods, lumber, railway plant, sugar, and rice. Her position seems to have improved at the expense of her rivals in brassware and copperware, bread and biscuits, coopers' stores, gunpowder and guns and pistols. Her gain, however, is not so great as would appear from the statistics, for a considerable proportion of these imports are to be credited ultimately to American or other foreign origin. On the whole, however, it would appear that, if the position of the British manufacturer has not greatly improved, it has not seriously suffered.

Germany contributed over three per cent. of the total increase in imports during the year. Her most notable increases were in bread and biscuits, carriages and carts, cotton, hardware, provisions, rice and sugar, her decreases were in wearing apparel, beads, building materials, gunpowder, machinery, woollen goods and wines.

The United States of America contributed eleven per cent. of the total increase in imports. Her principal increases were in carriages and carts, flour, furniture, and unmanufactured tobacco, while her decreases were under rum and kerosene oil. The position of the United States in the markets of the Colony is, however, much stronger than the statistics indicate. Not only does she contribute practically all the flour, rum, kerosene oil, and unmanufactured tobacco imported into the Colony, but also a considerable proportion of the motor lorries, hardware and lumber shown as imported from the United Kingdom and other countries.

Holland contributed three per cent. of the increase in imports. Her principal increases were in gin, machinery, railway plant, and cotton; her decreases were in hardware, brassware, copperware, and rice.

Ceylon Trade.

The following table gives an analysis of the distribution of the trade of Ceylon with (1) the United Kingdom, (2) British Colonies, (3) Foreign Countries during the last three years, excluding imports of rubber, specie, and coal exported for the use of steamers:—

		<i>Imports.</i>		
		1911	1912	1913
From United Kingdom		28·3	29·6	30·1
From British Colonies		57·7	55·4	54·4
From Foreign Countries		14	15	15·5
		<i>Exports.</i>		
To United Kingdom		48·4	49·1	45·3
To British Colonies		13·3	13·3	12·2
To Foreign Countries		38·3	37·6	42·5
		<i>Total Trade.</i>		
With United Kingdom		39·3	40·1	38·7
With British Colonies		33·4	32·7	30·6
With Foreign Countries		27·3	27·2	30·7

These figures show a relative decline as regards both imports and exports in the trade with British Colonies, and a marked increase in the percentage of the total trade with foreign countries.

Nassau, a Winter Resort.

As a winter health and pleasure resort Nassau has for many years past attracted a considerable number of American and Canadian visitors, and the hotels and boarding houses were fairly full during the season 1913-14, when it is estimated that about 2,600 tourists arrived, in addition to 1,231 visitors from pleasure steamers staying here a few hours on their way north or south. But considering that the Colony pays £5,000 a year to subsidise

a hotel and steamship service with Florida for ten weeks these figures cannot be regarded as satisfactory. The Colony has never been sufficiently advertised. A certain amount of advertising is done by the steamship companies and the American hotel, but the attractions of the Colony are not nearly so well known in the United States and in Canada as are those of Bermuda. Fired by the example of its sister Colony, the House of Assembly has at length tackled the question seriously, and a Development Board has been formed with power to advertise, to appoint agents, and to negotiate contracts for steamship communication. For this purpose the Legislature has voted to the Board £3,000 for each of the years 1914-15 and 1915-16, and £2,000 for each of the three following financial years. This is a step in the right direction, and should result in a large addition to the tourist traffic in the near future.

Gambia's Record.

In his annual report on the Colony the Colonial Secretary tells us that the year 1913 was the most prosperous on record as regards the revenue received and the volume of trade. The construction of the Denton Bridge over Oyster Creek was proceeded with and a commencement made with the scheme for supplying Bathurst with a pipe-borne water-supply from Lamin. These works made fair progress considering the scarcity and inefficiency of local labour. The Survey of the River Gambia was also continued. The Board of Health maintained its crusade against mosquitoes and did not relax its efforts to prosecute the occupiers of insanitary premises. Reclamation work at Half Die and other places in Bathurst was continued. The Public Works Department completed the new Post Office, erected various new buildings, and carried on its efforts to renovate and preserve ancient ones.

SOUTH AFRICAN PRODUCTS

Beet Sugar.

ATTENTION is being drawn to the advantage of introducing the beet sugar industry into South Africa at the present time, in view of the shortage which must occur in the supply from the Continent of Europe. It is stated that experiments show that many parts of the country are eminently suitable for this crop, and that analyses of samples have shown them to be equal to the best produced in Europe, with the added advantage that in South Africa two crops can be grown in one year. The Chairman of the Produce Section of the Johannesburg Chamber of Commerce informs us that the maize crop was twenty-five per cent. better this year than last. He estimates the crop in the Transvaal, Free State and Natal at $4\frac{1}{2}$ or 5 million bags. If this be a correct estimate about a million bags must be available for export. American manufacturers are considering the question of using South African wattle bark in their tanneries. This product in the past has been almost entirely purchased by Germany.

Farming.

Mealie planting on a large scale is to be undertaken under Government supervision in the Transvaal. A farm in extent about 5,000 acres has been secured for the purpose, and all implements are being supplied free of cost. The farm is to be run on the dry land system. The scheme has been inaugurated to relieve distress, and it is hoped that employment will be given to some four hundred men at present out of work. A fat stock show held at Mooi River in Natal recently is said to have been the best of its sort ever held in South Africa, and opinions were expressed by those competent to do so that many of the winners would have been decorated with award tickets at even England's premier fat stock show. A South African farmer who has lately returned from a trip to Europe, has urged upon ostrich farmers the necessity of advertising their feathers in Europe. He

suggests a tax of 3*d.* per lb. for this purpose, and that the amount so raised should be devoted to sending the feathers to big exhibitions and to the leading millinery houses in England and the Continent. He also proposed a heavy tax on feathers below a certain length so as to prevent over-plucking.

Wool.

It is reported that inquiries are coming from America in regard to South African wool, and it is stated that American manufacturers are already erecting machinery to deal with the shorter classes of wool which are exported from South Africa. These have in the past been mainly taken by Germany and Belgium. The Government of the Union have inaugurated a scheme whereby advances of 50 per cent. will be made against the value of consignments of South African wool, mohair, skins and hides intended for export. Government agents have been appointed at each of the principal ports of the Union, who will receive, value and store the produce. A small charge will be made for these services, also for insurance, preparation for export, and for sale if effected by the Government.

COTTON-GROWING IN NYASALAND

Nyasaland cotton has maintained its position as the most extensive exportable crop both in acreage and value. 8,093 bales of 400 lbs. each were exported as against 3,392 in the previous year. The area under European cultivation was 24,155 acres, compared with 23,314 in 1911-12. The local value of the total crop showed an increase of £36,840 6*s.* on that of the preceding year. The prices realised on the home market for first quality Nyasaland cotton varied from 8*d.* to 9½*d.* per lb., or about 1*d.* in advance of the figures of the previous year, while second quality cotton was sold at a slight premium on the prices of 6*d.* to 7*d.* per lb. for prevailing "American middling." The native cotton crop proved a failure in the low levels, where much of the cotton has been grown in the past. As a consequence the total crop for the year shows a decrease on that of the previous year of 217 tons 8 cwt. 2 qrs. 12 lbs., or a reduction in lint of 328 bales of 400 lbs. each.

The following figures show the progress of the native cotton-growing industry for the past five years:—

	Tons, Seed Cotton.	Bales of 400 lbs. lint.
1908-9	130	196
1909-10	220	332
1910-11	692	1046
1911-12	962	1454
1912-13	744	1126

The cotton seed distributed to natives for cultivation during the present season amounts to 130 tons, or about 40 tons in excess of any previous year. Excessive rain and absence of sun have made the prospects unfavourable in the high levels, but the crop promises to be a good one in the low-lying districts. The experimental establishment of native cotton markets in the Mlanje and Upper Shire districts during the year under review was completely justified. Not only were they the means of teaching the native cultivator the importance of grading the cotton, but they secured for the native the best prices for his produce. It has been decided to extend the system to other native cotton producing districts, and natives who grade their produce will receive an enhanced price for first quality cotton. The seed supplied to natives is carefully selected, and the work of selection which has been carried out in recent years on the Government experimental farms is beginning to have fruitful results. This, taken in conjunction with the instruction given by trained natives under the supervision of officers of the Agricultural Department, has been the means of effecting a marked improvement in the quality of native cotton during the past two years.

TONGAN ISLANDS PROTECTORATE.

The Government have recognised that the question of improving and extending the road system demands attention, and the matter is receiving consideration. With the exception of a few miles of metalled highway, the only means of communication on land is by natural-soil roads, which, in the rainy season, render transport both difficult and hazardous.

During the last financial year considerable progress was made in the field and other work of the Survey Department, under the guidance of Mr. Wallace. In Tongatabu an area of 12,223 acres was surveyed, comprising 1,541 abis (country allotments for growing foodstuffs, etc.). This work included the surveying and pegging of both old and new roads, and was carried out by three surveyors, each of whom was assisted by six labourers. The approximate cost of the survey was 3s. 6d. an acre, which is satisfactory seeing that the various sections constituted irregular polygons with an average area of less than eight acres. A Resident Surveyor has been appointed to Vavau, and one to Haabai. They are at present engaged in surveying the main roads preliminary to undertaking the delimitation of the town and country sections. With an improved road system, and the settlement of the boundaries of agricultural and other lands, Tonga will have made a distinct advance on the path of progress.

STORY OF WEIHAIWEI

SITUATED on the Province of Shantung, the territory of Weihaiwei has a special interest in present circumstances. It was leased by China to Great Britain by a convention made on July 1, 1898, and has a total area of 285 square miles and a population of some 150,000 persons. In addition to the leased territory there is a sphere of influence comprising that part of Shantung lying east of the meridian 121.40, and extending over an area of 1,500 square miles. During the year 1913-14 the territory has passed through prosperous times. Harvests were good and commerce showed a steady and healthy increase.

Trade Expansion.

The number of new buildings erected shows the prosperous condition of the Chinese merchants and their belief in the future of Weihaiwei. In the absence of any statistical department or Customs returns it is impossible to give definite figures of the trade, but there was a large increase in the import of flour, mostly American, which is brought mainly from Hongkong and Shanghai. This increase is due to the people having cultivated a taste for foreign flour, which they make into cakes and dumplings. Japanese yarn was also imported in large amounts. Though beans are imported in fairly large quantities from Manchuria, there is at present only one bean-oil mill, which is reported to make large profits. There was a considerable increase in the export of ground-nuts and ground-nut oil, and there seems no reason why this trade should not continue to develop. There was a marked increase in the number of Japanese steamers which brought flour and returned with cargoes of ground-nuts, salt fish, and bean-oil to Hongkong. No ground-nut oil is expressed locally, so the opportunity presents itself for some enterprising firm to erect a mill. There is ample scope for such a venture, and it seems almost certain that it would prove a great success.

Tobacco-growing.

During last year representatives of the British-American Tobacco Company visited the Territory with a view of ascertaining its suitability for growing foreign tobacco. So impressed were they with the advantages of the place from the standpoints of climate and soil that the Company is now proceeding with experiments. Several classes of seeds have been imported from America, and the land cultivated is of varying location and quality, the object being to ascertain what combination will yield the best results. Seeds have also been distributed among Chinese farmers, who have shown themselves most ready to plant them. There seems every hope that the experiment will succeed for, though the Weihaiwei farmer is as a rule extremely conservative and cautious, he is at the same time shrewd and by no means slow to avail himself of any change when he realises that it will be to his material advantage.

A German Industry.

Mention may be made of a new industry which has been started in Weihaiwei in the shape of the manufacture of hair-nets. The hair used is obtained from Germany, and the nets are hand-made by women and children in the Territory, the finished article being sent back to Germany through the post. The local business is a branch of a firm which has been established in Chefoo for some years, and the fact that Weihaiwei is a free port no doubt considerably reduces the cost of production. There are nearly five hundred persons engaged in this industry in various parts of the Territory. If the average output of each worker be ten nets per day, the total weekly output must have amounted to thirty-five thousand nets. It is said that the art of making these nets can be learned in less than one day, and as the firm has agents enlisting new workers, not only in the Territory, but also in the neighbouring districts, the industry seems to be one that may increase largely. The price paid varies from 1 cent to 3½ cents per net according to size, so that the cost of labour for making one dozen nets varies from 2½*d.* to 8¾*d.*

Afforestation Difficulties.

Owing to the scarcity of firewood and the length of the winter, incalculable damage has been done to the hillsides of the province of Shantung by the long-established practice on the part of the natives of scraping the banks and hillsides for grass and roots, which they use for fuel. Whole villages are employed in this manner throughout the winter, and it is scarcely too much to say that not a square yard of the hillsides goes unscraped. This practice has been forbidden on the island of

Liukung, but it is impossible to check it on the mainland, owing to want of staff. As long as it continues successful afforestation work is seriously impeded, as by it the hills are deprived of earth, the ground is robbed of its natural fertilisers and exposed to the direct rays of the sun, so that the trees cannot resist a long period of drought. If the Government were able to undertake afforestation on an extensive scale it would be necessary to devise some means of providing the villages with fuel during the first few years of such afforestation work, before the suppression of this practice could be effected without serious trouble.

Anti-Footbinding Society.

The Anti-Footbinding Society formed in 1912 continues to make efforts to induce the people to realise the evils of foot-binding. A large meeting was held last year attended by most of the village headmen, 305 in all, and as a result the Government was petitioned to issue proclamations upon the subject. This was done, but the response from the villagers was not as cordial as was expected. It is not practicable under present conditions to penalise foot-binding, or to allow a bounty on the marriage of natural-footed women, as has been suggested, and all that the Government can do is to show a sympathetic interest in the movement.

A number of girls under twelve years of age are now left with feet unbound, but it is rather more than can be expected of the people of a remote corner of the very conservative province of Shantung to attempt to set up a new fashion—for that is what it amounts to—when the majority of their neighbours will have none of it. The main resistance to the introduction of this reform is said to come from the women, who, apart from the fear of appearing ridiculously out of fashion, probably in their hearts fear the handicap that natural-footed girls would suffer in the matrimonial market so long as men appear to prefer wives with bound feet. If males could be persuaded to marry only natural-footed females, it would not be long before foot-binding would become a custom of the past.

THE EMPIRE REVIEW

AND

JOURNAL OF BRITISH TRADE

VOL. XXVIII DECEMBER, 1914.

No. 167.

RECOLLECTIONS OF LORD ROBERTS

I

By LIEUT.-COLONEL A. C. YATE

REMEMBERING my previous experiences of attendance at the Funeral Services at St. Paul's of heroes and heroines of the Nation—those of Miss Florence Nightingale, and Field-Marshal Lord Wolseley, and the Memorial Service to King Edward VII.—I started betimes on the morning of the 19th November to reach the Cathedral of the City. Shortly after I had taken the seat assigned to me, an old friend of Simla days—we were subalterns together in the Intelligence Division in 1886—came in and sat down just in front of me. We had not met for well-nigh twenty years. Memory carried him back in a few minutes to the Simla days, when Sir Frederick Roberts was Chief in India, and he pictured to me a little episode which he had never forgotten, that of meeting Sir Frederick Roberts on the Mall, and being greeted with a friendly shake of the hand, and—"How d'ye do, I hope you're coming to my dance to-night." Simple words, but still living after twenty-eight years, and with, doubtless, many more years of life before them. It is trite wisdom, but true, that words are as waves of sound, vibrating in an ever-widening sphere.

The Houses of Parliament have listened to words of eulogy of the great soldier who has passed away—*felix opportunitate mortis* as Lord Curzon said—from the lips of our leading Statesmen and of one or two soldiers who had served with him. This little

tribute to his memory must reproduce simply my own personal recollections. The earliest of those carry me back to the plains of Kandahar in the hot weather of 1880. Sir Frederick had raised the siege and scattered Ayub's forces. We under Sir Robert Phayre, who had been massed on the northern slopes of the Kozhak range, some coming from the garrisons of Quetta, Sharigh, Harnai, and Duki, and some toiling through the desperate heat of the Punjab, Sind and the Bolan Pass, had, for the nonce, worked and hoped in vain. Amid the jubilation that attended the issue of the battle of Kandahar on 1st September, 1880, there was no sympathy for the disappointed force under Sir Robert Phayre, which, having borne all the heat and burden of the day, was kept back too late for the one thing that would have consoled us, the honour of sharing in Roberts' victory. No one now, but ourselves, remembers our broken hearts when the news reached us, still three marches from Kandahar, that we were too late. We had been kept kicking our heels for a fortnight before the battle at Chaman on the Kozhak, and we had to continue kicking them for ten days after it in the desert valleys of the Kadanai and the Tarnak. Then the victorious Kabul Force moved south to Quetta and India, and we of the Quetta Force garrisoned Kandahar. The two Forces passed each other on the road; and it was then that I first saw the General who, passing away, now leaves behind him, in the sight of the Empire, the reputation of being the foremost soldier of his time.

It was not till 1885 that I had my first personal interview with him. From August 1884 to September 1885 I had been away with the Afghan Boundary Commission, primarily as special correspondent of the *Pioneer* and *Daily Telegraph*, and secondarily as Transport Officer, for six months or so, with that Commission. I was convinced myself that an officer who for six months had looked after some thousands of camels and mules in government service ought not to have that period counted as furlough. (To go as a special correspondent I took furlough.) However, the military department turned a deaf ear to all my arguments, and so I appealed to the Commander-in-Chief. At the Delhi-Ambala camp of exercise of 1885-86,*

* This is the only camp of exercise in India ever, to the best of my recollection, attended by Foreign Military Attachés. Sir F. Roberts' habit of going straight across country was at times too much for the "Foreign" horsemanship. "Another Foreign Officer off, sir!" the aide-de-camp was said to whisper in His Excellency's ear, and His Excellency then drew rein till the foreigner remounted. I can still see the two figures of Lord Dufferin and Sir F. Roberts sitting motionless on their horses at the saluting post on the final review day of the Delhi-Ambala camp force. The rain poured down heavily and steadily from daybreak onward. The ground became a marsh, and the artillery and cavalry churned it into a slough. Through that

probably the greatest ever held in India, and at which I was present on special duty, I was granted an interview with Sir Frederick. He treated me most kindly and considerately, but he maintained the view taken by the Military Department.

I left his presence, I must confess, feeling a little sore and disappointed; but that, I think, passed away, when in March 1886 I received the offer of a paid-attachéship in the Intelligence Division at Simla. It fell to my lot to compile in that division the Diary of the Burmese War for the information of the Secretary of State for India. All confidential papers connected with that war, even the demi-official letters between Sir Frederick Roberts and Sir George Chesney, passed through my hands. My experience then of how the Military Member kept a check on the Chief made me entirely sympathise with Lord Kitchener twenty years later, when he set his mind to crushing the Military Member. It was no question of personal feeling with me. I was then competing for the gold medal of the United Service Institution of India, the subject being "A Railway Service Corps for the North-West Frontier," and Sir George Chesney with his great experience very kindly helped me with advice and hints where to seek information. To Sir Frederick Roberts, when in October 1886 I vacated my paid-attachéship to join my regiment, the 1st Baluch Light Infantry, on active service in Burma, I was also greatly indebted for his kindness in putting on record that he wished me to return to the Intelligence Division as soon as the Burma campaign was over. Sir Frederick himself came to Mandalay that winter of 1886-87, the winter the operations of which broke the back of the Burmese opposition to British rule, and the experiences of which I summed up in a short and hurried contribution to "Blackwood" in May 1887. The withdrawal of Sir Harry Prendergast and the death of Sir Herbert Macpherson opened the way to Sir Frederick for the appointment of Major-General George White, whose reputation had been made in the Afghan War of 1878-81, to the chief command in Burma. He had under him, among other brigadiers, Lockhart and Low, both first-rate men selected by Sir Frederick Roberts, and both destined to rise to very high command, the one as Chief in India, and the other as Chief in Bombay.

The last time I saw Sir Frederick in India was at the Muridki Camp of the cold weather of 1890. The Duke of Clarence was there. Great was the final contest for the Native

the infantry had to wade, and a most trying ordeal it was. My memory still recalls the magnificent steadiness with which a battalion of the Highland Light Infantry passed through that ordeal. The mass of spectators, in waterproofs and great coats and under umbrellas, were moved to warm applause. Most of our full-dress uniforms were more or less ruined that day.

Cavalry Tent-pegging Cup, in which the 11th Bengal Lancers' team led by Arthur Prinsep and the 18th Bengal Lancers' team led by Arthur Broome, both Colonels being decided "characters," fought the fight out with an élan and a vigour that aroused to the full the passions of the spectators, and in none more so than the Chief himself, a horseman of the very best order. He it was who introduced into India the Loyd-Lindsay competitions, in which men or teams combined riding and shooting, and no one acquitted himself better in such matches than he did. If Army Headquarters challenged the Viceregal Staff at Simla to a match of this nature, it was Roberts himself who captained the Army Headquarters or possibly the Chief's Staff team. In 1892 came the well-earned Peerage, and in 1893 the departure from India, the famous Byculla Club of Bombay, renowned for its *cuisine* as for its good company, giving the parting dinner at which the soldier who had served India for forty-two years addressed to it his final farewell the night before he sailed.

Years went by, till the crisis in South Africa drew him from Dublin to take the supreme command at the Cape, and to change the grave misgivings of "Black Week" (1899) into the thankfulness which surrounded his return to England in January, 1901, just in time to see his Queen and to receive at her hands an Earldom and the Garter, before death claimed her. I was then on the eve of returning to India. Some months before I had submitted to the late Lord Knutsford a scheme, which I prepared with thought and care, for forming an Indian Branch of the St. John Ambulance Association, and he had advised the Grand-Prior of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem (the Prince of Wales, afterwards King Edward VII.) to appoint me Honorary Organising Commissioner of the St. John Ambulance Association for India, and to entrust to me the formation and organisation of the Branch. All this having been settled, I ventured, with Lord Knutsford's concurrence, to write to Lord Roberts and ask him to give my project his support. This he did in the kindest and readiest manner, writing himself to Sir William Taylor, the P.M.O. in India and in former years his own surgeon, and inviting him to give me his assistance.

Here I may remark that whenever I had occasion to address a letter to Lord Roberts I found that the same kindness and goodwill characterised his reply as was seen in his manner when he met his fellow-men face to face. On no occasion, however, has his goodwill been of greater service to me than on this one, when I was beginning the uphill battle of persuading India that she needed an Ambulance Service. Sir William Taylor backed up his old Chief's recommendation; and as Lord Knutsford had kindly secured for me the favour of

Lord Curzon, Lord Northcote and Lord Ampthill, in less than three months' time the foundation of that which is now a powerful Institution in India was laid. Lord Roberts, himself a Knight of Justice of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, has just lived to see the Headquarters of the Ambulance Department at St. John's Gate making provision for the ambulance, hospital and general needs of the first Indian Expeditionary Force ever sent into Europe, and it may be that some of those who tended him in his last hours were sent out by the very department, the Indian Branch of which owes its success in some measure to him.

