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ESTERDAY ND TO-DAY IN ANADA



THE DUKE OF ARGYLL



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Graduate of the University of Toronto,
and eminent Canadian geologist,
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Dep

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

**"The experiment must go forward. . . .
We cannot leave it unfinished if we would."
—Sir JOHN SEELEY.**

UNIFORM WITH THIS VOLUME

MODERN INDIA

BY

J. D. REES, C.V.O., C.I.E., M.P.

CAPE COLONY

BY

RT. HON. JOHN XAVIER MERRIMAN
OF CAPE COLONY

YESTERDAY AND TO-DAY
IN CANADA



YESTERDAY & TO-DAY IN CANADA

BY

THE DUKE OF ARGYLL

AUTHOR OF "IMPERIAL FEDERATION," ETC.

c1910?

TORONTO

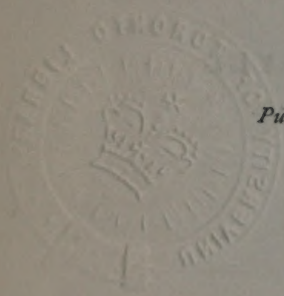
THE MUSSON BOOK COMPANY, LTD.

LONDON: GEORGE ALLEN & SONS

YESTERDAY & TO-DAY

IN CANADA

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5054
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*Published under the auspices of the
League of the Empire*

669943
13.12.57

Printed by BALLANTYNE, HANSON & Co.
At the Ballantyne Press, Edinburgh

NOTE

“THE experiment must go forward. . . . We cannot leave it unfinished if we would.” It is nearly thirty years since Professor Seeley spoke these words of Empire in his great series of lectures on the “Expansion of England.” What was only felt then in an emotional way by a comparatively small band of enthusiasts has to-day come home to at least some millions of our people. In Seeley’s day the Imperialist was the dreamer; now he is the practical and clear-seeing man of affairs. The reproach that our politicians, our historians, still think of England, not of Greater Britain, as their country has lost much of its sting since those lectures were read at Cambridge by Seeley. No man of information or imagination really supposes to-day that England could whistle off the Colonies and “become again, with perfect comfort to herself, the old, solitary island of Queen Elizabeth’s time—‘in a great pool a swan’s nest.’” That was the strange delusion which arose, as the historian pointed out, not through imagination, but through the want of it.

More every year it becomes the wish, as it is the duty, of every thinking British citizen to be

well informed, not only as to his own particular land, but as to the British Empire as a whole. What can they know of England who only England know? is truer to-day than ever it has been. The Empire, with its tremendous problems of government, defence, trade, and the handling of the coloured races, is a theme of as great and live value as any of the subjects studied at school and college—the classics, English history and geography, science, modern languages, mathematics. We must learn “to think imperially,” or perish completely as an empire. The subject cannot any longer be left out of the scheme of study at our schools and universities; and it may well be a subject of home training too.

The educated man of the future is sure to be educated in the glorious subjects of India, Canada, South Africa, Australasia; he will be alive to the true meaning and great import of our position and interests in the Far East, the Mediterranean, the Pacific.

The aim of this series of books, therefore, is to give people, young and old, at home and throughout Greater Britain, a trustworthy, absolutely authentic description of British interests, resources, and life all over the Empire. Each volume will be written by an acknowledged authority on the subject. No regard will be paid to party politics. The questions of Liberalism and Conservatism do not come within the scope of these books: it is only a question of Imperialism.

The idea is to describe the Colony, British possession, or sphere of influence in its natural, commercial, and social features ; and the authors will give an account of its rise and growth. "Yesterday and To-Day in Canada," by the Duke of Argyll ; "Modern India," by Sir J. D. Rees, M.P. ; and "South Africa," by the Right Hon. John Xavier Merriman, of Cape Colony, will be the opening books in the series.

THE EDITORS.

P R E F A C E

THE object of this book is to bring together the recent and most prominent statements and facts regarding the progress Canada has made in the political and industrial aspects of her existence, and to exhibit her past and present relation to the mother country. The contents of the publication will show the salient matters it is important to remember in view of present developments and the possibilities of commercial concert. In speaking of concert in trade, it is not the happy-go-lucky and casual and accidental commerce which has been the natural result of common home memories between old country and colonists, but the organised co-operation in leading purchase and sale along lines more favourable to mother and child, or, as we now are beginning to say, between sister States, than before. Science is henceforward, in Canada's view, to back natural early affinity. When a colony grows gradually as has Canada, into an independent State, the proportion of her citizens attached by sentiment or race feeling must gradually lessen, in comparison with others of other stock who enter Canada, and become also citizens of the ancient British

colony. Gradually the time must come when it is more by the similarity of institutions than by community in blood that the likeness between the sisters in the old world and the new can remain. Geographical affinity has its influence, as well as political or sentimental attraction. It is therefore very interesting and instructive to observe to what extent the attraction to the mother country exists, and how it tells, decade after decade, among the descendants of the early colonists and their comrades in citizenship from other European lands. In the case of the French Canadian one can observe how political events and the sundering of commercial and national ties produce a very complete severance of common purpose, although a race sentiment remains which leads to a tendency to a local patriotism rendered stronger by the historic past, when their ancestors were in arms against the fathers of their present Canadian countrymen. Colonel Charette received volunteers for his Papal Zouaves and a few for the struggle of France against Germany, but volunteering was necessarily extremely limited, and France could never count now on many men to assist her in any conflict. The new France over the water has been too long separated in ideas political and religious from the dominant party in old France, whose children founded the colonies in Quebec. So it might be with the English-speaking Canadians, were a policy of neglect and carelessness, and refusal of all co-operation in Canadian enterprise,

political or commercial, to supersede the present lively sympathy and constant financial aid given by Britain to all Canadian industrial enterprises. "Trade follows the flag," and commercial investments are attracted when men know that the laws, traditions, and sentiment are alike in the country which is the investor, and in the country where the investments are placed. If France had been keen to invest in Quebec, and if she had not been harsh to the religion of Quebec, French sentiment would now be more than a sentiment in the land mapped by Perouse and conquered by Champlain. Yet there is no doubt that French Canadians, much as they disapprove of the present state of affairs in France under the Tricolour, especially in relation to the Government treatment of the religious orders, would hail with gladness any commercial *rapprochement* with France, and would infinitely prefer any such commercial ties to any with other lands. The white flag of the ancient monarchy with the fleurs-de-lys is no more. It is the Tricolour that now represents the "vieille patrie." Blood is thicker than water. "Frenchmen will be Frenchmen." But how long will it be before the sons of Englishmen will cease to be Englishmen, if in two or three more generations their children's blood is no longer English, and there be nothing but the tie that unites Americans to the old country, between England and her Canadian "oversea sister State"? Why should they not make the alliances

most immediately profitable if the old country thinks her interests consist in living on in solitary economic glory, the one State in the whole world which sacrifices itself to theory and is too old to learn and too feeble-hearted to feel?

ARGYLL.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
NOTE	vii
PREFACE	xi
CHAP.	
I. QUEBEC	I
II. ONTARIO	18
III. NEW BRUNSWICK	35
IV. NOVA SCOTIA	44
V. BRITISH COLUMBIA	54
VI. MANITOBA	70
VII. SASKATCHEWAN	81
VIII. ALBERTA	102
IX. ATHABASCA	120
X. NAVAL AND MILITARY DEFENCE	126
XI. NATIONAL HIGHWAYS OF CANADA	167
XII. THE CONFERENCES—WHAT THEY MEANT	228
XIII. WHAT HAS BEEN DONE	261
XIV. WHAT MAY STILL BE DONE	338
XV. VALUABLE STATISTICS	363
XVI. SPORT	390
APPENDIX	405
INDEX	417

CANADA

No stranger's foot insulting
Shall tread our country's soil,
While stand her sons exulting
For her to live and toil.
She hath the victor's guerdon,
Hers are the conquering hours ;
No foeman's yoke shall burden
This Canada of ours.

Chorus.

Aye one with her whose thunder
Keeps world-watch with the hours,
Guard freedom's home and wonder,
" This Canada of ours."

Our sires when times were sorest
Asked none but aid Divine,
And cleared the tangled forest
And wrought the buried mine.
They tracked the floods and fountains,
And won with master hand
Far more than gold in mountains—
The glorious prairie land.

Inheritors of glory,
O countrymen, we swear
To guard the flag whose story
Shall onward victory bear.
Where'er through earth's far regions
Its triple crosses fly
For God, for home, our legions
Shall win or, fighting, die.

YESTERDAY AND TO-DAY IN CANADA

CHAPTER I

QUEBEC

“ ‘The land of old romance,
Where glitter helmet, sword, and lance,
And banners wave, and trumpets sound,
And memories of the mighty throng—
Of men who came from royal France,
With loyalty and valour crowned—
Where still is heard the sound of song
Sung by the musketeers who strode
Where'er victorious Montcalm rode,
Victors from Beaufort to Champlain—
Until that dark September night
That saw the British frigates pour
Their crowded troops on Abraham's Height,
And Wolfe knew wounds were not in vain,
Ere Death from shock of battle bore
To where our wars are fought no more
Two warrior souls, each born to be
Contending nations' stars of victory.’”

No man has known what pleasure life can give until he has ridden out of Quebec with a joyous company to Lake Beauport, and has there fished for trout and dined on fish caught by himself, and thereafter has partaken of buckwheat cake with

maple-sugar, and finished his dinner with wild strawberries and cream, and then seen the sunset on water and forest and hill give signal for repose in the hostelry until another morning takes him back to the ancient capital. No man has realised what the past of the New World means until he has had the mental refreshment of speaking with the men of Quebec, who are so loyal to the memories of old France, and yet have known to shape these sentiments into harmony with the enterprise distinctive of the continental life. He may have spoken of the history of the province with Lemoine, its most vivid historian, or discussed poetry and drama with Louis Frechette, the charming poet of New France, or politics and forestry with Sir Joli de Lobinière, whose ancient seignury on the south side of the great St. Lawrence was the birthplace of his sons, soldiers in the imperial army, and may find that these notable men have left successors as able and as loyal to the Empire as they. Or if the visitor to the province of Quebec desires to study affairs of State, he will find in her sons who have taken Cabinet office in the Federal Ministry men who can tell him how and why it is that the French Canadian deems the British flag to be his palladium of safety for the continuance in America of his faith and freedom. Among the statesmen from whom he will learn the sentiments of the descendants of the loyalists of the ancient monarchy of France is the Hon. M. Lemieux, the able representative, of late commissioned by the Canadian and

British Governments to negotiate with the Japanese Government on the difficult and delicate question of the immigration into Canada of Japanese—a subject which has so greatly excited the Californians, and has much engrossed the people of British Columbia also, for all the coast population have feared the incoming of numbers of Asiatics able to outdo them in cheapness of labour, length of hours of toil, and ability to live on sustenance which men of European stock regard as insufficient. This question has for the present been solved by the Lemieux proposal that all direct immigration be arrested, and the indirect coming of Japanese from other countries than Japan be watched and limited. And now, finally, if the British inquirer in Quebec be interested as a commercial man in railways, in mines, or any stocks and shares, he will find in Montreal, the commercial capital, so beautifully placed on its Royal Mount, and near the vast Lachine Rapids of the St. Lawrence River, the men who guide the business interests of the Dominion. Here lives Mr. Van Horne, who recently spoke thus on the present-day matters to a representative of the *Canadian Gazette*. He said—

“ You ask me for my opinion as to the effect the imposition of the United States maximum tariff would have on Canadian industry. I do not think it can do much harm, and for a very simple reason. Under the Dingley tariff pretty well everything that Canada produced was excluded from the United States ; that is to say, the tariff was made

practically prohibitive, save as to few things—lumber, pulp-wood, gold and silver ores, nickel ore, and perhaps a few unimportant things besides. These products are not taxed to the extent of exclusion, because the United States wants them, and must have them at almost any price, and if they put a surtax on them their own people must pay it. For this reason I do not myself think it will be seriously attempted.

“Nor do I think that the present situation as regards Canada’s trade with Great Britain would be materially changed. It will not prevent the United States from selling to Canada as freely as now, unless Canada should meet the proposed surtax by increasing her duties correspondingly against the United States, which she would probably do. This would, of course, increase the margin of preference to Great Britain, and make it much easier for Britain to sell in Canada against United States manufacturers. But even this will not eventually turn the trade without work, and an ounce of work is worth a pound of preference. In the face of the large preference given by Canada to Great Britain, the exports of the United States to Canada increased from about \$66,000,000 to something like \$170,000,000 during the first nine years of preference. Canada is the largest customer for the manufactures of the United States—larger, I think, than all South America together—and I doubt if the United States will deliberately kick such an important customer. Besides, there may be in Canada a sufficient

sentiment in favour of reciprocity to put upon United States goods a surtax equal to that now proposed against her, and this would cost the United States a good many dollars for one. No; I don't believe that the United States will do anything of the kind.

“There is newspaper talk of a tariff arrangement between the States and Canada on a reciprocal basis for coal, lumber, iron ore, wheat, and so on. I see no need, as far as Canada is concerned, of any reciprocal trade arrangement. Reciprocity in coal might be convenient to both parties, for Canada has coal at the east and the west, but not in the middle, while the United States has it in the middle, but not at the coast or the west. I see no advantage to Canada in anything else.

“Canadian wheat is, of course, wanted to keep the Minneapolis mills going; it is also wanted by the railways in that direction. But Canada has no interest in providing for either of these wants, which would only work to the disadvantage of her own mills and her own carriers—not alone her inland carriers, but her ocean carriers. Every dollar earned by United States for the transportation of Canadian wheat is a dollar absolutely lost to Canada. Regarding Canadian immigration restrictions, aside from the exclusion of paupers and criminals, I am opposed to any immigration restrictions. As to the encouragement of British emigrants, it is perhaps only necessary that they should know that, if they are able and willing to work with their hands, they can get on well in Canada, and soon become

independent. The right kind will easily find their way out. It is easy to get there; but those who are unaccustomed to work, or who do not know how to do something in particular, might have a hard time of it, and had better not go. As for the British capitalist, there are many good things for capital in Canada, and some bad things. Practically all of the leading railway and manufacturing concerns are well and honestly conducted, and practically all of them are growing with the country. There are, of course, as in all countries, speculative ventures concerning which one cannot be too careful. The laws are much the same as in England; the courts are above reproach, and capital is well safeguarded." Moreover, it is a country which it is easy to go and see.

None has done more for Canada than has Sir William Van Horne, and his outlook on affairs from the vantage-place of Montreal, Canada's chief commercial city and the capital of old Quebec, is contained in this well-weighed judgment on to-day's prospects.

Two of the most notable of the men who stood forth pre-eminently as representatives of Canada in the last half of the nineteenth century—namely, Sir Donald Smith and Mr. George Stephen, who both lived much at Montreal and built fine houses there—are now peers of Great Britain, and have returned to the land of their birth. Lord Strathcona is the official representative, as High Commissioner, of the Dominion, and Lord Mount Stephen is ever

ready also to assist his Canadian friends. The educational and charitable institutions of Montreal owe much to them, and Lord Strathcona is the trustee of more than one. The city is, indeed, too cosmopolitan to be considered as typical of the province, as is the ancient capital. There the aspect is much as it was in the days of the great struggle for its possession between the British and the French. The lines of the citadel buildings are a trifle more formal, but they only crest the big rock and plateau which looms over the river, as it did when the white flag with the golden lilies floated above it, and its batteries gave back shot for shot in reply to the puffs of white smoke that rose into the air from the discharge of the cannon of Wolfe mounted on the opposite bank of the river along the lower cliffs named after the French governor Levis. The white, tin-covered roofs of the town beneath the big rock cliff and crowding the bank of the river St. Charles, which joins under the guns of the fortress the vast St. Lawrence, and the bridge over the small affluent, are much what they were, though a century and a quarter has passed since Wolfe almost despaired of winning his way into the town. He had possession with his fleet's assistance of the far-away island you see in mid-stream of the watery expanse called the river, but the left bank, where the cascade of Montmorency leaps a sheer 120 feet down the escarpment, was in the hands of Montcalm. Wolfe had tried an attack there in vain in the summer, and his three

ships and two battalions employed had received so severe a mauling that they had retreated again to the friendly shelter of the great island of Orleans.

Yes, despair had almost made the British general sail away, when his resolution to try one last chance in September gave him the prize and death. It was at night that Levis and the isle of Orleans saw the troops transferred to the ships and his flotilla sail silently past the fortress upstream and land two miles above the fortifications. The plateau was occupied before Montcalm could get his men over the longer land route from Beauport, which the garrison of the citadel was not strong enough to attack without him. When his regiments formed line they were flurried by the speed made in their exertions to arrive, and did not stand the close heavy volleys with which the old smooth-bore musket dealt such fearful slaughter at near range. It was a marvel that at battles like that of Malplaquet or Quebec any officers survived. The carnage was infinitely greater in proportion to the men engaged than it is in modern engagements. Montcalm and Wolfe were both victims and both victors, for their deaths gave free institutions to Canada, and kept for Quebec the faith of ancient France and the continuity she loves in her pride of noble traditions and the preservation of her people's place and privilege in the history of the New World. Her navigator Prouse and her soldier Champlain were the first to explore and colonise. Louisbourg, on the Atlantic, was the first

fortified town in New France, and though now deserted is most interesting, for it shows the lines of its old Vauban-style fortification, and it was here that Wolfe first gave proof in the American campaign of his great qualities, for when his boat was dashing to the shore with the other boats of the five ships, carrying the storming parties, the French fire was so heavy that the admiral signalled the boats to return; but Wolfe stood up in his and cheered the flotilla on to the landing, which was effected, and a lodgment made near the beach, and the subsequent surrender of the town was entirely owing to his heroism. When one sees this place, and thinks of the distant Quebec and of Lake Champlain, and the battlefields in the United States, one realises the immense area over which fighting was carried on when there was only water carriage, and the forest tracks were known only to the Indians.

If you desire to see triumphs of science in mechanical arts, the greatest engineering works on the continent may be seen in the Victoria tubular bridge at Montreal, and in the bridge about to span the St. Lawrence near Quebec. The cantilever span will be the longest in the world—1800 feet—and the length of the whole bridge will be 3300 feet. The bridge way will be 150 feet above the water, and the tower tops 400 feet. Two lines of railway will be carried by it, two trolley lines, and two sidewalks for persons on foot.

In railway construction the country gives plenty of opportunity for the engineer to show his worth,

for rivers, lakes and ravines, and hills of the oldest and hardest rocks will have all to be conquered; and Quebec province can now show over 3500 miles of "track." The companies obtain land grants from the Provincial Government, so that they may assist in the settlement of agriculturists in the country, and $13\frac{1}{4}$ millions of acres have been given for the encouragement of railway lines.

Among the people the Roman Church has by far the greater number of followers—about $1\frac{1}{2}$ million—and most of these are of French descent; the English Church has over 80,000, and the Presbyterian about 60,000.

A few Scotsmen can be met with everywhere here, as throughout the rest of the world, and there are many of Scots name, whose ancestors were in the Frazer and other regiments, and settled down after the wars under Wolfe were over, and married French women, whose descendants speak French. There is a Campbeltown at the head of the great gulf called the Bay of Chaleurs, to the south of the St. Lawrence Gulf, and near this little town are two of the salmon rivers that give the best fishing in Canada. These are the Metapedia and Caspédia; but there are hundreds of other streams where the greediest sportsman may contentedly fill his basket, or indeed his canoe, with magnificent fish. The beauty of these little rivers coming down over the agate-sprinkled gravels of the rocky watercourses in the forests is indescribably charming. The wild creatures of the woods are still in sufficient numbers

to be met with by the sportsman as he is poled up the stream by his two canoemen. On a slanting cedar hanging over the water he may see a brown bear climbing down, having apparently ascended the tree for the pure love of looking down into a lovely pool and seeing his own ugly brown face reflected from the depths ; or perhaps the bear may have gone up to take a view of where the salmon were lying thickest, that he too might have the chance of catching a fish.

And when the angler is tempted to stop the canoe, that he may himself try his luck, he may soon hook a fine fish, and, when playing it, may chance to see a forest hare, smaller than the European, and with more slender legs, but with a greater appreciation of sport, come out from the wood and sit upright on the pebbles of the river shore to look on with intelligent curiosity at the splashing fish making a sturdy fight against the gradually conquering Boston-made bamboo fishing-rod. And then far upstream the canoemen will find the work easier, the currents less strong, as they pole up into the wider stretches of water which open into lakes, where at sunset the visitor may be suddenly aware of a great moose standing reflected in the shallows of a sandy bay. Let us hope, for the sake of the moose, that the fisherman has forgotten his rifle, and that the unwieldy-looking beast may turn to the wood cover, and disappear, to live another season. But there may be full comfort for the disappointment in the possibility of getting cariboo

yet farther in the more barren uplands; and the loveliness of all except the mosquitoes and black flies and Brulé flies (like Scots midges, only with more of the push belonging to a new world), will soothe his soul, if not his skin. Of fish, indeed, he will soon have enough, and will pray for other food than salmon. The riches of river and sea are indeed inexhaustible. If he tires of the beauty of wooded promontories and sleepy lakes, and silver shores, and antique woods of pine, birch, and maple, he may yacht along the red shores towards the Atlantic, and catch cod and eat lobsters, and be free of mosquitoes, and see the strange white porpoises divide the blue waters with their ivory-like bodies, until he voyages on to the far shores of Labrador, and sees there the outermost flank of that thick arched belt of subarctic forest, a zone of little thick-growing spruce and Banksian fir, which girdles the whole continent. From ocean to ocean stretches that dark belt, sheltering within its recesses the flying squirrels, yellow and silver foxes, and many animals precious for the fur they bear, and numbering among them sometimes in the central regions even the few surviving buffalo, and occasionally in the far north the musk ox, as well as the wandering cariboo, and other deer.

Fine and fruitful as are the shores of the Bay of Chaleurs, if an Englishman wishes to see what good settlements mean in the far north of the east of Canada, let him go to the Lake St. John, the great sheet of inland water north of the Saguenay,

and he will be delighted with the homely but successful husbandry to be seen there. Or in the south, near the American frontier, let him go to the eastern townships, where few but English settlers could not long ago have been found, but where the French Canadian is now perhaps fully as much at home as were the British.

The eastern townships are a modern community, but they are not a crowded community. There is room for more, many more. The hard work of the pioneer is over. The woodman's axe has done its work. The primeval forests of a century ago have given place to fertile, cultivated fields. The soil has been tamed. The log cabin of the pioneer has long since given place to comfortable homes.

The shires of old England and the townships of young Canada have much in common. The former, however, are crowded, while the latter send forth an urgent call for more men and women to join them in their splendid land, whose greatest need is a larger population.

Agriculture.—Agriculture is often referred to as the backbone of Canada's prosperity. This is true, and essentially so when applied to the eastern townships of Quebec, one of the finest agricultural sections in old Canada.

Englishmen say that the character of the eastern townships agriculture much resembles that of England. Mixed farming is the order. Everything that a good soil can produce is grown. In the townships is no extensive acreage of wheat such as

prevails in the west, and no great fruit orchards such as are seen in the Niagara peninsula, but the farmer raises wheat for his family use, and grows as fine apples as any in the world for himself and the local market. But it is not to wheat and fruit he looks for revenue.

The Typical Eastern Townships Farm.—The typical eastern townships farm of, say, 250 acres is divided into three sections—cultivated land, pasturage, and woodland. The three divisions are probably of about equal extent, and each is equally necessary and profitable. The pastures sustain, through the summer, the cattle and sheep, and such horses as are turned out to graze. A farm such as that referred to should have forty head of cattle and perhaps fifty sheep. The woods furnish fuel for the house fire, cordwood to sell at the village, and, what is more important, the sap for the far-famed maple sugar of the eastern townships. From the cultivated portion of his farm, the farmer will take, say, 80 tons of hay and a good supply of ensilage corn, turnips, carrots, &c., for winter live-stock feed, 200 or 300 bushels of potatoes, a few hundred bushels of oats and barley, a less quantity of wheat, perhaps 50 bushels each of apples, squashes, pumpkins, beets, &c. &c. Strawberry cultivation is carried on by some farmers profitably, and grapes are grown successfully in some sections, but not generally.

These and many others are the products of the eastern townships farms. Many are turned into

ready cash at the local village or town market. Potatoes command from 50 cents (2s.) to 75 cents (3s.) per bushel, cereals are always saleable, though they are generally fed out on the farm, eggs bring from 15 cents ($7\frac{1}{2}$ d.) to 40 cents (1s. 8d.) per dozen. Bee-keeping is found profitable by those who take it up scientifically. All this emphasises the "mixed" character of eastern townships agriculture.

Three Chief Agricultural Industries.—But, amid all these various phases of farming in this section of Canada, three branches stand out prominently as representing the important revenue-producing features of eastern townships farming.

They are dairying, live-stock raising, and maple-sugar manufacture.

The Dairy Industries.—First and foremost is dairying. It is the most important source of the farmers' revenue. Its importance has grown immensely within recent years, as Canadian dairy products have won a firm place in the British markets.

In fact, so important has this industry grown, that farms are leased on the basis of the number of cows they are able to maintain, the rental figure being about \$10 (£2) per cow. That is, a farm with thirty cows would rent for about \$300 (£60).