The formation of the National Service League and its amalgamation with Lord Meath's "Lads' Drill Association" is the last and by no means the least of Lord Roberts' patriotic works. When we think of the obloquy which his advocacy of universal military training brought upon him, when we recall the contemptuous cynical caricatures with which F. C. G. in the *Westminster Gazette* sought to bias the nation against the soldier and patriot, when we remember his almost annual appeals to the House of Lords to increase the country's military strength, appeals pooh-poohed by the leader of that House and his party, we realise the unflinching spirit and resolution with which the veteran stood to his guns. It was magnificent. I can see him now addressing the great (6000 at least) audience in the Town Hall of Wolverhampton; I seem still to hear the outburst of cheering that greeted his advent on the platform, every man in the Hall rising to his feet, I live once more through the forty minutes during which he held that audience silent and attentive, and I see him leaving the Hall amid a scene of enthusiasm only equalled by that which greeted his arrival.

And let us bear in mind that the man who could thus win the hearts of his fellow-countrymen had, at least three or four times during his career, been perilously near unpopularity. In 1879-80 the Exeter Hall party did their utmost to ruin him, because he showed no mercy to the murderers of Louis Cavagnari. We have always with us this ultra-philanthropic school, ready to sacrifice brave men to their own narrow fanaticism. Never was one good soldier a more honest friend to another than was Sir Donald Stewart to Sir Frederick Roberts, when he sent him with 10,000 picked men and transport to march from Kabul to relieve Primrose besieged by Sardar Ayub Khan in Kandahar. The Kabul-Kandahar march reinstated Roberts in his old place in the public estimation. Press and people are fickle allies. The Press which abused the Army roundly in 1900 veered round and praised it above measure in 1901. The Great Duke lived to see the windows of Apsley House broken. Admiral Dewey, whom at one time the

American papers depicted standing in Trafalgar Square and saying, "Come down, Nelson! I'm going up there," lived to lose all his popularity. The Rear-Admiral in command of the United States Pacific Squadron some years ago said to me: "He (Dewey) got what we call the Presidential Bee in his bonnet."

Lord Roberts could not escape that which is the lot of most great public personages. The pen of at least one well-known writer was for a very brief moment turned against him, while the Historian of the Second Afghan War has represented "Lord Roberts in War" in a light which the Field Marshal's achievements and his status in the public esteem do not justify. Again in 1901, when the Boer War dragged on, a fickle Press and people began to utter impatient and unfriendly sentiments. This very human Press of ours, which in 1899-1900 so abused our Army, that I sought relief in expressing my sentiments regarding the Press in "The Army and the Press in 1900," a pamphlet, severely condemned by the *Times*, but patted on the back by the *Daily News*, *Spectator*, *Guardian*, *Times of India*, and all the service papers, was perfectly ready in 1901 to make Lord Roberts the scapegoat for the wiliness with which the Boer leaders evaded capture and so kept the war dragging on. The third hour of danger, however, passed away, and since then there has been no more popular figure before the public eye than Lord Roberts; and it is with one voice that his compatriots at once lament his loss and at the same time are unanimous in feeling that his end was indeed *euthanasia*, dying, as he did, almost painlessly, in the execution of his duty as Commander-in-Chief of the Forces from the Overseas Dominions and India, and in the midst of the soldiers among whom he had won that earlier reputation which was the prelude to the still greater fame of his latter years. The National Memorial voted to him by both Houses was his due. No man's life better merits peaceful rest under that memorial.

He died facing the troops of the Kaiser who had, in days of friendship, conferred on him the Order of the Black Eagle. He lived to see that same Kaiser, in war, teaching Great Britain in the most practical manner the value of a "Nation in Arms."

A. C. YATE.

II

BY GENERAL SIR IVOR HERBERT, BART., M.P.

As I had the privilege and honour of serving on the staff of the late Lord Roberts, perhaps I may be allowed to say in a few plain words what I feel to be some of the thoughts of the men in the Army. Not only was Lord Roberts a great commander, he was looked upon by every man in the Army as a comrade, as a valued personal friend. He never missed an opportunity of talking to the men, and he listened to what they had to say with real interest; the effect on them was to make them feel that he looked upon them as something more than mere machines.

He could make great demands on them, but when he did so he never failed to let them see that he was anxious to provide in every way for their needs, and to let them know that he appreciated their efforts. The men spoke of him and thought of him as the Grenadiers of France thought of Napoleon when they called him *Le Petit Caporal*. It was the personal element that was so strong in Lord Roberts. One of the secrets of his immense influence lay in a certain simplicity of nature, in an innate sweetness of disposition. Officers and men alike would do their utmost for him and feel themselves sufficiently rewarded when they had done their utmost, though their efforts might never be recognised and might be lost in the general operations. I remember on one occasion, at the end of a busy day, he put his hand on my arm and said, "Thank you, my dear —. Nothing could have been better." It was the best reward I ever had for many days of hard work. The rank and file knew that they had in him a personal friend, one who ever watched after their interests, whose constant thought was for them, and it is not too much to say that Lord Roberts did more than any commander to safeguard those under him from the moral dangers which unavoidably surround them. It was that influence and that example of his which had the effect of building up in the men of the Army that great quality of character which we see so strongly marked, and of which we are daily seeing the proof on the battle-fields of France, which have raised the deeds of our Army to greater heights of heroism than ever before. He was strong on the necessity for temperance though by no means a "rabid teetotaler," his view being that the practice of self-denial in such a matter as drink by men not given to excess was a training which hardened the moral fibre and built up character and with it courage.

Perhaps it would not be altogether inopportune to touch on the question of what the Memorial to Lord Roberts should be.

I know in these days there is often a feeling that memorials should take a material form for the benefit of some object. But what I feel would be the wish of a large number of those who have served under him, allowing, of course, for wishes that he may have expressed or for wishes of his own family, is to see somewhere in the City of London a living presentment of the man whom we knew, and to see him as we saw him at Kandahar, at Paardeberg, or at Aldershot, in the performance of his duties. He was a fine rider, and loved a horse and any sport in which horsemanship found a part, but I don't think he ever had a bet on a horse in his life. His was a thoroughly healthy love of sport for its own sake, and when he found a similar feeling in those many years his junior, the difference of age and station disappeared, being merged in a complete fellow-feeling. I should like that image and memory of him go down to untold generations as a precious heritage and as an example to men of the British race in all parts of the world.

IVOR HERBERT.

BRITAIN'S CALL

OH, my brothers, it is Britain, Britain calling,
 And she has not called in vain;
 The flower of our Land, so dear, is falling
 On the bloody battle plain.

Can you hear the tramp of Britain's sons, my brothers,
 And not follow in their train?
 Can you hear the echo of her guns, my brothers,
 And not thirst to swell their rain?

Yours the glorious, priceless privilege, my brothers,
 Britain's honour to maintain;
 To keep her flag from sacrilege, my brothers,
 Guard her shores from alien stain.

Oh! the hour is past for brave and true, my brothers,
 Any idle part to play!
 'Tis the Motherland is calling you, my brothers,
 Answer, answer while you may.

CHARLOTTE PIDGEON.

ESSENTIAL FACTORS IN RECRUITING

BY THE EDITOR

THE recruiting problem continues to form the subject of daily controversy. On one side we are told that recruits are coming in as fast as they can be absorbed in the different Units, and that to stimulate the movement by means other than those in being would serve no useful purpose. Others say, and with equal force, enlistment is not proceeding as fast as it should, and that until conditions are altered men will continue to hang back. Absorption, they add, presents no difficulty whatever.

As we cannot possibly tell what the future requirements of the Army may be, so it is idle to contest the question of sufficiency, nor can any estimate of numbers, however carefully considered, help the situation. One thing, however, we do know—the needs of the Nation require the services of all male persons within the limits of age prescribed. At the Guildhall Banquet Lord Kitchener touched the spot when he said that “the British Empire is now fighting for its existence. I want every citizen to understand this cardinal fact.” And while he made no complaint about the response to his appeal, he added, and with some emphasis, “but I shall want more men and still more until the enemy is crushed.” Now are we getting all male persons within the limits of age prescribed? I do not hesitate to say we are not. We are not even getting a goodly proportion of the men eligible for enlistment. Not that any ground exists for supposing that all who hesitate are shirkers. On the contrary, not a tithe of the men now hesitating would come under that head. There are shirkers, we know, and a goodly number, and the only way to deal with this class of man is by conscription. But that is not yet. We must first get rid of the influences that are handicapping recruiting in its present conditions. And in this connection recognition by the Government of the following factors is absolutely essential:

- (1) That recruiting is a human not a mechanical movement.
- (2) That however steeped in patriotism a man may

be, in the majority of cases he is under certain obligations to dependents which must be met, and generously met, by a grateful country. (3) That the pensions and allowances to widows and dependents of men who are killed in action, or who die of wounds or of injuries received in the performance of their military or naval duty or from disease contracted while on active service or attributable to the hardships of the campaign, shall be conceived on a liberal scale and made adequate to meet the requirements of all cases. (4) That the same spirit of generosity be observed in regard to the pensions and allowances to men disabled by wounds or sickness.

First, then, as to the human side of recruiting. The whole success of the movement rests upon enthusiasm. As the wave of enthusiasm ebbs and flows, so the number of recruits rises and falls. Clearly, therefore, it is the bounden duty of the Government to generate enthusiasm in the public mind. This is where they have failed. Like the human frame, enthusiasm can only be kept going by feeding, and if it is to last for any length of time the feeding must be constant and the food nourishing. Yet the feeding policy of the Government has been intermittent and the food provided not always digestive.

Speeches by well-known public men are useful as an incident in the campaign, but a good deal depends on a speaker and his past reputation. A speech from a man who has always opposed armaments and belittled the Army and the Navy is not of much value as an aid to recruiting. In many instances speakers have paid far too much attention to orating on the war, its causes and effects; the actual business of recruiting has been too often a side-show and not always a good one at that. Then the publicity department has been sadly wanting in ideas, while its methods of procedure in many cases have been amateurish rather than professional. Posters help any movement, but to achieve the best results they must be striking in character and certain to arrest the eye. Except in a few cases the recruiting posters have been deficient in these qualifications. Here and there a good poster may be seen. "Fall In," for example, was excellent; I am quite sorry it has gone; it suggested something. But in this it almost stood alone. Groups of black figures are non-effective, a few yards off they resemble smudges on a background. Then of what practical use are screeds printed in type that at a short distance away cannot be read? Patriotism is not inspired in this way. Why not take a lesson from "Punch"? The football cartoon, "The Greater Game," which appeared in that journal not very long ago would make a splendid recruiting poster. It almost seems to speak, and what is more it sets the very lesson which it is most wanted to teach.

Instead of parade marches being accompanied by bands and music, the recruits are left, or were left, to enthuse themselves by whistling and singing popular airs. These tunes to commence with are brisk and stirring enough, but after a while they have a faintness which is scarcely inspiring. Rarely, if ever, do the onlookers raise a cheer. This is the least the stay-at-homes can do. Instead of showing appreciation of the men who are preparing to defend the country the public give the recruits no encouragement. How different all this would be across the Channel!

But these are not the only disadvantages on the human side of the recruiting arrangements. Much remains to be done in the matter of billeting and camping out. I have just received a letter from the late chief magistrate of an important Borough, one who has taken considerable interest in the Young Men's Christian Association movement. He writes:—

“I wish to bring to your notice the way in which the health and happiness of our recruits, reservists, and Territorials are neglected in the camps. Many are still compelled to sleep on the ground without sufficient blankets, and without any chance of changing their clothes; the C.O.'s are, I believe, doing all they think possible, and the strain on the War Office must be tremendous, but the aid of the civilian population might be asked for and committees appointed to aid the C.O.'s in all these details. Recruits will not come forward if they think no provisions for their health are made. . . . Surely this should not be.”

He is perfectly right. These things should not be. The suggestion made is a good one, local committees should be formed to assist the Commanding Officers. The military duties of camp are quite sufficient for a Commanding Officer to look after. Other details should be left to a local committee, acting in conjunction with the military authorities.

But the greatest mistake the Government have made is the silence of the Press Bureau concerning the brave deeds of our men on the field of battle. When Mr. Churchill announced in the House of Commons the intention of the Government to inaugurate a Press Bureau he did not tell the House that for all practical purposes it would be a deaf and dumb machine. Now and again, as in the case of the Charge of the London Scottish, exceptional bravery in the field has been recorded, but how many other regiments have performed brave acts without any public recognition whatsoever? Again it seems to be the unwritten law of the Press Bureau that, however brave an individual deed may be, the name of the man who did it shall be recorded by a blank. All this is entirely wrong, every incident that redounds to the

credit of a regiment or an individual should be made known from Land's End to John-o'-Groats. The Press Bureau seems to have forgotten that nothing stimulates enlistment like emulation. The sooner it makes itself acquainted with this elementary fact, the better for recruiting, the easier Lord Kitchener's task will be.

My second point focusses on Separation Allowances. Unfortunately it was not until after Parliament had risen in September that the decision of the Government in respect to Separation Allowances was made known, still later were we told anything about dependents other than wives. Even now the machinery is far from being in working order. Only the other day I was told of a most glaring instance of want of proper organization in this respect. Not one wife or mother in a whole village had received any allowance, yet the husbands and sons had joined their units weeks ago. To tell these women they can go to some association and get an advance is an impertinence. Why should they accept charity when their husbands and sons have sent money for their support and the State is supplying the rest? Why too should these women be compelled to answer a number of interrogatories put to them by fussy although well-meaning ladies when all the women want is what is their due and their right?

But the main difficulty with men desiring to serve their country by enlisting in the New Army has been the matter of pensions and allowances to dependents in case of being killed in action, or disabled by wounds or disease. After a long wait the Government have made a real attempt to deal with these questions. In comparison with former arrangements the new scheme shows a decided advance in many cases, in others the advance is not quite what it seems; for instance, under the old *régime* the widow drew in addition to her 5s., 2s. from the Royal Patriotic Fund, making her allowance 7s. a week. The new scheme, it is true, gives 7s. 6d. as the minimum, but that is only an advance of 6d. On the face of it the Government would have us believe that it was half-a-crown, at least there is nothing in the White Paper to show that this is not the inference they desire the public to draw. I doubt very much whether, taken as a whole, the Government scheme will meet the requirements of the New Army. It must be remembered that in many cases some of the men enlisting are earning between £2 and £3 a week, perhaps more, and it does not seem quite fair to place all cases on the same level. Something better than a flat rate will have to be decided. One more point. There must be no quibbling about diseases contracted during the war, or as a consequence of injuries received during the war. In the past more often than not there has been a tendency to reject outside medical evidence in case of disease, and to accept as final the evidence of the

Government Medical Officer. The result of this has not been altogether satisfactory.

There are, of course, immense difficulties in arranging a matter of this kind, and the suggestion made by Mr. Bonar Law that a committee of the House of Commons should inquire into the matter and lend their assistance to the Government was so practical that the Prime Minister could scarcely refuse it. As a matter of fact he welcomed the suggestion on the ground that it divided the responsibility. I confess, however, disappointment at the composition of the committee. Why limit the numbers to six? Why no representatives of the Navy or the Army, no representatives of the Ports? Why too should there be no opportunity of discussing the committee's findings? I say no opportunity, because it is not possible now that the House has risen to make an opportunity. There is no doubt about the weight of the committee, but from the standpoint of the public confidence its dimensions should have been extended; a proportion of two to one in the matter of front bench men is far too large.

And now in conclusion a few words about conscription. Personally, I have heard a great deal in its favour, especially in country districts. What some men seem to feel is, why should they go and their comrades stay behind? Naturally this suggests the shirker, but at the same time it is a bull point and favours compulsion. Something, however, will have to be done to impress upon young men that the situation requires their services.

EDITOR.

MEN OF THE EMPIRE

SIR JOHN JACKSON, M.P.

(Honorary LL.D. of Edinburgh University, Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, Companion of the Royal Victorian Order, Grand Cross of Naval Merit (1st Class), Spain, and member of the Chilian Order of Merit (1st Class).)

BORN at York in 1851 Sir John Jackson is just entering upon his sixty-fourth year. A great engineer, a great contractor, a great traveller, few men have led a busier or more active life, few men's work will leave a more indelible mark on the history of things which count and things which last.

Hardly had he left school than he entered the workshops at Newcastle, where, during the next few years, he made practical acquaintance with the mechanical side of the profession he afterwards adopted as his own. Proceeding from the shops as an engineering student to Edinburgh University, he continued his studies under the guidance and tutelage of the late Dr. Tait, Professor of Natural Philosophy. Between teacher and pupil a sincere friendship sprang up that was destined to last without intermission until Dr. Tait's death,* when to perpetuate his memory as well as in recognition of his work Sir John founded the "Tait Memorial Fund," which has proved an incentive to research work of all kinds. Among his fellow-students and close friends at Edinburgh were :—John, afterwards Sir John, Murray, whose name became a household word in scientific circles; P. W. Meik, the well-known Westminster engineer; James Walker, at one time engineer-in-chief to the River Tyne Commissioners, and Robert Louis Stevenson. One after the other these notable men have passed away, but the recollection of each is still treasured by "J. J.," as the popular Chief of "Sir John Jackson, Ltd.," is familiarly called by those who know him best.

Carrying away with him a prize for political economy he left the University to acquire a further training in his brother's business, and when only twenty-five years of age he obtained his

* July 4, 1901.

first contract. The year following he undertook the completion of the Stobcross Docks at Glasgow, a contract that involved exceptional difficulties, as the Docks had to be constructed in quicksands. Four years were allowed him in which to finish the work, but the young engineer concluded his task in less than three, giving every satisfaction to all concerned. Thus at the very opening of his career as a contractor he established a reputation for quickness and thoroughness which the firm has ever since maintained.

In a brief sketch of this kind it is not possible to deal with all the undertakings in which Sir John Jackson, Ltd., have been engaged, extending as these do over a long period and a large area. Indeed it would be difficult to name any part of the globe where the firm has not been employed upon some work of first importance. Far-reaching in scope as a contractor's business must necessarily be, Sir John's chief operations may be said to lie in connection with dock and harbour works, operations that have gained for his firm a prominence all the world over, and a position of pre-eminence for himself that can hardly be said to belong to any other contractor at the present time. Without entering into details, a brief reference to the more important undertakings connected with his name will afford some idea of the magnitude of his work and give an insight into the difficulties his skill and energy have overcome.

Following upon the Glasgow contract came the extension of the Middlesborough, Hartlepool and North Sunderland Docks in quick succession; the extension seawards of the Fort at the end of the Admiralty Pier at Dover—Sir John's first contract with the War Office—and, later on, the completion in two-thirds of contract time of the last eight miles of the Manchester Ship Canal. It was in connection with this work that Sir John received his knighthood. Another undertaking of interest and responsibility was the Dover Commercial Harbour, where an incident occurred which perhaps may be related. When starting the breakwater the workmen came across a considerable quantity of chalk; several theories were advanced as to how the chalk came to be there, the most popular being that the land had receded and part of the cliffs fallen into the sea. Happening one day to be looking at some drawings at the office of the Register, Sir John found one dating back to the time of Henry VIII. A study of this drawing soon convinced him that the chalk was the remains of an old breakwater constructed from a design by King Hal. Sir John's firm also put in the foundations of the Tower Bridge, generally regarded as an important engineering work, but one that in his opinion presented no real difficulty; in fact, the main obstacle he experienced was getting a start, for

no sooner were the temporary piles driven into the mud than they were displaced by the barges, who resented this interference with what they regarded as their rights and privileges.

¶ The docks and basins at Swansea and at Methil in Fifeshire, the breakwater and docks for the Burtisland Harbour Commissioners and the deep lock at Barry, one of the largest of its kind in the world, were all entrusted to Sir John Jackson. But his greatest work in this country was the extension of the Admiralty Works at Keyham. The cost of this undertaking was nearly £4,000,000, and it took ten years to complete. Many were the obstacles that had to be met, and when it is remembered that all the foundations had to be carried down to solid rock, in some cases necessitating going 110 feet into the mud, it will be seen that the task was one calling for engineering experience of a very special kind. Only experts can appreciate the vastness of the operations involved in the construction of the new basins and workshops. Foreign potentates and representatives of public bodies visited the docks as they were in progress and expressed themselves in terms highly complimentary to Sir John, who personally superintended in every detail this great national work, which was opened by their Majesties as Prince and Princess of Wales in February 1907.

Naturally the assistance of a contractor who had reached so high a position in his own country was much sought after in other parts of the Empire. For the Admiralty Sir John constructed at a cost of nearly £2,000,000 the new naval harbour and graving dock at Simon's Town, Cape Colony, opened a few years back by the Duke of Connaught, who in the name of the King conferred on Sir John the Companionship of the Victorian Order. For the Government of the Straits Settlements the firm is now carrying out important works in connection with Singapore Harbour, and for the Dominion Government of Canada building the new breakwater at Victoria, B.C.

Foreign Powers have also sought Sir John's advice and have placed large and important contracts with his firm. At the suggestion of the Admiralty, he went out to advise the Austro-Hungarian Government on the extension of their Arsenal works at Pola. He also made surveys and proposals to the Russian Government for a second Trans-Siberian Railway estimated to cost £20,000,000. This work, owing to the war, remains in abeyance. The Spanish Government committed to his care the new arsenal at Ferrol, on the completion of which two years ago the King of Spain conferred on him the Grand Cross of Naval Merit, an Order of an exceptional kind, and one that marked the satisfaction felt by His Majesty at the manner in which the work had been executed. The Chilian Government

entrusted him with the construction of their great strategic railway across the Andes, joining Arica on the Chilian coast with La Paz, the capital of Bolivia. This line cost some £3,000,000. The engineering difficulties in some parts were very great, as may well be imagined, seeing that the railway, which is of the metre gauge, rises to an altitude of 14,500 feet. This railway is considered to be the best in South America, and Sir John received many congratulations at the successful conclusion of so vast an enterprise, the Government presenting him with the Chilian Order of Merit, first class, to mark appreciation of the quality of the work and the rapidity with which it had been performed. This was the first time the honour had been bestowed on an engineer. Irrigation work in the Lebanon district of Syria, and a port at Salif on the Red Sea for the Imperial Ottoman Debt, are now in the hands of the firm. Lastly, mention must be made of the irrigation works in Mesopotamia for the Turkish Government. This undertaking, designed by Sir William Willcox, was estimated to cost over £18,000,000. The first part of the work to be constructed was the Great Hindiat Barrage across the Euphrates, consisting of masonry piers with thirty-six openings fitted with sluice gates to hold the water for irrigation purposes, and a navigation lock for barge traffic. This has been completed, and was formally opened by the Vali of Bagdad a few months ago.