There is reason to believe that the dairy industry has not reached its greatest expansion and success in the eastern townships, for the reason that there is still at least some little room for improvement in methods followed. Eastern townships

butter and cheese have won an enviable reputation in the market, but a still greater care on the part of both factorymen and farmers will, it is believed, in the years to come, make dairying still more profitable there than it is now.

Live-Stock Industry.—The live-stock and dairy industries go hand in hand. The milk and cream go to the factories, the skim milk goes to swine.

The bacon industry is in its infancy in the eastern townships. For years the farmers have been fattening hogs for the local or Montreal markets, but only recently have they begun to turn serious attention to the production of bacon for export. The Department of Agriculture at Ottawa has been endeavouring to educate the eastern townships farmers in this connection. The possibilities for the future are great. The fattening of cattle for the market has perhaps not greatly increased in recent years, but it is still a source of considerable revenue. A visit to the fall agricultural fairs is sufficient to impress one with the splendid class of cattle bred in the eastern townships. The thoroughbred herds of Ayrshire, Hereford, Holstein, Durham, Jersey, Guernsey, Angus, Frisiane, and Canadian cattle probably could not be excelled anywhere.

The same may be said of horses. Many splendid animals have been bred in the eastern townships, and high prices have prevailed for several years past.

The Maple-Sugar Industry.—Canada is the

land of the maple, and the eastern townships a favoured home for its sugar industry. While in many other parts of the Dominion this magnificent tree flourishes, climatic conditions do not everywhere combine to make it useful as well as ornamental. The latter quality it everywhere possesses, tall, usually straight, and of splendid foliage. Special weather conditions during the months of March and April, however, are required for the production of the maple sap, which by the boiling process is converted into the far-famed maple sugar. A frost at night and rising temperature of from 40 to 50 degrees during the day is the maple-sap requirement. This is the weather feature of the eastern townships and adjoining counties during the latter part of March and the first week or two of April.

The maple-sugar industry thus becomes an important phase of eastern townships farming, and profitable as well.

CHAPTER II

ONTARIO

The Maple Leaf of crimson fire,
Our country's life is sharing ;
It's carmine for our heart's desire—
Our glorious hopes, its summer green,
Our Empire's crown, it's golden sheen—
The Maple Leaf for ever !

It dies not with the frosts of Fall,
For Spring the soil preparing,
When all the streams rejoicing, call—
The azure shades on virgin snow
Are guardians of its sleep below—
The Maple Leaf for ever !

Canadians all, we cheer the Leaf,
Fair emblem we are wearing,
That after rest of Winter brief
Sends up the sap in honeyed wells :
Hark ! how each bird our chorus swells !
The Maple Leaf for ever !

THE province of Ontario has about twice the number of people possessed now by New Zealand, the brave little dominion in the Southern Seas, which has lately offered to make a present to the mother country of a battleship of the class of the *Dreadnought*. The last great development in the prosperity and renown of this fine province has been brought about by the discovery in one

of its most northern counties of wonderfully rich mines of silver and cobalt, and a county has this beautiful azure mineral as a god-father. A "cobalt combine" sounds like "a combination, till all is blue"; but even a blue cobalt mine does not last for ever. We have the metal in Great Britain in small quantities, mixed with German silver or nickel; but the silver to be found here in lead mines, and the cobalts of Britain to be found in her rare and thin deposits of nickel, are as nothing compared with the marvellous stuff which has come from Ontario. There you may see pieces like a half brick cut clean out of the vein of silver as solid as an ingot at the bank.

The entry into Ontario by the St. Lawrence shows along the mighty river's northern bank many instances of fortunate farming, but there is much country along the old line of rail, that reached from Prescott to Ottawa, which brings up visions of lumbering and mining rather than of farming, for the growth of the western cedar or thuya spreads itself persistently under the ragged pine forest, and rock and rough woodland succeed to the river-side fields and pastures. Near where the rail strikes northwards was an old windmill, the scene of the last stand made by the insurgents in 1838. An old friend of mine used to tell me how he remembered the fusilade he and his men had kept up on this mill, which was at last stormed, the defenders taking to their heels. A hot-tempered sergeant pursued one of the rebels, and my friend saw

that it would soon be all up with the fugitive were the sergeant to have his own way. The officer was anxious that the rebel should be spared and made to surrender, and he ran, panting, after the sergeant, calling on him not to use his sword, but it was too late; the sword rose and flashed and came down on the back of the fugitive's head, making the hair fly, and the rebel fell, dying. The troops were angry at the losses they had suffered from the fire from the windmill, and were in no mood for mercy. The place where this last act of civil war occurred is not far from the opening of the waters coming from the wide surface of Lake Ontario, and the town of Kingston, whose famous military academy has provided so many fine officers for the service. The cadets who cannot get posts in the militia have a chance for the regular army in Great Britain, and the majority enter civil professions in Canada. These are men whose character has been ennobled by discipline, and the study of the heroes of the campaigns and glories which have given Canadians a splendid heritage which, at Kingston, they learn to defend.

The railway line takes one through very pretty scenery along the northern part of the lake to Toronto. It is worth while to stay a whole winter at the capital of the province to see the winter sports on the bay, where the ice-cutter yachts sail at a pace that seems fearful to the persons unaccustomed to the real security of the amusement.

With their sharp steel keels and cutting rudder that can grip the ice so as to direct the course of the flying craft with the utmost accuracy, these white-sailed vessels speed along with more than the swiftness of the sea-swallows, or terns, that are so familiar to us on the European side of the Atlantic. For an amusement that can be played by gaslight, by electric light, as well as during the wintry day, curling on the ice at Toronto, and in many other towns, has become a fashion. In the maritime provinces curlers use the usual Scotch stones made of fine granite, and having ample girth, but away from the sea air the frost often tends to make these stones be chipped by their impact against others, and iron is used instead of stone. This certainly tends to make the game a prettier game, for the iron, being much heavier than stones, requires much less to make up for weight, and the diameter of the "stones" being smaller, there is less of a block about the "tee," and a player can put his shot through a narrower "port." Curling rinks are often arranged in covered galleries, where, at each end, a company of spectators can look through glass screens, behind which they can sit in warmth and comfort to look on at the game. Clubs whose homes are twelve or fifteen hundred miles apart often compete for the final at the Governor-General's headquarters; and Canadian curlers were easy victors over their Scottish competitors when a visit was made to the old country in 1909.

"Muddy little York," as Toronto was nicknamed in the last century, is now a charming city, with its gardens and long lines of streets stretching along the lake shore, and covering the sloping country rising from the bay with good houses and clean thoroughfares. Osgood Hall, where the lawyers have their courts, was the scene of a notable reception of the American Secretary of State, Mr. Evarts, in the late seventies, when Mr. Blake was the orator who pronounced the oration of welcome, and the able American statesman made a reply, and happily expressed the abiding community of interests between the two nations, which no local jealousies should ever be allowed to disturb. Both have reformed institutions modelled on the ancient base of freedom won by their ancestors. If one of the two allows despotism of the "ticket," and the other the dictatorship of party to set up analogies to the authority our fathers gave the Crown in the days of the Tudors and Stuarts, they both make the same mistake in different ways; but they are both determined to let the wheel of their national assemblies assert only a brief authority, for after a few years the Government has again to appeal to the people for a mandate to continue in office. Experience has shown that the more northern of the two nations has managed to keep its judiciary pure. Of the highest courts in the United States this may also be asserted. "But there are local lapses," a man said who took

the pledge against drinking alcohol, and then took a refresher to enable him to keep his word and his courage whenever he was tempted. Farther west the visitor, who is sure to visit Niagara, will be wise not only to see the gigantic mill-dam-like cascades, but also the many and varied features of the stream below the suspension bridge, where, through a fine gorge, the waters rush and leap and rage to get down to the calm of Lake Ontario. Along both shores, near the outlet of the end of the rapids, there are lovely orchards and pleasant country places, one of which was the home of a man who wrote a good historical novel, which he named "The Golden Dog, or Chien d'Or." This was Mr. Kirby, whose office work prevented him from doing full justice to a marked literary ability.

The peninsula of Ontario—that is, the country bordering on the Lakes Erie and Huron—is filled with farms showing excellent agriculture. Men unable to do more in the old country than just "to hold on," or, unfortunately, unable to do anything that can make both ends meet, may see here their wiser cousins, who have emigrated, enjoying on a Sunday the shade of a capacious gallery around their house, where they sit and watch the play of summer breezes on the waving fields of wheat stretching around their homestead. The older members of the family may still be found speaking to each other in the Welsh or Gaelic tongues, telling of their fathers' poverty, and contrasting it with the gladsome sufficiency of

their present life. But very few of the children will be found to have any tongue but the English. It is most curious that even in such places as Philadelphia, where the Germans are very numerous, the children all take to learning English, and in the third generation it is rare to find any German spoken at all. In so well settled a province, for every form of the old country's life is illustrated through the fresh vigour of her descendants, the main point of difference seems to the observer rather to lie in the proportionately great number of country to townfolk. As a rule, the towns are small, and, except along the railway lines, the rural life is to be preferred. There is one district where Germans predominate, and they send a German-speaking representative to Parliament; in another, named Glengary, the people pride themselves on being descended from a Highland stock.

Ottawa, the Federal capital, lies on the extreme edge of the province, being built on bluffs rising on the right bank of the Ottawa River, while the left bank belongs to Quebec. Its present name replaced its former title of Bye Town; and when it was suggested in England as a good place for the Federal capital, I remember being told by my father to try to find it on the map of Canada. The search was wholly unavailing; but it was a convenient site for the Government Departments as accessible from both Toronto and Montreal, the capitals of the two provinces which were the most

important. The falls of the river over a ridge of rock above the plateau on which the Chambers of the Legislature meet are very fine, and the scenery up the Gatinau River invites one to roam farther into the wilderness, where trout-fishing and forest partridge-shooting make weary clerks and members of the Parliament forget the fatigue of Government. The province is justly proud of her system of education, and the names of Dr. Ryerson in her school system, and of Principal Grant in her University education, are gratefully remembered. Here are some official statements :—

Area.—Ontario has a land and water area of 260,863 square miles—equal to two Englands, and but little less than France or Germany.

The total land area of Ontario is 220,508 square miles, or 140 million acres ; of this 46 millions are surveyed and 94 millions unsurveyed.

Disposed of by the Crown by sales, locations, &c., 24 million acres, leaving 116 million acres still in the Crown.

Of this 116 million acres 90 million acres are timber producing, of which 40 million acres are virgin forest.

Population.—The population in 1907 (per Bureau of Industries Report), was 2,200,363, or 34 per cent. of Canada's total population of 6,940,304 (as per estimate of Canadian Census Bureau on July 31, 1908).

Timber.—The forest area is estimated at 40 million acres.

Total Government receipts from timber, 1867 to end of 1908, \$41,250,000.

Pine timber cut from 1867 to end of 1908, 24 billion feet; average per year, 578 million feet.

Estimated quantity of pine still standing on licensed lands, 7 billion feet, value \$10,000,000.

Estimated quantity of pine still standing on unlicensed Crown lands, 13,500,000,000 feet.

Estimated value of spruce logs, pulp-wood, tie timber, &c., \$225,000,000, or a grand total value of \$370,000,000.

Ontario has vast pulp-wood resources, estimated at 300 million cords. There are 36 pulp and paper mills in the province.

Mining.—Iron is found in large bodies of magnetite and hematite; copper in sulphide and native form; gold, mostly in free milling quartz; silver, native and in other forms; zinc blende, galena, pyrite, mica, graphite, corundum, talc, marl, brick clay, building stones of all kinds, and other useful minerals have been found in many places and are being worked.

In the famous Sudbury region Ontario possesses one of the two sources of the world's supply of nickel, and the known deposits of this metal are very large. The allied metal, cobalt, is also found in Ontario in unsurpassed quantities.

In the older parts of the province, salt, petroleum, and natural gas are important products. The cement and clay industries have a large output.

Ontario mineral production reached, in 1908, the

large sum of \$25,219,609—viz. silver, \$9,125,903; pig iron, \$4,390,839; nickel, \$1,866,059; copper, \$1,071,140; iron ore, \$537,379; cobalt, \$110,166; gold, \$60,337.

Ontario now produces 11 per cent. of the world's silver.

Cobalt has proved itself to be one of the most important mineral fields discovered in America, or, in fact, in the world, during the past forty years. Its total silver output since discovery in 1903, \$19,495,332. Value in 1908 alone \$8,200,000.

Crown Lands.—Of the 116 million acres of land still in the Crown many millions are open to settlers in the northern districts of Nipissing, Algoma, Thunder Bay, and Rainy River, on complying with certain conditions of occupation and improvement.

There is a fertile 16 million acre clay belt in New Ontario suitable for agriculture.

Ontario has 231 townships in which there are free grant lands, and a large number in which lands are for sale at 50 cents per acre on easy terms.

Manufactures.—The province stands first of the Canadian provinces in manufacturing. It had, in 1905, 7996 manufacturing establishments. Capital, 397 millions; products, 367 millions; employees, 189,370; wages, 82 millions.

Her manufactured products include almost every article and class of goods known in the Canadian market. Increase in manufacturing, 1900–1905, 51 per cent.

Ontario has 46 per cent. of the total manufacturing industries of Canada, representing 47 per cent. of the total capital employed and 48 per cent. of the wages paid.

Fish and Game.—The surface of the country is dotted with innumerable lakes teeming with trout, bass, pike, pickerel, and sturgeon. In its forests big game abounds, including red deer, moose, caribou, bear, &c.

Agricultural Conditions.—There is a great variety of soils suited to the growing of pasture grasses and all kinds of cereal crops. The land is rolling and well watered with springs and flowing streams. The atmosphere is clear and invigorating. After 125 years of settlement in the southern parts, which lie between the 42nd and 46th parallels of latitude, agriculture has become more or less specialised—fruit-growing, dairying, and live-stock production having become developed in the different sections as soil and climatic conditions have favoured these lines of work. The British tenant farmer who wishes to take up a home in Ontario has a wide range of locations from which to select.

Farm Values.—If the British tenant farmer wishes to start life as a pioneer he can buy a farm in the newer sections at a very low amount; a few hundred dollars will give him a start. For a time he will have to put up with some privations, but the rapid extension of railroads and other means of communication will, with his own efforts, soon give him a valuable farm on which he can carry on his

work with great success. If he wishes a cleared farm with comfortable home and good out-buildings, he can purchase an improved farm within a few miles of market, school, and church at amounts varying from \$20 to \$100 an acre, according to location and farm equipment. The British tenant farmer with \$5000 cash can start life as an independent citizen in Ontario. The Ontario Agent, 163 Strand, London, W.C., England, has a printed list of farms available for distribution.

Social Conditions.—The owner of a good farm in Ontario can give his family a comfortable home, and bring up his children under most favourable social conditions. Churches of all denominations and first-class public schools are found everywhere in Ontario, in country as well as in city and town. The province has the reputation of being orderly and remarkably free from crime. Education is universal, since attendance at schools is compulsory. Taxation is very low. There are no State taxes. A farm of 100 acres within three or four miles of a railroad station will be worth from \$3000 to \$5000, and on such a farm the only annual tax will be from \$30.00 to \$50.00, payable to the municipal council, to be used mainly for schools, roads, and local expenses. In Ontario practically every man has a vote, based on residence and citizenship.

Education.—Ontario's educational system includes primary, secondary, and high schools and Universities. The Provincial University of Ontario has the largest enrolment of any University in the

British Empire. Affiliated with it is the Ontario Agricultural College, which is the largest agricultural college in the Empire. The College has invested in land and buildings over one million dollars, has a staff of over forty teachers, and in 1908 had a total attendance of over 1100 students. It is situated at Guelph, 50 miles west of Toronto, in one of the best live-stock counties of the province. Students from Britain must have had farm experience, or must spend one year on an Ontario farm, before being admitted. In 1908 there were in the general course 34 students from the British Isles, 51 students from Canada outside of Ontario, and 22 from the United States.

Products.—The eastern counties are largely interested in dairying, the production of cheese and butter; the midland counties are noted for their live stock; the southern counties are unexcelled for fruit-growing. The Britisher can make his own choice. It will be his own fault if he does not succeed. Canadian beef, Canadian cheese, Canadian bacon, Canadian apples, are shipped in large quantities to Great Britain. They are produced in Ontario, on Ontario farms, and they are largely the products of Britishers or of the sons of Britishers who settled in Ontario only a few years ago. Among the most prosperous farmers to-day are those who came out from the British Isles a generation ago. There is room for many more at the present time.

Live Stock.—The herds of Ontario have been built up from British stock. In horses there are

Clydes and Shires ; in cattle there are Shorthorns, Ayrshires, Jerseys, and Aberdeen Angus ; in sheep there are Shropshires, Southdowns, Leicesters, and other British breeds ; in swine there are Yorkshires and Berkshires. The Britisher with a love for live stock will find ideal conditions for rearing stock, and he will find his home stock right here in large numbers.

The live-stock industry is growing. In 1896 the values of stock sold from the farms of the province amounted to \$29,750,000 ; in 1906 the values had increased to \$61,500,000.

Dairying.—The Britisher who desires to take up dairying can locate near a city and take up the work of producing milk for domestic consumption, or he can locate near a cheese factory or creamery and carry on a very profitable business.

The annual dairy output of Ontario is valued at \$35,000,000. There are 1,000,000 milch cows on the farms of Ontario. The 1200 cheese factories of the province produce annually over \$15,000,000 worth of cheese.

Fruit-Growing.—Apples grow in abundance in all the counties. If the Britisher, however, wishes to make fruit-growing a specialty, he can grow small fruits, pears, plums, cherries, and peaches. Peach land unplanted will cost from \$100 to \$250 an acre in the most favoured districts ; producing orchards will cost from \$250 to \$500 an acre. A country where peaches are grown in abundance in the open air is worth inquiring about. Perhaps you have

heard or read that Canada is a country of snow and winter. It may be in some parts. In Ontario, however, the winter is a most delightful, healthful, invigorating time of the year. In the southern counties the large peach orchards and the extensive vineyards, which are not covered in winter, are proof positive of a mild climate.

Who are Wanted?—Thriftless, incompetent, and easy-going people are not wanted in Ontario. They will be disappointed. People without means have to work in Ontario. There is abundance of work for competent farm labourers at good wages. There are fine opportunities for the British tenant farmer who desires to own his own farm. There are good cheap homes for the man of some means who wishes to live comfortably in his own home, and to bring up his family with good social and educational advantages. If you desire to know more of such opportunities, apply to the Ontario Agent, at 163 Strand, London, W.C., England.

When we leave this magnificent province to go west we feel that we are leaving what has hitherto been the centre of the life of the Canadian nation. Eastern provinces are older, and western provinces may in future exceed her in wealth, but she has within her borders the best proof of what the Anglo-Saxon race can accomplish in a new country. From her have come many of the ablest men who have led the public life of the Dominion—Sir John Macdonald, who first made his country a nation, and many another good and true man who believed in

her future, and in moulding democratic institutions under the old flag. The country that saw their first years of political activity is now full of thriving townships well knit together by railways. The Georgian Bay Canal will in the future improve her inland navigation. The province has preserved the character first stamped on it as loyal of the loyal to the heritage of Britain's sons in Canada.

Manufactures have been founded which give employment to Canadians, and supply the whole Dominion with goods formerly manufactured beyond her limits. Hear the answer to the question, "What are the relative prices of agricultural implements now as compared with prices before 1878? Has there been any appreciable rise in prices since the adoption of the national policy of a tariff in 1878?" The answer is that "All information indicates an average reduction in the price of all such articles of 15 to 34 per cent. since the date mentioned"!

All this material wealth is guarded by her sons, who have within their provincial borders the place of training for the officers of the forces of the Dominion, which have so signally distinguished themselves in two of the wars of the Empire, taking part in those wars as volunteers, and proving that the officers of the Kingston Military College are second to none in thoroughly mastering the practice of arms. One of the first of those who gave an example in all keenness for efficiency, namely, Colonel Denison, is still with us, and looks as though military service gives to Canadians a

perpetual youth. For all that makes manhood, for all that conquers or takes nature as an aid to brave endeavour, we love to show Ontario to the foreigner as a land which adds delight to labour, and success to honourable effort. She has been the keystone of the arch of our continental achievement.

CHAPTER III

NEW BRUNSWICK

THE CANADIAN TRILLIUM

“The pearls of our green forest sea,
The star-white flowers of triple leaf,
Which love around the brooks to be
Within the birch and maple shade.”

THIS is an “old country” in comparison with those farther west. At one time the word “Brunswick” was popular, and represented not only the land which gave birth to the ancestors of the Guelph family now on the throne, but had connection with Great Britain through the marriage of George III.’s eldest sister with Prince Ferdinand, the nephew of Frederick the Great, who was so proud of the youth’s exploits in war against the French that the warrior poet monarch of Prussia wrote verses in his nephew’s honour, esteeming him as one who would follow him in the command of German armies. Ferdinand was very popular in England, for he had commanded British troops in the field in the French campaigns, and was so much liked that the people in the theatres gave him more cheering than they gave to George III. and to Queen Charlotte. His end was sad but glorious, for he was severely wounded in the head after he

had succeeded to the duchy, and was leading troops against the enemy near Jena ; and his death gave place to his son, who was also killed in the field at Quatre Bras, the day before Waterloo. So New Brunswick had worthy godfathers, and the province, old as it is, has not yet had full justice done to it in the matter of settlement. It is famous for sport, as it can show moose, and it can provide any amount of fair salmon and trout fishing. It was in New Brunswick that a fishing dispute arose which decided that the rights to salmon fishing within the confines of the province belong to its local Government, and not to the Federal authority. The Ottawa Government had for many years let the fisheries as belonging to them by the Act of Union, but one fine morning a lessee of theirs, fishing on a New Brunswick river, was stopped by the owner of the river bank, who declared that the Federal lessee was poaching on his fishings. The dispute was taken to the Provincial Court of Justice, and they gave it against the Federal authorities. There was an appeal to the Canadian Supreme Court, with the same result, so that now it is necessary to hire fishing from the Frederickton and not from the Ottawa Government. Although some of the best rivers are taken for fishing salmon by societies from the United States and elsewhere, there are always plenty of streams where trout may be had in abundance. When the tide is coming in to the outlets of the rivers along all the Atlantic coasts from Labrador to Nova

Scotia the fish take the fly well, and he must be a glutton for sport who cannot be satisfied with the waters that remain open and unlet. Moose can be seen in many parts of the interior, for the Game Laws are favourable to the survival of deer. As the people of the whole province number little over 350,000, although the lands they rule over are two-thirds the size of England, there is room to spare for wild animals. In St. John vessels find a port free in winter from ice. At Chatham there is another, which is as good as any on the continent during all but the coldest of the winter months, and these are respectively 675 and 500 miles nearer to Liverpool than is New York. The harbour of St. Andrews is also open all winter. Emigrants should make a trial of New Brunswick, and they will not be disappointed. The rush to the prairies and to the nearer west have thrown into the market many a goodly farm and old, solidly built farmhouse. Boys easily find engagements with the farmers. An English lady has of late begun to send girls to homes in the province, where a good house can be had cheaply, and a kindly matron is detailed to receive those who may be sent, that they may be brought up to feel that they belong to their adopted country, and settle down in it when they have grown up. It is proudly said that 94 per cent. of the people are Canadian of the best races, largely Scottish. St. John has 50,000 people, Frederickton about 9000, Moncton about 12,000.

The late Mr. Duff Millar, as the agent for New Brunswick, published an excellent account of his province, from which we quote passages.

Emigration.—English tenant farmers, or young men brought up to farming, and who have a few hundred pounds available, could do worse than seek a home in this country. They will find with little trouble farms to suit their fancy and their fortune, the owners being satisfied to accept a certain proportion of cash and to leave the remainder of the purchase money as a charge, if desired, extending over several years. This applies to those who have even £100 or £200 up to £2000.

These farms come into the market from a variety of causes and reasons which it is not necessary to enumerate here, but the chief cause is the desire of the son of the old settler to better himself and to go farther west, where he hears of what he thinks are better chances of improving his condition, and, with his experience of rough life in the backwoods, this is no doubt true; but the Englishman or Scotchman from the old country will find it quite as big a step to transfer his energies to the—to him—equally novel surroundings of an old-established colony like New Brunswick.

To him, however, who has not got the desirable two or three hundred pounds at his disposal, I would say, leave the little he has at home in the savings bank, and on arrival hire himself out to a farmer, or take any work he can get for a year or so; he will certainly be able to earn a living, if not

to save something, and when he has gained some experience of the country, take up a free grant from the Government, or buy a farm partially cleared. Large areas of the finest land, capable of sustaining hundreds of thousands of farmers, are still obtainable without encroaching much on the large territories of forest, where the land is by no means bad, but not of the best quality for profitable farming.

Land is easily obtained, the conditions under which a lot of 100 acres can be secured by actual settlers are so easy as to be within the reach of any man who has health and energy. He may pay £4 in cash to aid in the construction of the roads and bridges in his locality, or he need pay no cash if he is willing to perform work on roads and bridges for three years to the value of £2 a year. Within two years after obtaining permission to occupy the land, he must build on it a house not less than 16 by 20 feet, and clear at least two acres.

The Government of New Brunswick a few years ago followed the example set by the Government of Ontario in encouraging farmers in different districts to produce butter and cheese by giving grants in aid of the erection of cheese and butter factories. There are in New Brunswick now some fifty-five cheese factories and fourteen butter factories in operation. The production of cheese last year (1898) amounted to nearly 850,000 lbs., valued at about £14,000, and the output of butter amounted to nearly £4000 in value. The establishment of these factories is a

very considerable boon to the farmers in country districts, giving them a ready market for all the milk that they can produce. There is still a large field for increase in the production of butter, as not more than one-half of the butter consumed in the province is made there, the rest being imported from Ontario and Quebec. With the contemplated increase in cheese and butter factories during the next few years, New Brunswick should produce all the butter required, and largely increase its exportation of cheese.

Education.—Education is of the *very best*. Schools are free and undenominational, and may be primary, advanced, high, superior, or grammar schools, according to the extent of the needs of the district they are provided for. The keystone of the system is the University of New Brunswick, founded in 1828, to which a certain number of students from each county are admitted without the usual fees, and which has the power to grant University degrees.

Shooting Season.—Moose, cariboo, and deer—from 15th September till 31st December.

Beaver, mink, otter, or sable—from 15th October till 31st March in succeeding year.

Wild geese, brant, or black duck—from 1st September till 1st December.

Snipe, woodcock—from 1st September till 1st December.

Partridge — from 15th September till 30th November.

Bonâ fide residents can kill at all times geese and brant for domestic use only.

Other game, including bear, lynx, wild-cat, fox, and smaller animals, can be killed throughout the year.

An authority states in *The Field*, 12th March 1898: "Moose do not get clear of the velvet much before the 5th September. Cariboo, as a rule, fourteen days later, say 20th September." He also states that he has not personally known moose to come well to the call before 25th September.

A shooting licence is required, costing for residents 2 dollars (8s.), and for non-residents 20 dollars (£4.) This forms a fund to assist in the enforcement of the Game Laws. Every non-resident applying for licences is required to give a bond for 100 dollars, with two sureties.

No person is allowed (under penalty) to kill in any one year or season more than two moose and three cariboo, or two deer, and no number of persons forming a hunting-party of three or more shall kill in any one season more than one moose, two cariboo, or two deer, for each member of the hunting-party, exclusive of guides. Penalty from 20 to 40 dollars for each animal in excess of the lawful number.

The killing of female moose is absolutely prohibited. Penalty 100 to 200 dollars.

Dogs are not allowed in the hunting of moose, cariboo, or deer.

The open seasons for angling in New Brunswick are: Salmon, 1st February to 15th August;

sea-trout, 1st April to 30th September; land-locked salmon, 1st May to 15th September; brook trout, lake trout, 1st May to 30th September. Bass may be taken by fly or bait (hook and line) all the year round.

A most useful sportsman's guide to the principal hunting-grounds of the province is issued by the Crown Land Department under the direction of the Hon. A. J. Dunn, the Surveyor-General, giving the fullest information as to where moose, cariboo, and deer, wild birds, salmon, and trout, are found, and how the sportsman can easily reach them. Information can be had on application to the Chief Game Commissioner, Mr. L. B. Knight, at St. John, N.B., or from the Fishery Commissioner, Mr. D. G. Smith, at Chatham, N.B., or by personal application to the Agent-General of the province in London.

Land Free Grants.—By the Crown Lands Settlement Act of 1899, the conditions on which free grants are made have been greatly simplified and improved, and the taking up of grants of 100 acres in the new districts where settlements are to be made should be greatly encouraged thereby, as will be seen by the following extracts from the new law:—

The Surveyor-General shall cause surveys to be made of the Crown Lands in the different counties of the province suitable for settlement, and shall cause public roads to be made through such lands, and shall have the same laid off in 100-acre lots on both sides of such roads.

Free grants for such lots may be made to such persons as may become actual settlers.

Such person shall be of the age of eighteen years or upwards.

(1) The allottee shall commence clearing and improving within one month after publication of the approval of his application, and shall within three months after improve on his lot to the value of 20 dollars.

(2) And shall within one year build a house thereon, fit for habitation, of not less dimensions than 16 feet by 20 feet, and reside thereon.

(3) And shall chop down and cultivate not less than 2 acres, by sowing or planting the same.

(4) Chop down, cultivate, and clear not less than 10 acres within three years, and shall each year actually and continuously cultivate all the land chopped down during such three years.

(5) Shall reside actually and continuously upon such land for the term of three years next succeeding such publication, and thence up to the issue of the grant, except that absence during the months of July, August, January, February, and March in any year shall not be held to be a cessation of such residence.

It is from the fishermen and dwellers on the coast of New Brunswick and the other maritime provinces that Canada can easily raise a large number of men who might be paid to drill on war-ships, or in sheds on model decks, and thus form a most valuable aid to the imperial navy.

CHAPTER IV

NOVA SCOTIA

LEGEND OF THE ROBIN

(A Canadian thrush with red breast, called by the early settlers the robin)

Here a youthful savage, keeping
Long his cruel fast, had prayed,
All his soul in yearning steeping,
Not for glory, chase, or maid ;

But to sing in joy and wander,
Following the summer hours,
Drinking where the streams meander,
Feasting with the leaves and flowers.

When his people saw him painting
Red his sides, and red his breast ;
Said : " His soul for fight is fainting ;
War-paint suits our hero best."

Then he vanished. Searchers calling,
Found him not, but where he lay
Saw a Robin, whose entralling
Carol seemed to them to say—

" I have left you ! I am going
Far from fast and winter pain,
When the laughing water's flowing,
Hither I will come again !"

Thus his ebon locks still wearing,
With the war-paint on his breast,
Still he comes our summer sharing,
And the lands he once possessed.

Finding in the white man's regions
Foemen none, but friends whose heart
Loves the Robin's happy legions,
Mourns when, silent, they depart !

It has been said by Sir Wilfrid Laurier that Canada has coal at both ends, east and west, and that the United States has coal only in the middle of the continent. The eastern end of the Dominion possesses in Nova Scotia an endless amount of coal. To be sure, it is of varying quality, and governments are too fond of taking the cheapest, and the language used by unfortunate captains whose employers use the poor in preference to the good coal, is so hot that it is enough to make melt a Nova Scotia steel wire! The seams in the great mines of Sydney, Cape Breton, present in vast quantities coal of every grade except the hard coal or anthracite, which must be sought in the Rocky Mountains, and not here. The harbour at Sydney is a splendid one, with deep water close up to the wharves, whence minerals and their products are shipped, and to which come the great cargoes of iron ore got from the iron mines of Wabana in Newfoundland, only 400 miles away. It was at one time proposed to bring the Spanish iron ore across the Atlantic, but Newfoundland has proved itself able to supply all the iron wanted. Thus King Coal has assembled around him on his black throne, set over the waters of Nova Scotia, his faithful subjects, smelting furnaces, iron and steel works of all kinds, and the kindred industries of manufactures of tar, of creosote, of light oils and naphtha and pitch. The

place where all these products of industry are to be had in quantities enough for all demands is well worth visiting, for the country has much beauty along Bras d'Or Lake, and along the rocky and indented coast-line. The coal mines have galleries more like those of an Italian palace than the narrow and low passages usually associated in men's minds with the name of a coal gallery. No man need stoop beneath the lofty roofs under which the coal is hewn out. Tall pillars are left to support the overlying rock, and these pillars are like the massive supports of some Norman church crypt in height. Here the coal is wrought that feeds the great furnaces above belonging to the Dominion Steel and Iron Company, who forge the steel rails for the national highways of Canada, and are ready to export to all the world. And the by-products are hardly less interesting than the first material of which they are the results. The coal is seen placed in the coke ovens, and the vapour passes over, which when cooled is tar, the remainder being coke ready to feed the furnaces for steel-making. The United States is still the principal market at present for creosote, as their engineers wisely see the necessity of economising the timber which is too lavishly used without any fortification of the fibre against wear and tear on Canadian lines and on fences. Creosote gives another fifteen years' life to wood used for any purpose where it is exposed to weather or decay from insects, frost, or heat, or rain. Most of the pitch produced goes to Europe.

CAPE BRETON ISLAND.

The Steel Company is making a new record at the blast furnaces and open hearths. Three blast furnaces have turned out over 900 tons a day. The open hearths produced nearly 14,000 tons in the first half of one month. One furnace produced recently in one day of twenty-four hours 450 tons. All departments of the plant are running at high pressure.

NOVA SCOTIA FOR BRITISHERS.

Encouraging Official Report.—Nova Scotia has resources and opportunities which give that province many advantages, of which British emigrants are taking advantage. We read in the report of Mr. Arthur S. Barnstead, the Secretary of Industries and Immigration, that during the past year 4919 persons settled in that country. Of this number Great Britain furnished 1753. A large number of the new-comers were accustomed to farming, having been farmers, ploughmen, dairy-men, or gardeners. Some of the men had had experience in Ontario or the north-west. As to capital, there were those who had little but their muscle, while others could command sums that ranged from £1000 to £5000.

All through Nova Scotia there are for sale fruit farms, dairy farms, sheep farms, and "general" farms, partly tilled and needing more capital, or in the hands of old people who wish to retire. Prices range from £200 to £2000. Descriptions of these,

with the values attached, are kept on file in the office of the Agent-General in London, 57A Pall Mall, and in the office of the Secretary of Industries and Immigration at Halifax, and copies will be sent anywhere upon request. Two hand-books describing the opportunities in farming, fruit-growing, market-gardening, mining, fishing, and manufacturing are receiving a wide circulation.

The best judges of a country are the intelligent settlers who have been living therein for some time. Several pages of Mr. Barnstead's report are devoted to interviews with and letters from settlers in Nova Scotia, who detail various methods by which success has been achieved. The majority of the settlers aver that their prospects equal, and in some cases surpass, the hopes they entertained before going to Nova Scotia. All unite in praising the climate, and in advising new-comers to work for one or two seasons with a practical farmer before purchasing a property. The third-class fare from Liverpool to Halifax is only £6, and the new-comer upon arriving at Halifax is, if a suitable person, placed in a situation through the Employment Bureau established in Mr. Barnstead's office.

The report of the Agent-General in London, Mr. John Howard, deals principally with the fruit exhibits from the province at the London shows. Of the 29 medals awarded to Canada, Nova Scotia captured 16, including the gold medal, the highest award. Over 600,000 barrels of apples were exported from the province during 1908.

The opportunities that exist in Nova Scotia for the farmer with some capital are clearly manifest from this report. One settler says: "In 1898 I bought a farm at Waterville, King's County. It was vacant for a year before we bought, and the house had been burned down. The property comprised 280 acres of run-out land, and the buildings were in great need of repair. We found many conditions very different out here, but we did not find it difficult to fall in line with these. My success and prospects have equalled the hopes I had before coming here. I have trebled the value of my farm by constant work, and by raising colts and other classes of live stock, nursery stock and small fruits of all kinds, as well as beans and peas. I have been successful in keeping bees and in developing an orchard. The climate of this country is healthful. I would advise any farmer who has at least £200 to come out here. There are many opportunities, the rates and taxes are lower, and the capital required to *rent* a farm in England is about enough to *buy* a farm in Nova Scotia."

A Sydney, Cape Breton, "mail item" states that the Dominion Iron and Steel Company is executing an order from the Great Northern Railway Company, of England, for 5000 tons of steel rails. The rails are of standard lengths and 85 lbs. weight. This is the first order the company have received from an English firm. New rolls have had to be made to fill this order, as specifications for contract call for bullhead rails, widely different from the ordinary

flange in use in Canada. The new rail is patterned like an ordinary dumb-bell, so that when the top becomes used up, the rail may be reversed on the sleepers.

Steel Output in 1908.—According to unpublished returns gathered by *Hardware and Metal* from the six large producing corporations in Canada, the total production of pig iron in Canada for 1908 was 556,044 tons, which compares very favourably, considering conditions, with the amount returned for 1907, which was 581,146, a decrease of about 25,000 tons. Of this total for last year basic comprised 155,734 tons, foundry 170,388, and Bessemer 155,734. Comparing the figures for the first and second half of the year, the totals were 281,329 tons, against 274,715, a decrease for the latter term of 6614 tons.

The returns from eight companies making steel showed an output of ingots, &c., of 558,763, compared with 706,982 in 1907, a decrease of 148,219. The total output of finished steel, comprising rails, bar steel, railroad spikes, rods, plates, &c., was 538,842 tons. The first half of the year produced 247,803 tons, and the second half 291,039, an increase for the second term of 43,236 tons. The total tonnage of rails amounted to 268,439; blooms to 153,541; finished rolled iron and steel, 45,411; and castings, 9,676 tons.

A newly issued Provincial Government report says that coal is still the chief mineral production. The output for the year ending September 30,

1908, was 6,299,282 tons, an increase of 568,622 tons over 1907. Of the total the Dominion Coal Company, employing 8808 men, mined no less than 3,816,958 tons. With the economic relations of Canada and the United States so much under discussion at present, it is interesting to note that practically 500,000 tons were exported from Nova Scotia to the United States. The province's biggest customer was Quebec, with a consumption of over 2,000,000 tons, the home consumption amounting to slightly under the 2,000,000 mark.

Another interesting feature is the bonuses paid to the Dominion Iron and Steel Company, Limited, and to the smaller manufacturing firms. The bonuses are granted on the coal consumed in the manufacture of iron and steel, and the company named received from October 26, 1907, to April 18, 1908, a total sum of \$51,098. The Nova Scotia Steel and Coal Company, Limited, received \$12,684. The coal-mining industry is responsible for the employment of 18,460 men, nearly one-half being connected with the large collieries of the Dominion Coal Company. The royalty on coal accruing to the Nova Scotian Government amounted for the year to \$616,933, a substantial addition to the provincial revenue. Gold-mining is apparently not in a flourishing condition in Nova Scotia at present. In 1898 the production had risen to 31,104 ozs., which at \$19 per ounce, amounted in value to \$570,976. In 1908 the production had declined to 11,811 ozs., valued at \$224,409.

The gold royalty amounted to \$2319, an infinitesimal sum in comparison with that on coal. The latter is obviously Nova Scotia's main source of mineral wealth, and an extremely useful one it is to a province ambitious of becoming a manufacturing centre.

The amount of the tonnage possessed by Nova Scotia and the other maritime provinces of Canada is most remarkable, the total amount being 670,000 tons; but this estimate covers all floating vessels. There is 230,000 tons in steamers, and over 25,000 tons in ships.

This gives the province a fine seaboard population of excellent sailors, who would be glad to take their part in imperial duties, and be trained to heavy guns and men-of-war duties for some term in every year. The harbour of Halifax is magnificent. I have entered it at all times of the severest storm and in hardest winter. It is never frozen, and has no excessive tide, and is easily defended from the land side. It may be that the attractions of all that is new may take too many men and families away to the west, but they who make up their minds to settle in Nova Scotia will never regret it. In touch at all times with Europe, they find themselves in this delightful country with all the experience of long-settled communities to guide them in their practice of farming and orcharding, so that their calculations may be based on the surest experience. The lands lying around the head of the Bay of Fundy are singularly rich and beautiful. The

apple orchards cannot be beaten for beauty, and the red colour of the sands of Fundy show what the land beneath the rich green meadows and orchards is—how full of proved promise for the industrious agriculturist. People on landing at Halifax are inclined to rush along at once to see the unsettled countries. But they would do well to pause and see first what is under their eyes when they leave the ship, and examine carefully for the benefit of themselves and their friends at home, whom they wish to instruct and help, the great opportunities for happy enjoyment offered by an old farm in Nova Scotia. Many parts of this country are not like its old namesake in Europe, and are not “stern and wild,” but have already given inspiration to a “poetic child” in having given Longfellow the material for his lovely poem on the fate of the French Acadian village at Grand Pré, “the great meadow,” as the French emigrants called the district around Annapolis. To Annapolis I invite any wanderer from the old country, for he will there receive as pleasant an impression on entering the Dominion as ever did the Roman treading on the rich tessellated pavement that called out to him “Salve” as he entered into the luxurious abodes of Neapolis or of Rome.

CHAPTER V

BRITISH COLUMBIA

“Where the vine maple fringed the dark forest with flame,
Strewn o'er the sombre walls of green,
In saffron or in crimson sheen.
How lovely those gardens of autumn, where rolled
In smoke and in fire the red lava of old !
From the waters of azure, the wells of the floods,
From the rush of great rivers through canyons and woods,
From the snows everlasting, to valleys asleep,
Under meadows and orchards, that lead to the Deep ;
I came to the portals wide fronting the west,
Where Canada stands with her gems on her breast,
Her land of Delight and of Fable I found,
Where precious ores gleam above Islet and Sound,
And the toil of mankind is scarce heard in the breeze
That whispers in peace through the silence of seas.”

THERE are rich assets in the arable and pastoral lands of British Columbia. The extent of the fertile lands may be placed at 1,000,000 acres, but this will be found far below the actual quantity capable of cultivation when the country has been thoroughly explored. West of the Coast Range are tracts of rich, arable lands, notably the lower Fraser Valley, Westminster District, Vancouver Island, and adjacent islands in the Gulf of Georgia. These are fairly well settled, but much of the land is still wild and untilled. North of the main line of the Canadian Pacific, on the

Pacific slope, are $6\frac{1}{2}$ million acres of agricultural and grazing lands. There is a splendid market for every product of the farm and orchard. Southern British Columbia is the finest fruit country on the continent, producing fruit in abundance and of superior quality. In 1891 the total orchard area was 6431 acres; in 1901 it had only increased to 7430 acres, but between that and 1904 the total was raised to 13,430, and in 1905 to 29,000 acres.

British Columbia fruit exhibited in England and Scotland carried off the Royal Horticultural Society's gold medal in 1905, and again in 1906, in addition to securing a gold medal at Edinburgh and many prizes at provincial shows.

LORD GREY, Governor-General of Canada, says of British Columbia: "Fruit-growing in your province has acquired the distinction of being a beautiful art as well as a most profitable industry. After a maximum wait of five years, I understand the settler may look forward with reasonable certainty to a net income of from \$100 to \$150 per acre, after all expenses of cultivation have been paid.

"Gentlemen, here is a state of things which appears to offer the opportunity of living under such ideal conditions as struggling humanity has only succeeded in reaching in one or two of the most favoured spots on earth. There are thousands of families living in England to-day, families of refinement, culture, and distinction, families such

as you would welcome among you with both arms, who would be only too glad to come out and occupy a log hut on five acres of pear or apple orchard in full bearing, if they could do so at a reasonable cost."

British Columbia is the greatest in size and the most mountainous of all the provinces. It runs 760 miles from north to south, and 470 miles from east to west. It contains 236,922,177 acres of land, of which only 10,000,000 are arable. It is estimated that fully 10 per cent. of the remainder is suitable for cattle ranching and fruit-farming. All kinds of crops are grown, but the backbone of agriculture is dairying, particularly in the rich delta lands, and fruit-growing among the mountains of the interior.

Statistics may tell much if you have the patience to read them, but no statistics can give any idea of the grandeur, beauty, variety, and charm of the land, more majestic than Switzerland, more fertile than Italy, more picturesque in its island scenery than the Hebrides, more glorious in its forests than any of the Old-World countries. I used to say it was a mixture of Scotland and heaven, and I have seen nothing since 1883 to qualify the description.

Who that has seen the view from Victoria, looking across the Straits of St. Juan de Fuca, three leagues of calm water reflecting the 10,000 feet high mountains of the Olympian Range, and the peerless Mount Baker, 11,000 feet in height,

can forget the impression made on the mind by the vastness of the distant prospect, enhanced by the interest of the nearer islands floating off a shore, tawny or green with fern or fir, and sloping down to the clear waters of the Pacific Ocean?

Or who has threaded the marvellous archipelagos along the mainland to the north, and seen the rivers crammed with salmon, rising from gorges beside which those of Norway are mere gashes in rocky hills, but has been filled with the joy that only comes when nature seems to have gathered all she could of grandeur and of loveliness to place all at his service, with no man to say him nay, if he wishes to shoot, or to fish, or to paint, to explore or to purchase as his own some charming promontory, or some forest glade or natural meadow in secluded bay or tempting islet? And then, if he goes up country, and, emerging from canyon and forest, finds open prairies and fertile valleys, he can raise fruits he is accustomed to at home, but here finds them yielding far greater rewards for his industry, and trees and bushes and plants heavy laden with such fruit as he has only seen before in the most favoured parts of southern England or of France? Well may its Government say that its promise in minerals, timber, and fertility of soil is greater than that of any other country of like area in the known world. Active development of its great natural resources has only been in

progress for about ten years, but the results so far obtained fully justify this statement, as all that has been accomplished only seems to illustrate the illimitable possibilities of the future. Gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc, iron, and coal are distributed through its length and breadth, magnificent timber in great variety is found in every section, the valleys produce the finest fruits, vegetables, grains, and grasses, and its thousand hills afford nutritious fodder for cattle, horses, and sheep.

The portions of Southern British Columbia in which the most progress has been made (apart from the old settled districts in the Fraser River Valley and on Vancouver Island), and which are attracting the widespread attention of home-seekers, are Kootenay (east and west), Boundary and Okanagan Districts.

THE KOOTENAYS.

East Kootenay forms the south-eastern portion of British Columbia, and is famed for the immense coal measures through which the Crow's Nest Railway runs for many miles both in Alberta and British Columbia. These mines are estimated to be capable of yielding 10,000,000 tons of coal a year for 7000 years. Several mining companies are developing properties, and those that have reached the producing stage are turning out close to 1,000,000 tons annually. There are also extensive deposits of petroleum.

THE BOUNDARY.

West of the Kootenays lies the Boundary country, which forms the extreme southern part of Yale District. It is about forty miles from east to west, and extends for fifty miles north from the international boundary. The character of the district, while varied, is not very different from that of other parts of the great interior plateau of British Columbia, save that the highest elevations seldom exceed 5000 feet. Most of the hills are wooded to their summits, with open slopes, facing the south, east, and west, plentifully carpeted with bunch grass, a natural beef producer, while the valleys offer excellent openings for farming and fruit-growing, the higher benches requiring irrigation. The climate is mild and healthful, presenting no extremes of heat or cold. The snowfall in the valleys is light, and spring opens early. The winter is confined to eight to ten weeks of frosty weather, the mercury occasionally falling below zero, but the cold is not extreme nor protracted. The summers, like those of the Kootenays, are warm without being oppressive, and the nights are always cool. The atmosphere is clear, the prevailing condition being bright sunshine both winter and summer, and the air is crisp, dry, and bracing. The average rainfall is 10.8 inches, and snowfall 27 inches, which would represent 7 to 12 inches on the level.

Between Lower Arrow Lake, its eastern boundary, and the divide between the Kettle River

Valley and Okanagan Lake, the Boundary possesses many fertile valleys and wide stretches of rolling prairie, all more or less wooded. The beautiful Kettle River Valley includes from 40,000 to 50,000 acres of farming lands, a rich black loam averaging 18 inches, with a sandy clay subsoil.

OKANAGAN DISTRICT.

As Okanagan Lake is approached the climate is much milder and drier, and from Vernon southward irrigation is necessary on all the bench lands. Here luxuriant vegetation is wholly confined to the borders of the lakes and watercourses, while the higher benches and round-topped hills present the characteristic semi-barren appearance of this class of pasture land. Appearances are deceptive in this case, however, for those bare hillsides and benches are transformed into fruitful fields and orchards by the application of irrigation. The country on the west side of Okanagan Lake is generally hilly and broken by ravines formed by watercourses from the higher elevations in the background. These watercourses will furnish sufficient water for irrigation if a system of storing it is provided.

VANCOUVER ISLAND

is separated from the British Columbia mainland by the Gulf of Georgia and the Straits of Haro and Juan de Fuca, and bears a close resemblance to Great Britain in its geographical position as well as

in climate and certain natural characteristics. The climate, mild and moist as in England, is warmer and brighter, with less average rainfall, the summers being invariably dry, with continuous sunshine, while the winters are much less foggy, with frequent spells of crisp, bright weather. Holly, ivy, broom, gorse, box, heather, privet, and other shrubs grow in perfection, and all the favourite English flowers are seen in the fields and gardens. Wall-flowers, primroses, and violets bloom the year round, and in the early summer the whole country is transformed into a vast rose garden, wild and cultivated varieties flourishing everywhere. The climate and the flowers are, however, far from being the most important natural assets of this favoured region. Its timber is the finest in the world and of great extent; its coal measures are practically inexhaustible; the deposits of other minerals—iron, copper, gold, and silver—are vast and but slightly developed; its fisheries rival those of the Atlantic, and its soil is of wonderful fertility, capable of producing every grain, fruit, root, and vegetable grown in the temperate zone.

The coast of Vancouver Island is deeply indented with bays and arms of the sea, forming numerous deep-water harbours, providing good shipping facilities for the mines, lumber mills, and other industries, and numerous streams and lakes afford access to the interior. The country on the southern and eastern coast is comparatively level, while the interior is broken by mountains and heavily wooded

valleys. The greater part of the agricultural land is covered with big trees and thick underbrush, but the quality of the soil will well repay clearing, as wherever the timber has been removed and the soil cultivated, the results are highly satisfactory. Along the eastern coast are several areas of open land occupied by successful farmers, fruit growers, dairy-men, and poultry raisers. Wheat is not generally grown, as mixed farming is found to be more profitable. Apples, pears, plums, cherries, prunes, and all kinds of small fruits grow luxuriantly, and peaches, nectarines, apricots, grapes, almonds, filberts, and other nuts are produced with a little extra care and attention. Fig trees, found growing wild near Nanaimo, encourage the belief that this fruit can be successfully cultivated. Tomatoes, melons, and other tender vegetables ripen well and give big returns. Such is the fertility of the soil that a small patch of from 10 to 20 acres well cultivated will produce a handsome profit after supplying a comfortable living for an average-sized family.