Here, perhaps, one may recall the incident that when the French engineers were discussing the question of bridging the Channel between Dover and Calais, they invited Sir John to attend the conference. He expressed the opinion that the scheme was quite feasible, but that it was difficult to judge whether the advantages gained would compensate for the outlay. He was also asked to assist at the conference held at Paris when the subject of the Nicaraguan Canal was under consideration, his advice being sought on this occasion by American friends. But Sir John is not only in the first rank of engineers, he is also widely esteemed for his knowledge of business affairs generally. And it was doubtless this experience that the British Government desired to utilise when they nominated him a member of the Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the military preparations and other matters connected with the war in South Africa, his fellow-commissioners being Lord Elgin, Lord Esher, Field-Marshal Sir Henry Norman, Admiral Sir John Hopkins, Lord Strathcona, Sir John Edge and Sir Frederick Darley.

As soon as the present war broke out Sir John offered his own services and those of the entire staff to the War Office. Needless to say, so patriotic an offer was immediately accepted by Lord Kitchener, who appointed Sir John's firm to the position of

Superintending Engineers to the War Department immediately under Major-General Scott-Moncrieff, Inspector-General of Fortifications. The work entrusted to Sir John's firm was to construct quarters for the Colonial troops on Salisbury Plain, and for the Home troops at Grantham and Purfleet; in addition he undertook the task of making provision for the Remount Depot which the Government had decided to erect at Ormskirk.

Obviously there had been no opportunity for preparations of any kind, yet all these undertakings had to be started immediately and finished in the shortest space of time. So able an administrator as Lord Kitchener saw at once that the ordinary army routine of contracts passing through half a dozen hands before a brick could be laid or a stick put up must be set aside and the customary red-tape methods abandoned. Accordingly, subject to supervision by the Inspector-General of Fortifications and a final appeal to himself, Lord Kitchener gave Sir John Jackson what might practically be called a free hand. Nor have the War Office had cause to regret the new procedure. For not only has the experience of Sir John's firm saved the country thousands of pounds, but by working in many cases night and day and seven days a week, notwithstanding in some instances the shortness of labour, Sir John Jackson, Ltd., have made such progress with the hutments that little or no inconvenience is being experienced.

Salisbury Plain is the largest of these undertakings. The whole district has been practically transformed. Villages have suddenly appeared where hardly a cottage existed before, and a town is in process of construction that, when finished, will accommodate, it is said, eight times the number of the inhabitants of Salisbury itself. Although a considerable part of the work has been finished and many of the colonial troops are comfortably housed, much remains to be done, and huts are still going up at the rate of 200 a week. Some idea of the magnitude of the task to be performed may be gathered from the fact that apart from the quarters for the Home troops, huts have to be erected to accommodate some 60,000 men from Canada, Australia, New Zealand and Newfoundland, and stabling for not less than 15,000 horses, besides all the accessories of a fixed encampment such as one is familiar with at Aldershot. A special water supply, involving a new pumping-station at Netheravon, had also to be laid on and a new electric-light installation provided. Not the least engineering achievement in connection with the Salisbury Plain work was the rapid construction of the four and a half miles railway from Amesbury sidings to the camp. The line crosses the River Avon and the marshy lands adjoining by means of a girder bridge of latticed steel

140 yards long, and in some instances the piles were driven 50 feet deep. But notwithstanding these and other obstacles to be encountered—the girders were brought down from the North of England—the bridge was completed within a fortnight from the time of starting the work, and four days later traffic was running. A similar rapid piece of railway construction was done at Grantham, where in three and a half days a branch line of two and a half miles was laid.

Before leaving the subject of the hutments mention should be made of the temporary hospital at Brockenhurst which Sir John Jackson's firm are building for the use of the Indian troops. This is another expeditious undertaking. Not more than a few weeks have elapsed since the first sod was turned, and already the hospital is within sight of completion. Their Majesties the King and Queen are greatly interested in the work, and have twice visited the scene and made useful suggestions.

As a traveller Sir John has visited most parts of the King's Dominions and most countries in the world. On one occasion, in ten months, he travelled over 66,000 miles, more than two and a half times round the globe, and this after he had reached his sixtieth year. In the course of these travels he has met many great men and made many friends. He often recalls pleasant recollections of the Prime Minister of Russia, M. Goremykin, who visited him when in England, and at whose country house in the interior of Russia Sir John was hospitably entertained. With the late Nazim Pasha Sir John had the most cordial relations, although the first meeting hardly foreshadowed a lasting friendship. Let me tell the story. Soon after he arrived at Baghdad he went to call on Nazim, whose status as Vali gave him a highly important position. Feeling somewhat tired and the weather being cold, Sir John, although not invited to do so, sat down keeping on his fur coat. Later on in the day he learnt from the Vali's secretary that in sitting down and not removing his coat he had given offence to Nazim. Replying courteously to the secretary, Sir John expressed his regret at having quite unconsciously hurt the Vali's feelings, indicating at the same time that he had come on an important business mission and had not time to discuss trivialities of that kind. The message was duly reported to the Vali, who at once saw he had made a mistake and hastened to return the call. From that day the two men became firm friends. Before Sir John left, Nazim entertained his visitor at a banquet, afterwards presenting him with a photograph of himself, and at the same time adding some kindly and very complimentary greetings.

Now that Nazim is no more, being murdered in a cowardly manner by the Young Turk party led by Enver Bey, it may not

be out of place to record the fact that Sir John formed a very high opinion of the late Turkish War Minister, whom he describes as "a man of honour and strict integrity and very friendly towards England." But one has not space to refer to all the men of note whose friendship Sir John enjoys or has enjoyed, but this part of my story would be hardly complete were no mention made of the Sheik of Mohammerah, who showed Sir John every consideration when passing through his dominions.

Seeing the great energy required for so strenuous a life it is hardly surprising to find that Sir John is an all-round sportsman. When at school he carried off the Junior Prize for sculling and ever since has possessed a keenness for rowing and sailing. As a young man on the East Coast of Northumberland, where at times the weather is very bad and the sea nearly always rough, Sir John was perfectly at home in all kinds of sailing craft. For years he was a member of the First Volunteer Life Brigade founded by the late Mr. Foster Spence, for the purpose of assisting the coastguards. Many lives were saved by the Brigade, some members of which were out every night, and Sir John remembers seeing as many as fourteen wrecks in a single storm. He is very fond of small-boat sailing, and often raced the *Windrush* in Plymouth Sound during the time he was constructing the extension works at Keyham. His steam yacht the *Gelert* is well-known both at Cowes and Plymouth. He is a member of the Royal Yacht Squadron, the Royal Western Yacht Club, and the Royal Thames, and Commodore of the Royal South Western. But while devoted to yachting, Sir John has not forgotten how to scull, and to-day can do a steady pull of twelve to fifteen miles on the Thames without feeling the exertion. He is also a strong swimmer. In gymnastic exercises he can hold his own with most men; at Edinburgh he carried off the gymnasium prize three years in succession; and even now often astonishes his younger friends by his performances on the vertical bar. Of late years he has devoted such time as he can spare to motoring, and always drives his own car.

Essentially a man of action Sir John never lets the grass grow under his feet. When once he decides to do a thing he does it with all his might. Like all men of business, he does not care to waste time in talking that leads to nothing, but will readily listen to a reasonable statement, and is fair and just to all. He soon forms an opinion of a person and is seldom wrong in his judgment. A born leader, he knows exactly how to handle workmen, and it is no uncommon thing for him to have many thousands of men working under him. Sir John is much attached to his old hands, and never tires of relating anecdotes of the men who have served him well, always extolling their virtues and

perhaps a little blind to their faults. The men on his staff, which is large and highly efficient, are devoted to their chief and he in turn is devoted to them. In fact Sir John Jackson, Ltd., may be described as a happy family, every member of which strives to do his utmost, knowing his work will be appreciated and never forgotten.

Since January 1910, Sir John has represented Devonport and East Stonehouse in Parliament in the Conservative and Unionist interest. His associations with the borough began when he was engaged on the Keyham Extension Works, and for a long time before he entered the House of Commons his name was a household word among the working classes in the Dockyard Town. Popular alike with all sections of the community, whose interests he had made his own, and possessing many local ties in Naval circles, he was returned at the head of the poll by a substantial majority, and so satisfied were the electors with their choice, that in the following December they sent him back again to Westminster as their senior representative during an unavoidable absence on business in South Africa. It is significant that he was the only member of the House to enjoy this privilege.

A broad-minded man in every sense, Sir John is generous to a degree, and never so happy as when entertaining his friends. His kind-heartedness is proverbial. He likes calling a spade a spade, and often delights his audiences by speaking his mind freely on matters on which he feels a word in season will do good morally and physically. A hard worker himself, he has no use for shirkers, and a man who is not prepared to pull his oar in the boat need not apply for work to Sir John Jackson. Honesty of purpose and strict attention to business, combined with many natural gifts, have placed him at the head of his profession, and right well does he deserve the brilliant success he has achieved.

PRINCE MAURICE OF BATTENBERG

A Tribute from the Wight, of which Island H.R.H. Princess Henry of Battenberg is Governor

O LEAL heart that beat high for England!
 Could not War have spared us this one?
 In the past it tore from us the father,
 And now it takes from us the son.
 And the father was always so kindly—
 We Islanders loved him so well—
 That each home in the Wight felt the poorer
 When that sad and sudden blow fell.

This strife has brought heart-rending sorrow
 To numberless homes in our land;
 Now our young Island Prince has been taken,
 Swept from us by war's ruthless hand!
 But we know that he died like a hero—
 His brave form our banner enfolds—
 In the cause of Truth, Honour, and Justice,
 That cause which Great Britain upholds.

First to cross where the bridge spanned the river,
 Though around him the bullets flew fast,
 He courageously recked not of danger,
 But fearlessly fought to the last.
 They honoured him whilst he was living;
 Thank God how they prized him he knew;
 In a halo of glory Death claimed him—
 This young soldier of Britain so true!

O loved Lady of this right loyal Isle!
 We all share the grief that is thine,
 And pray God that thou wilt in thy sorrow
 Find comfort from sources divine.
 And to thee, and to all who stand near thee,
 We tender our sympathy too;
 Thou hast given so much for our country—
 O would there were more we could do!

ROBEY F. ELDRIDGE.

PETROLEUM AND ITS USES IN MEDICINE

BY SCIENTIST

THE use of petroleum for various purposes was known and appreciated in very early times. Thus the bricks and alabaster slabs of Nineveh and Babylon were cemented with "bitumen," a form of crude petroleum, and under one or other of its synonyms petroleum is frequently mentioned in the Old Testament. But the chief reason for the raw material becoming an article of commerce in ancient days was due to its medicinal properties. With the Romans particularly it stood in high repute as a healing application, and centuries ago the Chinese physicians used it in their treatment of skin diseases and for rheumatism. A quaint reference occurs in a letter sent to King Alfred of England. The writer—the Patriarch of Jerusalem—detailing the virtues of some drugs he had sent to the English king, says of petroleum, "it is good to drink for inward tenderness and to smear on outwardly on a winter's day." From this and many other allusions in ancient and mediæval literature it is clear that petroleum was very generally prescribed in bygone years, often with considerable success.

Prior to the beginning of the nineteenth century the petroleum referred to by all writers was the crude substance which varies in character from a pale-coloured, mobile fluid to a viscid and almost black material, according to the part of the world from which it is obtained. And the method of collection was often very primitive. The Romans, for instance, merely skimmed the oil from the surface of the water on which it had accumulated; the North American Indians soaked up the oil from the water with their blankets and then wrung them out into a vessel; the Chinese invented a form of boring machinery made from bamboos; but generally, when large quantities were required, it was the custom of most races to sink wells or shafts by digging in suitable districts.

To examine a sample of crude petroleum is to convince one of the hardness of our forbears. Malodorous and uninviting, the modern invalid would turn from even a thought of swallowing

such a draught with a shudder. Possibly the very nauseousness of the substance enhanced its medicinal value with the old-time physician, for some of his prescriptions were extremely weird. Be that as it may, the present day must be regarded as one of elegance in pharmacy, due primarily to the fact that the patient demands, if not a tasteless, at least a palatable, medicine. And this the skill of the world's chemists in petroleum-refining has secured for him.

The origin of petroleum has been a question of controversy for many years, but it is now generally accepted that it is produced by the slow decomposition of vast quantities of marine organisms accumulated during the course of the earth's evolution. In chemical composition the crude substance consists essentially of carbon and hydrogen together with oxygen and varying amounts of nitrogen and of sulphur. The chemical constitution varies according to the source of supply, the Caucasian oil, for instance, containing isomers of the olefines, but belonging to the benzene series (naphthenes) of hydrocarbons, whilst the American oil consists mainly of methane hydrocarbons. Upon collection, the crude oil, after certain preliminary processes, is fractionally distilled, and thus separated roughly into petroleum spirit of various grades, burning oils, gas oils, lubricating oils and often paraffin. The oil now used in medicine is obtained from the heavier fractions.

Although petroleum was formerly used for a variety of diseases, it is now more limited in its scope. What is known as "soft paraffin" has been used for some little time as a basis for ointments, not so much for its own curative properties as because it does not become rancid when kept. "Liquid paraffin," until the last few years, was valued almost solely for its utility as a vehicle for applying medicaments in the form of a spray to the throat and nose or as a local application in skin diseases. To-day it is esteemed in medical circles for its effect in combating intestinal stasis or chronic constipation. Although attention was directed to this action of petroleum as early as 1884 it is only latterly that its use for this purpose has been generally acknowledged. The practice of administering the oil internally has largely developed through its recommendation by Sir William Arbuthnot Lane and other scientific men.

The effect of the oil when taken by mouth is, briefly, to lubricate the intestines and facilitate the passage and expulsion of the waste products of digestion which, if allowed to remain, would poison the system. An eminent surgeon has said, "Proper drainage is quite as important in a human body as it is in a house, and there is no doubt that if the use of paraffin oil was a daily habit the health of the human race would be wonderfully

improved." Liquid paraffin being unchanged by its passage through the system is the ideal method of combating constipation, and its value is increased by the fact that it prevents to a considerable extent the growth of harmful bacilli in the intestines. To such bacilli Professor Metchnikoff attributes many of the ailments of the human race, and he gives it as his opinion that an individual whose system was free from such bacteria would live considerably longer than his fellows.

Obviously, petroleum taken internally must be of exceptional purity, and it is gratifying to be able to state that British manufacturers are well to the fore in the work of purifying petroleum for internal use. It is a common misapprehension to suppose that Germany leads in the pharmaceutical world. In chemicals she is certainly well advanced, and hitherto has not been beaten in the manufacture of synthetic drugs. Yet this country and America hold the blue riband in the matter of the preparation of pharmaceutical products, and in petroleum products for internal use we can well hold our own. Prominent among the manufacturers of these preparations are William Browning and Co., of 4, Lambeth Palace Road, London, who issue under the brand name "Semprolin" a series of palatable emulsions containing a considerable amount of highly purified oil.

This year is one of great interest to the British petroleum world. British companies are acquiring properties in oil-bearing fields in Palestine, the Egyptian oil-fields are being brought to full production, and the British Government have become shareholders in a Persian oil undertaking. The advance made by British pharmaceutical chemists in the production of oil for medicinal use is therefore only another indication of the activity of the petroleum industry.

SCIENTIST.

NATIONAL SERVICE

By J. CHRISTIAN SIMPSON

NATIONAL Service, with which the name of Lord Roberts will ever be associated, is or should be a purely national question. Unfortunately certain followers of the Government have insisted and still insist on treating it as belonging solely to the programme of the Opposition, regardless of the fact that when the Bill dealing with Compulsory Military Training was debated in the House of Commons, it received support from both sides of the Chamber, and the Prime Minister himself expressed the hope that the subject might be kept out of the arena of party politics. Put very briefly, the object which the National Service League has in view is, to see military training for Home Defence in the Territorial Army made compulsory for every able-bodied young man without distinction of any kind. For by this means and this means alone is it possible to secure National Safety, National Efficiency, and National Health. A more democratic proposal it would be difficult to imagine, and that it is democratic both in principle and detail is shown by its adoption as part of the National policy of the Commonwealth of Australia and the Dominion of New Zealand.

In considering the question of National Service, two main points stand out; first, that every able-bodied man should consider it his duty to be prepared to defend his home against the common enemy, and not leave that duty to be performed by his neighbour. Secondly, that he should be able to do so effectively: to this end he must be properly trained before-hand, and not wait until after war has begun. It is needless to labour the point as to the necessity of training in everything if efficiency is to result. In business, professional life, sports or games it is all the same. No one, I am sure, would risk his money on a horse, or a football team, if he knew that the horse or the men had not been properly trained. That being so, what justification is there for our youth and young manhood being left without training for the most serious of all professions, that of arms.

Moreover from the individual and national standpoint of health, the benefits such training affords are indisputable and undoubted.

National Service means that every man from eighteen to twenty-one years of age inclusive, with certain exceptions in connection with the requirements of the State, and the particular economic conditions of given districts, shall undergo at least four months' military training in the first year of service with the Infantry, and an extension of two months with other arms. In each succeeding year of three he must serve for a fortnight in camp with the Territorials, and after the completion of four years' training, up to the age of thirty, he must be prepared to shoulder his rifle if there were any danger of an enemy landing on these shores. The Force raised by this method of compulsory enlistment is solely for Home Defence. No man may be sent abroad unless he goes of his own accord and enters into a fresh engagement for that purpose. The National Service force would never be employed in connection with labour disputes. Promotion to the rank of officer depends on merit only, and no one can be promoted to commissioned rank who has not gone through the course of continuous recruit training. Recruits will be guaranteed against loss of employment when they return from their training, and to ensure the period of training being still more efficient, it is proposed to make provision to drill and train all youths between fourteen and eighteen in school or otherwise. Much valuable time will thus be saved when the real military training begins. The Boy Scout movement is a still earlier and excellent training; it is quite independent of National Service proposals.

Equally important is it to note what the advocates of National Service do *not* propose to do. They do not propose conscription after the Continental methods of continuous military training in barracks and camps for a period of years. They do not propose to do away with the Territorial Forces, an allegation persistently made in some quarters. Over and over again the late Lord Roberts said, "The Territorial Force is the foundation on which our whole proposed system rests." The constitution and organisation of that force will not be altered in any way except by the introduction of the principle underlying Compulsory Service and the democratic plan of promotion by merit throughout all ranks. In present conditions, the Territorials cannot secure efficiency, sufficient numbers, capacity of ready expansion, or adequate training, defects due to the system, not to the officers and men.

To give an idea of the quality of training essential in such a war as the present, one may quote a passage from Sir John French's despatch of October 19, 1914. He records that "from Sunday August 23 up to the present date, September 17, from

Mons back almost to the Seine and from the Seine to the Aisne, the Army under my command has been ceaselessly engaged, without one single halt or rest of any kind." Now, in 1911, Lord Haldane confessed that in time of peace the Territorial force could never be adequately trained. Neither did he contend that in time of peace it could be trained to meet the shock of invasion. If an expeditionary force went away for a war, then the Territorial force would be mobilised, and asked on mobilisation to go into war training, he estimated that in six months' time they would be a fit fighting force. Even so late as 1913, after he must have been aware of our refusal to pledge ourselves absolutely to neutrality, in the event of Germany being engaged in war, Lord Haldane still supported the policy of "muddle through." "When we were caught unawares," he said, "and found ourselves in a tight place, we did better than any other people, and probably the same thing would happen again; but in time of peace we were, if judged by our utterances, the most funky nation ever known." His speculations in our probability of success in a life and death struggle are absolutely contrary to the gilt-edged security of training an adequate number of men before war, so as to provide for the safety and efficiency of the nation as far as human forethought and far-sightedness possibly can do.

Here I must enter a protest against the way in which the National Policy has been met by critics of Conscription. Apparently they do not know that at the present time Conscription is actually the law of the land. It is embodied in the Military Ballot Act, which has never been removed from the Statute Book and is only held in yearly abeyance. This system it is proposed that National Service shall replace. The whole energy of some critics is concentrated on suppressing the truth and making false suggestions. They wilfully misrepresent National Service as a policy of "Conscription" without ever defining what conscription is or defining it in the wrong way. And this in spite of the statement made by the late War Minister in the House of Commons, that he did not think it right to brand the supporters of the Compulsory Service Bill as Conscriptionists who wish to take people against their will to go to war. Thus Mr. Runciman is reported to have said in 1913, "their opponents appeared now to be flirting with conscription. The Bill introduced by the National Service League was a Conscription Bill and they would have no compromise on the subject." The *Daily News and Leader* told us that "the Conscription conspiracy was "being revived in a subtle but menacing form." Socialist agitators joined in the cry, and declared that compulsory military training was a device of the aristocracy to bring about the economic and industrial subjection of the working classes, adding that the

policy of National Service might be utilised to coerce Trade Unions and break strikes. As a matter of fact compulsory military training, instead of widening the breach between the rich and poor, must of necessity tend to improve the understanding between the classes, by bringing them closer together in a common cause.

Some of the arguments against Conscription and in favour of the voluntary principle are singularly inappropriate and illogical. Thus, the undoubted bravery and gallantry of the Bulgarian troops has been explained by saying they are voluntary conscripts! If so, why assume that the British would be less patriotic than the Bulgarians? Again the gallantry of our "splendid little Army" in France is cited as a vindication of our voluntary principle. But what about the gallantry of our allies whose arms are recruited on the conscription principle. The chief vindication of our voluntary principle is the "littleness" of our splendid army whose splendour and gallantry are due to its superb training. Perhaps the most extraordinary instance of inappropriate and illogical argument is the contention put forward by Mr. Harold Spender, that the fundamental difference of attitude towards the civilian population in this war by the Germans, is the difference between the attitude of a Power resting on Conscription instead of Voluntaryism. He forgets the French, Russians, and Belgians have conscription, yet they do not treat civilian populations with barbarity. Some other fundamental discovery must be made to account for this attitude of the Germans who, according to Mr. Lloyd George, have ruthlessly killed three unoffending, innocent Belgian people for every one lost in battle.