Entering the province by the Crow's Nest Pass Railway, which crosses the Rocky Mountains through the Crow's Nest Pass, one descends into the magnificent Kootenay Valley, watered by the Kootenay and Elk Rivers and several smaller streams. The scenery along this route and in the valley is indescribably picturesque. Sheltered to the north and east by the Rocky Mountains, and open to the south and west, the climate is exceptionally mild and healthful. The bottom lands will produce all kinds

of crops in perfection, but the uplands require irrigation, which is easily applied from the Elk River and other streams. Fruit trees planted late in the fall stand the winter and thrive (a severe test for nursery stock) and wherever orchards have been established they are doing well. Conditions vary somewhat with locality everywhere, more especially in a mountainous country, but speaking generally of this district, there is no fairer valley in British Columbia, and none better fitted for general farming, fruit-growing, dairying, and cattle-raising. From Kootenay Landing, on the west, to the Alberta boundary on the east, the country is more or less all suited to agriculture, portions of it are exceedingly fertile, while the rest can be made equally rich by irrigation. Much of the land is open and rolling, a beautiful park-like region, ideal for stock-raising, a profitable industry, as there is a good home market for horses, cattle, sheep, and hogs.

COLUMBIA VALLEY.

Going northward from the Crow's Nest branch of the Canadian Pacific Railway, the Columbia Valley is entered at Canal Flats. The scenic beauties and fertility of this magnificent valley baffle description. Dominated on the east by the Rocky and on the west by the Selkirk Mountains, the diversity and grandeur of scene from every point of view is bewildering. Grains, vegetables, and fruits flourish, and cattle and sheep thrive

on the nutritious bunch grass which covers the benches and hillsides. The snowfall is so light that the live stock winter out, and winter feeding is the exception.

The lands in the Kootenay and Columbia Valleys from Golden, south to Tobacco Plains, on the border of the United States, are mostly in the hands of the Government and the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, and are nearly all open to settlement by pre-emption or by purchase at low prices, and on easy terms of payment.

A Land of Plenty.—As an illustration of the fertility of the soil and mildness of climate, it may be mentioned that strawberries, raspberries, currants, and gooseberries are indigenous, growing in profusion in the hills and bench lands. Cultivated strawberries, seven to the pound, are not uncommon near Cranbrook, where this fruit retails at 25 cents per pound. Apples, pears, plums, damsons, prunes, cherries, and all the small fruits grow to perfection.

The primary object of the first settlers was gold, and the fortunate ones succeeded in winning about \$30,000,000 in the period between 1858 and 1868, but the needs of the miners encouraged ventures in other industries, and in due course British Columbia's timber and fisheries came to be regarded as nearly equal in importance with her gold mines. During the halcyon days of placer mining agriculture was ignored—for who would waste energy in planting potatoes in soil that produced crops of nuggets?—but when the golden harvests became lighter and

the work of mining harder, many miners turned to farming, some from necessity, others for congenial employment. Cultivated fields and cattle ranches slowly began to appear in the beautiful valleys, on the lake fronts, and river banks. Few of these early cultivators took their new occupation seriously—to most of them it was a stop-gap to permit the prosecution of their real work of prospecting, while to others it was little else than a pastime. The minority, practical farmers who were in earnest, made money, and to-day their fine residences, embowered in flowers and shrubberies, surrounded by well-tilled fields and fruitful orchards, are the envy, as well as the incentive, of every new settler. The industry and intelligent efforts of these pioneer farmers demonstrated the capabilities of the soil of British Columbia for producing in perfection every cereal, fruit, and vegetable which can be grown in the temperate zone.

A. BRYAN WILLIAMS (Provincial Game Warden).

Very few people actually realise what a splendid game country British Columbia is, and that from year's end to year's end either gun, rifle, or rod can be used, so that a man who is fond of both fishing and shooting can always find something to tax his skill. Of course the amount of success met with will, to a certain extent, depend on the man himself; and even with the best of men there will be blank days, but the average for the whole

year round will be found to compare favourably with the best countries in the world. Where else could you go and find such a variety of game for both rifle and gun, combined with such trout and salmon fishing? It would take a good-sized book to describe each branch of the sport to be obtained, and the best places to go to obtain it. I will, however, give an idea of how an all-round sportsman with a year to spare can occupy his time in this country.

It does not matter at what time of the year you come, but presuming you are going to start on big game, it would be as well to be here early in August. This would enable you to make your preparations and get into the Cassiar country by the Hudson Bay Company's boat, which generally leaves Wrangel between the 10th and 25th of August. Cassiar is undoubtedly the best game district that is at all easy of access in the province. You will not get any wapiti or deer there, but if you can do a good day's walk, and are even a moderate shot, I think you could hardly fail to get good specimens of Stone's mountain sheep, goat, cariboo, and probably a moose. You could easily get black bear and also grizzly if you hunted them, but I should not advise your doing so at that season of the year, as the skins are not in their prime, and you can hunt bear in the spring, when there is no other kind of big game in season.

With any sort of luck you should reach the heart of the hunting-grounds almost as soon as the

season opens. When you are there, go for the sheep first of all; you are allowed to kill three animals, but I should advise your only killing two, as you might have an opportunity later on of getting a head of the *ovis montana*, or common big-horn. Stick to the sheep till you have got all you want, then go for the goats; these animals are very easily got, and should not take up much of your time. Then move off to the cariboo grounds, which, with reasonable luck, should be reached by the end of the month at the latest. Cariboo and moose have not entirely freed their horns of velvet, and are in their prime. Unless you are very particular about getting very fine heads, you should have got specimens of cariboo by the end of the first week in October. Then put in a good ten days after moose.

By this time it would be only reasonable to expect that you would have bagged 2 sheep, 2 goats, 2 cariboo, and most probably a moose. The chances are you would also have run across a bear or two while travelling.

Parties aggregating twenty-one men hunted in Cassiar in 1906, and killed: 17 moose, 63 sheep, 29 cariboo, 17 goats, 6 grizzly bears, 11 black bears, and several foxes, including 1 black and 1 cross fox—an average of nearly 7 head of big game to each gun.

In 1907 twenty-six men hunted in Cassiar. Of these, two returned through ill-health, and the heads of a third were not counted; the remaining

twenty-four killed the following total head of game:—Moose, 18; cariboo, 62; sheep, 55; goats, 35; grizzly bear, 6; and black bear, 6—an average of $7\frac{1}{2}$ head to each gun. This total includes a $65\frac{1}{2}$ -inch moose, a $62\frac{1}{2}$ -inch moose, and a 55-inch moose, the latter a perfect beauty. The best cariboo were a 41-pointer, a 39-pointer, and a 37-pointer.

The beginning of November should find you back at Wrangel, and you may, or may not, get a moose. If you have not, and very much desire one, you might go on farther north to Skagway, and from there on to Atlin, where you would find an excellent country to hunt in, and should get your moose, and very likely a bear or two also.

If you do not go north after you get back to Wrangel, take the first boat back to Victoria or Vancouver, and from there go by way of the Canadian Pacific Railway to Lytton; thence take the stage to Lillooet, and be off up Bridge River. You will not have a great deal of time to spare, but should manage to get in ten days' hunting, and in that time you ought to have no difficulty in getting a common big-horn and some good heads of mule deer.

These are the "merest bones of the body" of what may be quoted in regard to the attractions of British Columbia. It is the finest country now accessible for pleasant living, and they who like to have a hot winter have only to ship themselves for San Francisco and the southern rest places in California.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

For men who wish to have pleasant homesteads among a pleasant people, who have largely Scottish blood in their veins, this island offers many temptations for settlement. It is one of the coastal ports of Canada, whose seamen desire to help the imperial navy by serving on a warship for pay for a term.

It is said that the sheep industry in Canada is showing its greatest advancement in the maritime provinces. This is said to be true, not only in numbers but in quality. Prince Edward Island, though the numbers have gone down from 125,546 in 1901 to 110,986 in 1907, still heads the other provinces by having an average of $9\frac{1}{3}$ sheep per 100 acres of occupied land, while the annual exhibition at Charlottetown holds the third place in Canadian fairs for numbers and quality of sheep, only Toronto and London in Ontario being considered superior.

A considerable number of lambs from the maritime provinces are exported to Boston or New York, where they are held in high favour, and bring prices sufficient to leave profit after paying duty. On an average, about 5 to $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents per lb. is got, live weight, home.

CHAPTER VI

MANITOBA

“ Manitoba lay where the sunflowers blow,
And sang to the chime of the Red River's flow :
‘ I am child of the Spirit whom all men own ;
My prairie no longer is green and lone,
For the hosts of the settler have ringed me round,
And his Bride am I with the harvest crowned.’ ”

THIS account of a recent boys' review, given by the *Winnipeg Tribune*, shows how the prairie provinces are educating their boys to defend their country and keep their muscles in training :—

“ Few, if any, more inspiring sights have been witnessed in Winnipeg than the annual military display last night by the boys of the public schools. The citizen who could sit unmoved as the mass of young humanity marched past, the tread of over two thousand feet silenced by the plaudits and huzzas of fifteen thousand spectators, might be said to be sadly lacking in appreciation of the spirit of Young Canada, and the advantages enjoyed to-day by the modern generation over the youth of days gone by.

“ Such displays are not inculcating in the boys a love of war, no more than the cultivation of muscle

in a gymnasium will train them to be a menace to their fellows. Incidentally the boys are taught military drill, and it is wholesome drill; they are taught to handle a rifle, and that is not useless. The great thing to be emphasised is discipline, respect for those in command, obedience without hesitancy, and decent personal appearance.

“The idea of some people, that when a boy is subjected to military training he at once imbibes a desire to get out and kill some foreign foe, is exaggerated, and is not founded on knowledge. Canada is not going to breed fire-eating men. We have nobody to fight within thousands of miles. War with the United States is just about as impossible as war between Manitoba and Saskatchewan. Rulers might quarrel. The people on either side would never fight. We may be called on occasionally to give the Old Land a hand. Heretofore that has been a volunteer service. It will continue to be a volunteer service, and Britain may always rely upon her sons and daughters over the seas doing not only their share, but a surfeit of their share, if the call should ever come.

“The crowd resembled one that you would see at a big college football game. There were flags and colours everywhere, and from all parts of the field you could hear the class yells being chanted to encourage the boys in their drill. It was a magnificent sight, and as the thirteen hundred cadets swung around the field headed by their bands, the twenty thousand spectators arose *en*

masse and cheered continuously until the last company had passed by the reviewing point.

“Nor were the spectators the only ones that were pleased. Colonel Steele, with the memories of a dozen battles, was pleased, and voiced his appreciation of the boys’ work in no uncertain tones. ‘Splendid! splendid!’ he remarked, as the boys swung past him in review.

“Colonel Steele was inspecting officer, his staff consisting of Captain Ketchen, Captain Homer Dixon, Captain Conger, Major Vaux, and Major Macdonell. Sir Daniel and Lady McMillan were present, occupying a post of honour in the grand stand with the members of the School Board and Mayor Evans.

“This means a great deal to the Empire. Canada intends to have, and already has in a great measure, a population which is being steadily trained to know how to use a rifle, and this national militia is led by officers who have received a scientific training. This is not ‘militarism’ in the sense used by lovers of all men but their countrymen, but the national determination to love their own land and to keep it for themselves, because they prize its freedom, and know how to use it for peace and order.

“The review started with battalion work, the entire force moving with the precision of one company. When the battalion formed into squares to receive cavalry, the movement was exceedingly fine, and the cheering lasted for several minutes.

Then came company drill, and as the boy captains put their men through the drills the big crowd roared out its appreciation in a thunderous manner. There was keen rivalry between the different companies, each trying to outdo the other. The skirmishing was also very popular with the crowd, and all the companies seemed to be well drilled in this.

“March Past.—The review concluded with a march past, the Kilties leading the way, playing ‘Highland Laddie.’

“Colonel Steele’s concluding comment on the drill was: ‘The city of Winnipeg should be proud of her boy soldiers, and the excellent showing they made is a credit to all concerned. I wish we had more of them in the country; if we had, we need not be afraid of anything.’

“An Immense Crowd.—Winnipeg has perhaps never witnessed a larger crowd than that which gathered at Happyland last night, but despite its size it was one of the most orderly crowds imaginable, and the police and soldiers had little or no difficulty in keeping it in control. The people were all around the field, and were packed almost solid back to the fence. The fence was a good point of vantage, and furnished accommodation for several hundreds.

“There was hardly a person at the review that did not have some members of their family in the little army, and they were kept busy all night pointing them out to their friends. One proud

father was heard to explain that he had 'four Mulveys.'

"When the review concluded there was a wild scramble for the gates, but there was no crowding, and no accidents were reported.

"Almost every school child in the city was in the throng last night, and as the different schools were all together they were able to make themselves heard. The different school colours were also greatly in evidence, and there were some warm battles on the side lines for possession of the colours.

"It was a gala day for the little soldiers, and they could be seen on the street all day and far into the night. They were all proud of their uniforms, and of the fact that they belonged to such a fine regiment."

PRAIRIE PROVINCES.

Mr. OBED SMITH.—"Over 100 new town sites on railway lines were put on the market last year. These places appear as a speck on the bald prairie, and with almost magical rapidity, some of them at least, become centres of distribution and prosperous villages, filling the needs of the settlers in the surrounding districts. Railway construction is proceeding rapidly, but even 1000 miles a year does not keep pace with settlement. In the prairie provinces free homesteads of 160 acres are given by the Government to every male over eighteen years of age, British or Canadian born, or

an alien who, after three years' probation, swears allegiance to the British Crown. During 1908 the homesteads and pre-emptions taken up, if packed close together in a space 20 miles wide, allowing only for intervening railway sections, like squares on a chess-board, would make a strip of 1000 miles. I have suggested 20 miles in width, so that no farmer would be more than 10 miles from a railway running in the centre."

Boys (Manitoba).

"MORDEN, MAN.

"DEAR MR. OWEN,—Well, I must tell you all about my situations. First, I worked for a bachelor for a year, who taught me to cook. Then I went to a neighbour and worked for him for four years, and when my time was up I stayed another year for \$140. Then I went up west, where my chum, Percy Gregg, is now. I did not like it there. I returned back on the farm for another year for \$185. I like the country fine. It can't be beat. If you can't find anything to do, boys, come to Canada. You will find lots on the farm. I am working for Mr. Thos. Ball, the same old boss. I came out in 1901, and intend to stay in Canada.—Your sincere friend,
SIDNEY ROWE (20)."

"FAIRHALL, MAN.

"DEAR MR. OWEN,—Just a few lines to you, hoping you are quite well, as it leaves me at present.

I think this is a nice country for those who want to work. I think I have the best home in Manitoba. They are just like father and mother to me. They are good church members. I think, if I have luck, I shall rent or take up a homestead next year. I got a good job as soon as I arrived out here for \$2.50 a day. I shall stay here now.—Your ever-loving friend,
FRED CURTIS (18)."

Happily the British investor has got far beyond the stage of hopeless ignorance of Canadian conditions which characterised Mr. Labouchere's journal *Truth* in the 'eighties, when it declared that the Canadian Pacific was "never likely to yield a single red cent of interest on the money sunk in it"—the railway whose shares now stand at over 170, and whose traffic requires 45,418 freight cars, 1819 passenger cars, and 1412 locomotives. The Dominion, which *Truth* then declared to be "a fraud all through," and "destined to bust up like any other fraud," is now the symbol of political and commercial advancement, and in no part of the world will British money find more lucrative employment. As yet the British investor has for the most part confined his attention to federal, provincial, municipal, and railway bonds. Mr. Obed Smith begs his attention to other openings, such as the purchase of unimproved prairie lands for settlement purposes, which "have given the American many million dollars of profit," loan company securities based on a safe cash value whether

listed on the market here or not, and private investments in mortgages or real estate. He also names many incipient Canadian industries awaiting further development by capital. In water-powers and industrials alone something like 200 million dollars of United States money is already invested, but there are plenty of places left for the enterprising Britisher who will take the pains to investigate for himself. If he will apply in Canada something of the caution he would exercise in any British investment he can reap an infinitely richer reward.

And as with money, so with men. Mr. Obed Smith tells us that during the last seven years 920,220 persons left British shores for the United States, while 519,845 left for Canada in the same period. And if we turn to the last report of the Canadian Minister of the Interior we find that of the Canadian immigration of 1907, totalling 222,702, no fewer than 119,736 were non-British people, while in 1908 the non-British proportion was 142,287 out of a total of 262,469. The homestead entries tell the same tale of the preponderance of non-British settlement in some of the best parts of the west. Excellent settlers a large number of these non-British immigrants undoubtedly are, especially the 60,000 entering Canada from the Western States in each year; but they are non-British all the same, and in the opinion of most Canadians the highest national aims of the Dominion are only to be attained by a preservation of the traditions which set her apart from the rest of the North American

continent. Mr. George E. Foster was justified in declaring recently in New York that he would "rather undertake to find a needle in a haystack than an annexationist in Canada," but none the less must it be the desire of Canadian as of British statesmen to replenish Canadian acres with men and women of sound British stock.

The "staff of life" is the chief product of the Manitoban farm. Canadians are sometimes reproved for boasting, and exaggeration is certainly always bad; but they have at any rate some excuse in the almost incalculable wealth of their country's natural resources. If anything could justify boasting, it would be the fact that the great plains of Canada produce wheat of the very finest quality yet known in the world, and are capable of producing it in quantities compared to which the present yield will seem a mere handful. According to Dr. Saunders, the head of the Dominion Government's experimental farm system, and an authority second to none, if only one-fourth of the suitable land in Manitoba and the southern parts of the two other prairie provinces were annually under wheat, the yield would be more than 812,000,000 bushels, reckoned at the Manitoba average of 19 bushels per acre. This, he points out, would not only feed a population of 30,000,000 in Canada itself (at present there are only about 7,000,000), but would "meet the present requirements of Great Britain three times over."

With Manitoba, the first of the prairie provinces, begins the great central plain of the north-west,

where to many, who in the last forty years have gone in search of a good home and reasonable affluence, there has not only been found the "land of promise" but the land of reality. Wheat-growing is the branch of agriculture predominant in the province, for which the rich alluvial loam found in many parts, accompanied with a full share of summer sun, is specially adapted. Manitoba, however, now exports cattle to the ranches in the west, and across the line to the United States, and sends large quantities of beef to the eastern markets. An enumeration of the total cattle owned in 1908 showed an increase of about 52 per cent. in the preceding seven years, probably due to the large influx of new settlers, whose first wants would include milk, butter, and cheese, and to a desire on the part of many older settlers to enlarge the scope of their operations, so as to include a certain amount of stock-keeping. The dry, sunny summer, which is so good for the grain-grower, is not altogether in favour of the stock-raiser on the barer regions; but where a certain amount of shelter from the sun is obtained, naturally or otherwise, and where water can be procured, cattle-raising should be, and we were informed was, quite a profitable adjunct to the prevailing grain-growing. It would appear, however, that it would, for a long time, probably always, be in a secondary position. There are many parts of the world with a greater, or at least a more evenly divided, rainfall, and milder winters, where cattle can be raised under more favourable

conditions than on the plains of Manitoba. All the same, till the unsettled lands are all under cultivation, there is room and keep at a low price for a still further large increase in the number of cattle. There are reported to be many good herds of pure cattle scattered over the province. Some members of the Commission were privileged to see two of the more famous herds of high-class Shorthorns, one near East Selkirk, and one near Carberry—both well known to Shorthorn fanciers all over the world.

These figures show the development of wheat-farming in Canada since 1871, and the export trade since 1903:—

Wheat Production.

Year.	Bushels.	Acres.
1871	16,723,873	1,646,781
1881	32,350,269	2,342,355
1891	42,223,372	2,761,246
1901	55,572,368	4,224,542
1907	91,333,271	6,066,450
1908	112,434,000	6,610,300

Export Trade.

Year.	TO BRITAIN.		TO UNITED STATES.		TO ALL COUNTRIES.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Bush.	\$	Bush.	\$	Bush.	\$
1903	30,726,947	22,999,745	892,904	536,264	32,985,745	24,566,703
1904	16,346,793	13,106,081	11,262	8,780	16,779,028	13,465,351
1905	11,280,407	9,474,870	3,018,232	2,577,531	14,700,315	12,386,743
1906	36,027,692	30,234,611	3,831,988	2,981,608	40,399,402	33,658,391
1907	24,432,786	19,566,017	804,937	630,349	25,480,127	20,379,629
1908	43,002,541	39,349,602	114,926	102,699	43,654,668	40,004,723

CHAPTER VII

SASKATCHEWAN

THE QU'APPELLE VALLEY

(near Regina, Saskatchewan Province)

“ Morning, lighting all the prairies,
Once of old came, bright as now,
To the twin cliffs, sloping wooded
From the vast plain's even brow :
When the sunken valleys levels
With the winding willowed stream,
Cried, ‘ Depart, night's mists and shadows,
Open flowered we love to dream ! ’

Then in his canoe a stranger,
Passing onward, heard a cry :
Thought it called his name and answered,
But the voice did not reply ;
Waited listening, while the glory
Rose to search each steep ravine,
Till the shadowed, terraced ridges
Like the level vale were green.

Strange, as when on space the voices
Of the stars' hosannahs fell,
To this wilderness of beauty
Seemed his call, ‘ Qu'appelle? Qu'appelle?’
For a day he tarried hearkening,
Wondering, as he went his way,
Whose the voice that gladly called him
With the merry tones of day.

Was it God who gave dumb Nature
 Words and voice to shout to one
 Who, a pioneer, came, sun-like,
 Down the pathways of the sun?
 Harbinger of thronging thousands,
 Bringing plain, and vale, and wood,
 Things His best and last created,
 Human hearts and brotherhood!

Long the doubt and eager question,
 Yet that valley's name shall tell,
 For its farmers' laughing children
 Gravely call it 'The Qu'Appelle.'

THE Commission of British representative agriculturists which visited Canada last year have published the official report, and respecting emigration the Commissioners say—

“The men wanted in Canada are men with some knowledge of agriculture. There are many openings for such men, but they must be careful. Canada is a new country, and its people are full of hope. It is suffering from honest exaggeration. It is suffering, too, from a worse evil—from a superabundance of real estate agents and speculators in land. It is, however, so good a country that exaggeration cannot harm it. It is a country of boundless possibilities from an agricultural point of view, but it is also a country of many climates, not all equally good, and of great varieties of soil, not all equally suitable for farming; and while we are satisfied that there are in Canada splendid opportunities for the right kind of emigrants, we are equally satisfied that no man should farm in Canada

until he knows the country and its climatic conditions, and has learned by experience, as a hired hand or otherwise, what Canadian farming means."

With respect to the west, the Commissioners "particularly direct the attention of the intending emigrant" to the prairies, which welcome a man if he "has ambition and ability, if he is determined—having as a ploughman placed his foot on the lowest rung of the ladder—to reach the top as an occupying owner." "The west," they add, "also opens up possibilities to those comparatively well-to-do dairy farmers and market gardeners who are having some difficulty in making much money at home."

As to the future of Canada the Commissioners are optimistic. Russia and India are not to be depended on for liberal and constant supplies, and the day is not far distant when the United States shall have ceased exporting wheat. "The reason, of course, is obvious. The population of the United States at the present time is 86,000,000. The yearly production of wheat is over 735,000,000 bushels. The population consumes, including seed, approximately, 7 bushels per head. At the present time they are producing more than they are consuming. In 1915, when it is estimated that population will have reached 106,000,000, they will have no surplus wheat. With an increased rise in prices large regions undrained and semi-arid in different parts of the world would immediately come under the plough. Without, however, pushing the margin of cultivation farther back, Canada, on virgin soil,

will by-and-by be able to make up for more than the deficiency of the United States, and produce wheat at prices which, while tending upwards, will not be exorbitant."

Regina was the name given by Princess Louise, Duchess of Argyll, to the town which the Government desired, in 1880, to build on the Canadian Pacific Railway line near Qu'Appelle, a pretty, flat-bottomed valley, where a river flows through poplars in little groves growing in the sunken levels below the endless prairie plateau, from which the valley looks as though it had suddenly subsided, and the abrupt "cut banks" of rich soil look down into the bottom in miniature cliffs. The only name by which the place occupied by Regina was known was "Pile o' Bones," for there quantities of buffalo bones had been collected, to be sent away as fertilising stuff. A letter, dated May 1909, from there says: "Regina advances and grows rapidly, as the administrative capital of the North-West Provinces should do. We, like Winnipeg, are training our schoolboys. We cannot boast of so many appearing on parade, but we too have a corps, and in their khaki uniforms they look very smart, and are very well up in their drill. Over 150 private residences are now under construction, and also numerous business blocks. A new Collegiate Institute, to cost \$150,000, is now being roofed in, and our new legislative buildings are to have a frontage of 540 feet, and are being rapidly finished, to be completed in 1910. Crop

prospects were never better. If this crop comes off all right the country will go ahead like wildfire, as grain men are offering \$1.09 per bushel for wheat for October delivery. I dined to-day at a farmer's ten miles north, and driving out and back I saw splendid crops. My friend is one of our successful farmers. He has 380 acres in wheat, 120 in oats, and 100 in barley. What would people in Scotland think of a crop of this extent? Of last year's crop he sold 10,800 bushels, and got about \$1.02 per bushel on the average. This is going to be a great country, and the Regina district is *par excellence* the banner one, as the soil is so rich and seems to be inexhaustible."

An Old Countryman's experience in Saskatchewan—

"I came to Canada in June 1903, and have now been in this country for six years, but have never had any sickness in the family. I am well satisfied with my prospects, and I think farming in this country is all right. I am now farming 640 acres, and have had good success. I consider it just the place for some good Yorkshire farmers, but would advise them to come at once, as land keeps going up every year; but wheat keeps getting better in price also."—ROBERT SHIPLEY, Summerberry.

Saskatchewan has an area of about 155,000,000 acres, of which in 1906 less than 300,000 had been brought under cultivation. With such an extent of territory, so large a proportion of which is still

virgin prairie awaiting the hand of the settler, Saskatchewan offers remarkable opportunities to the man who is land-hungry and determined to succeed. A 160-acre farm is offered in this province by the Dominion Government free on the performance of certain settlement duties, and the fact that thousands of settlers have taken advantage of this offer during the past few years indicates the worth of the province.

In the Saskatoon district the town itself has risen miracle-like on the plains. One of the commissioners of the Scots party looked from the far side of the Saskatchewan River to the town, and, realising that it had all come into being in seven years, he declared that it would have taken our people at home all that time to draw the plans. Five years ago there were only 100 inhabitants; now there are 5000. There is a telephone and electric lighting system, a Municipal Council, and a Board of Trade. If the streets are still rough and unmade, a few years will work a revolution, and Saskatoon, we doubt not, will be one of the great prairie towns of Canada. Possibly it owes its existence to the development of the prairie in the neighbourhood. We had a fair opportunity of examining it. It is bald-headed prairie, mainly devoted to wheat-growing. The soil in some parts is a black loam for a few inches, chocolate-coloured below that, with a subsoil of marl. Seven or eight years ago there was not a homestead between Lumsden, on the Canadian Pacific Railway, and

Saskatoon. We saw scores of them ourselves that day, and there are hundreds which we did not see. There is no district in Canada filling up more rapidly than the district round Saskatoon.

The "far north" is getting yearly farther north. As tests are made for wheat-growing, it is found that practically all good soils south of the great continent-arching sub-arctic forest of small pine, which stretches all the way from Labrador on the Atlantic to the Lower Saskatchewan and Peace River districts near the Rockies, are good for hard wheat. Edmonton will be a large city. All settlers are pleased with their experience, and are looking forward to good rail communication in the near future.

QU'APPELLE.

The valley near the town of Regina, watered by a pleasant stream, and fashioned by nature like a great, long, sunken garden, was always a favourite headquarter of the Red Indian. It is now the headquarters of the military force of the palefaces who came across the ocean of water to the ocean-like expanse of plains covered with the green grasses in summer, and with the dry, protecting mantle of snow in the winter. Once the traveller descends the little cliff and drops down to the lower level floor of the valley which the waters have gouged out of the plains, he finds himself sheltered from winds, and on the sunken flat he treads, he is among willows and low scrub, and near clear waters

beloved of wild-fowl, whose flocks in spring become ever more numerous, and then again less in number, until autumn brings them in multitudes from the far north land where they have gone for their nesting, to return with their young, strong in flight as their parents, on their way to the ever-open summer and tropical waters of Central America.

Wherever there is quiet water, there was a happy hunting-ground for the red man. The tribes were seldom long absent from this fair valley. Above its long trench-like windings, on the prairies now crossed by the railway, were often held the lacrosse tourneys, in which the whole manhood of the tribe joined. Let us shut out for a moment the sight of new buildings and the railway track, and let us believe we are eighty years younger and see no white men, no locomotives, no red-uniformed and white-helmeted gallant mounted police, no chimneys volleying forth coal smoke. Only from the painted-hide tents, the "Moyas" of the Blackfeet lodges, rise faint blue wreaths of dried dung or wood smoke, hardly colouring the clear air with tiny breathings. These little smoke columns rise straight from the crossed poles which show bare above the cone-shaped dwellings of painted buffalo-skins. But against the background of the painted figures on the tents there is now a moving crowd clad in many colours. We can distinguish the chiefs by the great rows of eagle plumes that rise like spines from their heads and bristle out all down the napes of their necks and

down their backs to near the ground. Then there are men with fancy head-dresses of buffalo hair, and others who have only a few feathers in their long black locks. The women are seen specially busy and excited, and walking by the side of bands of young braves who leave the camp and ascend the slope of the bank, and reach with active steps the prairie plateau. The foremost of these bands carry with them four long sticks and two short sticks, and these are quickly fixed as high goal-posts with short cross-bars at the top, so that the goal makes a narrow lofty space for a ball to enter—for goal-posts these sticks are—and the game for which they are placed is the ancient game called by the French Canadians *la crosse*. This is the name given to it because it is in a crossed circle of netting or sinew placed at the side of the end of each staff that the wooden ball is caught, and it is from this circle, braced with sinews, that the ball is thrown. The circle for catching the ball, and from which it was launched, was, with the Blackfeet Indians, small as compared with the much larger surface given by the netting at the end of the staff in vogue in later times. Once the goal-posts are fixed, the tribesmen and women emerge quickly from the lower valley level to the upper plain and stream in many-hued raiment to take their places round each of the goals. And now it will be noted that there is no "eleven" or number of selected players. All the men and boys of the tribe are armed with the lacrosses, and all are expected to

take their part on one side or the other as in an important "general election" in politics in Britain!

And now with much shouting the women separate from the men and line the sides of the square of sod where the game is to be played, and the men meet in the middle and toss up the round ball of wood, and the players rush, leap, and strike, each striving to catch the ball in his crosse and to fling it as far as he can towards the opposite goal, or to pass it to some other man of his own side on the outskirts of the mass of struggling and shouting combatants. The whole tribe seems to take part, and as the men sometimes manage to get a free swing for an instant after catching the ball, and it flies through the air from end to end of the field, it is not necessary or advisable for all the men of either side to be ever in the centre, for to be "with the ball" is a position that may completely change at any moment, when a successful throw sends it far away from those who are battling in one part of the ground to others who have as yet not even had "a look in," but who now may find themselves for an instant in undisputed possession. Yet this can only be for an instant, because the opposing chiefs have their men everywhere, and if the tussle be not in masses, it is at once commenced afresh by scattered contestants. It is a beautiful game even in its ancient form of "universal scrimmage," but a hard and severe game, causing many a bleeding scalp or hand, as the staves come down heavily on head or fingers of the man whose

lacrosse holds the ball, and there is no quarter given to the successful, any more than there is to peers or wealthy folk in the throes of a modern political strife "at home"! When a man gets a blow, or, feeling fatigued, seeks to fall out from the fighting lines for a moment, the squaws, energetic suffragist ladies that they are, at once take a vicarious part in the battle by belabouring him until he thinks that he has fallen from the frying-pan into the fire, and takes up his stick again to enter the fray.

Now we will shut up this cinematograph, and open a more modern slide, but still one that shows scenes before the advent of rails, though their coming is known to be only a question of months.

There is again an assembly of Indian "tepees," but among them are already some white canvas tents, and the crowds of redskins are not all in the full barbaric beauty of coloured leather and beads and feathers, for some have modern jackets, and a few have horribly ugly modern caps. Still the majority make a brave show. Among them are several of the uniformed cavalry of the Dominion Government, "the riders of the plains," fine fellows in long boots, yellow-striped dark trousers, red tunic, and white helmets—men who could hold their own with the best troopers of the best army in Europe, tall, smart, soldierly, proud of their service and of their country, and capable of keeping all these redskins, armed though these are with the best repeating rifles, in a state of order, which is at once the result

of fair dealing and of inexorable discipline. The presence of a few canvas tents among the buffalo-hide tepees is to be accounted for because the buffalo are already becoming very scarce. In the "sixties" there were still many bands of them. In the "seventies" they were almost all shot down. Their bones were left in such numbers that in places on the prairies one could everywhere see the grass dotted with little white specks, which were bleaching skulls and skeletons of the old American bison. Near Qu'Appelle Valley these remains lay so thick that the bones were gathered in vast quantities in anticipation of the arrival of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and the place was called "Pile o' Bones." This was considered hardly a fit appellation for the central point of western Government organisation, and a message was sent to Ottawa asking for a new name. The Government asked the Princess, who was then with the Governor-General at Quebec, and she suggested Regina, a title which has remained with it ever since.

But our cinematograph view is taken a little before the new christening of "Pile o' Bones," and the white heaps are conspicuous on the plateau. In the Qu'Appelle Valley one can see nothing of bones, or of death, but we are asked to look on at a scene of torture—torture not inflicted by the police, but by the redskins among themselves. There is a little clump of canvas tents some way from the Indian tepees, and this is the camp of the Governor-General on a tour in the year 1881, to "write up"

the country by means of the able pens of the newspaper correspondents and other gentlemen who have consented to come with him, to make the west better known to willing emigrants in the old country. There is in that clump of tents the eloquent preacher, Dr. James M'Gregor, of St. Cuthbert's Church at Edinburgh; there is the able artist, Mr. Sydney Hall, who draws and paints so admirably wild life, stately pageants, or distinguished men, as may be seen in his notable picture of Sir John Young in the 1909 Academy Exhibition; there is Mr. Austen, of the *London Times*, and several more, all deeply impressed with the capacity of the Canadian central country to absorb millions of the struggling populations of Europe and the United States. The gentlemen are told that they are to witness tortures, and refuse to see anything of the kind. But the younger members of the staff are all keen to be duly shocked, and the chief of police does not think it advisable or necessary to interfere with the Indians' peculiar ideas of amusing themselves; indeed, it is said to be all very like something that might take place in a neighbouring island to Great Britain, where politically and personally everybody is supposed to look on injury to country or to person as a very good joke, to be repeated as often as possible. It all shows courage, says the Indian; and it's all very good fun, says his merrier counterpart "at home." So the younger members of the party at Qu'Appelle say they will go and see this sun dance, for such is the title of the ceremony that is to take place among

the redskins. The elders among the white men are content "to imagine the rest" after they have seen the procession to the medicine tents, and heard the shouts and sounds of the painful orgy within. What did they see? What is a sun dance? Well, it was a test of endurance of pain undergone by young men who wished to be admitted to the full honours of the tribe. Like their sisters in Europe, the ladies had no objection to witness any excitement, battle, bull fight, election row, or this demonstration held to prove that nothing can make an Indian wince, no matter what you do to him. The young man to be initiated stood up, and was gazed at silently or only with the encouragement of a few grunts by all those who were seated around. Rings were dangling from a pole, and to them were attached, as they hung down and just reached the ground, sticks of wood, held by the cord in the centre, and having one end sharpened. Taking up the rope end armed with this sharpened stick, the chief medicine man deliberately dug the sharp point into the young man's breast, and then sideways under the breast muscle—crunch, crunch, crunch! squew, squew!—and it was brought out after penetrating about six inches, the blood, of course, streaming from the wound, and the Indian pale, but trying to look as though he liked it. Then on his other breast the same thing was done with another strong, sharp stake, and the noise began—one cannot call it music—for an accompaniment to a sort of can-can dance, but

instead of throwing up the feet, the knees were alternately thrown up and the foot brought down with a kind of "stamp and go" movement, the howls of "How-how, how-how!" accompanying the dancer's movements, to encourage him. Round and round he went for over a quarter of an hour, and then, staggering outwards, one of the breast muscles gave, and he fell, tearing the other, and fainting. This was enough for the members of our party. It was said there were others treated in the same way, and that none uttered cry or made grimace. It is doubtful if white men could have inured their faces to show no signs, or avoided calling out.

There is a story of a white United States trooper who was made a prisoner by Indians, who resolved to burn him alive. He knew the Indians' power of self-control, and vowed to himself that he would give no sign, and die like an Indian, silently. The trooper was bound, the fire was kindled at his feet, and that trooper yelled right out at once when the fire began to burn his flesh, and kept on yelling at the top of his voice until by good luck the burning bundles were stamped out and scattered by his comrades, who managed to charge upon the fiends who were killing him, and rescued him in time to save his life, but not his walking powers. White men, for some reason, cannot endure as can a redskin. He seems to be able to hypnotise himself.

The taste of the tribes in the matter of the choice of colour in dress is very marked. The way

in which they arrange the yellows, blues, and crimson beads in their embroidery might with advantage be imitated by more gaudy and garish decorators among the white men. The interior of their buffalo-hide lodges showed the perfection of neatness as well as the sense of good colouring. With compartments divided from each other by deer-sinew lattices, the cubicles gave the perfection of comfort. The central fire had robes (as skins with their hair on are always called) laid as neatly round the hearth as any Persian carpets. The pipes of the chief, of red stone or of a black stone, were carefully ranged so that the great man could reach them in comfort. The red stone was often inlaid with patterns in metal, and these pipe-heads, long and thin in form, must have been articles of trade among the tribes from a great distance. It would be interesting to know how far to the north this trade in pipe-heads existed. They are to be found among all the tribes of note up to the Peace River and the Saskatchewan. I never heard of them farther north—for instance, along the Mackenzie River. The smoking mixture was tobacco and the inner bark of a willow, too bitter to be pleasant to most people's taste.

The articles of commerce must have been few among the hunting Indians. But iron and steel, for knives and arrow-heads, and beads reached them long ago, if this phrase be allowed to represent a time long past, relatively to our knowledge of the continent. Stone arrow-heads are, of course,

found all over the continent, as they are in Europe. Their bows were not powerful weapons, and there is no evidence that they knew the use of poison to make their arrows more formidable. Their chief men were chosen on account of their endurance and courage, proved by individual prowess, preference being accorded to men whose personal prowess was enhanced in the respect of their tribesmen by descent from well-known warriors. Some of their chiefs inspired respect in the white men who knew them or fought them. Thus Sitting Bull among the Sioux, who defeated General Custer's cavalry, was a man who could even inspire devotion, through honesty and courage. Too often badly treated by irresponsible men among the Americans, he fought them with ability and courage, and he kept his word to the Canadian Government when allowed a refuge on Canadian soil, and made no disturbance by any raids against our American friends south of the border.

No one who saw Poundmaker or Crowfoot at any of the meetings held by the Governor-General in 1881 with the Blackfoot Indians but knew that in these chiefs the Indians had brave counsellors. Poundmaker, indeed, was induced to "go wrong" for a time in his politics, a lapse of which he sorrowfully repented. I have one of the clubs or coup-sticks which he obtained for me. It is a handy little weapon, the handle, about a yard in length, made of what the rovers of the plains call "shagga-nappy"—that is, buffalo hide compacted into a pliable

staff, holding with a belt of the leather, an oval-shaped stone, forming an excellent battle-mace for knocking out the brains of one's opposing strategist! This handy and formidable weapon was decorated with the scalps of those its owner had been successful in killing. The scalps were little round patches of skin about four inches in diameter, often painted red on the inner surface, and having the long black locks by which it was pulled off the head of the dead man, flowing from it. This little war-mace is the most original of the arms of the native tribes. On the coast may sometimes be seen another of exceptional character. This is a spear at the end of which the iron or stone knife is fastened by thongs of sealskin to the haft, and the knife-hilt is in a hollow or socket, so that after the thrust is given, and the steel has entered the victim, the knife turns, held by the straps, and cannot be easily withdrawn, as might be the case were knife and haft to be firmly fixed together in one plane.

Nothing could be more stately than the manner in which the Sioux and Blackfeet opened their councils, but it must be added that nothing could be more tiresome than to wait till the spokesman condescended to speak, or more tedious than was their language when interpreted sentence by sentence by the interpreter, who was usually a half-breed Indian, his father having been a French Canadian and his mother a squaw. The whole tribe would come across the prairie from their camp

to that of the British party, their cayuses, as their horses were called, carrying their head men, and the ruck of the tribe following in an extended line on foot, the warriors, armed with repeating rifles, to the number of 100 or 150, walking in no special order with the rest. The Governor and his small squad of companions, with perhaps thirty of the mounted police, would be seated in front of his tents and waggons. Slowly the many-coloured Indian line would approach, until finally they formed a half-crescent in front of the white men, and there squatted on the grass. The warriors had often little clothing, and were painted blue, red, or yellow, according to each man's taste. Silence reigned; nothing was said, and no one moved. At last, through the interpreter or by the mouth of the Government inspector of the tribes, it was intimated to the leading chief that the Governor or Father of the people had come to hear the wants of his children. Once or twice an irrelevant remark was slowly made by the chief, when he was at last persuaded to say something, to the effect that the Father of all Canada looked very young. This compliment or observation of doubtful tendency was usually the means of "drawing" the Governor, who calmly remarked that his children might now speak their mind on other subjects. Then, perhaps, after more doubt and waiting, the chief would grunt and rise. He could, of course, never produce a sheaf of notes for his oration as do the white parliamentary orators, and therefore the flattering idea was laid to the

white men's souls that the speech would probably be brief. Not a bit of it!

The speech was slow in coming, but much slower in delivery, and still slower in ending. There was no reason it should not go on for days, like the speeches of some United States senators, because it required much less mental effort than do theirs. They have weighty arguments, but the redskin oration always begins, and often continues, with nothing that gives mental exertion. He observes with much unction that the grass is green, the sky blue, and that rivers flow on for ever, and then gradually gets to mention other than terrestrial glories, and "goes for" the sun, and makes personal observations on the sun's appearance, all of which ultimately leads to the observation that the face of the white man, from whom he expects to get tobacco and other goods, or more food, is to the chief just like the face of the sun. There is sometimes a dignified reference to his own stomach and the appetites of his tribe as unsatisfied. Poor folk—yes, the white man had killed all the buffalo—and what was life without the buffalo?—and now even the fleet-footed little antelope were disappearing, the antelope that made such nice dresses for the squaws—and so on, and so on; and then a few promises would be carefully given, because it is the good Canadian habit never to promise anything to the redskin that is not to be fully redeemed, and after a two or three hours' parley the council was over, and each party went back to its own camp.

The next morning several of the most showy dresses of chiefs and squaws had been exchanged with the white men for dollars; and one smiling lady's heart was much rejoiced when she found herself not only in possession of dollars, but of a European lady's equipment—bonnet, shawl, and "bugled" frock—in lieu of her own old dress of antelope skin, the tails of two animals ornamenting her neck, and no less than three rows of the rounded milk-teeth of the great red deer—the "wapiti"—decorating the upper part of the robe, front, back, and shoulders.

Many of these Indians pined for the old free life, and, although well fed, died before many years on the reserve lands allotted to them. A few joined the half-breeds in the little rising of 1885, and the fate of the remainder is no doubt to mix with the whites, for there is no sentiment against redskin marriages. Mixture with the negroes is condemned in America, but not so the mixture with the Indians. They have traits of character which have always raised them in the white man's opinion far above the "darkie." Had the Indians of the plains been like those of New Mexico and lands farther to the south, dwellers in fixed habitations, they would have survived; but they who do not build do not long survive any change of habit.

CHAPTER VIII

ALBERTA

This province was called after the Princess Louise, Duchess of Argyll, one of whose Christian names is Alberta, after her father, Prince Albert.

In token of the love which thou hast shown
For this wide land of freedom, I have named
A province vast, and for its beauty famed,
By thy dear name to be hereafter known—
Alberta shall it be ! Her fountains thrown
From Alps unto three oceans, to all men
Shall vaunt her loveliness e'en now ; and when
Each little hamlet, to a city grown,
And numberless as blades of prairie grass
Or the thick leaves in distant forest bower,
Great peoples hear the giant currents pass,
Still shall her waters, bringing wealth and power,
Speak the loved name—the land of silver springs—
Worthy the daughter of our English kings.

The scented breath of the plain is hers—
The odours sweet of the sage and firs ;
There the coal breaks forth on her rolling sod,
And the winters flee at the word of God.

SUNNY Alberta is the most westerly of Canada's prairie provinces. It is an immense tract 700 miles north and south, with an average width of nearly 200 miles. Its winter climate is tempered by the Chinook winds, and the long sunny days of summer

are especially conducive to the rapid and vigorous growth of many sorts of grains, grasses, and vegetables. The northern part of the province is being devoted to the growth of spring wheat and other cereals, and the southern part to the production of the now famous "Alberta Red" winter wheat, the cultivation of which was begun about 1903 and has developed rapidly; in 1908 over 100,000 acres were sown, producing over 3,000,000 bushels.

Professor R. B. GREIG, F.R.S.E., wrote the following during a visit to Canada as a member of the Scottish Agricultural Commission in 1908:—

"In spite of the exceptional immigration of the last few years, much land is still open for settlement at some distance from the railways. In the province of Alberta alone less than 10 per cent. of the land is under cultivation, and for mixed farming and dairying Alberta is a splendid country. Much of the country is covered with poplar and willow scrub, which provides shelter and firewood, and is easily cleared. The soil is generally a good black loam, capable of producing great crops of winter wheat, oats, and Timothy hay. Crops of 80 to 100 bushels per acre are comparatively common, and, unlike the crops of eastern Canada, those Albertan oats weigh 38 to 42 lbs. per bushel. All stock do well; even the delicate Jersey cow thrives and makes a profit."

Mr. WILLIAM BARBER, also a member of the Scottish Agricultural Commission, says:—

"Altogether the Canada of the twentieth century

is a splendid country. Things are so hopeful, so enterprising, and so free. Every one is valued for what he is—not for what he has been or for what he might be—just for what he is. No questions are asked about his past. It is God's free country, where a man is a man and nothing more. The land is new, and the people's faces are towards the front, and to the stranger they say in effect: If you have an honourable, square, upright past, so much the better; if not, leave behind the taint of artificial things, and start again on the level."

Excellent cement is made in Alberta, as well as near Ottawa, and Alberta and Quebec cement will probably command a higher price in European markets than does the Portland in England. In Egypt, where vast quantities have lately been used for the Nile dams, Canadian cement was inquired for two years ago, with the result that answer was made from Canada that the home market there took every bag of cement made. But great as local demands are, it will be possible to have shipments for Europe when development of this wonderfully durable material has made more progress. In Alberta it is found that a great deal of house erection will be made much easier through the employment of cement for floors, door-posts, rafters, and roofs; and it is claimed that the stuff has much greater strength than has the British and European cement. Brick-making is also a prosperous industry around Calgary.

Here are some boys' letters :—

“VERMILION, ALTA.

“I am now twenty-two years of age, and I live in Alberta, and am doing fine for the time I have started for myself. I have done quite a little traveling through Manitoba and Alberta, and have been in Ontario, and now have a farm of my own in Alberta. The first time I worked out I was fifteen years old. I went from Glenella to Winnipegosis, which was about a hundred miles away from my home. I lived with my aunt there, and started to work in a saw-mill. When I went to the foreman I said, “Do you want a man?” and he said “Yes.” He asked me what I could do, and I said, “I can do my best at anything you put me at.” So he put me at the trimmer. It was hard work at first, but I got used to it. I then asked him what he would pay me, and he said, “\$15.00 a month.” I was glad I was getting as much as old hands, and the next month I did not ask for my pay, and the third month the job was done, and he raised my pay \$26 for the second month and \$35 for the third month, and told me to come in the spring, and I did. He put me at firing on a steamboat. I was two months at that job, and then he put me as second engineer, and I was at that a month. He then put me at running an engine in a saw-mill, and I stayed until that was done, and I sent my money home and went to Mafeking, Manitoba, and cooked there for a while, and then went freighting on the Lakes

as a fisherman. I was at that for a while, and then went with some half-breeds and Indians trapping and hunting farther north, and I have been mostly with them since. I came to Alberta, and have had quite a time with them and experience. This winter I am on my homestead, and I think there is nothing like the north-west. Of course, every country has its drawbacks in a way. There is great profit in farming and ranching, but the trouble is the people don't study the thing and don't work at it steadily enough; but I like the north-west. The land is good, and the water is good spring water, also good roads everywhere, lots of wood too, and all kinds of bears and all kinds of game, small and big. There is coal, and gold has been found in Vermilion, Alta. All that is wanted is people to settle the country. It is going ahead fast. I don't believe I have seen any country going ahead so fast, and the best grain I have ever seen was in Alberta, and the best cattle and sweetest beef I have ever seen and tasted. It is the best country for rich and poor, as long as they are good workers, like I am myself.—Yours truly,

“JOSEPH FLOOK (21).”

“WETASKIWAN, ALTA.

“I was glad to receive your welcome letter, and am writing to let you know how I am getting along in the wild and woolly west. It was a long way from civilisation twelve years ago, but it is a good country now. I tell you things have changed a lot

since then, and I have changed a lot too, for I have grown much bigger. I bought some property this summer, and am proud of it. I am working in the Wetaskiwan Bottling Works, and have been here since the 15th of December. The people I work for are Germans. I always work for a German. I like them. Some way or other they are good to get along with. My brother, Willie, is not here any more; he is down in Montana, a cowboy, and I haven't seen or heard from him except one postcard. I will send the long letter after Christmas, about my twelve years' experience. Wishing you a happy New Year, I remain, one of Dr. Barnardo's boys,
CHAS. H. BROWN (21)."

RECENT LETTER FROM SETTLER IN ALBERTA.