The *Westminster Gazette* committed itself in September 1912 to the opinion that compulsory service was merely a policy of "military adventure in Europe," and informed its readers that "we did not want a compulsory army which would be available for service on the Continent, and require training approximately equal to Continental armies with which it might be matched." Still more absurd were the remarks of the same journal two months later, that the making of a compulsory army would "bring us into collision with the great armies of the Continent." We all know that exactly the opposite has occurred, and that we are in collision with the great armies of the Continent because our own Army was held in such contempt that it was beyond Teutonic imagination that we would seriously contest the tearing up of a scrap of paper. I have not the slightest fear that militarism would ever get a hold in the United Kingdom. Even Lord Haldane admitted in 1906, "Militarism so-called is one thing, and the obligation of National Defence, to stand up for

the hearths and homes of our people and the interests of our Empire, another thing altogether."

Two important deeds of omission by Anti-National Service Campaigners must also be noted. The obligations of the United Kingdom and Empire are seldom, if ever, explained, and the growth of the military and naval power of Germany in the past few years has been scouted as of no consequence at all to us. It is easy for critics to quote lines of the Treaty guaranteeing Belgian neutrality after the fat is in the European fire, and Belgium has been ravaged and pillaged, but why have the same critics refused to refer to this Treaty and our consequent military obligations when they spoke or wrote on National Defence instead of damning it as a Tory conspiracy? As recently as June, 1913, Lord Roberts warned us that "quite apart from the fact that we had joined in guaranteeing the neutrality of Belgium, the domination of any one great continental State in Europe must be a menace to England and her Empire, so grave that the maintenance of the balance of power in Europe was to us a matter of life and death." Yet our armchair wise-acres persistently, shamelessly and recklessly misrepresented his words and purposes; they wrote of "fanatical advocates of Conscription," while Mr. Runciman had the temerity to tender his apologies to Germany for the unjustifiable words of Lord Roberts towards a friendly power!

As to how we were to meet our military obligations, perhaps the admission of Lord Haldane deserves first place. He said in the House of Lords that "the six divisions, the 160,000 men of the Expeditionary Force, owe their origin to no calculation of what sort of an army we should require on the Continent or in any other particular place!" In the meantime the strength of the army as a whole was seriously diminished, the Territorial Forces being anything from 62,000 to 65,000 short of his estimate of 313,000, 35,000 did not even attend camp, 100,000 attended for only eleven days in 1912, and the entire shortage reached the huge total of 108,000! Not only have the actual numbers been reduced, but a financial juggle has been going on. Thus, if more money was wanted for the Territorials, it was taken from the sums allotted formerly to the Regular Army. When the Aviation Wing was added to the Army the funds for it were obtained by cutting down the Artillery. Other reductions in the Army Estimates consisted of a reduction of £50,000 for clothing for a larger personnel, while the expenditure on rifles was actually £60,000 less, being more than one half the sum allotted for 1913-14. Little wonder our French allies were concerned at the way our military preparations were being mismanaged. After the Army manœuvres in 1913 the *Temps* noted "that the

Regulars were excellent, but the Special Reserve is incapable of filling its rôle, and the Territorial Army is lacking in effectives, officers, and training. The Haldane System is condemned beyond dispute by experience."

The Voluntary System is magnificent but is it War? Has it not broken down in actual warfare in this most important respect of decisive numbers of trained men coming early to the aid of our Allies? An obviously weak point of the Voluntary System in time of war is, that the supply of recruits is not regulated by the actual National Military requirement, but depends on the personal opinion of any possible and eligible recruit, as to whether the gravity of the situation is such that he should enlist at once, or wait and see. On the one hand, the supply may be embarrassing to the department, on the other, a great National risk may be incurred.

The New Army is making splendid progress, and the response of the Empire is magnificent. But if we had only had National Service in being when war broke out we might have been spared the awful tragedy to the Belgian nation, the devastation of North East France, the peril of Paris, the great losses to our troops in the brilliant retreat from Mons and the subsequent victorious recovery of ground to Belgium, and the inevitable prolongation of the war at an estimated cost of nearly £1,000,000 a day for us alone, to say nothing of the expense of maintaining scores of thousands of refugees. As the *Tribuna* of a recent date truly remarks "Great Britain is now paying the price of not listening to Lord Roberts, otherwise perhaps, the war would not have occurred."

For these reasons I hope and trust that we shall take this lesson most seriously to heart, and that a policy of National Service will be adopted in this country, as the only military policy worthy of the British Nation.

J. CHRISTIAN SIMPSON.

A DAY IN THE VELDT WITH BOTHA

By W. P. TAYLOR

THE seeds of disaffection had been sown. German sympathisers had done their mischief in Lichtenberg, and western Transvaal districts were on the verge of civil war. A planned insurrection, a plot to undermine the government, German influences to effect far-reaching purposes, all were but too apparent, and those who were loyal and had the welfare of the Empire at heart, felt that the hour had come when the ulcer of disaffection must be cut out.

Accordingly, in the early morning we harnessed our team and drank our tea. The cool dawn broke, not a breath of wind. A cloudless sky spoke for another day of drought and heat. We drove and railed to Bank Station where we found ourselves amongst some five or six thousand men and women of purpose. Men and women of the veldt; some had come in motors from Potchefstrom, but the majority were from farms and villages; all were of that serious type that lived by the plough and who had seen and felt life by fire and sword as well as in the toil of husbandry. It could be seen at once that this was no ordinary political husting, where party strife called for a member's election. It was a gathering of moment. There, under the intense glare of a sub-tropical sun, aged men and women, young married men and girls and the healthy men of the veld had come together, and the word went round that Botha would "burst the bottle!" It was not a day for delay, and in no time I was ushered to the General in his saloon carriage on a siding.

I shook his hand and said, "I have come to offer you the blind support of all in my part." He thanked me. There was in his face the fire of action. Ever polite and meeting his guest with a full tide of human assurance, yet there was a determination in his manner, his intense activity foreshadowed so much, that I felt there was force in the statement, and Botha would "burst the bottle." At eleven o'clock everybody "lined up" and made two long lines through which a body of

mounted men passed. Presently the General marched at the head of his supporters to the platform, and then a flood of addresses were presented. The majority of these supported the Government, only two were in favour of not molesting the Germans, and the constant point in each was to draw attention to the suffering of women in the concentration camps during the late war. This Hertzog dodge has been done to death. No one seems to enlighten the German well-wishers of the sad plight of the women and children in the areas that are being strewn with death in Europe to-day. No one tells of the coming plight of women and children there. Of the millions that will die of hunger and disease, of the coming chills of winter, and of death's skeleton force that will gather all those women and children. How they would thank their good God if only in that fearful desert of damnation there were an angel of mercy to take them to a British concentration camp, where they could receive what the Hertzogites to-day are holding up in scorn as a German point against the charity of the British.

General Botha is visibly suffering, the crowd are hooting down the German faction. The chairman calls for order, but the meeting will have no German toys; at last the wording of a petition against fighting so enrages the General that he rises and declines to receive it. Addressing the meeting, he tells them that he has held their trust for thirty years, that he has come there with a serious purpose. As head of the Government, he has been questioned and he will explain clearly the true position. He will tell them how extremely serious the position is. He will show them the danger, he will show them the prospect, and then not he, nor the Government, but they, they themselves, shall decide.

He explains there are but two ways. The Government had for seven days considered, and they had found but two ways. One to carry out the war, and the other to resign. General Beyers had cast a shadow across their path. His action had placed the Union in a bad position with regard to Great Britain, and it behoved us to discountenance that action, and therefore he had come forward and offered to carry out the work. After giving the history of the war's occurrence and Germany's duplicity, of Germany's duplicity to the late Republic, of her cruel action in invading Belgium, and of her activity in underhand methods, the General exclaimed, "I have such information as would make your hair stand on end," and "the position is very grave." Throughout hours of heat men listened and followed word for word. It was indeed a most momentous meeting. We realised to the full the dangers that threatened us, and shouted we would unreservedly fight for the Empire.

"I have not come here to tell you to fight," said the General, "I have come to find out what support the Government has, and I have come to tell you to plough the land. We are in the throes of a terrible devastating war, and hunger stares the world's population in the face, then all of you do your utmost to produce food. It is to adjure you to help to get the food that is needed that I appeal to you not to draw the sword." After traversing his opponents' arguments, and telling them how sad he was at the terrible death of his old comrade General De la Rey, he called on all those who supported the Government to move to the right. Practically the whole crowd moved. A few Union Jacks were conspicuous, and, after over two hours of continuous speech, the General was carried on the shoulders of his old comrades; a sigh of contentment showed that both leader and his people were at one.

With such a feeling the ploughshare will redouble its force, the lonely veld will not be disturbed with faction strife, for the Beyers and the Hertzogites and the Germans will be trounced. Botha has burst their bottle.

W. P. TAYLOR.

SPINNING AND WEAVING IN SOUTH AFRICA

At the Agricultural Show held at Pretoria, the Transvaal Home Industries Board had a stall at which the process of hand spinning and weaving were demonstrated. A large variety of articles, such as travelling and floor rugs and tweeds were also exhibited. These are manufactured by the girls who are receiving a course of training at the Transvaal Weavery, Pretoria. The Board was established as the result of Miss Hobhouse's starting hand spinning and weaving in the Transvaal and Free State immediately after the war, and, when the undertaking grew too large to be managed single handed, the then Transvaal Government appointed a Board to carry out its aims and objects.

FARM NOTES FROM CANADA

Scarcity of Live Stock.

THE Commission of Conservation in Canada has issued a special and timely bulletin on increasing live stock production in Canada. "The outbreak of war in Europe and the consequent demand which is naturally to be expected for increased exports of meats," says the bulletin, "finds Canada in a very much denuded condition as regards live stock. As a result of the removal of the American tariff on cattle, a heavy export trade developed to the south. In some districts in Eastern Canada nearly everything has been shipped out of the country, with the exception of dairy cows. This export trade, together with many farmers selling their calves for veal, can have but one result in Canada—a greater scarcity of meat than at present exists, even in a normal market. The meat industry in Canada should not be allowed to dwindle—rather the production of hogs, sheep and cattle on Canadian farms should be greatly increased. To obtain this increase does not mean that farmers should devote their whole attention to live stock. The majority of farmers will admit that, with very little extra effort and expense, they could increase by several head the live stock on their farms without in any way interfering with their present system of farming.

Cattle and Hogs.

From reports to the Commission of Conservation, present conditions indicate a world-wide scarcity of live stock, with little likelihood of an overcrowded market for many years to come. The opportunity for Canadian farmers is therefore apparent. To take advantage of this, farmers should save their heifer calves to produce more cattle, while the others may be turned off, not as veal but as beef. Expert stockmen advise that there are good times ahead for those raising sheep. The high price of mutton and of wool and the comparative ease with which a flock of sheep may be sustained upon land which is otherwise unsuitable for agriculture should suggest a great increase in the

number of sheep raised by Canadian farmers. Increased production in hogs can be brought about more quickly than in any other class of live stock, and consequently should receive immediate attention. Animal production on the farm is desirable because it increases the fertility and crop-raising ability of the soil. Good prices are sure to be obtained for any surplus which farmers will have to sell on account of the inevitable shortage of supply resulting from war conditions in Europe. These two conditions should be an incentive to Canadian farmers to increase their live stock production. The report is possessed of a very strong practical interest for farmers nearer home, while showing how closely official departments at Ottawa keep in touch with developments at home and abroad.

Flax-Growing.

An important body of farmers in Saskatchewan are now investigating the possibilities of flax fibre. Hitherto flax has been grown in this province in immense quantities, but only for the seed, the straw being burned. It is estimated that about 3,000,000 tons are thus annually destroyed in Saskatchewan alone. At even 12s. per ton, the economic loss involved amounts to £1,800,000. When grown for fibre, flax is seeded thickly and hand pulled, while for the seed product it is sown thinly, half a bushel per acre, and cut. No great commercial demand for the former has so far asserted itself in Canada, but if it can be proved to the farmers that a few acres of flax grown for fibre would yield a profit commensurate with the work entailed and provided additional workers can be had, they have agreed to give it a trial. It is felt that the cultivation of flax for fibre is destined to assume real importance in Western Canada in view of the fact that the British linen industry is seriously threatened by the war in Europe, both Russia and Belgium sending enormous quantities annually to the United Kingdom, particularly to Ulster.

Mixed Farming.

Within the past few years a striking change has come over the landscape in the settled districts of Western Canada, due entirely to the altered methods of farming now in operation. A few years ago a large number of farmers contented themselves with growing wheat, or, as it is called, "mining" wheat. There was little intentional permanency about their settlement. The homes they built were of the summer camp variety and embraced the minimum of comfort and convenience. They planted no trees and laid out no gardens, they purchased their food at the corner stores, they raised their children on canned milk. When they could they left their farms during the winter months,

having no stock to detain them. Within the past two or three years, the agricultural repertoire has been considerably extended. In addition to wheat, oats, barley and flax, the farmer now invests his capital, and his industry in dairying, the rearing of cattle, horses, sheep, swine, poultry, the raising of fruits, market gardening, and in many cases even of bees. The wisdom of such a course is obvious, if on no other ground than the folly of having, as the farmer puts it, "all his eggs in one basket."

Increase in the Acreage.

Canadian trade for the first month of war reached an aggregate of £20,025,400, compared with £19,566,400 for the corresponding month of 1913. Conditions have naturally changed in the interval, but there is no part of the world that will be less adversely affected than the Dominion, because Canada is essentially an agricultural country. Europe has been transformed into an armed camp. The war is now about to be carried into Asia. This means the virtual cessation over the vast war-stricken area of agricultural activity, and the world must look to Canada, and is, in fact, looking to her, to make good, so far as possible, the inevitable shortage of food. Canadian farmers are quite alive to what is expected of them and are making every effort to increase the acreage under crop and the numbers of their stock; while a scheme is on foot at Winnipeg to bring 1,000,000 acres of new land under cultivation, the capital to be advanced by financial interests.

That the farmers of Eastern Canada are alive to the fact that the European war will increase both the demand and the price of wheat is shown by reports that a largely-increased acreage of fall wheat is being sown in these older provinces. The Canadian output could not be appreciably increased, however, did not the great wheat-producing provinces of the west respond to the request of the central authorities that the wheat production of the Dominion be increased as much as possible. It has been suggested that steps be taken to break large areas of western lands for next season, but the suggestion overlooked the fact that prairie land broken so late in the season would not yield a good crop next summer. This and other features of the situation are dealt with in an appeal for a larger wheat production in 1915 issued by the Minister of Agriculture, who particularly asks for "more cultivation" and "better crops."

The appeal of the Minister of Agriculture to the farmers of Ontario to increase their wheat acreage has met with a ready response. It is felt that not only military efficiency, but food supply is a vital element in this struggle in which the Empire is engaged. While Ontario is more a mixed farming and dairy

province, the annual wheat yield approximates 17,000,000 bushels per year. An effort will be made to increase this. Under the auspices of the Ontario Department of Agriculture an active propaganda among the farmers is being arranged for the purpose of increasing the acreage for the growth of foodstuffs.

Apple Crop: New Markets.

Although the finest apples in the world are grown in Canada, it is frequently difficult to obtain them there, and Canadians have often to content themselves with apples imported from the United States. This is due to the fact that Europe, appreciating the quality and flavour of Canadian apples, imports them in very large quantities. The exports of Canadian apples to the United Kingdom have recently totalled about 1,500,000 barrels per annum, entire ship cargoes being confined to this one product. In addition, 75 per cent. of all the apples evaporated in Canada are exported to Germany, Austria-Hungary and other European countries. Naturally, the war has considerably interfered with this section of Canadian export trade, and the Department of Trade and Commerce at Ottawa has taken upon itself the duty of assisting the growers and exporters in the development of new markets. Considerable attention is being devoted to that at their own doors.

Fruit in Saskatoon.

The remarkable fruit-growing potentialities of Western Canada are being slowly yet surely demonstrated. For some years past farmers have been growing most excellent apples of certain varieties in Manitoba, while at several points in Saskatchewan most interesting and hopeful experiments are being conducted by progressive farmers and horticulturists. Small fruits, such as white, red and black currants, raspberries, gooseberries and strawberries have already been demonstrated to a degree of quality and production that places them in a class peculiarly by themselves. There is no comparison between the imported small fruits and those raised in Saskatoon; and it is felt that the development of an important industry is only a matter of time. The latest successful experiment is in plums of hardy variety which have given a good yield.

Subsidies for Seed Growers.

Owing to the war in Europe, whence comes the majority of flower seeds sold in Canada, these may not be so plentiful next year or the year after, as the operations in connection with growing and harvesting the seed must have been seriously

interrupted this season, and may with difficulty be carried on next year. Canadian grown seed has been found to give very satisfactory results, and people with gardens have been advised to save seed this year. Even should there be an abundance of imported seeds it will be an interesting experiment to compare the home grown article with the foreign. Germany and France have hitherto been the principal sources of supply for seeds of root and garden crops, and as the war will necessarily cut off the supply, the Canadian Government has adopted a policy of paying cash subsidies for seeds produced in the Dominion. For the seed of mangold and sugar beet the subsidy will be 3 cents per lb.; turnip, 4 cents; carrots, 7 cents; garden beets, 10 cents; parsnips, 7 cents; radish, 9 cents; cabbage, 25 cents; tomato, 50 cents; onions, 25 cents; celery, 40 cents; lettuce, 20 cents; cucumbers, 20 cents; water melon, 20 cents; musk melon, 30 cents.

Storing the Crop.

The Dominion Government's huge interior elevator at Saskatoon has eighty-four tubular concrete bins, and is the largest single unit elevator in the world. Its capacity is 3,000,000 bushels of grain. The larger elevators at Fort William consist of two units which are practically two separate elevators. The enormous development that has taken place in Western Canada and the consequent demand for storage capacity for the crops has made it necessary for the Government to come to the farmers' assistance in the matter of elevators as in so many other directions.

Canada's Expectations.

Canada is anticipating a largely increased immigration after the war. This is not unreasonable. The resumption of peace will find thousands of men seeking new avenues of employment. A new and young country, such as Canada, with its abundant opportunities for the man of resource and energy, will offer a tempting field for the emigrant. Canada's remoteness from the field of conflict will to some prove an additional magnet. If Canada to-day, in common with the whole world, is suffering from the effects of war, no other country stands to benefit so greatly or to recover so readily as does the Dominion. More than ever before, Canada will stand out in the eyes of the world as "The land of promise." She is a young and fruitful country, with illimitable resources only awaiting development.

Fort William District.

During the past twelve months, development work along agricultural lines in the vicinity of Fort William has grown to

such an extent that within a radius of 25 miles of the city it is now almost an impossibility for new settlers to obtain free homesteads. It is now necessary for the newcomer looking for free land to go some distance into the country. It is not generally known that within a hundred miles area of Fort William there is available half a million acres of land suitable for agricultural pursuits of all kinds. It is stated the Ontario Government contemplates opening up large tracts of unsurveyed lands to the north and south-west of the city, which will lead to further development on a much larger scale.

Treking to the West.

Within the past few weeks there has been marked evidence of a re-awakened American interest in Western Canada. From various sections of the United States numerous inquiries are being received by various local boards of trade, the majority of which emanate from those engaged in mixed farming, and who meditate emigrating to the West. The heavy and constantly increasing exports of stock and produce made by Western Canada during the past two years have not escaped this type of agriculturist. They have afforded him a conclusive demonstration of Western agricultural possibilities vastly more ample and attractive than he had believed. He realises the possibilities of Canadian land and climate for mixed farming. To add stock and dairying to the cultivation of wheat means the assumption of a complete and solid economic basis of operations. And there were never better openings for such men. Railway facilities are becoming exceptional, markets are therefore accessible and numerous, and good prices at present rule for all classes of products.

Homesteading Increase.

A feature of the autumn season in Canada is the number of applications for homesteads. During a single week in September no fewer than 411 were allocated, representing a total of 65,760 acres, a remarkable figure in what has been accurately described as a non-emigrating year. The figures are more striking still in view of the international situation, when emigration from practically all the countries in Europe has been suspended, and Canada has had to depend for new settlers to a great extent upon the United States. During the week referred to 260 settlers entered Western Canada from the States, taking with them nearly £6,000 in cash, while their effects were valued at £1,989. The vast majority were farmers, and the remainder chiefly consisted of people prepared to take up agricultural pursuits.

Opening up the New Land.

Railway activity proceeds apace throughout Western Canada. The Pacific Great Eastern Railway Company is arranging a service from Alta Lake, thirty-eight miles north of Squamish, to Pemberton Meadows, sixty miles north of the ocean terminal. The line from Squamish to Alta was opened during the second week in October. On Vancouver Island, the Victoria, Vancouver and Esquimalt Railway Company has laid fourteen miles of track on the joint section with the Kettle Valley Railway between Coalmont and Otter Summit. The Canadian Northern Railway Company is laying rails south of Cisco Bridge, and is completing over a mile of track per day between West Yellow Head and the Thompson River. The Canadian Pacific Railway Company's branch from Golden (British Columbia) on the main line to a point on the Crow's Nest branch will be completed by the end of the year. This will be a valuable link between the two existing Canadian Pacific Railway routes across the Rockies. The National Trans-Continental Line will be completed this month, while the Alberta Government is making provision for the construction of the Central Canada Railway Line to Peace River Crossing.

OPENINGS FOR BRITISH MANUFACTURERS

Textiles, Hardware Goods, and Rails.

As an immediate result of the withdrawal of supplies of German and Austrian goods, the office of H.M. Trades Commissioner for South Africa, at Cape Town, is receiving numerous requests from importers for the addresses of manufacturers in the United Kingdom of various textile and hardware goods. Amongst the articles enumerated are the following: Portable railway plant, ribbed underware, cotton blankets, rugs, travelling shawls, enamel-ware, crockery, toys, cutlery, and dress goods. Recognising the benefits derived by Great Britain and her Dominions by retaining "Trade within the Empire," the Pretoria Chamber of Commerce has passed a resolution desiring its members to do all they can to further the object in view by purchasing British-made goods in preference to those of foreign manufacture, strenuously endeavouring to create a taste for British-made goods amongst customers where a preference has been shown for foreign manufactures, and by making use to the greatest possible extent of the machinery of the British Board of Trade for promoting British trade interests in South African markets. Despite keen competition with the United States, the South African Government has placed an important contract for 20,000 tons of rails for the South African Railways in England. It is hoped that this order will be the forerunner of others which, placed in Germany, have since been cancelled and not yet re-issued.

Wire Nails.

The Canadian Trade Commissioner at Manchester has reported to the Department of Trade and Commerce at Ottawa, that as articles manufactured from iron and steel have ceased to arrive in Great Britain from Germany, Canadian manufacturers have now the opportunity to supply Great Britain with the following articles: wire nails, cut nails, nuts and bolts, machine screws,

barbed wire, and domestic wire goods. As Germany formerly supplied large quantities of these articles, British importers are now running short. In one case, wire nails were so urgently required that an initial order for 2,000 tons was forwarded to Canada, and the outlook for the development of the trade is encouraging.

Paper Trade and South Africa.

The Government of the Union of South Africa is seeking application for the leasing of certain land for the cutting of papyrus, which, with the picturesque tambookie grass, is occupying the interest of the Commerce and Industries Department. It is found, after tests and analyses, that these two wild crops suggest excellent utility for paper-making. In view of the shortage in the supply of raw material for paper-making, the present seems an opportune moment to establish pulping works in South Africa from which supplies could be exported to Europe and other markets.

South African Markets.

A communication recently issued by the office of H.M. Trade Commissioner in South Africa, contains the following advice, of which it is to be hoped British manufacturers will take full advantage:—"The opportunity will shortly be given to British manufacturers of capturing an immense portion of the trade in this market hitherto held by Germany and Austria, but it is highly necessary that they should not mark the disappearance of these competitors by relaxing past efforts to reframe their trade organisation upon the most modern standards."

Canada's Opportunities.

The Canadian trade Commissioners in Australia report that Canadian producers have now a splendid opportunity to capture trade with Australia formerly held by countries now hostile, if they take energetic steps to do so. There is no reason to suppose that Canadian manufacturers will fail to rise to the occasion.

Canadian Saddlery.

One of the largest manufactories in Canada of saddles, bridles, and leather goods for the farm is established in Winnipeg, and the employees are working day and night to fulfil orders. One manufacturer of leather goods at Winnipeg produces 200 saddles and eighty dozen collars per day and an equal volume of other harness accessories. The firm has sufficient contracts booked

to last for months. Similar concerns in other parts of Canada are equally active. While Canadian saddlers are thus busy it should not be assumed by tradesmen in the Mother Country that there is any increased demand for permanent workers.

Canadian Industries and the War.

Manufacturers in Canada as in the Mother Country are experiencing something like a boom in consequence of military and other special orders due to the war in Europe. For instance nearly all the flour mills in Canada are working at full speed. Many are turning out flour for the troops. At Medicine Hat a new mill is being rushed to completion in order to share in the increased business. Another mill, which it was proposed to close for a few days for repairs, is now working double shifts to keep pace with the orders. This is a fair indication of the demand there is for Western Canada products. At the same time there has not so far been any indication of a shortage of workers except on the land. In view of the greatly increased acreage that is being laid under crop for next year's harvest it is clear that on the farms the demand will be at least as great as ever, and many now resident in the cities are likely to respond to the call of the land.

THE DOMINIONS AND THE WAR

The Canadian Army.

REMARKABLE as was the transportation of the Indian troops to France during the prevalence of hostilities, the safe transfer of a great Canadian army across 3,000 miles of ocean without mishap of any description was a much more remarkable performance. It spoke volumes for Admiral Jellicoe's command of the sea. And what an army! Much had been heard of them. Much was expected of them, and now that they are here the people of this country recognise that Canada has in truth given of her best. The Empire, it may be said, has here the last word in physique and equipment; and when, for them, "The Day" arrives, the enemy will realise more fully than ever the absurdity of the Kaiser's epithet "contemptible" when applied to the army under Field-Marshal French. In the streets of London the Canadians attract as much attention as do the Belgians and the wounded, and numerous little acts of courtesy on the part of civilians that are daily in evidence in the streets manifest, more eloquently than words, how warmly the people of the Mother Country welcome to their midst the khaki-clad sons of the Sister State on the other side of the Atlantic.

The Canadian Scouts.

A correspondent writes :—"The element of Western Canada should be especially serviceable in view of the fact that it comprises so many of the best scouts in the world. It is true, doubtless, that the scout trained on the high prairies and in the primeval woodlands is not likely to have such opportunities in long-settled France or in Germany later on—as he had on the Veldt in the South African War. But the great war fluctuates and spreads through those rough and sparse-settled areas not uncommon in France, and their good scouting in the old style is invaluable in enabling small bodies of troops to avoid ambushes. No doubt the experts from Western Canada, who know how to track an Indian fugitive from justice, will have many chances of

using their natural and acquired gifts in the western theatre of war. The spacious life of the great dominion has taught them all the essential points of the soldier's craft. They can all shoot, they can ride, they can cook, and they know how to make themselves comfortable in camp and take care of their horses, two all-important guarantees against the unnecessary waste of a force in the field."

Horses for the Army.

On account of its central position, a depot has been established at Saskatoon for the handling of the 1,500 cavalry remounts which have been offered to the Imperial Government by the Province of Saskatchewan. The work of securing suitable animals has already commenced. A considerable number of Canadian horses has already arrived in this country to make good the losses by war, and for the period of its duration a constant succession of shipments will cross the Atlantic.

Censorship in Canada.

An Order in Council has been made at Ottawa under the recent War Measures Act, empowering the Government to take over and operate any telephone or telegraph lines in Canada, and providing authority for a strict censorship on all telegraphic or telephonic communications. The order provides that any Cabinet Ministers delegated for the purpose may assume control of any telegraph or telephone company and use its lines for His Majesty's Service. It is further provided that the Minister may submit messages to censorship, and that any messages, whether by telegraph or telephone, to be sent out of Canada must go through certain named offices only. Any Director or officer of a company contravening the instructions of the Minister is liable to a penalty of £1,000 or five years imprisonment.

Gifts from Canada.

The county council of Lambton, Ontario, intend sending 100,000 lbs. of dried apples to the soldiers at the front. Tons of the finest fruit are now being picked. The growers will give the apples, and the County of Lambton is furnishing £1,200 for evaporation expenses. The town council of Thorold, also in Ontario, will give a carload of flour to the Belgian Government for those in distress on account of the war. Thorold township has augmented this gift by 100 bags.

Saskatchewan's Gift.

More than 1,000 of the 1,500 horses which are to be presented by the Saskatchewan Government to the British War Office have

now been purchased by the agents of the Remount Commission. Of the horses which have so far been purchased approximately 75 per cent. are for cavalry and 25 per cent. for artillery purposes. The motor has revolutionised land transportation and is now largely employed by armies in the field, but for cavalry and artillery purposes the demand for horses is as great as ever, while the war in Europe has made exceptional demands on the stocks of the breeders.

Practical Patriotism.

An unique patriotic appeal is being made to the farmers of Saskatchewan by the central organisation of the Saskatchewan Grain Growers' Association. The appeal suggests that each grain grower set apart one acre of land to be sown with wheat next spring, the proceeds of the crop, when sold, to be given to the Patriotic Fund. As the Association has 850 branches, it is anticipated that the area under cultivation for patriotic purposes will be 50,000 acres, and the crop at an average of twelve bushels per acre, as this year, would mean 600,000 bushels of grain. Truly a princely offering from the farmers of Saskatchewan.

Clothing and Food for Belgians.

The plight of the Belgians has aroused the pity and sympathy of the entire population of the Province of Ontario. Inside a week about twenty-five carloads of clothing and food supplies were collected, and with the assistance of the Department of Agriculture were shipped to Halifax to be forwarded by special steamer. The Provincial Government has contributed \$15,000, and many organisations and individuals have made cash contributions totalling several thousand dollars.

Work for the Workless.

Work on the new Winnipeg Parliament Building and Law Courts will be commenced immediately and continued as long as the weather permits. There are numerous trades which can be carried on in the winter, and in every instance where this is possible it will be done. The Government is anxious, not only to get the work started, but also to help the labour situation as much as possible. Similar efforts are being made in other parts of the Dominion where they are considered necessary. From the climatic conditions there must always be a certain amount of unemployment in outdoor trades in Canada during part of the winter, but under normal conditions the wages paid at other seasons of the year more than make up for the days of enforced idleness.

AUSTRALIAN WAR CONTINGENT

AN APPEAL

THE first Australian War Contingent has sailed on its glorious voluntary mission—to support the Motherland in keeping the Union Jack flying and in maintaining the honour and prestige of the British Empire against German tyranny.

These patriotic young Australians, mostly born under the Southern Cross, have eagerly flocked to the Empire's Standard, ready to risk their lives, sacrifice their business careers, and uproot their domestic associations, in its defence.

At the suggestion and under the auspices of the War and Colonial Offices, our Association has undertaken the duties of supplementing the ordinary routine hospital services by providing special comforts for the sick and wounded men of the contingent, and also of mitigating their hardships in the training camp and on the battle-field.

A great privilege, therefore, presents itself to Australians in Great Britain and to business firms and institutions associated with the Commonwealth, to contribute generously to this object. Let the response be prompt and hearty, so that the men who are fighting our battles may feel that we are vastly proud of them, and in order also that those dear ones they have left behind may know that we who owe so much to Australia are doing our part in no niggardly spirit.

Do not forget that English, Irish, Scotch and Welsh soldiers and sailors in the fighting line frequently receive gifts from relatives and friends, whereas the Australians will necessarily be dependent on our Association for like attentions in relieving their necessities and in rendering their lot less irksome and dangerous.

Our Ladies' Committee is giving its best in supplying materials, labour and time as well as in other services, and as additional troops are to follow it is manifestly essential that our funds should be augmented by donations and periodical subscriptions.

In conclusion, my Committee earnestly recommend you to consider their suggestion to become a monthly subscriber to the funds of our Association.

NEWTON J. MOORE, K.C.M.G.
(*Chairman of Executive Committee*).

THE EMPIRE REVIEW

AND

JOURNAL OF BRITISH TRADE

VOL. XXVIII JANUARY, 1915.

No. 168.

LORD MOULTON ON ANILINE DYES

A BRITISH NATIONAL INDUSTRY

To Lord Moulton the nation owes a deep and lasting debt of gratitude. Outside the question of war, although closely connected with it, no subject has a greater importance to the industrial community of this country than the manufacture of aniline dyes. For many years now Germany has been the home of this industry, and if the textile trade of Great Britain is not to be seriously crippled by the sudden break in the continuity of supply, something must be done, and done quickly, to meet the requirements of British manufacturers.

How to solve the problem was the task committed by the Government to Lord Moulton, whose intimate knowledge of the subject in all its phases marked him out as the man best qualified to advise the Cabinet, and through the Cabinet the country, as to the steps that should be taken to cope with the gravity of the situation. The conclusions he has arrived at and the advice he has given were set out by him in an address delivered on December 8th in the Town Hall at Manchester. With the object of giving the readers of this Review an opportunity of making themselves acquainted with the views of so eminent an authority on a matter of such national urgency, we obtained Lord Moulton's permission to reproduce in article form the essential portions of his address.

* * * * *

SOME little while ago I was asked by the Government to take the chairmanship of a small committee appointed to investigate the straits into which England was placed by being cut off from that

273

great supplying nation, Germany. We have had to investigate all the unsatisfied wants arising from the war, and I am glad to say that in almost every case we have found the resources of British enterprise sufficient to meet the demand. Some makers have become more attentive to the tastes of their customers; some have increased their works; some have added new branches to their business: so that I think one may say that the straits have been alleviated if not removed.

On the other hand everything that has happened has placed in harsh and dissonant contrast the question of dyes. Nothing that I have seen—and I can claim to have spent almost every hour of the day in meeting the members of the trades affected, and in trying my best to find some way out of the difficulty—has weakened—nay! I can say nothing has failed to strengthen my feeling of the gravity of this problem. As a result, after long reflection I have come to certain conclusions. These I have not hesitated to place in the clearest language before the Government, who have taken an unusual and almost unprecedented step in the direction to which I refer. I am not responsible for the details of that step. I am not in any way connected with the shape or form in which the action is to take place otherwise than so far as it has been a necessary consequence of the advice I have given. And I propose to give you the same advice, based upon the same considerations, the result of the same reflections.

In my opinion we are at a crisis of our national fate, and I shall try to put as plainly as possible the facts which have led me to that conclusion. What then did I find when I began to investigate the lack of dyes? I found this country was consuming some two million pounds worth of dyes per annum. They were essential to an industry of something like two hundred million pounds per annum, and on which at least a million-and-a-half workmen were dependent. I found also that of the two million pounds worth of dyes required year by year barely one-tenth was produced within our own boundaries. I looked round for industries which could at a pinch supply the deficiency. So clearly demarked from other industries is the great chemical industry of the coal-tar dyes that I know no industry which could take its place. I found too that the stocks of dyes, the stocks kept in peace times—for no warning of the intended war had been vouchsafed to British customers—I found those stocks were rapidly diminishing, and that practically there was only one nation, Switzerland, from whom we could expect help. There pressure was being put by Germany of the most intense kind—threatening, and the carrying out of the threat, to stop all supplies of intermediate products on which the Swiss dye-makers had built up

their business, unless they would promise that not a pound of their dye should, for the whole period of the war, come into this country. I found certainly some English firms who were manufacturing, and manufacturing successfully, in spite of the competition of the Germans. But what these firms could supply was indeed inadequate to keep going the great textile industries, which ultimately depend to so large an extent upon the dyeing industry.

That was the serious immediate prospect, the immediate view. But what does the future promise? It is that which I have been brooding upon ever since. Supposing this war were finished. Supposing by the bravery of our soldiers, and the unflinching determination of our Government and the Governments of the Allies, we come out of it politically free. What position do we step into industrially? We step into the slavery of the Germans, so far as our textile and dyeing industries are concerned, as absolute as they hoped to put us in a political and military sense. This is no exaggeration. In frequent conversation with those practically interested in the question I have learned the German methods of carrying on business. I know their way of dividing all the nations into watertight compartments, by their system of selling dyes not to be exported, so that they can put the price up to one nation and down to another. I know the way in which even the two great rings, which may be competitors one to the other in Germany, are united against the foreigner. And I say gravely, that if peace were declared at this moment our textile industry would be so much under the domination of the German dye-producing industry that it could boycott us as to the dyes, it could hamper that industry pending the time when it had the capital and works to challenge its very existence. As an Englishman, that filled me, I will not say with dismay—because I have a blind faith in my countrymen which makes me believe that out of the most difficult position they will, when they once realise it, pull themselves successfully—but it made me feel that it was my business to sound a note of warning, and not let people go on thinking that this trouble from shortage of dyes was one which would be temporary, lasting only during the war time. No. It was a signal of danger which threatens us more in peace than in war, and if we declined to listen to this danger signal then our fate was on our own heads.

In most things one ought to consider how to do them before determining to do them. But there are exceptions. This war was an exception. I do not think that many of us knew how we were going to struggle through this war, but yet I doubt if there is a man who did not feel that we must take it up. I feel about this industrial war just the same. I feel that the first thing we

have to do is to say to ourselves, "That shall not go on." And then we have to set to work to find out how we can stop it. But to find that out we must first consider the causes which have led to this strange position, that a great enterprising industrial nation in the largest of its export industries—a nation which lives upon export industries—in the industry which I believe produces one-third of the total exports, is at the mercy of the foreigner. How was it that when the great chemical trade, based on the marvellous way in which coal-tar products will assume myriad forms and myriad different properties, when that El Dorado was discovered, far more valuable than the Rand ever will be, how was it that England did not have its share?

Was it discovered by foreigners? It was started by an Englishman. Was it that foreigners alone had the natural resources to carry it on? For years practically all the raw materials that were required for this industry were sent out in an untreated state from England. Then why was it? We must look the truth in the face. It was for no other reason than dislike of study. The Englishman is excellent in making the best of the means at his disposal, but he is hopeless almost in one thing. He will not prepare himself by intellectual work for the task he has to do. During the last fifty years the knowledge of the world, the additions to that which we know, which have been piled up from the work of ten thousand independent investigators, each applying himself to one thing, have made it so that with regard to each subject there is a vast amount of the "known." And a wise man who means to deal with a subject will master what is known before he attempts the problem of what he can do. That is what the Germans, who were rightly ambitious, accepted as the condition of success in industry. If you talk to any German who is engaged in any industry you will find that he knows about it all that can be known.

Once I found myself on the top of one of the the Dolomite Mountains, and the only other person there besides the guides was a German chemist. I found out that he was a chemist and I began to talk upon a chemical subject. He told me he was only an organic chemist. He had not exhausted my resources, and I began to talk of coal tar and pharmaceutical products. Then he told me that he was a coal-tar by-product chemist. That did not beat me, because I had just been fighting a case of canary yellow. I thought I would get some subject which was common to us, and I slipped into the subject of canary yellow. Still the same ominous silence for a time, and then he said. "I am only a coal-tar chemist dealing with blues." But I had not finished. With an Englishman's pertinacity, not believing I was beaten, I racked my brains

for a coal-tar blue—I had had to advise on some cases—and I gradually, without a too obvious change of subject, slipped into that. Then he finally defeated me, because he said in equally solemn tones, but equally proud of the fact, “I only deal with methyl blues.”

This story will give you an idea of the way that a German is willing to give up everything so as to concentrate himself on the subject with which he has to deal. It may limit his general view of life. I confess that it is almost worse than wearing blinkers. Goggles are the only thing I can think of which at all describe the mental limitations. But this makes the Germans most formidable in industrial questions. It makes them thorough in that which they have to do.

Apart from certain business methods which I may have to refer to later on, I believe the sole cause of our falling back, and Germany's possession of this great industry, is due to the fact that the Germans are perfectly prepared to undertake the intellectual study necessary to master the new science. We could do it just as well. In their great works British chemists are as highly respected as German chemists, and as efficient. But unfortunately the holders of capital in this country have had little sympathy with knowledge that they did not themselves possess. As I have been talking these matters over with people—energetic, good, industrial producers—I have always found that when I began to talk about the intellectual study necessary to deal with chemical science there has always been that tone recalling the voice of the sluggard; “You waked me too soon.” They know the time is coming when they will have to do it, but they hope that during their time the traditionary ways of their fathers may be sufficient, and let the next generation face the intellectual difficulty of study. The consequence has been that inventions—great inventions—have fallen dead in this country. They have been offered in Germany; they have been studied by instructed minds; they have been accepted. And the consequence has been great industrial production, the fruit of which all the rest of the world has received. But here—“Well, ah! yes. It has not been tried.” It is difficult. It is given to somebody who has not disciplined himself like the Germans do, and he finds difficulties, and then gradually the thing is dropped. For you must remember that because the masters, the heads, the capitalists, have no sympathy with this self-preparation for the difficult tasks, there is no career for the young men who are willing to study. What can they do? They are paid salaries quite insufficient for the training they have to go through, and for the learning they have acquired. The consequence is, when I am asked how it is that we are so poorly represented in the industrial ranks by

chemists I say, "Make a career for your young chemists, and then you will see." We have not done so.

Here we have the cause, and so far as is material, the sole cause of the German supremacy. There is not one single thing in which we are at a disadvantage by natural position. It is perfectly true the most valuable deposit of potash is in the centre of Germany, but we can get potash from elsewhere if we want it. As to coal, and the sources of the coal-tar industry, we have them in richer quantity than even Germany itself. The one thing is the difference in the human element, and this is not a difference in intellectual capacity, but in the industry and the willingness to study to the bottom the subject with which you have to deal. That is my opinion of the cause of our inferiority, and I ask myself at once, "Is that a cause which must permanently operate?" The answer is, of course, "No." But it is for us to reform ourselves, otherwise no relief can come. It is impossible that we can get a chemical industry like the Germans' unless we are willing to train ourselves for it, to have faith in it, to embark our capital in it, and in this way take the steps which lead to it. Consequences follow causes in this world; and to hear people grumble at this difficulty about the dyes when one thinks they have neglected all the necessary causes to produce the industry, would make me feel almost impatient, if it did not make me sorrowful.

The question is then, has the condition of things become so permanent that it is too late to do anything? Here I confess that I feel cheerful. Let me deal for a moment with the difficulties that are put to one. The first is that there is a lack of the necessary technical skill. I have a great difficulty in returning a polite answer to that. To my mind it is nonsensical. We have the command, and we shall in peace still more have the command of abundant technical skill to create the industry. You must remember this, that in the long catalogue of dyes, the vast number are dyes the processes for the manufacture of which are well known. I do not say that the man who is practised in it will not get a better yield, or that his handiwork will not be more certain. Of course it will. But there are no people better qualified to learn by experience than ourselves, and the whole of these dyes can be manufactured with as great certainty in this country, if we put up the proper plant and choose the proper men to guide it, as we can manufacture a casting.

Let us pass to the more recent dyes, those that have hardly made their way into commerce, but the qualities of which show they will be very desirable. It is perfectly true that if you want to manufacture these on an industrial scale, you will previously have to study in the laboratory, by observation of the

reactions, how to get the best results. But you will be astonished how few the processes are in this great industry, and the extent to which they are simply the repetition of the same processes with different substances and under different conditions. The sole difficulty which separates brilliant success from comparative failure is that study has shown how to regulate the conditions so as to make the results most favourable. There is no mystery to the chemist. There is that which requires study before he can arrive at it, but if you are going to be daunted by that, then the rest of what I have to say will not interest you. So that the objection of not having abundant technical skill to carry out any industry that we form is, in my opinion, absolutely baseless.

Then I am told: "It is impossible to compete. There are works with a capital of a hundred millions in Germany. Our foes are willing to crush us by every means they know, and those means, I can assure you, are various and effective." That is a very great fact, but if you tell me that it is impossible for manufacture to go on in spite of this competition I will ask you to turn your eyes not only to this country, but even to Germany, where you find firms outside these great combinations, firms that in their own particular line have a successful business, and even an export business, in which they contrive to flourish—not to make the gigantic profits of the rings—but still to make fair industrial profits. In our own country we have them. We have firms that, in spite of the pressure of the Germans, manufacture at a profit. And side by side—if you look back—with these firms there were many others whom the Germans feared sufficiently either to buy out or to crush out. Realising that these firms were capable of producing in competition with them they felt that at great cost they must get rid of them. That surely is proof that competition in production is not impossible. Success in production depends no doubt on cheapness; but if you produce on what I may call an economical unit, that is on a scale which is adequately great, the advantages from doing it on an enormous scale are very small in comparison. And certainly this country, with its rich market, its demand for dyes—and many of these demands capable of being satisfied with comparatively few dyes—can certainly start an industry in which the manufacture is on such a large scale that it can challenge, if not equal, the economies of the biggest works.