"We have now proved up on our homesteads, and we can sell or do as we like with them. However, we have no intention at present of parting with them; as a matter of fact we are on the look-out for another, as Government offers any homestead eligible to any one who has proved up on his first homestead, on his paying three dollars per acre—1s. 3d. at date of entry and the balance in five equal annual instalments, with interest at 5 per cent. . . . Hay is getting scarcer every year, for as land gets taken up one gets pretty much confined to one's own section. The railway has not come our way yet, and eighteen miles is just a little too far for grain hauling, though there is good money in it

too. Last season was the best since I came to the country, and has helped the people all round and encouraged the cultivation of land. We expect to get the telephone to our place from town this summer. It will be a great convenience; costs twelve dollars per year. . . . What about your political opinions now? I trust you have had the sense to remain Unionist and Tariff Reformer, and have not been carried away by the windy and visionary utterances of the party (or rather conglomeration of parties) which calls itself Liberal. How the mischief can they expect people to exist if they allow all importation of foreign manufactured goods duty free? How can they expect the factories in Britain to remain open when such is allowed? It is all very well to say you get things cheaper, but what is the use of that if it means a closing down of works giving employment to thousands who will be forced to turn their attention to something else or starve? The outcry against a small tariff on wheat is only an appeal to the ignorant and illiterate voter who is ready to swallow anything if he is told the landed interest will benefit."

It will not be long before the only difficulty in the settlement of some of the lands in the southwest part of Alberta is conquered. This difficulty is the dryness of this corner. The riders on the plain, when they see the little carpet cactus, like a little thistle plant, growing on the prairie sward, know that it is a sign that there is not sufficient

water there to make the soil rival Manitoba, and that some of the aridity which discourages settlement in the United States to the south of the border to so great an extent, and has caused the settlers there to "pull up stakes" and go north into Canada, exists in a very minor degree near the frontier. But this can easily be obviated by a little engineering in damming up the abundant waters that flow from the Rockies. The Bow and the Belly Rivers are bright, swift streams, the parent sources of the Missouri and the Mississippi, and to dam them at convenient spots affords security of a supply of any amount of water. The trout fishing will be better than ever, and that is saying a great deal, when the "barrages" make lakes ten or twenty miles long in the foothills, and one company alone is preparing to irrigate a quarter of a million of acres. A godson of the novelist Galt, and a son of the first High Commissioner of Canada to Great Britain—Sir Alexander Galt—was one of the first to devise plans and to bring in the best labourers for irrigation. These were the men who had done more of that kind of work than any others in America—namely, the Mormons of Ogden and Salt Lake City. When they came to Canada they left behind them their "peculiar institutions," and came to make happy homes and law-abiding, industrious communities, skilled in the peculiar labour which they had practised in the arid deserts of the central plains of the continent. The results have already been marvellous, and it is difficult to reach

the limit to the application of this mountain water to the more thirsty districts. Wherever the streams have been brought, very heavy crops are raised. Most of the country does not require irrigation. Farmer and rancher find that the moisture in most parts is sufficient, but the nearer they are to the sure supply of the streams, the less chance there is of any false calculation in regard to stock and crop.

Spring Wheat.—But spring wheat is the great stand-by of the prairie farmer. The best-known variety is “Red Fife.” It suits the conditions well, and seems to hold the field in most districts against all other varieties. Practical experience in Canada has satisfied most men that a few standard varieties of grain of proved utility are better than a lot of new ones, and that the best results are obtained through improving the reliable varieties by careful selection. The labour bill per acre for the first crop, in addition to the breaking and harrowing, is as follows :—

Seeding	\$0.50
Harrowing twice	0.35
Seed—1½ bushels @ say 90 cents per bushel	1.35
Cutting, say, 19 bushels	0.40
Twine	0.30
Stooking	0.20
Board of men and hauling grain	0.05
Threshing—19 bushels @ 7 cents per bushel	1.33
Together	<u>\$4.48</u>

The above figures have not only been carefully verified, but they were obtained by the Commission

from a farm manager once in the employment of one of them, who has been farming in Canada for the past few years, and they may be accepted as the maximum expenditure. It will be seen that the expense of the first crop amounts to \$10.43. The expense of the subsequent crop will be \$6.33, because, instead of having to break up the prairie at a cost of \$5.95 per acre, the farmer has only to break up his stubble at a cost of \$1.85. The profit depends a good deal on the price of wheat. We shall take it at 80 cents. It has been much lower, and it has been much higher, but as the tendency for a considerable period of years is more likely to be up than down, we think no objection will be taken to the figure. The result is an apparent profit of \$4.77 per acre the first year, and \$8.87 per acre the second year. It is, however, only apparent, for we have not yet deducted interest on the capital invested in land and stock and fencing, nor the keep of men and horses during the period of the year when their labour is not necessary for the production of the wheat crop.

Cheese Factories and Creameries.—In connection with the spread of these factories, it is impossible to praise too highly the work of the Government. It has been most conspicuous in the past in Prince Edward Island, and is best seen to-day in operation in Alberta. Space may be taken to give a condensed account of what is being done in that province. Forty-three creameries and seven cheese factories are at work, twenty-one of the former

being under Government supervision. These creameries are set agoing in the following way. When a desire arises among the farmers of a district to have a creamery, those interested approach Mr. Marker, the Dairy Commissioner for Alberta. He informs them that he can help them if they fulfil the conditions of the "Dairyman's Act." They must therefore guarantee the milk from at least 400 cows; they must consent to be registered—free of expense—as a trading association; they must subscribe funds for the erection of a suitable building, and for other purposes, and their committee must become responsible for the performance of certain duties, including the haulage of cream from the farms. The Government, on its side, is prepared to lend money up to \$1500 for equipment, at the low interest of 3 per cent.; to have that equipment bought and erected by a skilled man; and to appoint a butterman to take charge. When butter is made it is taken to the Government Cold Storage at Calgary, and in due time is sold, still by Government officials, to supply the needs of Vancouver, the Yukon, or the Orient. The ordinary charge made for the manufacture of butter, whether in Government or other creameries, is 4 cents a pound. The use of the Cold Store is granted without charge, but the material used and the outlay incurred in refrigerating has to be paid for. Thus the Government, at a very small outlay, encourages the development of an industry that is suitable for the country; it insures the establishment of creameries

on sound and safe business lines ; and it provides for the production of the best butter that the country can make.

Of the wonderful change made in men's fortune in a few years' time, one might recount endless examples. I will cite only one as within my own experience. At a certain place on the Hebridean west coast, two brothers were fishermen, and having nothing but their boat, their little house on shore, and a potato patch, were hard put to make their living. At very low tides they found the big red crabs which make such good food. They had lobster traps out, and visited them whenever the weather permitted ; but often winds were strong and fish were scarce. One of the brothers was helped to go out and try his luck in Canada. It was some time before I again visited the place, where the other still remained, still engaged at his old occupation of fisherman. Asked what news he had of the other, he replied, "Oh, he's yet in Canada." "Where?" "He's at a place they call Calgary." "That interests me much, for when I was at Calgary we camped there for three days, fished for trout, and caught many, but never caught sight of a single man," I replied. "Oh, there's plenty of men now. There's 30,000 of them, my brother tells me." "And what is he doing?" "He's ranching." "Then he's a cowboy, I suppose?" "'Deed no, he's cowboys of his own." "How's that?" "Oh, he's got a ranch of his own, and about 200 head of cattle on it."

The Scottish Agricultural Commissioners of 1908 report good cattle were seen. In Alberta, especially about MacLeod, Cardston, Red Deer, Lacombe, Calgary, and Edmonton, some very good herds of Shorthorns and Herefords were visited, and some of the individual animals seen were not only useful but very superior, indicating skill and energy on the part of their owners in having produced in so young a country such good results.

Of the cattle trade of British Columbia very little can be said, though cattle-raising was alleged to have been at one time a chief industry in the province. It was not a very prominent feature in the parts of the province visited. Some good cattle were seen on the Fraser River Valley and Delta. But at present a large part of the beef supply required for the province is imported from Alberta. With a moist climate, suitable for the growth of grass, fodder, and roots, and a mild winter, there is no reason, as the province develops, why the cattle industry should not attain very much larger proportions.

Cattle Feeding.—The feeding and foods of the cattle are naturally regulated by the climate, and as it differs very much from the insular type we are accustomed to, so also do the foods required and the modes of feeding differ from ours. The moisture and heat of spring and early summer induce a greater growth in a shorter time than we are accustomed to, and give abundance of grass for pasture and abundance of growth for forage plants. The

succeeding dry period allows of the making of these forage plants into excellent hay. When the drought is severe, there must be occasionally a temporary scarcity of pasture, and it then becomes necessary to have recourse to some of the deeper-rooting plants such as lucerne, vetches, red clover, green maize or green oats, and cabbages. Thousand-headed kale do not seem to be extensively grown, but might be useful at this season. On the comparatively rainless prairie, the grasses during this dry period seem withered and dead, but even in that state appear not only to be able to support life, but to put both cattle and horses into prime condition; a considerable area, however, is required—some of 20 or 30 acres for each animal—but “room” is not a scarce commodity in some parts of Canada. Where the rainfall is greater or more evenly distributed, turnips and mangolds can be very successfully grown, and when this is the case there is little difficulty in seeing the stock safely through the winter, with the help of the hay previously made and some grain or other artificial food. Over a large area, and especially in Western Ontario, the place of roots is taken by silage, made of chopped green maize, of which a great crop can be grown per acre.

Both fall and spring wheat are grown on the prairie. Fall wheat is for the most part confined to the semi-arid region in southern Alberta, which was once, and that not long ago, given up to the rancher, because it was considered too dry for wheat-raising.

It was found, however, that the moisture, if not abundant, was, when properly conserved, sufficient, and that the comparative mildness of the winter made it possible to grow fall wheat. Little progress, however, was made, till the introduction a few years ago of "Alberta Red." In 1902, 3444 acres were sown. In 1908, the area under fall wheat in Alberta alone was 101,000 acres. Sowing begins in July or August. The wheat grows to a height of 6 or 8 inches in the autumn. It remains in the ground for a whole year. Its longer life enables the roots to penetrate farther into the soil both in search of food and water, and it produces a heavier and an earlier crop than spring wheat.

Alberta's advance in education may be judged from Dr. Tory's account of the Alberta University, of which he is principal. He expects the province to develop as rapidly as did Ontario between the years of 1850 and 1900, and says that if the present influx of settlers continues, there will not be a vacant homestead south of the Saskatchewan River in four or five years. Speaking of the college to which he went as principal after a considerable period as professor of mathematics at McGill University, Dr. Tory said—

"The State University of Alberta commenced work last fall with a freshman class of forty-five students, most of whom are the sons of Ontario farmers who have settled in Alberta. We are at present working in rented quarters, but our first building, which is being designed with an eye to future needs

at a cost of \$300,000, will be ready for occupation in a few months. We began last year with faculties of arts and science, and it is intended to give a course in agriculture, and in four or five years expect to have enrolled at least five hundred students."

As to emigration, Dr. Tory said that almost all of the men who came in had been on the land before, and in most cases were well off. English and Scotch were especially welcome. "There is also great activity in railway development," said Dr. Tory. "Beside the Great Northern, the Canadian Pacific Railway, and the Grand Trunk Pacific, there is a recently chartered road, the Great Waterway Railway, about to be constructed by an independent company. The new road is expected to carry communication 400 miles north from Edmonton to Fort McMurray, where it will connect with the great chain of river and lake navigation and open up the great Peace River tract. Up there are extensive forests and wheat tracts."

As an illustration he mentioned that the single riding of Medicine Hat, in the western province of Alberta, in Canada, had an area of fertile soil sufficient to grow 200,000,000 bushels of wheat annually. In Great Britain and Ireland we grew 50,000,000 bushels last year, and we imported 150,000,000 bushels more. Medicine Hat could supply all the wheat we required. He was aware that we also imported a certain quantity of flour, but it was safe to say that two of their constituencies could give Great Britain and Ireland all the bread

they ate in a year. That would give them some idea of the possibilities of the Dominion of Canada.

Of late we have heard much of the maintenance of British power as a vital necessity for Canada as for the rest of the Empire. British power is the safeguard of Canadian autonomy and of the free British institutions that are Canada's most cherished possession. Now, power is, after all, a matter of men and money, and especially men. Are Canadians satisfied that all is as it should and might be, in this matter of the new men who are bringing the new Canada of the west into the national life? We turn to Mr. Oliver's last report, and we find that during the past twelve years the immigration of British origin was 487,720 souls, as against a non-British immigration of 732,022. The new homesteaders in the west are preponderatingly non-British. About one-half of this non-British immigration of the past twelve years has come from the United States, and the Deputy Minister speaks of it as "the most satisfactory feature of the immigration," in view of the "splendid character and quality" of these newcomers from the United States. Out of the 58,312 United States immigrants of last year, no fewer than 48,000 took up free homesteads, and most of the rest purchased land and went into farming, while the actual cash they brought into Canada in one year was about \$52,000,000. Every Canadian and every friend of Canada welcomes this sturdy addition to Canada's population,

and believes that it must and will strengthen the political stability and welfare of the country. But it is not to be supposed that immigrants from the Republic, however desirable, will have the same regard for British institutions as those who are of direct descent. In 1909 the estimate of the number of the American immigrants is 80,000. Lord Grey spoke of these men as only repaying part of the debt the United States owes to Canada, a country that sent 40,000 men to fight in the Northern armies to maintain the union of the United States against Southern secession. The spirit in which these immigrants have taken their place among the ranks of Canadian citizens warrants that they will be true to the free institutions of the northland, which welcomes them most cordially, and believes that they will prove themselves to be bone of her bone, and flesh of her flesh.

CHAPTER IX

ATHABASCA

THE RESOURCES OF THE GREAT NORTHLANDS¹

“THE great central division of Canada, called the Empire of the North, in dealing with the northward flight of scientific agriculture, is indeed a country of strange potentialities, as well as a region strangely misunderstood and largely misrepresented. That this great empire of the north has in itself untold wealth in its vast agricultural resources one will admit; that it possesses one of the greatest systems of inland navigation, comprising a total length of over 3500 miles of river and lake, is evident, but the statement that this region is immensely rich in minerals, fisheries, and timber may perhaps be questioned.

“While little is known yet of the extent of the mineral wealth of this region, enough has been discovered to predict enormous deposits of varied character, and although no systematic examinations have yet been made, and the extent not generally known, we are certain that mineral wealth does exist in large quantities. Gold is found in practically all of the mountain streams, and the upper

¹ By Fredk. S. Lawrence, F.R.G.S.

Peace, known to be extremely rich in places, is not worked owing to difficulty of access. Silver, copper, and iron are found in quantities. Marl, for manufacture of cement, brick clay, building stone, and limestone are common. Valuable medicinal springs are reported. Platinum, mercury, and mica have been discovered. Sand suitable for the manufacture of the best grades of glass is plentiful. Pure gypsum in veins of 15 feet in thickness is exposed to view on the lower Peace River. Salt is found in large quantities on the surface of the ground near Fort Smith, Northern Alberta, indicating a mountain of salt, out of which the streams flow which deposit the salt on the plains below. This salt is simply shovelled off the ground, and is used without any refining process whatever, and is not only fit for table use, but has been proved by analysis to be equal to the best quality of standard table salt used in Europe or America. About 250 miles south of this, rock salt 150 feet in thickness was discovered at a depth of 830 feet below the surface. Coal is found on practically all of the streams from the Rockies to within 300 miles of Hudson Bay, and from the international boundary to the Arctic Ocean. These outcroppings are found in seams varying from 6 inches to 28 feet in thickness, and represent all grades—lignite, bituminous, and anthracite coal; the latest discoveries being those of anthracite on the Peace River.

“Near Pincher Creek, in southern Alberta, last year oil was struck in large quantities, which was

pronounced by the Standard Oil explorer to be the finest quality known. Crude petroleum is found in hundreds of places all through this vast northern territory along the Athabasca, Peace, and Mackenzie Rivers, and there is every evidence that we have in western and north-western Canada the largest oil-fields in the world. It will doubtless be some satisfaction to some of our eastern capitalists to learn that they no longer need to go to Texas to get soaked in oil. Their money, being used to foster home enterprises, instead of foreign, will ultimately come back to their own pockets, instead of into the pockets of the Texas promoters.

“What is said to be the largest gas well in the world was struck at a depth of 860 feet eleven years ago at the Pelican Rapids, on the Athabasca River, by the Government, who were boring there for oil. The tremendous flow of gas stopped their work, and, thinking that it would exhaust itself, they waited a year, then went back to resume drilling operations. It was not only escaping then, but has been ever since. It has been lighted, and the roar of flames which shot up into the air from 60 to 80 feet could be heard for a mile. No effort has as yet been made to check this enormous waste, and it would be difficult to estimate the tremendous loss that this means to the country. I believe that it would be money well spent to plug up this hole and prevent further loss. Perhaps it is thought that we have such a quantity of gas in our northern country that we can afford to let it waste. About

400 miles distant from this gas well I boiled my camp kettle over a gas spring which I found bubbling out of the ground. One can scarcely realise the immense economic value of these vast deposits of fuel and energy, underlying as they do thousands upon thousands of square miles of territory, as in these deposits alone Canada has in her north-western possessions a heritage of priceless value.

“Though it may not appear so at first sight, one of the most interesting mineral deposits is the immense asphalt field of the Athabasca district. When we make the statement that it is without question the largest deposit in the world, we do so only after full knowledge and careful study of the facts of the case. The deposit in question covers an area of over 1000 square miles, and the amount of pure bitumen in this territory is estimated by geologists at the modest figure of 4,000,700,000,000 tons. Trinidad has supplied about 85 per cent. of the bitumen used in the United States and Canada, amounting approximately to 80,000 tons per annum. Allowing that 80,000 tons have been used every year for, say, thirty years, or 2,400,000 tons, Athabasca could have supplied the full amount, and would still have left 4,676,000,000 tons. Consider that during the past twenty years the United States and Canada have expended over \$125,000,000 in asphalt paving alone, then imagine where our cold, uninviting northland would have stood to-day had it been used as the source from which this supply

was obtained. It has been claimed by some that this deposit is not asphalt. It is asphalt, the simple, crude material, being a hydro-carbon of an asphaltic base, and which may be found from a liquid to a solid state. Bituminous paving rarely contains over 10 per cent. of bitumen, and the life of the pavement has nothing to do with the particular state of the native deposit. The life of the pavement does depend upon the percentage of bitumen used; the proper proportioning of the ingredients and the skill employed in, not only the manufacture, but its application to the street. Many towns of some importance are putting up with muddy streets, and some of our larger cities are putting up with muddy lanes and alleys, so we can but conclude that the paving industry is just in its infancy. The opening up of this vast source of paving material right at our own doors, in our own country, is bound to prove of incalculable benefit to this nation.

“But this part of Athabasca, though larger than all of Manitoba, is not the only part of this northern district in which asphalt is found. It is found hundreds of miles to the westward, along the Peace River, and hundreds of miles north on the Mackenzie. It is found welling up in the woods, oozing out through crevices in rocks, sluggishly flowing over a river bank, or bubbling up in some muskeg. The timber industry is destined to play an important part in the opening up of this country. There is a large amount of timber, large enough for the manufacture of lumber, found on all these streams flowing

eastward out of the Rocky Mountains, as well as on the Pacific slope, and along all the lakes and rivers. Spruce which measures 2 feet in diameter is found even as far north as the delta of the Mackenzie River. On the Peace and Athabasca River lowlands, and on the islands, it is found up to 4 feet 4 inches in diameter, and to 140 feet in height. On the highlands it seldom exceeds 2 feet in diameter, but, like the poplar, it carries its size up well. Cottonwoods are frequently found measuring 5 feet in diameter, and poplar up to $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet. There are millions of cords of pulpwood. Poplar and birch affect the higher land, and the spruce and hemlock the valleys. Poplar can be largely used for commercial purposes; when sawed it makes excellent flooring, and the smaller sizes make excellent pulpwood. The white poplar in the north is different from the poplar in the east, being finer grained, and a larger tree."

These are the words of a personal witness of the resources he describes.

CHAPTER X

NAVAL AND MILITARY DEFENCE

OTTAWA, *January 6, 1910.*

AN important address was delivered by Sir Wilfrid Laurier in Toronto on the occasion of the formal opening of the Ontario Club, the new social headquarters of the Liberal party in the province.

In his speech the Premier dealt almost exclusively with Canada's naval policy. He said that many nations in the Old World had gone war-mad. Canada's unexampled and splendid position of being a nation under the British Crown had founded new problems—the newest problem being that of defence. The Parliament of Canada had unanimously declared that the time had come when Canada should bear a share of the burden entailed by the defence of the Empire. There were questions of the security of commerce, the protection of Canada's coasts, and the warranty which Canada's actions would give of trying to secure the peace of the world, because all nations knew that Canada did not desire any aggrandisement, and did not seek any other object than the

defence of her own interests. This was what Canada meant when Parliament unanimously resolved upon forming the nucleus of a Canadian navy.

GERMANY AND GREAT BRITAIN.

Some Canadians wanted an immediate contribution to the British navy, the reason for their urgency being that danger of invasion by Germany was imminent. In 1912 the British navy would have a displacement of more than 2,000,000 tons, and the German navy of about 1,000,000 tons. This disparity was too great to justify the statement that danger was imminent. He knew something about the position in Germany, but there were some things which he did not know. He did not know what might be at the back of the head of the German Emperor. It might be that he was preparing for war; it might be that he was preparing for an attack. But if the German Emperor was true to his own words, if blood was thicker than water, then he (Sir Wilfrid Laurier) doubted very much whether it was the Emperor's intention to attack the royal family from which he sprang. He had no hesitation in saying that the German people would not favour such an attack if it did not accord with their traditions. He could well conceive that the Germans had a score to wipe out with France, because the armies of France had overridden those of Germany time and again in Saxony, Prussia, Bavaria, and Austria.

THE POSITION OF CANADA.

The Premier continued: "In all these wars England was by the side of Germany, and when Germany was humiliated by France, by Napoleon, it was England's alliance with Germany that saved her. I cannot believe that these things have been forgotten, and if there be war I have only this to say, that in Canada we maintain that the naval supremacy of Great Britain is essential to the security of commerce. It is a pledge to the world, and if England is in danger—I cannot believe she is in danger, but if she be strongly pressed—all I can say is that there will be a wave of sentiment all over Canada to go to the rescue of the Old Land. But, however, we will not be stampeded by any words of that kind. We must prepare our own navy. We must do it in our own way. This is the position we take, and I think it will be approved by the people of Canada."

NAVAL DEFENCE.

A few years have made a great difference in the views held by our dominions on the subject of naval defence. Formerly it was held as a matter of course that all naval defence would be undertaken by the mother country, the utmost that might be expected of the Colonial Governments being that they might encourage enlistment in the British navy of their fishermen and coast

people. The defence of the great lakes had long ago been wisely left by international treaty to a mere police force of small gunboats; but in the "nineties" came a change. The old country thought the time had come for Canada to take over the garrison work at the ports of Halifax on the Atlantic, and Esquimalt on the Pacific coast. The regular garrisons were withdrawn, and these ports became no longer the headquarters of ships of war more or less attached to these harbours. Before this change took place, and before the regrets of the maritime provinces were sought to be assuaged by the declaration that large squadrons instead of single ships should visit often the apparently deserted waters, any suggestion of the inception of a Canadian navy was laughed at. In 1881 a suggestion had been made that it would be a good thing to get a warship over from England, and to station her at Halifax, where she might serve as a training vessel for gunnery and naval exercises for the dwellers along the eastern coasts. Lord Northbrook, then at the Admiralty, did send over the *Charybdis*, an old flush-deck corvette, for this purpose. At once there was a cry of derision raised in the papers of the eastern provinces against this "commencement of Canada's infant navy." It was at first difficult to surmise what this opposition meant. It turned out that the derision was only an emphatic protest against a nightmare which had frightened most of the schoolmasters,

and therefore many of the editors of the provincial newspapers, causing them to believe that the navigation classes, instituted in the schools for the proper education of the mercantile marine, were to be interfered with, by the institution of a rival nautical academy on board the unfortunate *Charybdis*. This was enough to raise the laugh at the inefficiency of the vessel, which certainly would have been useless in fight, but useful for gunnery and other training. The *Charybdis* was not sunk under the hail of gibes, but was ignominiously sent back to be broken up in the old country. But now it became evident that as Canada had become possessed of great trans-continental railways, so she would also not be content with her great tonnage in small vessels, but would be expected to do something to guard the waterways to Quebec and Sydney and Halifax and St. John's, on the one side of her possessions, and Vancouver, Esquimalt, and Nanaimo on the other side of the continent. Fast cruisers to cooperate with the British fleet in their heavy task of guarding all ocean routes, and heavy armaments for the defence of the base ports, from which naval operations must be conducted, were seen to be undertakings she owed to her own dignity and her place as one of the rising world powers.