Now let us look at the third objection which is raised to the possibility of our competing, and it is raised in connection with the suggestion that I am defending here—the consequence of my conclusion that a great national effort should be made, and a large company formed capable of producing dyes on a scale sufficient to satisfy the English demand. It is a very curious one, and yet

you have all heard it. I remember saying to a man with whom I was discussing the matter, and who knew well the trades of Lancashire and Yorkshire: "Don't you think it would be of infinite value to this country to have a company which would for ever secure its dyeing and textile industries, and the great pigment industries which must not be forgotten, from being overcharged for their dyes?" My friend replied, "But that is not what I am thinking about. I am not thinking about being overcharged; my fear is we shall be undercharged!" Here I was trying to protect British industry. I was talking to a man vitally interested in that industry, and what was his fear? His fear was that the consequence of our doing it would be that we might get dyes cheaper than they could be made, that was what was frightening him. I will tell you of what it reminded me. Supposing there was a question of building a defensive fort to protect the vitals of a country, to protect, we will say, London, and the objection was raised: "Oh, but if you build it as strong as that nobody will attack it, and then how will you defend the spending of your money?" I ask you to think of this objection seriously, and in the light in which I am putting it to you. To my mind it is the most universal and the meanest of all the things which influence men's minds on this subject. They are afraid it will be too successful. They know that if they do not make such a company they will be overcharged by the Germans ruthlessly. Of that there is not a fraction of doubt. They know that if they do form this company that cannot be so, and the probability, they think, is that our great industries will get their dyes cheaper even than they can be made. They must realise that this, to a nation which has a world-wide commerce, is a boon beyond estimation; and yet they are afraid, if they put their money in, they will win this boon for their fellow-countrymen.

What does it mean? It is that ineradicable defect of the English mind, if it has not by travel or study or reading got rid of its insularity. I used to sit for a constituency, an agricultural one, in the south, and I never could get out of the head of any one farmer that his real competitor was the man living next door to him. He did not realise that this insular idea of being afraid that the man next door will get the better of you for a penny, or that his goods which are not quite as good as yours, will still be treated alike with yours, is the thing which has prevented all co-operation among them in the south. While Denmark, a poor country, has been rolling up its wealth by combined action, our people stand apart, and are still as unfitted for helping the wholesale trade of the world as they were almost fifty years ago. What this objection means is, you are afraid that Mr. So-and-So,

who has not subscribed, will get all the benefit you have won by your subscription. You do not doubt that you will win it for your country. You do not doubt that you will win it for yourselves. You do not doubt that in this way, so far from industries being harried, they will be put in an undeservedly fortunate position. And yet you do not want to do it because the gain will come to your trousers pocket instead of to your waistcoat pocket. Instead of coming in dividends it will come in the lower price of dyes.

If I could believe that the formation of this company would force the Germans for one year or two years or twenty years to sell their dyes at less than cost price, I should come to you and say, "You have a chance now to save yourselves and your country, and to put yourselves and your country in a position of vantage in competition in foreign lands that you have not deserved but that you are going to get." But I frankly tell you that I do not think you are going to have such a good time as that. Let me tell you why. If a great company is formed that is efficient and that produces, as an efficient British company will produce, at fair prices, it will cost the Germans much too much to sell below cost price here. For this reason: Once satisfy the British market with these low-priced dyes, and you free the output of this company to go to those Eastern markets, out of which the Germans derive the profits which enable them to fight you; and you can sell there at fair prices, and the Germans will either lose the market or there, too, they must drop their prices. Dropping prices all over is not a good way of increasing profits. And my opinion is that they will find that it is better to leave you alone, better to leave you to supply yourselves than to set free such a formidable output as a great company would make to compete with them in other markets of the world. There must be, in order to give this country industrial freedom in this group—which is almost, or quite, the greatest group of its industries—a great national effort to create a company, a company working under the conditions of other companies, suffering from its blunders and profiting by its wisdom.

But there are three conditions, and unless those three conditions are all satisfied the company will be a failure. The first condition I lay down is that it must be large. Politically, the Germans are frankly the foes of small nations. They consider that small nations are to be eaten up. Industrially, this great embodiment of the German idea, the combination of the dye manufacturers, behaves to small manufacturers exactly as Germany seeks to behave to small nations. It is hopeless to suppose that if there are sporadic attempts, all small, they will not be either dragged into a combine, or crushed by a combine, or in one

of the many other ways, which you all know, put out of existence. The company must be large, and therefore independent, and therefore beyond attack. Secondly, it must be national in the sense that it must be removed for ever from the temptation of listening itself to the voice of the charmer, and entering into a combine. We must have a company that is not only powerful, but one the loyalty of which is necessarily beyond all doubt, and that we can only get if it is assisted by the Government, on the terms that the Government can stop it from ever entering into the backward path which would ruin its national utility.

Now I am going to tell you the third condition. It must be co-operative. The producer must be the consumer. You will never link up all these industries unless those using the dyes are included, the textile people, the dyeing people and those in the great pigment trade. Unless all who are about to consume have an interest in the production, and therefore supply a preferential market, you will never succeed in making the company relieve the national need. If the millions wanted were offered on the Stock Exchange for a company which would be free from all trammels, which would have no connection with the trade, the shares of which would be bought as the others that are called industrials on the Stock Exchange, where every penny of profit made would be squeezed out of it for the benefit of the then holders of the shares, who would care nothing for the holders of the next year or for the future of the company, I would say at once: "It is doomed to failure," and its failure would be only the more marked because it was gigantic. It must be realised that the consumers should loyally combine with the producing company, and that being so I defy the German or any other competition to down that bond of union. The only thing against which a combine or a ring is doomed to failure is where there is co-operation between the producer and the consumer. I remember one of the earliest cases that came before me. It was a case of a very great industry, and we were told that it was entirely in the hands of such a ring formed in such a city in Germany. Well, what happened? We got the producers and the consumers together, and said: "If you will produce the article yourselves you can defy rings. How can they touch you? (It happened to be a question of a metal.) You can buy in the markets of the world. It is produced everywhere. No one can run up the price against you, because they have got to sell at prices which repay them for their expenditure on the ores, and therefore the worst that can happen is that you are on equal terms with them." The consequence was that they realised that nothing could come in if the producer and consumer were united.

Some critic will say: "Oh, yes, but is not this a violation of the chief commandment, 'You shall buy in the cheapest market.'" Is it? Remember this. That in considering what is cheap you must not look at the money that passes, but at the consequences of the purchase too. The man who says, "I will buy for five years at a discount of five per cent., with the certainty that I shall have to pay fifteen per cent. more for the next ten years," and thinks he is buying in the cheapest market is, I suggest, a bad student of the school. It is not buying in the cheapest market if you buy something which destroys your real security for cheapness, that which keeps you, which is your defender, which prevents you from being overcharged. And I am perfectly certain that when the idea of loyal co-operation gets hold of Lancashire and Yorkshire the foes of this country in the industrial world will begin to tremble. We have had a time of peace, and we have never thought of dangers, industrial or national. But there are these dangers, and even though there may not be another war, as we trust there will not be, there is perpetual war going on industrially, and it is not based on the ideas of each man doing his best, and of fair sale and fair purchase. It is based on what in the industrial world corresponds to war in the political world, and if you do not realise that, if you will not stand by one another as producer and consumer, and you let the producer go down under his enemies, so that in turn they have the mastery of you, then all I can say is that as consumers you have been buying in the dearest market, and you will deserve the consequences that you get.

You must have a great company, a company with national control so far as to keep it in the right path; and you must have a company which is co-operative between the producer and the consumer. If you do that I can warrant it a long and successful life, but if you attempt to leave out any one of these three essentials it is pre-doomed to failure.

And now one or two words in conclusion. We have to realise that, so far as it is possible, a country should be in such a position that if its supplies are cut off, for any reason whatever, from outside it should be able to supply itself. Of course we realise that in raw materials and in many other things we must depend on supplies from outside, and that is the reason why we are a nation that spends so unstintingly on its fleet. But this is no question of getting raw materials from a foreign country. It is a question of being at the mercy of a country, not friendly disposed, in a matter where we could make ourselves independent; and it is a case in which we know perfectly well what are the morals of that country in regard to its behaviour to other nations. Therefore I say you must look upon it as if it were one

of those necessary munitions of peace which you must see adequately manufactured among yourselves.

Some may say what I heard of a great dealer saying: "Oh, but I am a business man. I only look at things as business propositions, and a tenth of a penny would make me buy everything from Germany rather than from England." At that very moment tens of thousands of men were exposing their lives in the trenches to protect that man and his money. I wonder how many would have been there if it was always thought a brilliant thing for a man to look on everything from the point of view of a business proposition. If that is being done by the recruits, what are you and I going to do for our country? We cannot go to the trenches, and yet we are all willing and burning to do what we can for our country. Well, this is our part. We can protect our country by taking care that when peace comes it shall be under no subordination. That is what I ask you to do. A great writer has said: "There is nothing more desirable in life than to be wise at a great moment." This is a great moment. Be wise.

* * * *

So interesting and instructive an address can scarcely fail in its purpose. Of one thing we may rest assured—it will receive, as it deserves, the widest attention in all parts of the Empire. Discussing the subject-matter with Lord Moulton he particularly emphasised the need of co-operation in any scheme which might be formulated. With this view we are in complete accord. Without co-operation the difficulties of bringing any scheme to fruition are enormous. With it success is assured.

EDITOR.

FOR KING AND COUNTRY

HARK ye not the martial music?
Hear ye not the rolling drum?
'Tis a world-wide voice that calls you;
Bids you to the colours come!
Will you hearken not the mandate
As it surges o'er the seas?
Does the flag arouse *no* answer
While it floats upon the breeze?
Sacrifice not home and honours;
Liberty, to which you cling;
You are wanted, O, my brothers!
Empire needs you, and—your King!

Comes there not, with peal of music
Through your hearts, a battle hymn?
Burns there not the flame within you
In the pride of life and limb?
Ye are citizens of Empire—
Heritage of priceless worth;
Free-born, while the flag keeps flying
O'er the citadels of earth!
Shall you, now that this is threatened,
Hesitate to hold it firm?
Rally round it and protect it
From the fierceness of the storm!

Dear to heart of every Briton
Is that flag of England's pow'r;
Where'er fixed, behold the message
It conveys from mast or tow'r.
Ye are sons of Britain's greatness;
Builders of her holy bond,

And to all her word is binding,
 As both weak and strong have found;
 For there floats the flag of Union;
 'Tis to you a sacred thing;
 'Tis to you no pledge of paper,
 'Tis the honour of your King!

Martial music thrills each fibre;
 Heart-beats in the throbbing drum;
 Have they not a blood-roused answer
 None may stifle or make dumb?
 Not while far the cannons thunder
 And the shrapnel bombs explode,
 Or the clouds send leaden hail-stones
 O'er the blood-stained field and road!
 These, my brothers, bring you freedom,
 And on you—on you they call;
 All your sacred rights defending,
 In you, they would purchase all!

These, the treacherous Huns must grapple,
 And in you, our God of might
 Shall o'ercome and lead to glory
 They, whose cause is just and right.
 Men—and still *more* men—are wanted,
 Till in strength you shall prevail;
 'Tis the grand old flag that flutters
 In the war-breath of the gale!
 Need we fear the final issue?
 Is your flag a flimsy thing?
 Not with men like you, my brothers,
 Empire trusts you, and—your King!

ALFRED SMYTHE.

BRITISH MARITIME SPIRIT

OVER seven hundred years have passed since the soil of England was violated by a conqueror. Generation after generation has come and gone, and a happy fate has spared each and all the evils and horrors inseparable from so dire a calamity.

“ And Ocean 'mid his uproar wild
Speaks safety to his island child;
Hence for many a fearless age
Has social quiet loved thy shore,
Nor ever proved invader's rage
Or sacked thy towers or stained thy fields with gore.”

Recent happenings in Flanders and Northern France impart to these lines a meaning that for centuries they have not possessed for this country. We know, as Coleridge knew, that it is the sea and the maritime spirit of our people which alone have stood between this country and the invasions that time and again have desolated the continent of Europe. The ocean is reminiscent of much that is noble and inspiring in our national history. It suggests to Britons lofty traditions. It appeals to them to do great deeds. British poets sing of the “red-cross flag” of England as the billows’ “pride and joy,” and the deck as their “father’s field of fame.” Naval supremacy has enabled us to acquire and hold territory in every quarter of the globe, to carry on an extensive foreign trade without precedent in commercial history. The fleet is in very truth our “all in all.”

Great Britain is of small extent, giving its inhabitants easy access to the coast. Sea-faring habits in a people have not infrequently been the product of similar conditions, as in the case of the ancient Athenians. Another cause of the Anglo-Saxon’s maritime inclination is hereditary. The majority of Englishmen are descended from the Saxons, Vikings and Norsemen of long ago, who ploughed the seas for plunder. These last, who had neither homes, nor land, nor means of livelihood, cruel circumstance had driven to piracy. Nor had they any perception of a higher ethical standard, another right than the right of the Strong, a gentler and more equitable law than the law of Force.

In this their outlook on life resembles that of the modern children of "the Fatherland," the cradle of their race, but with this difference, that the Viking erred unconsciously, whereas the modern Hun errs deliberately.

There dawned on the earth an era that was to be pregnant with events. The Renaissance, invention of printing, discovery of the New World followed one another. The influence of these years, so momentous for Europe generally, can be traced on the individual fortunes of Britain. In their passage our naval supremacy was definitely established for the first time in history, the extension of our trade beyond the boundaries of Europe commenced, the first foundations of our oversea Empire were laid. The Tudor epoch is the most representative in our history. Our national character then took definite shape for the first time. It was made plain to all men that our bent was for the sea. In those days the psychological condition of the nation was that of one in the freshness and fullness of early manhood. Whatsoever our hands found to do was done with all our might. It is necessary then to turn to the sixteenth-century mariners to see our maritime spirit most vividly and strikingly typified.

In those times Spain was Britain's rival in peace, her open enemy in war. But the British mariners were buccaneers, pirates some might choose to call them. It mattered little to them whether the relations between the two countries were secretly or openly hostile; they never encountered a Spanish ship without making war upon her crew, and if victorious, seizing her cargo as booty. They did so at their own risk. The powers that be generally looked the other way; but there were times when it became necessary to make a public pretence of punishing the men at whose lawless proceedings they connived in private.

Our maritime spirit expressed itself in many ways, in voyages of discovery, trading ventures, and in the conduct of warlike operations. Owing to the parsimony of Henry VII. the honours of the discovery of America do not rest with us. But it was not long before we regained some of the lost ground, Cabot following on the heels of Columbus. The second, although not the first, to sail round the world was a Briton. Henry VIII. is more generally remembered as a cruel tyrant who had six wives. It is too often forgotten that he laid the foundations of the British Navy. "Henry VIII. on coming to the throne found England without a fleet and without a conscious sense of the need of one," says Froude. "He built ship on ship. The *Great Harry* was 1,000 tons, carried 700 men, and was the wonder of the day. There were a dozen others scarcely less imposing."

It was at this period that companies of merchant venturers were formed, who with the energy and enterprise characteristic

of our race, conducted trading transactions with places as far distant as Russia and India. With the expansion of British trade the advance of the flag, as ever, went hand in hand, and in this connection it is interesting to recall a debate that took place in Henry VIII.'s Council in 1511, the question under discussion being whether Great Britain should aim at continental dominion, or confine her ambition to maritime greatness and Colonial Empire. The supremacy of Britain at sea may be said to have begun with the defeat of the Armada in 1588, and, although jeopardised at more than one critical juncture, it has never since been suffered to slip from her hands. Innumerable deeds of bravery and skill performed by individual British seamen in those stirring times are known only to the recording angel. A few have been handed down to posterity and form the subjects of poems and songs. Among the most celebrated mariners are Drake, Howard, Essex, Frobisher, and Franklin.

"Deep graved in every British heart
O never let those names depart."

The mantle of the Elizabethans seems to have descended upon the race from whom they sprung. Britons have done more than maintain the reputation for maritime prowess they won in the fights against the Spaniards. They have gone on enlarging their Empire, extending their commerce, developing their navy. In many a well-fought fight, under a succession of celebrated admirals, they have established their country's right to rule the waves. The children's children of the discoverers of Canada discovered Australia and New Zealand. The company which, in 1600, Elizabeth authorised to establish factories in India, was not satisfied till it had made the whole of that rich, vast, and populous country subject to the land over which Elizabeth's successors ruled. In the nineteenth century Britons turned their attention to Africa, exploring, trading, colonising, as in America and India in the years before.

Now, after a century of comparative peace, we are again at war. And the objects for which we are fighting are the same as those for which our forefathers fought. The antagonist alone changes. At one time it was the Spaniard, at another the Dutchman, then the Frenchman, now the German. It seems as if the present struggle will be even more strenuous and deadly than on former occasions, the enemy more formidable and stubborn. And the question of questions for us is whether or not our seamen retain in its fullness the maritime genius of their sires. To this question no better reply can be given than was given by the Pacific Steam Navigation Company's steamship *Ortega* when she made her escape from a German cruiser.

Truly her captain was a mariner with the Drake touch. Indeed, as recorded at the time, "the whole incident, and every detail of it, reads like a page out of a sixteenth-century chronicle." Not only was the taking of an 8,000-ton steamer safely through Nelson's Strait a notable feat of pluck and skilful seamanship, but it proves beyond the shadow of a doubt that the old spirit of daring and resource is still alive in our naval mercantile services.

D. A. E. VEAL.

THE VOICE OF THE MONSOON

THE wind comes roaring through the palms
 Across the wide lagoon
 With shrieks of pain
 And driving rain,
 And piled grey clouds that bring again
 The warm, wild, wet Monsoon.

The roaring of the bending palms
 Sounds like a song of home,
 Of burring pines
 In stately lines
 All up the fresh, sweet moors and chines
 Where I was wont to roam.

The jewelled, songless birds are fled
 Before the stifling gale. . .
 The fire-tree's bloom
 Flies through the gloom
 Like flame-wreaths cast on Nature's tomb
 By storm-fiends wild and pale.

Through all the rout the tossing palms
 Keep up their roaring song,
 That strong, sad note
 On which I float
 Far, far away to lands remote
 For which I pine and long.

ENID DAUNCEY.

PRUSSIA'S CRIME

MY earliest recollections are of family discussions of the treatment by Prussia of Denmark, the ravishing of Schleswig-Holstein, the crushing of Austria. Then followed the invasion of France, the terrible sieges of Paris, the downfall of the Empire, the Commune, the Republic, and the establishment of the Prussian-made German Empire.

Naturally from the heart our sympathies were with France, poor, tortured, frenzied, bewildered France, striving so bravely to find expression for her nationality. Yet with the head we said, "Prussia is right. She has asserted vigour against decadence. Prussia is strong and virile. She has welded together the scattered units of the German race, chased from France the evil influence of the diseased Napoleonic mind, purified France from the stench of corruption." Just as we children stood aghast when one of us was chastised, yet knew all the time that the chastisement was deserved and beneficial, so we felt of our dear France.

Germany was the home of science, of poetry, of music. To Germany the world owed Handel, Felix Bartholdy, Beethoven. I, a child, had listened, not understanding, to the declamation of passages from Wallenstein—the "Laager" and the "Tod." "When you are older," it was said, "you will read and learn these for yourself." I knew of Goethe. I had heard of the vivid patriotism of Korner. United Germany was to be at once the emblem and the safeguard of the world's learning and science, the world's literature and the world's music. Strong and calm, she was to be the protection of Europe against the tyranny and vast ambitions of the Colossus of the North. In Elsass-Lothringen, now Reichsland of the Empire, she was to show us how a great and just nation can win the respect and affection even of the people of conquered provinces. The strength of Germany was to guarantee the peace of Europe. Her ancient universities were to extend a helping hand to all workers for truth and science. Our sons were to sit at her feet and learn how to probe the mysteries of nature. In the new age just dawning mankind was to reap a rich harvest of knowledge, and the German as guide,

comrade, and co-worker, was to play a distinguished and honourable part in the spread of enlightenment.

Such were our dreams of some forty years ago. And now I say, and say with conviction, in that same Prussia and its ideals I discern the deadliest foe to humanity. And in that conviction are joined all the civilised races of the world.

Do we believe that the world advances, that "the thoughts of men are widened with the progress of the suns"? If so, in what does that advance consist? Not in the increase of material prosperity, not in the accumulation of wealth, since Pharaoh or Sennacherib, Darius or Augustus, could survey realms of vast extent, heaped up treasures, and abundant luxury. Mere wealth neither denotes nor connotes advance. Nor in the realm of the intellect is the true advance made. Great and glorious as is modern literature it cannot surpass the Psalms of David, the Iliad, the Ramayana. Have we greater philosophers than Plato or Aristotle? Was the intellect of Newton subtler or more powerful than that of Archimedes? Are the statues of Berlin a greater achievement than the Venus of Milo?

No! it is not in the material world that mankind has advanced and is advancing; not in the intellectual, but in the spiritual. It is the spiritual which distinguishes man from the brute so far as our limited faculties enable us to judge. The beaver is an architect, the swallow an explorer, the ant marshals armies, and the land crab ravages provinces. Man alone is capable of mercy, of disinterestedness, of self-sacrifice, of charity, of effort for the spiritual elevation and moral regeneration of others.

With the Christian era dawns a brighter day. It matters not whether we believe or not in the historic Christ, we must recognise the fact that real advance began with Christianity. The Higher Criticism may demolish our documents and rearrange our spiritual canon; the atheist may sneer and the agnostic quibble. Nevertheless, from the Christian era dates the growing recognition of the brotherhood of man, the rights of the people, the duties of rulers. Expressing itself in various modes—as monasticism, as chivalry, as parish guilds, as Red Cross effort, the inspiration is there—inspiration to succour the weak, to raise the fallen, to heal the sick, to bind up the wounds of the grievously hurt. It is the sense of the inter-dependence and solidarity of mankind.

And to that sense three things are necessary—honour, justice, and mercy.

Honour is that men may rely on one another. Who can travel if bridges are unsafe and roads unreliable? In honour rest all the enduring relations of mankind. Save in honour is there no marriage. Without it love is mere carnal lust and

parentage a mere casual begetting. Honour is in essence the recognition of obligation, the impelling force to the highest duty. Have I promised? Then that I must perform. What is required of me by my station in life? Then must I fulfil that to my utmost. On the foundation of personal and civic honour rest all the functions of communal existence. Without honour commerce cannot obtain.

And what is true of the individual is true of the State. The State is but the organised expression of the whole body of individuals. Between States there must be honour, the recognition of obligation, the possibility of mutual reliance. Once that interdependence is destroyed all things evil are possible. The honourable State, as the honourable man, is truly helping and not hindering, the world's advance. Thus in all nations not retrograde honour subsists between individuals in their mutual relations and reactions. It subsists between authority in whomsoever and however vested and those obedient to that authority. It subsists between one State and another. In chivalry was found the highest mediæval expression of that keen honour. With the decay of chivalry came a period of confusion in which the clear spiritual light was obscured, men did not walk in the straight paths of honour, States ignored their primal obligation. From that condition we are emerging and the whole hope of the human race arises from that emergence.