Nor was it only among the eastern or western maritime populations that the interest in the possession of powers of defence at sea arose. The people in the central regions of the continent

knew that their markets depended on this great factor of co-operation with the mother country. They showed the keenest sympathy. Sir William White, for so long chief constructor of the navy, spoke at many meetings in 1909 on the subject, and found audiences who listened eagerly. It was a repetition of the experiences of France, many of whose ablest naval officers came from provinces that had no seaboard, and whose people had never gazed on the ocean. Why? Because La Pérouse, the famous navigator of over two centuries past, had come from central France, and his name had fired the imagination of his provincials. So men in Canada, or who had come from the United States of America into Canada to settle there, knew the tales of the old deeds of their forefathers on the sea, and knew also what is the fate of those who neglect to train for its empire, and avowed themselves Canadian navy men. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, ever foremost to lead his countrymen in large ideas, has not hesitated to show that in his opinion the young nation he serves so admirably will not allow herself to be backward in honourable endeavour. The country recognises that great efforts may be necessary to preserve intact her sea-borne trade, as well as to guard her overland routes. The Press has seriously concerned itself with discussions as to the best manner of carrying out a policy of concert for defence. The great navy of Britain must necessarily act in heavy squadrons, and most of the old country's striking force must be centred at

the point of greatest importance, namely, in waters where rival fleets are most formidable. While a Council of Defence must also have its headquarters in London, the naval and military needs of the oversea dominions can be fully represented on the Council. The advice of the Defence Council will be followed, giving full powers of concerted command to colonial officers. The ships will for a time be built in Britain, and paid for by colonial treasuries, and will be officered by men who have had the training, or the like training, of the imperial navy. In time naval education will be given in the Colonies. Meanwhile full advantage can be taken of the colleges at Osborne and Dartmouth. If colonial officers are to be preferred for colonial-paid ships, it will be as necessary to have a Canadian naval college as it has been found advisable to have a military college at Kingston, in the province of Ontario. Each young nation is naturally and laudably ambitious to have her troops or seamen led by their own officers. Once such colleges are at work, they educate not only for Canadian or Australasian forces, but also for the old country's service, just as even now Sir Percy Girouard is a Kingston cadet, and the names of MacDonald and others are known in the imperial navy as sons of Canadian senators or public men. Separate provision for adequate military or naval training in peace time is in no way antagonistic to undivided command in time of war. The Defence Council, assisted by colonial experience, would

indicate the commander of a united force in the man of the greatest and most generally accepted professional reputation. The colonial ships, under their own officers and manned by their own crews, could always guard their trade ports and guard communications at sea, and could take their place in the battle line in any combined operation for which they felt they were strong enough. Much money and much time will be necessary to make thoroughly efficient the necessary docks. At present it is proposed to have one for summer use at Quebec, and one for winter use at St. John's, capable of taking in large vessels. There are other sites which are tempting, such as Gaspé, near the mouth of the Bay of Chaleurs, in the province of Quebec, and Halifax, which latter harbour is always open, and has not the tremendous tides of the Bay of Fundy. But at Gaspé or at Sydney, in Nova Scotia, there are in winter considerable accumulations of ice-floes, and an ice-breaker steamer would probably be required to be kept in constant work during most winters. Halifax and St. John's would require no ice-breaking craft. On the Pacific, besides Esquimalt or Nanaimo, at which last place are great coal-mines, harbours could be made impregnable at several places along the sea, which is never troubled with any ice. With the sea and islands to the west and a sea of mountains easily capable of fortification to the east, places of strength far safer than Port Arthur could be made into naval bases at comparatively short notice.

MILITARY DEFENCE.

The Canadian means to be fully prepared to defend, through land forces as well as naval forces, the young nation which owns the most healthy portion of the North American continent, and has the best legal organisation for justice and the freedom of the citizen, and best climate to assist him in securing the country against the invasion of an enemy. Napoleon's march to Moscow would be repeated were an invasion to be attempted. Communications could be destroyed, and the invader left to the winter and starvation. Interior lines of traffic are constantly increasing in number. Before long it is likely that there will be the summer route to James Bay through Hudson Straits. The wealth of the country in products, men, and material is constantly increasing, making the storage of food and other supplies more easy at spots difficult for an invader to reach. But the best defence of all is that no power at present thinks of invasion. We are the best friends of the Japanese and Chinese, whose countless hosts, drilled on European models, and carried by invincible fleets, are supposed to be able to carry all before them. But Canada has now for more than a generation held the ambition to be not only self-sufficing against an invader, but also to be able to send a contingent to fight for the mother country if the old land be in peril, and

has resolved that her troops, whether kept for home defence or also partly for co-operation overseas, shall be troops worthy of her. It was with the purpose of insuring that good leading shall be given to stout hearts that Kingston College was founded. At first there was some grumbling, as must always be the case when any new project is undertaken by the Government of any free country. The newly appointed Minister of Militia went to the Governor-General and said he really could not propose to the House of Commons the necessary vote of 60,000 dollars. Why? Oh, it was unnecessary, and there were no places for the cadets when they had passed through the College, and no call in the country for the institution. It was represented to this gentleman, who must have been suffering for the moment from the depressing consequences of overwork at his election, that the United States of America found no difficulty in an over-provision of trained officers when they left West Point, and that the cadets there found that their training was greatly to their advantage in entering many professions in civil life if they could not find places in the regular army or among the State troops. Besides, what would the old country think of the Canadians if they took no steps to let their men "put in a proper appearance" on great occasions? The Minister was one of the best of men, and he went back to his colleagues, and the Cabinet fully sanctioned his request for the vote. It was asked for in the

House of Commons, and there was not one dissentient voice recorded against the continuation of the support which had been originally voted for the maintenance of this brain centre of the Canadian army.

The one evil which is alleged against the Canadian militia system is that the appointments to command are made too often with reference to politics. Failing a plan by which effective service can be constantly measured impartially, this is an inevitable fault, which will lessen as its consequences are seen. Certainly the higher commands have been well bestowed. The favour shown to local heroes of the elections has been the cause of British officers' remonstrances when regular officers from the old country have been placed over the militia, being the cause of offence. It is best that these exposures of faults in rewarding political services with military promotion should come from Canadian military authorities, who will know when and where any remonstrances will best tell. When they only excite irritation, it is doubtful if the service or the good feeling towards the regulars is increased. There was too much in the old days of the feeling among the British at home that their training and stores also were necessarily better than any. Thus when it was first proposed to start a small-arms ammunition factory at Quebec, remonstrances came from Woolwich and from the Horse Guards Office in Pall Mall, saying it was nonsense and unnecessary expense to begin the manufacture

of cartridges in Canada, which could much better be supplied from home. It was forgotten that stores might not be kept in great quantities for a campaign, and that during some months of winter it might be difficult to replenish them. Now both rifles and ammunition are excellently made in Canada, and it is possible to have large stores of both in the country in suitable places, making the Dominion's defence much stronger than if it relied only on British supplies.

To those who have seen the Canadian militia at work, those matters of tact and conduct will seem small, for nothing can be better than the appearance of the men, and nothing more striking than their willingness to do all that can be demanded of man. With the number of officers now available who have passed through the Kingston mill, any laxities would be promptly detected and corrected in times of emergency, when the troops in the field would be the first to distinguish, and make their Government distinguish, the good from the poor metal in the matter of efficiency of the officers. From the days of the little Fenian raids at Ridgway near Niagara, of the half-breed risings in 1870 at Winnipeg and 1885 at Batoche, to the days of the African War and the last review before the Prince of Wales at Quebec, there has been a rapid improvement in all branches, and on every occasion the militia have not only done well, but have greatly distinguished themselves. Faults there have been, but they are faults that the country

will fully provide against, and they do not wish to rival in one respect the ancient repute of their British comrades, who used in the old days to be called an army of liars led by asses. The drilling in schools and the celebration of Empire Day keeps before the eyes of the boys the great world Power of which they are citizens, and the value and honour of the Empire they must guard. The recognition in ordered ceremonial of the flag which is the symbol of the mighty union of free nations reminds them of the history of the heroes who have given life and won immortal fame in placing that flag wherever wave foams or land breezes blow. It is no empty boast that they are the youth of Freedom's vanguard. On them depends the keeping of the most beneficent federation history has known. Every lad in Canada learns this, and every lad will do his duty to land and Empire whenever the call may come.

SPEECH BY MR. BRODEUR.

Mr. Brodeur, in reply to the toast "Our Dominion," pointed out that the manufactured goods of Canada had increased from \$221,617,773 in 1871 to \$718,352,603 in 1906, the increase from 1901 to 1906 being at the rate of 66 per cent. At the same time exports of manufactured goods had enormously increased, from \$4,161,282 in 1888 to \$28,507,124 in 1908, more than doubling in the last ten years.

With all this development of trade, Mr. Bordeur argued that, with the present improved water routes, the time was ripe for an increase in Canada's ship-building trade, which had in the old wooden-ship days been very important. That had dropped, but with the increase in Canada's iron and steel industries the time had again come when the raw material of shipbuilding for modern vessels was at hand. A splendid opportunity for this development was given by the coming establishment of the Canadian Naval Service.

"It seems," said Mr. Brodeur, "that a Canadian navy is to be built very soon—why should it not be built in this country?"

Sketching the history of the naval movement, Mr. Brodeur showed it took three phases. First, the creation of a Canadian naval service. Second, that owing to our constitutional relations with the Empire, periodical contributions to the navy could not be permitted. But, thirdly, that in case of emergency Canada would be ready to make any sacrifice to maintain the honour and integrity of the Empire.

"The defence of our territory and protection of our trade are part of our national duties," said Mr. Brodeur. "We must make all necessary provisions for that defence and that protection, and the suggestion that an election should take place on that naval programme should be considered as a slur upon the people—that they are not alive to the fulfilment of those obligations. When we formulate the wish to

maintain the honour and integrity of the British Empire, does that necessitate a formal mandate from the people? We are all happy to live under the British flag, and to be a part of that mighty Empire which has done so much for the civilisation and peace of the world, and for the two great causes of freedom and liberty. As a nation we control our affairs the way we like. We negotiate our own commercial treaties. No political treaty affecting Canada is made without the consent of the Canadian Government. We therefore have powers and privileges. We have also obligations and responsibilities, and these we are prepared to meet. We cannot say that because Great Britain has defended us in the past we should let her go on doing so—such a position would not be worthy of the Canadian name.”

As to the talk of a burden imposed by the navy, Mr. Brodeur showed that Chili had 11 battleships and cruisers, Netherlands, 28; Norway, 10; Sweden, 19, and the Argentine, in an almost exactly similar position to Canada, 17. All these countries were either of less population and resources, or about equal to Canada, and in view of what they were able to do, it seemed reasonable that Canada should at least have warships to defend her coasts and protect her commerce.

“It has been said,” proceeded Mr. Brodeur, “that there is a part of Canada to whom this will not appeal—and it is intimated that Quebec Province is that part, and that we French-Canadians

would not be ready to take our share in the defence of the Empire. As a French-Canadian I am glad to declare that if such emergency should arise, the French-Canadians would be the first to hasten to do their duty to the Empire. No one realises better than the French-Canadians what Canada owes to the prestige of the British Crown, and that we could not have developed as we have without its protection. We have been protected in our rights and privileges, and the institutions we attach importance to. Could we have enjoyed these in similar measure under such countries as Germany or the United States?

“When we come to discuss this question before the people of this province there will be one people only, and one cry only, and that will be to do as I am doing to-day, and to show that those who try to rouse the prejudices of the French-Canadians, and induce them against doing their duty to the British Empire, are the worst enemies the French-Canadians ever had. We must unite ourselves to the majority, not only to upbuild this country, but to maintain for ever the honour and integrity of the British Empire. And I know that if ever that day should come, my compatriots would be the first to devote their energy and blood if needs be for the defence of the Empire to which we French-Canadians owe so much. And further, I would say it is our duty as Canadians to participate in any wars in which the honour or integrity of the Empire might be endangered, and I know that the French-Canadians will be prepared to do that.”

OTTAWA, *January 12.*

It seemed like the irony of fate that after months of study of the naval situation, Mr. Brodeur, Minister of Marine, should be prevented by serious illness from presenting the Government's proposals to the House of Commons to-day on its reassembling after the Christmas vacation. The duty, therefore, devolved upon the Premier. The Bill is intituled "An Act respecting the Naval Service of Canada."

Sir Wilfrid Laurier's observations were confined strictly to an explanation of the provisions of the measure, and he expressed the hope that Mr. Brodeur would be able to give full explanations on the second reading. The Bill provided for the creation of a naval service with a naval force, to consist of a permanent corps, a reserve force, and a volunteer force on the same pattern as provided by the Militia Act. The only variation from the Militia Act was that naval service would be voluntary, whereas under military law all males between eighteen and sixty years of age were liable to serve. The naval branch would be under the control of the Department of Marine and Fisheries. There would be a Director of the Naval Service, and the Department would be assisted by a Naval Board, which would advise on naval affairs. Active service as applied to any person in the force meant service or duty during an emergency, defined as "war, invasion, or insurrection, real or

apprehended." The Premier said that there was an important provision which stated that "in the case of emergency the Governor in Council may place at the disposal of his Majesty for general service in the Royal Navy, the naval service, or any part thereof." If such action were taken by the Government at any time when Parliament was not sitting, then Parliament was to be summoned to meet within fifteen days. Pensions were to be granted under the same conditions as in the militia. A naval college was to be established on the same lines as the Military College at Kingston.

EMERGENCY AND WAR.

Mr. Sproule, referring to the definition of an emergency, inquired what was meant by war?

The Premier replied that it meant war anywhere in which Great Britain was engaged. If Great Britain was at war, Canada was at war, and would be immediately liable to invasion.

Proceeding, Sir Wilfrid Laurier said that the strength of the naval force would be limited only by the number of ships. Referring to the discussion at the Defence Conference in London, he said that the Government proposed to create a fleet consisting of four ships of the Bristol type, one of the Boadicea type, and six destroyers, to be divided between the Atlantic and Pacific coasts. The cost to Canada would be £2,338,000, and if the vessels

were constructed in the Dominion, this figure would be increased 22 per cent. It was intended to begin building in Canada as soon as possible.

Mr. Lake asked when it was expected that the ships would be in commission. The Premier replied that he could not answer the question, and concluded by expressing the belief that the Government's proposals would commend themselves to the country.

MR. BORDEN'S (LEADER OF THE OPPOSITION)
REPLY TO THE PREMIER.

Mr. Borden, leader of the Opposition, after expressing regret at the illness of Mr. Brodeur, referred to the resolution adopted unanimously by the House of Commons of Canada on March 29 last. He dwelt on the advantages to Canada of her relations with the Empire, and twitted Sir Wilfrid Laurier with still holding views in favour of Canadian independence, as shown by his declaration during this session that the proposed Canadian navy would go to no war unless the Parliament of Canada chose to send it. Could the rest of the Empire, he asked, be at war with some great naval Power and Canada be at peace? The Premier's declaration, he held, meant the complete severance of every tie which now bound Canada to the Empire. But before the flag was lowered on Canadian soil there were some millions of Canadians who would know the reason why. Mr. Borden

declared that he was no militarist, but he fully realised the necessity of provision for defence. Canada could not be a hermit nation. Mr. Gladstone in 1878 said that the strength of England would not be found in alliances with great military Powers, but in the efficiency and supremacy of her navy—"a navy as powerful as the navies of all Europe."

THE ACTION OF THE DOMINIONS.

The resolution of last March provided for definite action by Canada in the case of emergency or peril. The Admiralty experts at the Defence Conference had recommended the establishment of fleet units by the great Dominions. Australia, with a population of 2,000,000 less than Canada, had unhesitatingly accepted this recommendation, while New Zealand had undertaken to furnish one Dreadnought. The proposals of the Canadian Government were, in his opinion, altogether inadequate. They were too much for experiment in the organisation of the Canadian naval service, and too little for immediate and effective aid. The speediest organisation could not make the Canadian navy effective in less than fifteen or twenty years. A crisis would come within five—probably within three—years. Great Britain, through her ablest and wisest sons, had said within the past few months that the hour of peril was fast approaching. He (Mr. Borden) had a profound admiration for

the German people, and considered that the consolidation and organisation of the German empire, the predominance of her military power, and the development of her commerce were the most notable events of the past half-century. The Germans were supreme on land, and now they boldly challenged British supremacy on the ocean. Britons had no right to resent the challenge, but unless their blood flowed less red in their veins they would meet it with hearts no less firm than those with which their forefathers encountered the shock of the Invincible Armada.

THE BRITISH AND GERMAN NAVIES.

Mr. Borden went on to compare German and British expenditure on naval construction and armaments during the past ten years, which involved the construction within a few years of the most powerful fleet the world had ever known. In this connection he quoted from the speeches of Mr McKenna, Mr. Asquith, and Sir Edward Grey in the British House of Commons on March 16 last. The Opposition leader insisted that Germany's programme was expressly directed against Great Britain, citing in proof of his statement the following extract from the German Naval Bill of 1900:—"Germany must possess a battle fleet so strong that a war with her would, even for the greatest naval Power, be accompanied with such dangers as would render that Power's position

doubtful.”¹ Germany, the dominant military Power upon land beyond all challenge, would not be satisfied until she had successfully wrested the control of the seas from Great Britain. That meant either the dismemberment of the Empire or its relegation to a condition of inferiority which would lead to its early dissolution. The highest authority in Great Britain had declared that ships of the Dreadnought type would alone count at a very early date. No one would pretend that the British Navy was not supreme to-day, but the continuance of that supremacy would cease within the next two or three years at the most, unless extraordinary efforts were made by the mother country and all the great Dominions. Nothing could be more significant than the observation of the Parliamentary Secretary of the Admiralty in which he spoke of the danger of a sudden raid. An official warning could not be couched in more significant language. The heart of the British Empire was in the British Islands. The crisis was more immediate to-day than it was eight months ago. Germany’s policy had not changed since then. On the contrary, she had put forward the greatest naval Budget in her history, and yet Sir Wilfrid Laurier dismissed the danger with a wave of his hand and with eloquent phrases. Would the dissolution of the Empire

¹The actual words of the sentence to which Mr. Borden refers in the preamble to the German Navy Law of 1900 are as follows :—
“Germany must have a fleet of such strength that, even for the mightiest naval Power, a war with her would involve such risks as to jeopardise its own supremacy.”

signify nothing to Canada and her people? How could any man receiving and accepting the protection of the British flag, the advantage of British citizenship, the safeguarding of the Canadian coasts, and the advantages of diplomatic and consular services throughout the world, reconcile it with his self-respect to have every dollar of cost paid by the overburdened taxpayer of the British Islands? Canada had the power to adopt that position if she chose, because the liberties which Canadians had as an act of right and grace were in this respect absolute, but he could not conceive it to be a worthy or honourable course.

A QUESTION OF HONOUR.

It was not so much a question of duties or obligations to the mother country as of honour and self-respect. He was the descendant of those who had never lived under any other than the British flag since it first streamed to the free winds of heaven. He was profoundly and unalterably attached to British institutions and connections, and as ready to work, and if necessary to fight, for them as any man in Canada. But if his country—one of the richest in the world in proportion to its population—accepted the humiliating, degrading, and pauperising condition of receiving future protection and safety at the hands and at the cost of British taxpayers without contributing one dollar in aid or assistance, he would say that the sooner the Empire

got rid of her the better. When the battle of Armageddon came, when the Empire was fighting for its existence, when the kinsmen of the other great Dominions were in the forefront of the battle, were Canadians to sulk silent and inactive in their tents, contemplating with smug satisfaction their increasing crops and products, or, pauper-like, to seek fancied but delusive security in an appeal to the charity of some indefinite and high-sounding political doctrine of the great neighbouring nation? There would be no such outcome. If Canada were true to herself she would not fail in the day of trial, but would stand proud, powerful, and resolute in the very forefront of the sister nations. Canada must not be unprepared. Let the Government go on with its naval service. Let them proceed cautiously and surely; let them lay the proposals before the people and give them an opportunity of being heard. But let them not forget that Canada was confronted with an emergency which might rend this Empire asunder before the proposed service could be worthy of its name.

A SUGGESTED CONTRIBUTION.

In the face of such a situation he had no doubt that immediate vigorous and earnest action was necessary. Canada had no Dreadnought, no fleet unit, but she could purchase one or could send the equivalent in cash to be used under certain conditions, as the Admiralty might determine. In taking

this course Canada would fulfil not only in the letter, but in the spirit, the resolution of last March and, what was infinitely more important, she would be discharging a great patriotic duty.

Mr. Jameson (Conservative, Nova Scotia) submitted that the question should be put before the electorate.

Mr. Monk (Conservative, Quebec) said that he emphatically objected to the creation of any navy, and reaffirmed the views expressed by him some months ago. He declared that the Bill meant that Canada would participate in all the wars of the Empire, and that at the same time she would have no voice or representation in the British Parliament.

The Bill was then read a first time.

If there be difficulty in getting fishermen and others in the maritime provinces to drill during the open-water season, the Dominion Government knows where to go for a model of a naval drill establishment on shore. They have only to copy the arrangements made at Whale Island, near Portsmouth, England. There men are exercised at all heavy-gun practice from warship turrets placed on shore. Nothing can be easier than to have such practice carried out in winter in Canada from the shelter of sheds. The sea off Halifax is always open, as it is in the English Channel. Large sheds would protect the men against cold when standing about and listening to instruction given.

MILITARY.

The value of the training of officers to command a national militia was amply provided for in the American Civil War between the Northern and the Southern States, when nearly every man who distinguished himself as a leader on either side had been trained at West Point. When in the "seventies" a Canadian Government took this lesson to heart, and founded the Military College at Kingston, very many were inclined to think that Canada was spending money in a way which could not be justified by practical use. It was said Canada would never make war; her genius was for peaceful development, her institutions were safe—who would abate them? The usual language of the lazy dog was used: "Lie down, and let events tickle me—that's all I want." But fortunately for her manhood and self-respect, and for the keeping of the laws and liberties and lands her founder had won, it was seen that the hand God has given to man to hold out in friendship and to clasp a neighbour's hand, was also designed by the Almighty to form into a fist for self-defence. It is a discovery all people make in time; but some are so lazy about making it, that they have a lot of trouble before regaining the freedom they have taken to be a privilege no one can envy, and their goods to be advantages no one can covet. Wisdom for power of defence comes sometimes too late. When Canada found

that her laws and freedom and territories were worth defending, she founded a training school for men to lead her defensive forces. These men were to take to any profession they chose, but at the call of the Mother they were to come back to defend home. And the defence they were expected to maintain was to be an intelligent defence, and not a mere beating of the air and a making of faces at an enemy, and the giving of a few warlike howls, as was the Chinese custom in olden days. This was an instinct in feeling arising from a respect for themselves and what their fathers had won and bequeathed to them. Then there was also another thought, which came from independence and self-respect—namely, that if Canada got into trouble, it would not be a very dignified and independent line of action to let the old country bear more than her share of the fighting. On the contrary, most Canadians were quite ready to let the younger nation prove she was as good as the old by taking full share and share alike, if not more. There were backward parties. Did anybody ever know any commonwealth in which there were not, and are not, backward parties? When any fighting is going on outside a city, it is marvellous how quiet and unconcerned most of the people in the streets seem to be, unless the shells are beginning to be heard overhead. If the sounds of the artillery are only a distant thunder, men and women gossip about street corners, read lazily the latest notices placed about the streets, eat, drink, and chatter and lounge much

as at other times. So in regard to preparation for trouble, there are parties in all states who say "What is the use?" or that they will be ready when the time comes. It is easy to grow a muscle in five minutes! It takes so little time to teach a man who has never handled a rifle to hit a mark! It is native to so many gallant fellows to believe that a mere martial appearance will be enough to deter the flashing bayonets after the fusillade; and as to artillery, a mere child can turn the handle of a quick-firer, and a good eye judge the range for the burst of shrapnel! The fool's paradise is always being formed and tended and enjoyed until—something happens. "The blind god Chance, central of circumstance," is worshipped, and it fails, and is cast down when misery and humiliation has rewarded the idolater. Canada with her own hands has built up her paradise, and does not mean to leave its maintenance to the blind god Chance. And thus at Kingston her youths learn how to close the fist of the Fatherland and go forth, after the instruction is fully learned, to open the hand in commercial friendship, which is all the stronger because it can be defended. "The best friends have the best fences." "Les meilleurs amis ont les meilleurs haies," or "clôtures," as the French Canadian says.

But this language of delay and of impotency is used by the same sort of people who, if they had the Governments in their hands, would have prevented any country from ever having a railroad, a

steamer, electricity, or the fruition of any invention demanding money, courage, imagination, or any of the qualities you can imagine as necessary to the progress of a nation. The ideas of these people in every generation have to be politely stamped out. In Australia we have seen a whole population insisting upon its youth making themselves able to defend their heritage, and, as in the case of New Zealand, determined to contribute far more than their quota to defend the Empire. In Canada every schoolboy is to be trained, and last year saw 16,000 of the militia, representing all races throughout her territories, march past the Prince of Wales, led by officers who had all received Canadian instruction, and many of whom had fought for the Empire upon the bloody battlefields of South Africa. We must not imagine that national preparation against evil, an insurance against military disaster, is not named "militarism" among the fools who always find a misapplied nickname for anything good or great of which they have not the spirit to partake. But the practical citizens of these great countries know that all danger of bullying of a military caste vanishes when the armed forces of a people represent its whole available manhood. They might just as well speak against parliamentarism, which could be harmful only if a small body of citizens assumed the functions of a national parliament. It was said at one time that there was no use in having a military college, because of the small army. All the pupils could not become officers. Experience of a

generation has proved that such military training is the best help for a man to obtain a position in civil life, where during peace time he can pursue his usual calling, and yet, when called to the ranks at a time of national emergency, he will be proved not to have forgotten how to command, as well as to work with his fellow-citizens. They who have seen the passionate eagerness with which the members of the Canadian militia flocked to their rallying-point at the mere suggestion of danger and of invasion, as was seen in 1866, at the time of the Fenian threats, know that a serious call would bring out practically every able-bodied man in the country. Successive Ministers of Militia and Defence have been doing their best to provide these men with good leadership. It is true that sometimes a demon of political favouritism, who loves to haunt all countries governed by the party machine, has persuaded politicians that the power of the tongue or the power of the purse constitute in themselves a splendid military training. This is, however, an imaginative weakness, which will be eradicated with time and the spread of military knowledge. One must put up with some blemishes, even in the greatest works of art, and the imperfections which, in the exercise of their duty, military officers sent from Great Britain have detected and exposed with an excusable indignation, are the blemishes in the work of art which is being gradually perfected by the Canadian people. That they are determined to have a thoroughly national force under men trained

in their own national schools, in whatever war may be waged by the mother country, is all to the advantage of the parent State.