But more: the sense of honour must be based on justice. Justice requires between individuals a rigid regard for the rights of others. Obligation must be based on justice, else is obligation an evil, and honour perverted. The ruler must be just. His care must be for the rights of his subjects. And States must be just. As between equals there must be fairness and as between unequals there must be self-restraint on the part of the mightier that the rights of the weaker be not infringed. Still further. Justice is an attribute of strength. Without strength there can be no justice. Where is injustice we may always suspect weakness. The strong man can mete out level justice to his fellows, whether in family, social, or commercial relations. The strong ruler can govern justly. The strong State can afford to let justice regulate its relations with other powers, whether great or small. If we look back over history we find that justice is at once the foundation and evidence of real power. Without justice the honour of nations, as of individuals, is based on a delusion. Where justice is, there also is true strength because justice brings power—power over the wills and affections of men and communities, and there is no power so mighty as that so based. Power based on injustice is a reversion to the brute, whether the power be that of the parent, the master,

the ruler, or the State. Real advance then depends on justice for its continuance.

And lastly mercy. Mercy, charity, love : synonymous almost : are the attributes of inspired humanity. The brutes destroy their weak and helpless. In old days the worn-out slave was put to death. To crush the fallen even in the name of justice is deliberately to turn the back on the highest and commence that easy descent at the foot of which lies barbarism. The inspiration of Christianity has raised the conception of duty. Towards the highest the path leads, and that path mounting upwards is paved with justice and lighted by mercy. No longer may we oppress, as individuals, the helpless among us. No longer does the law crush with brutal severity even the criminally weak ; no longer does the State seek to abase, but to raise, the feebler races. To dispense mercy is to continue the upward path. To dispense with mercy is to descend, to war against the welfare and progress of humanity. The ethics of Christianity are the foundation of civilisation.

It is precisely in this that the crime of Prussia consists. As a State she has glorified might against right, duplicity against honour, cruelty against mercy. In that she has outraged humanity. In that she has deliberately falsified our ideals. If her will is to prevail we must retrace our steps, abandon the struggle upwards and abase ourselves to worship at the shrine of mere brute strength. A Prussian victory over the forces of civilisation would retard for centuries the upward march of mankind.

Slowly the consciousness of this danger has dawned on us. I, a believer in Germany, began some quarter of a century ago to feel doubtful as to the justice of her position. I began to question the ethical correctness of her behaviour towards Hanover, Denmark, Austria and France. I heard of the cynical revelation of Bismarck as to his forgery of the Ems telegram. I read Polish history and learned of the suppression of a national consciousness. I saw from recent laws, proclamations, speeches and happenings that suppression was still persisted in. I found that the Reichsland was another and a worse Poland, that nowhere in or under Prussia was any freedom. I met Prussians in the East and noted their overbearing boorishness towards the British and French, in whose colonies they were as guests. I saw their brutality towards coloured races falsely deemed inferior. I came across the evidences of their intrigues among Eastern peoples. Deliberately they set themselves to work to foment discontent among the sons of Islam. They played with fire in seeking to arouse Jihad against the white man, recking naught of the massacre, even of their own countrymen, that would attend the success of their efforts.

I studied modern German literature, and found it full of the negation of the highest. I discovered that the philosopher, equally with the tyrant and the soldier, held that might was all, that the "Pole has only three privileges: to pay taxes, to serve in the army, and to hold his tongue." It was forced on me that in Prussian opinion the desire for peace is a symptom of decay, forbearance indisputably a symptom of weakness, the strong strike ruthlessly and, if necessary, treacherously; weak States have no right to existence; Christianity is only personal and social, and from its very nature can never be political or influence the inter-relations of States. I learned that war must come that Prussia might become a world-power and impose her will on the nations. I realised that the goal of her ambition was the downfall of the British Empire, that to attain this end no slaughter was too great, no treachery too despicable. At last I realised the true meaning of Kaiserism, one of a vast crowd equally disillusioned. Then in rapid succession came the events of July and early August. The "scrap of paper" fluttered to the ground, and with its fragments fell the last rag of Prussia's national honour.

The invasion of Belgium was the natural consequence of declared indifference to others' rights. Not only was it an unjust and dishonourable act, it was an act of conscious moral weakness—as is all injustice—and not of strength. Such strength France showed in 1871 when in her hour of agony she refused to save herself by dishonouring her oath. But the degradation of Prussia was not yet complete. Belgium offered a stubborn resistance; exasperated at this unexpected audacity, Prussian authority determined to teach her a lesson. Fair cities and ancient buildings were delivered to the flames. Men, women, and children were murdered, young girls violated. Churches were profaned to the basest uses. Hospitals were not respected, priests were shot, museums robbed. Louvain and Rheims were the victims and evidence of Prussian fury. As Heinrich Heine eighty years ago said:—

Christianity—and this is its highest merit—has in some degree softened, but it could not destroy, that brutal German joy of battle. When once the taming talisman, the Cross, breaks in two, the savagery of the old fighters, the senseless Berserker fury, of which the northern poets sing and say so much, will gush up anew. That talisman is decayed, and the day will come when it will piteously collapse. Then the old stone gods will rise from the silent ruins and rub the dust of a thousand years from their eyes. Thor, with his giant's hammer, will at last spring up, and shatter to bits the Gothic cathedrals.

Meanwhile the Kaiser is imploring the world to note how correct is his behaviour in a war forced on him by England's inordinate ambition. He continually asserts that he is under the special protection of God. In this he is but carrying out the

teaching of Luther, who drew a sharp line of demarcation between secular and ecclesiastical authority. The one is to have all power over the lives and ways of citizens. The other merely to concern itself with right doctrine. Public morality is necessarily distinct from private. Methods forbidden to the individual are permissible and even laudable in public affairs. The Sovereign is the repository of all power. Thus the Sovereign is divinely appointed and of peculiar sanctity as being entrusted with the regulation of the Church on earth. It follows that the mass of the people, in themselves simple, sincere Christians, may be led to acquiesce in the most revolting maxims, the most outrageous actions, since these emanate from that embodiment of divine authority, the Sovereign.

The Prussian asserts that German culture and civilisation are so superior to those of other nations that any means may be taken to spread that culture, that civilisation. Since Providence has plainly indicated Germany as destined to the overlordship of Europe and the domination of the world, the approval of heaven rests on the determination to obtain that suzerainty and enforce that domination by the most rapid and effective method. If the Christian ethic is opposed to that method then the Christian ethic must be ignored. The rights of nations, treaties, the lives, honour, and property of non-combatants; the glories of ancient religious fanes and seats of learning; if these are in the way then they must be removed. One thing alone is worthy of preservation, the divine right of Kaiserism to impose its will upon trembling peoples.

For this, then, Prussia stands arraigned: for her negation of the spiritual, her glorification of brute force. And in extenuation of her guilt she has but the one plea, that of urgency. This once admitted in the realm of statecraft and the foundations of civilisation crumble away. Urgency may then be pleaded in defence of communal ruthlessness and private crime. To crush, not to raise, the weak will be glorified as a duty. The liner speeding on her way will disregard the call of her stricken comrade ship. The headlong motor rushing on errand of importance will heed nothing of fractured limb or imperilled life. The primary canons of humane existence will be abolished. Better for Britain to go down for ever in stern conflict than to acquiesce in doctrine so fraught with calamity. Fortunately the past four months have shown that civilisation is not disposed tamely to acquiesce in its own downfall. In ever-increasing volume the voices of the nations are heard sternly condemning Prussia's crime and its inspiration.

A. E. DUCHESNE.

THE CORNISH RIVIERA

STUDENTS of county activity and development cannot fail to have noted the rising popularity of England's westernmost county with the health and pleasure-seeking public.

The claims of the Cornish coast to a share of the patronage once bestowed almost exclusively on its foreign rivals date from the early days of the last century, when Piccadilly instead of Paddington was the starting-point for Penzance. But it is only of more recent years that Cornwall has received the recognition to which its natural attractions justly entitle it. English people seem at last to have realised that here in their midst they have a county the scenery and climate of which cannot be equalled by any winter resort on the Continent.

Writing on the meteorological characteristics of Cornwall, the late Mr. Nicholas Whiteley observes: "A Canadian would think there was no summer and say there was no winter—so far removed are the climatic conditions of Cornwall from extremes. January at Penzance is as warm as Constantinople; July as cool as Petrograd. The seasons appear to mingle like the interlacing of the warm and cold waters on the edge of the Gulf Stream. . . . There is no place in the world, if we except the south-west of Ireland, with a climate so mild and equable. The cause is well understood. The Atlantic Ocean on the west is an immense reservoir of warm water, fed and heated by the Gulf Stream, so that around the Cornish land in the depth of winter the temperature of the surface water is seldom lower than 46°, and out at sea, beyond the influence of the land, much warmer."

For mildness the winter climate of Cornwall rivals that of any continental health resort. The late Mr. T. Q. Couch, who for years kept a register of natural periodic phenomena, summarised his conclusions on the climate of Cornwall by saying: "Its insular condition, its narrow area, the warm sea in which it is set, all combine to give it generally a climate of singular equability. The thermal changes, annual and diurnal, are confined to a limited range, and consequently the winter rest which Nature takes is neither so deep nor so long as in countries

nearer the equator. The crocus and snowdrop are seen at Polperro long before they have pierced the snows of Parma; and the stir of life is earlier to manifest itself here than at Naples."

To these happy conditions of nature must be added its many natural attractions—its sub-tropical foliage, old-world villages, and simple grandeur. All these characteristics are vividly portrayed and with a surrounding setting that fascinates the reader in the pages of Baring Gould, Norway, Tregarthen, Stone, and Scott. The writings of these well-known authors help us more than anything else to realise and understand the peculiar charms of this ancient region of romance and folk-lore. They afford, too, an insight into the health-giving properties of "The Bourns, the Brooks, the Becks, the Rills, and Rivulets," which lie between that "faithful bound," the Tamar, and the majestic cliffs of the Lizard and the Land's End.

But the fame of Cornwall rests not alone in the picturesqueness of its indented coast-line and the rugged beauty of its rocks, cliffs and uplands; at every turn the traveller finds himself face to face with venerable cairns and cromlechs, ancient wells and moss-grown crosses, churches and other buildings, the origin of which is often shrouded in mystery. Only in Cornwall can the memorials of our Celtic ancestors be satisfactorily explored. The moorlands roll upwards to an elevated ridge along which many streams take their rise to flow, some down the northern, but most down the southern slope, through wooded coombes to the estuary or cove where they mingle with the tide. These sheltered valleys, with their wealth of fern and flowering plants, their mills and primitive bridges, are most fascinating. No more tranquil scenes can be found anywhere than along the winding estuaries and the shy creeks which are a feature of the Cornish Riviera. In a few places the highways skirt stream and river and tidal reach, but the beauty and the witchery of Cornwall are found along its unregarded byways, its lanes, field-paths, moorland, woodland and coast tracks.

As the stranger wanders along a bypath he chances on a little avenue of pollarded ash or oak, gnarled and moss-grown, leading to a farm, perhaps to an old manor-house, a church with the characteristic low roof and lofty pinnacled tower at whose consecration Bishop Grandisson was present, one where the last sermon in the Cornish tongue was preached, or another burnt by the invading Spaniard. The track along the cliff's edge brings one suddenly above a tiny haven from which brown lug-sailed boats, bathed in the rays of the sinking sun, are setting out for the pilchard grounds. Every stretch of coast provides some romantic spot such as Trencom, Lanherne, Mullion, and King Harry's Ferry.

But beautiful and grand as Cornish scenery undoubtedly is, one must not forget the health and strength it has brought to many an invalid. In proof of this one cannot do better than quote the testimony of the late Sir Edward Sieveking. In a paper read before the Harveian Society in London this celebrated physician remarked: "A great many people are now sent on weary journeys to foreign lands, where, for all the glorious empyrean and brilliant sunshine, they are not indemnified for the absence of many home comforts. How often have we heard bitter complaints of the exhausting influence of a long, cold railway journey; of the necessity of sitting wrapped in furs, or even remaining in bed, to escape the cold of so-called warm climates; of the miseries of hotel life; of the absence of numerous comforts which are considered essential in a British sick-room; of the irritation and real suffering induced by mosquitoes; of the serious risk run, even by the healthy, from the sudden and pervading chill when Helios has dipped his fiery horses into the ocean. In Cornwall we have at our doors a health resort abounding in beauty and loveliness, rich in health-giving properties; and, if we but use our opportunities, I have little doubt that generations to come will attribute to Falmouth a restoration to health and a renewal of life."

But in these days neither climate nor scenery is all-satisfying. Both resident and visitor must find an outlet for superfluous energy. Be the country ever so romantic, ever so picturesque, it must meet the requirements of the sportsman. It would, of course, be absurd to compare hunting in Cornwall with the Quorn or the Blackmoor Vale. All the same, there is plenty of good hunting to be had, and within a few miles of Penzance or St. Ives one may generally be sure of a run twice a week with the Western Foxhounds. In the matter of yachting the coast offers special facilities, and in the summer months, especially at regatta time, quite a flotilla of small craft of every kind may be seen in and about Falmouth Harbour. Cornwall is noted for the opportunities it affords for deep-sea fishing, while inland the angler's needs are very generously met. But some critic will doubtless say, "What about golf?" Well, no one is likely to cavil with the county in this respect. The golf courses at Newquay and Lelant are second to none. At either place the golfer may play his game and inhale the sea air at the same time. Indeed, I do not hesitate to say that if a man wants golf and ozone at the same time he cannot do better than pay a visit to Cornwall. Moreover, compared with London and the surrounding district, he has the further advantage of an hour's additional light for his game.

Again it may be said, "Is not Cornwall a long way off?"

Not at all. Thanks to the brain and energy of Mr. Frank Potter, the popular manager of the Great Western Railway, the county has been brought within comparatively easy reach of the Metropolis. The Cornish Riviera express which leaves Paddington at 10.30 runs to Plymouth without a stop, a distance of 226 miles, and thence to Penzance, arriving at 5 o'clock. And no more comfortable journey can be undertaken in the British Isles. Travellers from the North have no difficulty in finding connecting trains. The question of fares has also been generously considered. In short, nothing has been left undone to meet the requirements of visitors journeying from any part of the United Kingdom. Why, then, risk the discomfort of long journeys, crowded hotels and high prices on the Continent? Go to Cornwall, where you will find in your native land, winter and summer, a genial climate, beautiful scenery, and the varied pursuits that go to make up a restful and enjoyable holiday.

TRAVELLER.

HOW CANADA ADVANCES

The Industrial Bureau at Winnipeg has completed arrangements with the Electric Railway of that city for operating a special sight-seeing car to accommodate parties of from eighty to ninety people; fifty cents per head is charged for the round trip of three hours. It is an admirable way of displaying the residential and industrial possibilities of the city of Winnipeg. The opening of the new Government dry dock at Selkirk marks a great step forward in the development of Lake Winnipeg navigation. The marine railway and dry dock at Selkirk is a very remarkable structure, differing from the ordinary style of dry dock in that vessels can be lifted bodily out of the water and docked instead of being floated into a watertight chamber from which the water is afterwards removed. It is the first structure of its kind west of the Atlantic coast. The Grand Trunk Pacific Railway Company has decided to build at Prince Rupert one of the largest dry docks in the world. It will be capable of docking a 20,000-ton battleship. Work will be started early this month. A complete shipbuilding plant will by that time have been established. Thus Canada is gradually building up her industries. When completed the new dock and shipbuilding yard, with their adjuncts, will give constant employment at good wages to a considerable number of men.

ASURIE THE SHEPHERD

A SKETCH OF THE VELD

HEAVEN sent him philosophy, and Asurie the shepherd was never sad. Old, yes, very old, but with a song for the dawn and a contented sigh as he counted his flock at eve. Old Asurie, poor to the last hairs of poverty, went and came with his ewes and lambs, an old flickering of a smiling Pan. Asurie knew all the poisonous weeds that grew in the vleys and hill-tops. The snake-head that the goats mistake for grass. He knew the soft green lucerne blasted and killed, and far on the hill-side he tended and sang his song. Day after day he went his way alone.

He was of his own kind—a little sinewy mixture of Bushman, Hottentot, or what nature had meant to be, a man of the veld. His face, narrowed with age, had eyes that still sparkled; and yet, Asurie must carry eighty or ninety years. No one wanted him. His women had deserted him years ago, for Asurie was a bad wage-earner, and with bad wage-earners, be their colour white or brown, Love flies out of the window when the wage-earner earns too little; but the little shepherd sang his songs and went with his sheep, and spoke to them as his only friends. He knew each ewe and lamb. He learnt each mother's call, and when a lamb was lost he bleated the mother's call in a voice of such true imitation that it found the lost one, and gladdened the sorrowing dam. When the shades lengthen Asurie turns his flock homewards, but when they rebel and want to stray the old man cannot run to turn them. Then his old-world wisdom comes to his aid, and he imitates the cry of the jackal, and the flock rush together, and old Asurie reads them a warning of the dangers of the night.

“For whom do you work, Asurie?” said his master one day. “Master, I know not. I am but like you—I work because it is ordained that I must eat. I know no names, but it is all ordained by the government, and you are my government. You pay me and I eat, therefore it is ordained; I must work, you must pay

me; you are my government, and these are my sheep. Are they not fat? I watch the grass and they eat no poison, but I am so old, and now I have a friend, a little dog, he collects cattle and I am teaching him to collect my sheep, for I cannot run, and the government is strict about its sheep." In everlasting sunlight the days pass on. He does not know that somewhere in the world millions of men are killing millions of men, that women and children are homeless and the air is rent with the thunders of violence. And if he did, his philosophy would say, "The government ordains it so and the government will right it. I work for the government and they die for the government. Whatever happens, I must tend my sheep, for the government is strict."

And I would, Asurie, that more men were like you and tended their sheep. There is wisdom in thy philosophy, Asurie, poor though thou art. Though thy coat is but the dirty remnant of a cast rag, and thy shirt a sleeveless, collarless shift, there is wisdom and perhaps happiness, and the government has ordained it so. Though thy bed is but a sack on the bare ground, and the dog that loves thee beyond the love of women—the dog that loves thee and finds his own bread, loves thee for thy songs and tenderness, and prefers thy companionship and philosophy to the meats and coverings of the white man's house. Thou and he understand the world better than millions of the discontented who push, and take from their fellow man, and therefore, Asurie, with thy little haired beard, and imitations of nature, and flock of Pan who came with a lute, thou and thy philosophy will live, for it is far older, Asurie, than thy earliest days; it comes from the first shepherd and the government ordained it so.

W. P. TAYLOR.

NATAL'S INDUSTRIES

Many inquiries respecting the Union Government's lands in Natal, under the various successful settlement schemes, have recently been received from those interested in the sugar industry. The successful fruition of these inquiries may lead to considerable expansion, thus favourably affecting the commercial prospects of the Colony. In the fibre industry considerable planting has recently taken place, and one firm is stated to be considering the installation of plant for the treatment of the fibre on the spot.

NEW MARKETS FOR BRITISH GOODS

THE object of this article* is to indicate the chief markets in which the competition of Germany and Austria-Hungary, more especially Germany, has told against the importation and sale of British goods, and, at the same time, to suggest that immediate steps be taken to secure for this country as much as possible of the trade left open by the war.

To attain so desirable an end in many instances new capital would be required, and it is unlikely that manufacturers will readily embark on any great additional expenditure unless the Government make such changes in their fiscal system as will effectually prevent the same competition arising as soon as peace is proclaimed. For this reason there is danger of the opportunities that now present themselves of adding materially to the wealth of this country's trade and providing more employment at increased wages being allowed to slip. But that is another story. My purpose here is to give the facts, and leave the solution of the problem, "how best to do it," to the Government and the manufacturers.

I will select five industries:—(1) Paper, pasteboard and cardboard; (2) Wooden wares; (3) Copper goods; (4) Cotton gloves; (5) Plate and sheet glass.

First, then, as to paper, pasteboard and cardboard. Taking the year 1912 for Germany and 1913 for Austria-Hungary and the United Kingdom, it will be found that the value of these commodities exported from the three countries was, Germany, £5,272,300; Austria-Hungary, £1,054,860; United Kingdom, £2,758,700. Excluding the trade between the countries named, not at all inconsiderable and greatly to the advantage of the enemy, the value of the exports works out at, from Germany £3,602,850; Austria-Hungary, £770,055; United Kingdom, £2,488,357. Without going too closely into figures it may be said at the outset that the greater part of this trade, so far as it

* The facts in this article are taken from the official reports issued by the Board of Trade.

affects the markets of the Dominions, is in the hands of Great Britain, although in the markets of Australia and British India Germany has a substantial foothold, while in Australia we have also to meet competition from Austria-Hungary. In France, China and Japan we are doing fairly well, our exports to those countries being about equal to those of Germany and Austria-Hungary combined. Elsewhere the British position as a whole is inferior to the German. Particularly is this so in Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, France, Switzerland, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Russia, Turkey, Brazil, Argentina, Chile, Peru, Mexico, Cuba and the United States. The most striking inferiority is shown in the first three countries, in Argentina and the United States. As regards Austria-Hungary a similar condition of things exists in the Balkan States, Turkey and Egypt.

Now let us see how much of this trade can be wrested from Germany and Austria-Hungary. A calculation of this nature is obviously complicated, but without going into details it may be confidently accepted that of the trade with the United Kingdom it is possible to divert £1,329,900, and if to that we add the German and Austro-Hungarian exports to British-colonial and neutral markets we have a grand total of £5,709,805, which, with careful and proper nursing, might reach the pockets of British manufacturers.

Secondly, let us examine the position of woodenware. Here again there is a trade between the three countries, and one greatly to the advantage of our opponents. For while Germany sent us woodenware to the value of some £400,000 and Austria-Hungary a little short of £125,000 in the years named above, our exports of similar goods only reached the paltry value of £29,300 and £7,500 respectively. Deducting this trade and dealing only with the effective competition between the products of the three countries in British-colonial and neutral markets, the export values work out at: From Germany (1912), £1,774,600; Austria-Hungary (1913), £312,290; United Kingdom (1913), £729,500. Now taking the chief importing countries for these goods, it will be seen that while this country's exports to British-colonial and neutral markets are more than double those of Austria-Hungary, the exports of Germany are considerably in excess of those of Austria-Hungary and the United Kingdom combined. Analysing further it will be found—and this in spite of the fact that we hold a strong position in the dominions and other British possessions—the keenest competition from Germany prevails in India, the Straits Settlements, Canada and Australia. In other markets our rivals have proved even more successful. For instance, we are altogether out-distanced by Germany in the European markets, as well as in those of Turkey, Argentina,

Brazil, Chile and the United States, while in France, Switzerland, Italy, Roumania, Russia, the Balkan States and America, the importation of woodenware from this country is very far behind that of Austria-Hungary. Nor must we lose sight of the fact that the most important market in this class of goods, both for Germany and Austria-Hungary, is in the United Kingdom itself.

It is clear, therefore, that in the matter of woodenware, a considerable field awaits capture by this country. Moreover, if difficulties present themselves in foreign markets there are none so far as the United Kingdom is concerned, provided only the Government can bring themselves to understand that if we are to secure the trade left vacant by our enemies the first step to take is to effect a change in our fiscal policy. If this be done it is estimated trade in this class of goods can be displaced to the value of over half a million sterling in this country alone, and if to that be added the German and Austro-Hungarian trade done with British-colonial and neutral countries we have an aggregate value of over two and a half million pounds awaiting the British manufacturer.

Thirdly, let us take copper goods. The Board of Trade figures place the value of Germany's export trade in copper goods, for 1912, at £2,663,600, that of Austria-Hungary (1913) at £476,700, and that of the United Kingdom for the same year at £3,006,800. Here also a considerable business is carried on between the three countries, while the figures for British exports include a number of small markets outside the British Isles. Owing to the differences in methods of classification it would be unwise to hazard any close comparison, but taking the principal British-colonial and neutral markets one may say that in 1912 Germany exported copper goods to the value of £2,141,550, Austria-Hungary (1913) £377,150, and the United Kingdom (1913) £2,685,800.

In the British-colonial markets most of the trade is with this country, especially is this the case with regard to Australia and British India. But when we come to Europe, the position is very different. There Germany's share is far and away greater than our own. Both in South and North America, excluding Canada, Germany has long held a leading position. Similar competition is also felt severely in Brazil, Argentina, Dutch East Indies, and to a lesser degree, in China, Japan and Egypt. This position of affairs shows how great are the possibilities for the United Kingdom. Taking the trade with this country alone, we can displace imports of copper goods to the value of £326,640, and if we add the British-colonial and neutral markets (taking as our basis 1912 for German trade and 1913 for Austria-Hungarian

and United Kingdom trade) we arrive at the grand total of £2,845,340 which it is possible for this country to secure.

Fourthly, let us consider the export of cotton gloves; an examination of the official figures shows that in 1912 Germany exported goods of this kind to the value of £1,595,350, Austria-Hungary (1913) £15,400 and the United Kingdom for the same year £23,550. These figures include the trade carried on between the three countries. The particulars of this trade are so astonishing that it seems almost incredible that British manufacturers could have remained content to allow our export trade to rest on so unequal a basis. Let us examine them. For the years named the export value of German cotton gloves to the United Kingdom was £637,600, that to Austria-Hungary £46,000. We also took from Austria-Hungary goods to the value of £8,370, and Germany received from the same source goods to the value of £1,955. Against this our trade with Germany amounted only to £284 in value, and with Austria-Hungary to the insignificant sum of £6. Nor is this all; Germany has in addition a practical monopoly in the principal British-colonial and neutral markets. In fact one may almost say that the imports of cotton gloves from Germany to the United Kingdom exceeds the entire output of British goods.

It may be said that in Germany wages are low and hours long. But if manufacturers in this country could only be induced to put down the necessary plant at once they ought to obtain a very appreciable portion of the business both here and oversea. The United Kingdom market alone would mean an additional trade valued at £645,070; while, adding British-colonial and neutral markets, there is a grand total of £1,564,705 awaiting manufacturers in this country.

In four industries then by judicious handling at the present moment trade to the value of over twelve and a half million sterling is going begging. If we don't pick it up, and by "we" I mean not only the people of the British Isles but of the great Dominions oversea, depend upon it some other nationality will.

OBSERVER.

THE PAN-ANGLES: A REVIEW *

AN interesting and instructive book, one that provides much food for thought, and claims the attention of the reader from beginning to end. The field covered is a wide one, embracing as it does the constitutional movements as well as the external and, in some cases, the internal policies not alone of the United States and this country, but of the various Dominions that go to make up the British Empire. As the volume is neither bulky nor considerable, all matters dealt with are touched upon more in the light of a text-book than a treatise. On the other hand, an earnest endeavour is made to support or refute the arguments, as the author divines them, for and against a condition of affairs which he regards as necessary and inevitable—the welding into one harmonious whole, or as he puts it, the federation of the seven nations of English-speaking people.

Benjamin Franklin, we are reminded, foresaw the need of a single Government, based on the representation of both the American and British groups of self-governing English-speaking people, and Cecil Rhodes preached the same doctrine if from a different pulpit. As regards the second exponent claimed by the author as supporting him in principle, if not acquiescing exactly in his programme, one may perhaps be allowed to observe from a close personal acquaintance with the great empire-builder that although essentially practical in most things he was never so happy as when discussing ideals. It would be wrong to say that none of those ideals came to fruition; some undoubtedly did, but the one that never advanced beyond the initial stage was the closer union between this country and America. Mr. Sinclair Kennedy's ideal is doomed beforehand to share the same fate. To him as perhaps to Cecil Rhodes one language, one race, one religion, should mean one family, and so it does in a way, but to inspire the American citizen with the love of patriotism for a federation including the British Empire is to aim at the impossible. As a sentiment it is all right, but sentiment it must

* 'The Pan-Angle.' A Consideration of the Federation of the Seven English-speaking Nations. By Sinclair Kennedy. With a map. Longmans, Green & Co., 39, Paternoster Row, E.C. Price 7s. 6d. net.

remain. It can never become reality. One hundred and forty-one millions of white English-speaking, self-governing people, scattered over the whole surface of the globe, can never be brought into one federation. Commercial rivalry between America and this country alone would bar the way. That, however, is a factor in the situation cited by the author in his chapter on "dangers," but he remains content with the reference, leaving particulars to take care of themselves. Apparently he sees nothing useful in discussing the matter in detail. And I agree with him. If no other existed, this aspect of the federation ideal is fatal to its accomplishment.

Equally doomed to failure is the author's ideal of a Pan-Angle flag which every English-speaking man "will instinctively salute." The Union Jack and the Stars and Stripes have their meaning as, too, have the flags of the British dominions oversea. They are emblems of loyalty in six cases to King and Country, and in the remaining one to the United States of America; but "loyalty to our common race" is difficult to analyse, impossible to grasp. It may be that, as the United States is not a monarchy, an American citizen would be enthused by such a cry; of that feeling the author knows far better than the reviewer, but of one thing Mr. Kennedy may rest assured, no Britisher is likely to go into battle carrying as a substitute for the Union Jack a banner inscribed with the words "loyalty to our common race." No, the flag idea is, perhaps, the most vulnerable of all the arguments; in itself it is sufficient to smash the project altogether.

Again, continuing in the same strain of conscious right, the author would have us believe that "arguments for Britannic federation are arguments for Pan-Angle federation." It is difficult to conceive how anyone could be so mistaken, but so it is. In the matter of Britain's federation the question of commerce has hitherto proved an insurmountable obstacle. The only solid foundation for a Britannic federation is a commercial foundation, and this must either be on a preferential or free-trade-within-the-Empire basis. But does that argument assist the Pan-Angle federation? Some of us remember Lord Rosebery's Imperial Federation League and the dissatisfaction with which it was received in the Dominions. Indeed, so great was the opposition that when the first Colonial Conference was summoned all discussion of political federation was specially forbidden. We are no nearer a political federation for the British Empire to-day than we were then, and that was nearly thirty years ago. That being so, at what period will the problem of a Pan-Angle federation come within the range of practical world politics?

Foreign policy is another dangerous phase of Pan-Angle federation, and one that scarcely receives from Mr. Kennedy the attention its gravity demands. Presumably his book was written and possibly in type before the war began, but in the absence of any statement to the contrary he cannot find fault if one assumes that he is content to let his views remain as expressed in manuscript. With much of what he says about Japan and the Asiatics generally the world is familiar. The present, however, is hardly the time to discuss matters so eminently controversial. We all know that the Japanese are not a tropical people, and it may be equally true that "the best lands for Japan to annex are those controlled by Pan-Angles." But, even looking at the matter from the author's standpoint, he will not find any support on this side for the view he seeks to imply, if he does not express, that we must of necessity regard Japan as our potential foe. On the contrary, we hope to secure Japan as our continuing friend. The argument that the seven English-speaking nations must become a unit in order to present a solid front to an attack from Asia wants amending; it is out of date.

Nor is the author quite happy in his treatment of what should be the attitude of the Pan-Angles towards Germany. True, as he says, Germany is our near of kin, but the further statement that "Pan-Angle ideals of religious and political freedom came originally from Germany, Pan-Angle language, Pan-Angle law and many of the qualities of which we are most proud had the same source" is hardly likely to pass unchallenged, at any rate, in this country and the Dominions. Mr. Kennedy is more fortunate when he adopts the view of Price Collier, who, comparing the American and the German forms of government, says: "The fundamental difference is that with us these official persons are executive officers only—the real captain is the people; while in Germany these official persons are the real governors of the country, subject to the commands of one who repeatedly and publicly asserts that his commission is from God and not from the people." Continuing, he tells us that "to prevent a conflict with Germany should be not merely a matter of Pan-Angle sentiment, but of Pan-Angle business." Well, he cannot say the British Empire has not done its best to prevent a conflict. No country could have shown itself more friendly disposed towards Germany than Great Britain of late years, and as for the Dominions, they have always regarded German immigrants with special favour. In his determination to make us realise that "the world has already been staked off by the white and yellow races" he lays stress on the necessity of using Germany as a buffer State for the Pan-Angles against Russia. Concluding this part of the story of federation

on a basis of English-speaking nations, he says: "Properly understood in reference to the economic and political struggle between the white and yellow races, a Pan-Angle federation should be welcomed by every German." Far from the Germans welcoming a Pan-Angle federation, they are doing their utmost at the present moment to set America against Great Britain, a course of action hardly in accordance with the author's view of what their attitude should be, but nevertheless an actuality.

"Empire," Mr. Kennedy says, "from its long association with State builders of conquered peoples, is no fit word to use for a voluntary combination of Pan-Angles." Here he is treading on delicate ground. Every Briton is proud of belonging to the British Empire, and the author's failure to understand the true inwardness of the British sense of Imperialism shows the unsoundness of the foundations on which he is attempting to raise his new structure. As to what that structure is to be we are left entirely in the dark. Except that its component parts will desire "to continue always nations," we are told nothing. All we know is that the aim of the author is to unify the English-speaking nations, but as to how and when this is to be done he is singularly reticent if not altogether silent.

The book offers every evidence of diligent research, but is it really necessary to give chapter and verse for so many statements? For instance, after placing on record that "in 1832 began the history of State education in the British Isles," we have a footnote informing the reader that this very general announcement is taken from the *Encyclopædia Britannica*. Closely following is the further commonplace, "To-day elementary education is compulsory between the ages of five and fourteen," to which a footnote is attached stating that the information is taken from *Whitaker's Almanack*. By all means let us have authorities, but surely this is going a little too far. There is hardly a page in the book on which a footnote does not occur. Apart from this criticism, the author's style is clear and concise, his matter is well arranged, and the get-up of the book is excellent in every way.

IMPERIALIST.

THE DOMINIONS AND THE WAR

More Gifts from Canada.

There is probably not a district in Canada, however remote, that has not done its share in some form in connection with the war. Men have tramped hundreds of miles to enlist, and those who were unable to join the colours have sent generous contributions in cash and kind. The scattered settlers in the remote Hudson Bay districts have collected £600 for the Canadian Patriotic Fund and are stated to be awaiting an opportunity for its transmission to Ottawa. One of the largest and most unostentatious individual gifts to the British Government from the Province of Alberta in connection with the war is that of a whole car-load of horses presented by Mr. George Creighton, the well-known owner of a horse ranch in the district of Cochrane, Alberta. The citizens of Saltcoats (Saskatchewan) and district have shown their sympathy for the Belgian refugees by subscribing over £300 in a few days. A car-load of flour will be shipped from Saltcoats by the local milling company. Each bag will have printed thereon, "A slight tribute to the patriotic and suffering Belgians, from Saltcoats, Saskatchewan, Canada." In addition to the flour, a large shipment of clothing is being forwarded to the Belgian Consul at Regina.

Selling the Sacks.

Ten thousand of the flour sacks—which form a portion of the million sacks of flour presented by Canada to the Mother Country—will be available almost immediately for distribution among purchasers, the proceeds to be divided between the National Relief Fund and the Belgian Relief Fund. They are 98-lb. sacks made of strong grey calico or of packing canvas. Those being sold at present—the grey calico sacks—are almost white. These measure 36 inches long and 18 inches wide, or, if cut open, 36 inches wide. On the front, printed in bold coloured letters, are the words "Flour, Canada's Gift." The material can be embroidered, or it can be made into cushion covers. It has also been suggested that pillow covers for the Red Cross hospitals

could be made from them, and even mattress covers for children's cots. Orders for sacks, at the rate of 5s. each (sent carriage free), should be accompanied by remittances and addressed to the National Relief Fund, York House, St. James's Palace, S.W. Applications will be dealt with in the order received and a proportion will be reserved for overseas purchasers. Thus Canada has benefited the Motherland two-fold by her generous contribution.

Canadian Indians Help.

The Dominion Government has received offers of men and money from almost every tribe of Indians in Canada as an expression of their desire "that Great Britain may still remain the guardian of the weak and the arbiter of the world's peace." The phrase quoted is that of a resolution passed by the Blood Indians at a meeting of the tribe, which unanimously voted £200 from the tribal funds, to be used in any way that was necessary. The resolution was signed by chiefs "Shot Both Sides," and "Ermine Horses." This is typical of similar resolutions and donations from seventeen other Indian tribes, from the Yukon to Nova Scotia. In all, they have contributed some £2,600 to the Government to be used at its discretion for His Majesty's forces. Many of the Indians have asked to be sent to the front in person. Some are members of the Canadian Militia, and several are now serving with the Canadian troops at Salisbury Plain. The Kimpshean tribes of Northern British Columbia have offered to form a corps of guides, and the Metlakatla Indians, also of Northern British Columbia, have given the services of their band to the regiment now being recruited at Prince Rupert. An interesting resolution is that of the Sucker Creek Band of Western Canada, who, in forwarding their donation state that "their forefathers fought faithfully under the British flag in 1812, and in 1870 four members of the band went on the war expedition with the late Lord (Sir Garnet) Wolseley to Red River." The Christian Island Indians, a small and poor band, voted £20 of their savings towards the Patriotic Fund, "as an assurance of their goodwill and respect of the British flag to which they belong." The North Tomasking Indians have given £200.

New Zealand's Contingent.

In accordance with the established military custom, the New Zealand Defence Department will probably arrange for reinforcements, reaching in all 70 per cent. of the Expeditionary Force which is coming over for the front. It is expected that the first section of reinforcements, amounting to 10 per cent. of the total force, will accompany the Expeditionary Force so as to enable the contingent to be kept as near full strength as possible in the

event of sickness and wastage, so that the total number of men in the contingent will be approximately 8,800. The Government of New Zealand has since informed the British Government that 50,000 men in addition to the 9,000 already sent could be sent if required. All these men have had military training. Cigarette smoking is not permitted on the troopships which are bringing the New Zealand Expeditionary Force to this country. General Godley, the Commandant, considered them unsafe on troopships and in addition likely to injure the health of the men. An explanation of the decision was asked for by the House of Representatives, but the answer made by the Minister for Defence was greeted with applause by the members.

Patriotic Maoris.

Within a few days of the war the Maoris of New Zealand in one district alone raised nearly £1,000 for the Patriotic Fund, their sense of the solemnity of the occasion being easily read from the fact that at their monster demonstrations the chiefs wore once again their ancient mats, many of which are of great value and seldom seen. The Ngatiporou tribe alone, as well as donating £200, offering 1,000 carcasses of mutton for the relief of "distress" in England. To cover at least a proportion of the freezing charges to London the Government offered also the pelts, slip wool and other by-products. The entire body of students at the Terau Maori Theological College in New Zealand have volunteered for military service.

New Zealand Soldiers' Insurances

Information was received by the last mail from New Zealand to the effect that the Government has under consideration the question of providing insurance policies for all men who go to the front—a contingent of 8,000 being expected shortly in England—though the matter is dealt with to a considerable extent by the New Zealand Defence Act of 1909, the schedule of which deals with the subject of pensions to officers and men who are wounded in action or injured in the actual performance of their duties. Pensions to officers range from £250 for lieutenant-colonel to £75 for second lieutenant. Pensions to non-commissioned officers and privates range as under: Sergeants of first degree, from 2s. 6d. to 4s. a day; second degree, 3s.; third degree, 2s. 3d. to 2s. 8d. per day; corporal, first degree from 1s. 10d. to 3s. 4d. per day; second degree, 2s. 6d.; third degree, 1s. to 2s. 3d.; privates, first degree, 1s. 6d. to 3s. per day; second degree, 2s. 2d.; third degree, 8d. to 2s. Allowances to widows and children of colonels from £150 and £16 per annum respectively; lieutenant-colonels from £120 and £14; majors, £120 and £14; captains, £80 and

£10; surgeons, £80 and £10; lieutenants and assistant-surgeons, £60 and £5; second lieutenants, £46 and £6; non-commissioned officers and privates, £36 and £4. In each case the smaller figures are pensions provided for children.

War Boom.

Reports to hand indicate that business is improving all over Western Canada. The high prices prevailing for nearly everything farmers have sold this autumn, and the money now being distributed for army contracts have contributed in no small degree to this improved condition. Many manufacturers are obliged to operate their concerns day and night in order to keep up with the work demanded by these army contracts. At the same time it should be pointed out that there is, as yet, no increased demand for industrial workers from this side of the Atlantic. In addition to the numerous large contracts placed in Canada by the British and French Governments, Canadian officials have now received a large order for saddles for the Russian Government. The order will be divided among the Canadian firms capable of doing the work with the necessary despatch. No definite number of saddles is mentioned, which is taken to mean that Russia will take every saddle it is possible for Canada to manufacture immediately and for some time to come.

"Empress of India" as Flagship.

The Canadian Pacific Railway liner, *Empress of India*, which has been converted into a cruiser, has been experiencing an exciting time. While at Singapore the liner was made flagship for the Straits Settlements Squadron. There were three German prizes at Singapore when the *Empress of India* left, steamed south and boarded every vessel encountered on the route. Batavia was visited, and five German vessels were found to be interned at that Dutch port. Macassar on Celebes Island came next. There three German vessels were interned. Later Sandakar (British North Borneo) was reached. Here two German vessels were under guard. The captains, officers and crews of the two German ships were placed on board the *Empress of India*, and in October she sailed for Hong Kong, towing the *Tannanafells* with 8,000 tons of coal and large quantities of provisions, and the *Rio Passig*, which had 4,700 tons of coal on board.

Food Prices in New Zealand.

A commission of inquiry was set up by the New Zealand Government when war broke out so that a war measure, entitled the Regulation of Trade and Commerce Act, could be put into operation without delay when required. On the commission,

representatives of different interests, including harbour interests, held place, and a schedule of standard prices was prepared, while the Governor-in-Council was given power by the Act to declare them the maximum. Far from any need to enforce these it is interesting to learn that some manufacturers have actually ordained that their prices, to try and balance others that may not be able to adopt the same high ideal, shall be less than usual. The dairy companies, for instance, actually managed to reduce the price of butter, and promised, unless compelled by great stress to do otherwise, to keep it low in price.

A Prohibited Export.

The announcement that the Canadian Government has decided to prohibit the export of nickel from Canada, except to Great Britain and her allies, has been received with great satisfaction. Canada possesses the largest and richest nickel deposits in the world, so that the shutting out of Germany and Austria from securing nickel may eventually have a vital influence on the war. The two largest nickel mines in the world are at Sudbury in Canada and at New Caledonia, a French Colony. Needless to say, nickel enters considerably into the munitions of war, and hence the restriction of export which has now been imposed.

Commissions for Kingston Cadets.

It has been announced at the Royal Military College, Kingston, Ontario, that sixteen additional cadets have been recommended by the Commandant of the College for commissions in the British Regular Army. This brings the total number of cadets receiving commissions in the Imperial Army since the commencement of the war up to forty-one.

Canada's Wheat Area Seeded.

The Canadian Department of Agriculture is alert to the supreme necessity of producing next year the largest grain yield in the history of the Dominion. Where farmers, from any cause, are unable to provide their own seed, the Government will see that no acreage remains untilled on this account. The fine weather experienced during the autumn has enabled farmers to prepare much more than the usual quantity of ground, and this will be an important factor towards increasing the area seeded in the spring. There will be no difficulty in obtaining a market for the crop. The Dominion Government is completing storage elevators as rapidly as possible of sufficient capacity to provide for the increased yield. Europe will produce comparatively little grain next year, and must, therefore, necessarily look chiefly to Canada and the United States for her supplies. Everything produced on the farm will thus realise an increased price.

MORT AU CHAMP D'HONNEUR, 1914

Near Ypres lies the grave of Prince Maurice of Battenberg. The position is marked by a plain cross of wood, on which are inscribed the words, "Mort au Champ d'Honneur, 1914."

FAR from us and far from England,
Tenderly they laid him down,
In the land whose sons are heroes,
Near the Hun-wrecked Belgian town.

His dear mother-land of Britain
Longed for him she loved so well ;
But what says his own true spirit :
" Let me lie *here*, where I fell."

And where stout hearts sleep around him,
He has found a soldier's grave ;
E'en his own loved Isle may yield him
To the land he died to save.

Gaze upon it with affection,
He who rests beneath was brave ;
Placed by loving hands above it,
See the Palms of victory wave.

Read the words that tell so plainly
How our gallant hero died :
Though tears flow, those words shall stay them,
And shall fill your hearts with pride.

" Died upon the Field of Honour."
Words so simple, yet so grand !
" Here," they say, " lies one who nobly
Fought, and died, for this tried land."

Chivalry, from earliest ages,
Marked the English in their fights ;
He, too, kept the great tradition,
E'en as one of Arthur's knights.

To the Church beside the river,
Where his father lies at rest,
We had thought that they might bring him ;
But his Belgian grave is best.

ROBEY F. ELDRIDGE.





BINDING LIST JAN 15 1931

DA
10
C55
v.28

The Commonwealth & empire
review

PLEASE DO NOT REMOVE
CARDS OR SLIPS FROM THIS POCKET

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO LIBRARY