The first thing necessary is to have strong local forces before you can talk of useful imperial co-operation. Old-fashioned men of a former time working at the London War Office were not always able to see the advantage of cutting the leading-strings and encouraging a colony to try to set up for herself: Thus, when it was proposed that a small-arms and ammunition factory should be established in Quebec, the remonstrances privately received asked why such unnecessary expense should be incurred when it was much best that the ammunition should be got from England. It is true enough that such ammunition was not likely always to be of the same pattern as that made in London for British rifles. Canada was likely to adopt another rifle. The inconvenience in an army working together with two systems of small-arms was a blemish, but the work of art was to get two well-armed forces into being, the British and Canadian, and if local causes tended to produce the work of art, the blemish and the possible inconvenience became a lesser trouble; besides, a home Government forgot that it was unlikely that a colonial Treasury would vote for the expense of much ammunition in stock, and in a certain month in the year it might be difficult to obtain ammunition from a larger store in England. Again, it may have been imagined at Whitehall, before the Canadian military youth had grown up

to manhood and experience of an actual campaign, that it was a blemish that imperial officers were not, as a matter of course, likely always to be selected for the command of a Canadian militia; but the work of art of the military perspective demanded the encouragement of local talent and the acceptance of Canadian service in wars undertaken by the British Government as affording a certainty of local excellence and to be rewarded by local command.

Then in considering how best the Canadian desire to assist in the strengthening of the navy may be met by opportunities afforded for the granting of men and means, we can with satisfaction remember the large number of sailors British North America possesses. Canada has a tonnage which stands very high among the total of the great Powers of the world; her mercantile marine consists of men, most of whom have never had the luxury of serving on well-appointed steamers, but are those who have dared the dangers of the sea in coasting-vessels and sailing-ships. The schools along the coasts of her maritime provinces have given good instruction in navigation, and the presence of these schools are to be taken into account for anything done to organise Canada's sea power. It was at one time proposed to organise an instruction in navigation and training for the navy aboard the warships to be stationed at Halifax. The Canadian Government liked the idea, and a corvette was sent out from Portsmouth to afford any boys sent for

training the necessary home and harbour. But the schoolmasters believed that their classes for navigation would be injured, and set their faces against the proposal, and the corvette was returned to the British Government, having only been of use as a warning to prevent similar mistakes being made in the future. As the same thing might be tried again, it is well to recall this experience. A provincial government in possession of the coast will be able to advise the Federal Cabinet as to the best way for utilising the present schools for the satisfaction of a national desire. It is possible that many objections might be met if qualified seamen were allowed by the Canadian Government to be drafted at times on board a British battleship for voluntary instruction in the complicated duties now belonging to a fighting seaman's profession, and especially in the knowledge so absolutely essential of the armament and how best to use it in firing at targets out at sea. This is instruction which no local navigation schools could ever give, and the schoolmasters will probably be the first to desire that the able instruction they have imparted may have its continuance to the benefit of their pupils, as the use of heavy guns and machinery must constitute for themselves their surest defence against foreign aggression.

It may be worth considering if British officers should not always have a spell of service with some "sister State" force. Why not give them six months or a year in Canada—and insure that each

officer knows something of the Australian forces and those of New Zealand as well?

Officers of all the Empire should be interchangeable in their respective ranks.

Would it not be possible to reserve a certain number of naval nominations at Osborne Naval College for boys from the oversea dominions?

DEFENCE—RECENT UTTERANCES.

Mr. Balfour summed up the situation in his speech at the luncheon given to the press delegates at the Constitutional Club. He justly said that the tone of the conference debates on this subject had been such as to give a glow of pride and pleasure to every man with imperial interests. One of the delegates later observed to me that the essential thing in this matter is that the dominions must take their part in their own way, and that their own way is undoubtedly a way which will not in any degree affect the sense of nationhood which has sprung up in Australia, in Canada, in South Africa. The finding of this way is a matter of the highest importance; but in endeavouring to discover it we should never lose sight of the great truth uttered by Mr. Balfour in his speech at the conference—a speech, by the way, which delighted our visitors by its vigorous optimism. Mr. Balfour declared—

“The fate of Australia, the fate of New Zealand, of Canada, South Africa, India—that is not going to be decided in the Pacific; it is not going to be

decided in the Indian Ocean; it is going to be decided here."

Lord ESHER—It might sound a paradox, but his earnest conviction was that they must—if they wanted to contribute their share of naval defence—first get clearly defined the *rôle* they had to play in war and peace for a limited number of years; then get their naval *personnel* efficient, up to date, and thoroughly trained, and the type of ship and the number required would inevitably follow. Their true guides would ultimately be not British experts, not the British Board of Admiralty, but their own experts, their own sea officers, who would have learnt their naval lesson in the main battle fleet, and who would be in close touch, not only with the strategical plans of the British Admiralty, but with their own sentiment and their own specific needs.

MILITARY QUESTIONS.

Sound military organisation was much the same all the world over. It could be summed up in three words—a General Staff. That phrase in its imperial sense and rightly understood meant this—that there should be absolute and complete touch between the directing heads of such various military forces as might be called upon to act together, that military words should have the same meaning and value, and, in short, that the *personnel* and material of war should be standardised throughout the Empire.

The Meaning of War Organisation.—The navy and the army, however, were not the beginning and end of imperial defence. War organisation meant in these days something more than the creation of fleets and armies. It meant the organisation in peace of all the resources, financial and personal, of a people. He suggested that victory in the future would lie with the nation that had organised every element of her being, her population and wealth, and had taken the fullest advantage of the discoveries of modern science. He hopefully looked forward to a time when the Committee of Imperial Defence would be strengthened for the consideration of the problems which they were met to discuss by the addition of representatives of the dominions. Every year it would be possible under the authority of the Sovereign to summon to that Committee, during a certain number of months, representatives of his subjects oversea. And if that ideal could be achieved they would have once more shown fertility of political resource.

Lord C. BERESFORD—Possibly the right plan would be for them to begin by having their own fleets in their own ports, under their own management, so long as there was standardisation of the ships belonging to the five nations with those of the mother nation. They should drill their officers and men in the imperial fleet. If three cruisers were sent from Australia to the Mediterranean, two from Canada, one from the Cape, the British fleet could send out other cruisers to occupy their places while

away training. They could be out there for three or four months together, and then go back to their own localities. He believed that that system of training would bring them together, and that it would have beneficial results. Let them imagine the result of an ordinary drill day. Suppose a Cape cruiser and a Canadian cruiser were the first and second in the thirty cruisers of a fleet, would not the British fleet be delighted, and would not the dominions be proud? That sounded very small, but it would be a very big thing in bringing these nations together. If they could do it in drill, how splendidly they could do it in war. Whenever one of the Dominion cruisers went to the British fleet, a British cruiser should take her place. Why? So that they could be always ready on the spot to protect the weakest point we had in our Empire—the trade routes. With regard to training, they might build what ships they liked; they might have the best boilers, the best engines, the best guns, the best armour, the best speed—but it was the human element that was going to win. An old fleet with well-trained men and officers, always working together, understanding one another, knowing what their admiral wanted, and the admiral having the confidence which was so necessary in his officers and men, would beat the best fleet that was ever put on the water with untrained officers and untrained men, no matter how good they might be individually.

The Need for Repairing Stations.—But it was

no use their having cruisers unless they had repairing stations ready. Owing to some extraordinarily mad infatuation which he could not account for—we having got and spent a large sum of money upon repairing stations all over the world, suddenly dismantled them. The result was that whatever we sent out in the way of cruisers would have to come home at some time for repair. He suggested to the oversea nations the desirability of putting those repairing stations in order, and helping the mother country to regain the Power standard by protecting the trade routes in the way he had suggested. By-and-by they would no doubt get into the way of having their own fleets in their own local waters. But the one point they must insist on was that when it came to war they must act under the great strategic bureau which would be at the Admiralty, but was not there now. We had got a great deal of leeway to make up owing to what he had described as our deferred liabilities. But we were perfectly capable of getting our defences on a sound footing if we made a deliberate and a sustained effort, and looked at the question from an imperial and a national standpoint. He asked them not to let the small—might he say mean?—but certainly ungenerous question of party enter into the matter. They had had all the prominent statesmen in this country giving them grave warnings. They had given the Empire those warnings because we were unprepared. These statesmen were of one accord. They were all different nations, it was

true, but they were all from the same stock, all had the same ideas, all had the same wishes and programmes with regard to imperial defence. Then, if that were the case, we could maintain our greatest interests in peace, and we could positively prevent, what he maintained the peoples of the world at this moment loathed and hated—namely, war.

General Sir JOHN FRENCH—In connection with the navy there was one point which stood out clearly before all others in his mind, a principle which he believed must be at the root and foundation of all imperial defence, and that was that there should be such a thorough and complete mutual understanding in peace times between the land and sea forces as should insure the most cordial and harmonious co-operation in war. The Imperial Defence Committee had done very much to establish this principle, but still he thought there was more required in this direction than had been already done. The point, however, which he wished particularly to raise also had reference to union and co-operation. Whilst seeking for a closer union with their own sister service, he thought they must also insure the utmost measure of harmony and co-operation among themselves—the great imperial army. Discussion had been rife for some time as to the advisability of making radical changes in our present system of raising and maintaining the land forces of the Empire. He was sure that such discussion had very great value in placing the whole subject of imperial defence before the public in all

its various aspects, and there was no doubt very much to be said in favour of the view which advocated universal national training. But he ventured to think that before committing ourselves to the adoption of drastic and far-reaching methods which would react forcibly upon the whole of our social system, we should first closely examine the means now actually at our disposal for purposes of imperial defence, and determine whether or not we were turning such means to the best possible advantage. We constantly heard it said that the numbers of our land forces compared very unfavourably with those of foreign Powers, yet if we totalled up the numbers of troops, including regular reserves, throughout the Empire—he meant troops which might be said throughout the year to appear on parade as soldiers, who handled rifles and shot at ranges—he was not referring to anything in the nature of rifle clubs, but to regularly constituted troops—the numbers of those reached a figure of over 1,000,000. This great force was widely separated and situated in all quarters of the globe; but they were linked together by our great fleet, and modern science had provided the most perfect means of communication between them. What was lacking was the machinery to weld them together as one great whole.

Need of an Imperial General Staff.—Such union and accord as he had briefly sketched could only be effected by the establishment of a great Imperial General Staff. He could assure them that the

utmost efforts were now being made at the War Office to forward this great work, and it was earnestly hoped and believed that the Colonies themselves would do all in their power to assist in it.

These speeches have been summarised as advocating—

1. Unity in supreme control of the naval forces of the Empire for purposes of war.
2. Standardisation or identity of "material" and "personnel."
3. Within the limits of these conditions, complete autonomy of the several dominions in respect of the local forces provided and maintained by them.

CHAPTER XI

NATIONAL HIGHWAYS OF CANADA

THE Canadian Pacific Railway now controls over 14,500 miles of track in Canada and the United States, and claims to be the largest railroad corporation in the world. By the recent acquisition of the Wisconsin Central Railroad it obtained a direct entry into Chicago, and added over 1000 miles to its system at the same moment.

Construction Work.—It is building across the Belly River at Lethbridge (Alberta) one of the largest bridges in the world, 307 feet above water-level, and 5327 feet long, the concrete foundations going down 24 feet below water, 12,000 tons of steel, 18,000 cubic yards of concrete, 20,000 barrels of cement, and 15,041 piles are being used in the work of construction; and the bridge, when complete, will be twice as high as the Forth Bridge and longer than (though not so high as) the Victoria Falls Bridge over the Zambesi River.

The new direct route from Winnipeg to Edmonton, *via* Regina, Saskatoon, and Wetaskiwin, will be open in September 1909, and passengers will be able to go straight into Edmonton instead of, as at present, changing at Calgary. A high-level bridge

is being built across the river at Edmonton at a cost of about £300,000.

The lowering of the gradient between Hector and Field, in the Rocky Mountains, is now completed by means of a system of spiral tunnels which have been cut at a cost of £1,500,000. This lower gradient enables two engines to do the work required of four before, and heavy freight trains may now cross the Rockies at a rate of twenty miles an hour.

Altogether some £6,000,000 are being expended by the Canadian Pacific on extensions this year, of which £4,000,000 will be on western lines. One extension from Langdon North to Alix will intersect the 3,000,000-acre irrigation block near Calgary, which is filling up very rapidly with settlers from all over the world.

Irrigation and Fruit-Farming.—The Company's well-known irrigation project at Calgary has grown in popularity, especially with British farmers, of whom over 200 have gone out within the last three months. To one party alone nearly 10,000 acres were sold. It is expected that the first of the three million acres embraced within the scheme will be fully settled this year. The Company are expecting to finish 600 miles of extension canals on the second million acres this summer, and by the time the whole work is completed they will have over 3000 miles of canals.

The Company have had for some time a number of men at work on Vancouver Island engaged in

clearing land for the purpose of planting fruit-trees. This is the Company's own land, and, with the extension of the railway line to Alberni, an immense fertile district of virgin soil will be tapped.

Another district that will, by the extension of the railway, be opened up is the fertile Columbia Valley, lying between Golden and Vancouver, and Cranbrook and Nelson. This is admirably adapted for fruit-farming.

The Canadian Pacific Lands Department have established an office at the headquarters of the Canadian Pacific Railway at Charing Cross. Personally conducted tours are frequently leaving for Canada, and when land is purchased on the irrigation block to the extent of 320 acres, both steamer and rail fares to Calgary from Liverpool are refunded, while rail fare is refunded to purchasers of 160 acres.

Industrial.—Last year Mr. I. O. Armstrong was appointed industrial agent for the Company, with headquarters at Montreal, his *raison d'être* being to act as guide, philosopher, and friend to Canadian, British, or American manufacturers who wish to settle along the line or to open Canadian branches. The success of this innovation has been pronounced. A pamphlet issued by Mr. Armstrong, "Some Resources and Openings," is in great demand among British capitalists and business men. Mr. F. W. Peters has established a similar office for the Canadian Pacific Railway at Winnipeg.

Cheaper Grain.—Owing to the great increase of

grain crops coming from the West, there has been some congestion of traffic caused by the increased number of freight trains; this will in future, so far as the Canadian Pacific is concerned, be obviated by sending a large part of the year's crop in Alberta *via* Vancouver and the Tehuantepec Railway to Europe. As the major part of this journey is thus made by water, it will cost less to send grain from Alberta to Liverpool by this Pacific Coast route than (as hitherto) overland by Fort William, and thence by the great lakes and an Atlantic port.

Hotels.—The Canadian Pacific Railway has added to the number of its hotels a palatial building, the Empress Hotel at Victoria. The Château Frontenac, the famous hotel on the edge of the cliff at Quebec, and the Banff Springs Hotel in the Rockies, are both being greatly enlarged to cope with the ever-increasing rush of visitors.

The institution of summer camps in connection with the Canadian Pacific mountain hotels has proved a great success, and has attracted a very large number of tourists to the Yoho Valley.

The flower gardens at the Canadian Pacific Railway stations right across the continent have long been a source of interest to travellers, adding as they do to the pleasure of a lengthened journey. The latest development of this floral work is the acquisition of farms in different parts of the country, at which the commissariat department intends to grow the vegetables, fruits, and flowers required for the hotels and railway dining-cars. Later on may

come the establishment of dairies and poultry pens. The Company intend to secure a uniform high-grade supply of fruits and vegetables by growing their own.

Telegraphs.—The Canadian Pacific has now about 65,000 miles of its own telegraph wires, and touches in this way not only stations along the line, but also conveys telegraphic messages to all parts of Western Canada.

Telephone Despatching.—On certain sections of its line, the Canadian Pacific has adopted with success a system of despatching trains by telephone instead of by telegraph, thus expediting its train service.

Exhibitions.—The Canadian Pacific Railway continues its very active propaganda abroad with the object of attracting settlers to Canada. Thus in the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition at Seattle it has erected an attractive pavilion, while another fine pavilion is to be erected next year at the Brussels International Exhibition.

The Canadian Pacific Railway has more than fulfilled the expectations of those who first thought of this national undertaking. It is difficult to realise that when the first Governor-General of the Dominion was in office the question as to whether such a line could be built, was the subject of discussion and opposition. Why incur this enormous expense? said the economical gentlemen who could not see how their people could rally to the effort. Is not a vast length of the distance to

be travelled made easy by water stretches? they asked. Why blast through the rocks of an inhospitable desert on the north shore of Lake Superior, when steamers can traverse the length of the lake? The Americans to the south of the frontier land were not obliged to carry their Pacific railway through such difficult tracts. They forgot how the Americans had wisely resolved to have no break in the trail from ocean to ocean. It is true that easy passes over the Rocky Mountains had been found in the United States territory, whereas with us there was no saying if a practical pass over the Selkirk Range could be found at all; but to shrink from the all-rail route in Canada was to accept the fate of having the country cut into two during the winter season, when steamers could not traverse the great lakes. Yet both at the eastern and western ends of the projected land route work had been begun, surveys were undertaken, and the community, through the enterprise of two leading men, was being educated to believe that the nation must be bound together by the iron road; and, as is usual in British States, individual citizens were determined to lead the way by their own initiative, to compel the Government to follow them.

From the Pacific side a track was begun up the Fraser River, and the gigantic rocky buttresses of the hills between which the river foamed were being bored with tunnels, and light cobweb-like bridges were being thrown across the lateral ravines; yet British Columbians shook their heads, and hardly

believed the good fortune that was to come to them.

In 1882 the Governor-General told them that he believed trains would reach the Pacific terminus in 1887. As it proved, there was through traffic two years before the assigned date.

What was the motive power, and who are the chief men who, breaking down all opposition, performed this miracle?

In the Government, Sir Charles Tupper must be named the first, for it was he who persuaded Sir John Macdonald to take up the matter as one now ready for the full support of all the ministers; but outside the Government there was a giant in resource and ability in the person of Van Horne, who is no less remarkable as an artist and a man of taste, as he was for the sledge-hammer force with which he could drive through engineering and financial projects. But other great citizens had been shaping events to the same ends. Donald Smith, now so long famous in the eyes of the British public as a generous peer in the British Parliament, and High Commissioner representing Canada, was a companion of George Stephen, now the Lord Stephen, and James Hill, who purchased the St. Paul and Pacific Railway. Donald Smith had been the leading representative of British influence when, as a Hudson Bay officer, he had opposed the rebellious half-breed, Louis Riel, and, gathering together the English and Scotch scattered settlers, had successfully made head against the

rebellion, and received Sir Garnet Wolseley, the future Field-Marshal, when that officer was sent on what was known as the Red River expedition. When afterwards he and George Stephen and their friends led the financial world of Canada from Montreal, they knew how to use their hard-earned wealth to establish the power of Canada on a sound basis of commercial strength and political loyalty.

In the "eighties" the task was being successfully pushed through; still it was doubtful how the formidable barrier between the great bend of the Columbia River could be surmounted. It was to Mr. Rogers, an American engineer, that we owed the discovery of the pass, which broke down the last of the great difficulties. The hardships he underwent in assuring himself of the practical nature of this route undermined his health, and was the cause of his death. But soon dynamite was blasting the rocky roadway all along the ore-seamed rocks of the North Superior, and flinging afar into the waters of the Lake of the Woods masses of stone, which splashed the placid bays for miles along their forest-covered promontories. On the prairie, as soon as the traveller emerged from the beautiful sterile fastnesses of the Keewaytin, the labour was simple enough. For hundreds of miles the sleepers could be quickly laid over gradients which were hardly perceptible until the rapid streams descending from the Rocky Mountains were reached. Then came the hill slopes, conquered by admirable engineering, and the wooded eastern portals of the Pacific glens, where

the Columbia River had to be crossed twice more, and Alpine climbing had to be undertaken until the train rushed down to the fairy lakes, crossing at the Eagle Narrows, and the more open country was reached where the Thompson River, coming down from the north, joins the Fraser to form one stream through the canyons to the shores of the western ocean.

It is interesting to note the able manner in which the undertaking to carry a railway across the country was mapped out. Mr. Croal tells how four sections from east to west were planned. The eastern had a length of 650 miles from Lake Nipissing (a great body of water lying to the north-west of the capital Ottawa) as far as Lake Superior, and was a land for which the Company received money from the Government to the extent of 10,000,000 dollars, and a payment in land of 6,250,000 acres. It will be seen that land could then be given away cheaply, and yet it was an asset of enormous value if the anticipations regarding its attractions for settlers could be realised. Then came a lake section; this was 406 miles in length, which the Canadian Government was itself to build and make over as a present to the Company. The major portion of this was regarded as least favourable for emigrants. The central section of the land included a tremendous task of the passage of the mountains; the length of it was 1350 miles, and money to the extent of 15,000,000 dollars was granted. The land to be given to the Company was to be 12,502 acres for every mile constructed for the first 900 miles, and

16,666 acres for every mile of the remainder of this part of the route. The most western portion was 215 miles from Kamloops, a junction of the Thompson and Fraser Rivers, to Port Moody on the Pacific, and all this was again a free gift to the Company. It will be remembered that of all the vast area in land through which the railway passed after leaving the old Canadian provinces, one-twentieth part belonged to the Hudson Bay Company, who were thus recompensed for the inevitable destruction of fur-bearing animals from which they had derived their income. A change in the conditions of wild animal life, upon the advance of civilisation, may be judged from one incident alone, namely :—

In 1881 the Governor-General rode and trekked across the prairies from Winnipeg to Battleford on the Saskatchewan River, and thence to Calgary, and thence to Fort Shaw in Montana, and during the whole distance met only one small herd of buffalo, thirteen in number, although all the districts in the east then were covered with the scattered bones of the myriads which used to roam over them, with no enemy to fear but the Red Indians.

What was the capital with which this great national speculation was entered into? Only 25,000,000 dollars! The promoters were modest in their estimate as to the time of completion, for they only bargained to have the land finished in 1891. They then expected that ten years would be sufficient, and it is marvellous to remember how their splendid organisation shortened the period.

They at once held out temptations for men to settle by the railway side, offering land at $2\frac{1}{2}$ dollars per acre.

In 1881 the earnings were only 119,000 dollars, fourteen years afterwards they had 4,800,000 dollars to their credit.

A report of last year given below speaks for itself. Few people were inclined to put faith in the estimates made as regards the fertility of the lands along the route ; to be sure, it was known that what was called the Red River of the North and the whole tract lying between Minneapolis and Lake Winnipeg was exceedingly rich. Men could judge of this by the luxuriance of the grass ; but farther westward it was argued that heavy crops could not be raised. In the United States there is much exceedingly arid country as you approach the western mountains, over the whole of which area irrigation is necessary. But, on the other hand, travellers who had visited the Hudson Bay posts and forts, placed at wide intervals wherever skins could be profitably collected, had noticed that the patch of corn-land cultivated as a farm around the factor's residence produced good crops. Occasionally there were complaints made on the destruction of grain by the severity of the early frost, but it was also seen that the more land was cultivated the less formidable did the frost become. For a long time no one divined the reason, but the cause of the frost was evidently a moisture lying in many places upon the prairie sward. The close-lying roots of the grass held up the moisture almost as would a waterproof

sheet, preventing it from shrinking into the soil; but when the turf was cut by the ploughshare, and line after line of seams were cut through the envelope of verdure, the land no longer had a water-proof covering, the moisture sank down into the soil, and the mists and the frosts no longer brooded to the same extent over the surface.

Experiments in cultivation were made, and it was reported to headquarters at Montreal in 1883 that men had been sent to plough up a few acres at every twenty miles along the road; next spring the seeds were sown, and rough as was the cultivation, yet magnificent crops appeared to reward the trial.

For the tourist the journey over the Canadian Pacific Railway can be made with the utmost luxury. The cars are most comfortably fitted up, and the traveller can break his journey at interesting points, where excellent hotels await him.

If he likes to dwell upon old memories, he may spend a fortnight at the Hotel Frontenac, and not go on until he has thoroughly explored the bewitching country which was so eagerly contended for by the armies of the French and the British monarchies in the eighteenth century around Quebec. On the banks of the Red River he will find himself again luxuriously lodged, and overlooking a country of fatness and fertility which puts Holland into the shade. Again, in the Canadian Alps he will miss no comforts he has been accustomed to in the best hotels. There he can have a chance shot at a bear, at the mountain sheep, or at the strange,

long white-haired goat of the Rocky Mountains. He can take his rod, and in lakes showing all the beautiful colour of Geneva's river he may be sure of filling his basket with fine trout.

Before he takes steamer to go across the Pacific, if he can make up his mind to say good-bye to the attractions of Canada, he can delay his departure at Victoria, and from a marine palace watch one of the finest scenes in the world, where beyond the foreground of bracken, fir trees, and rocks on beautiful shores, he looks across the wide straits of St. Juan to the mighty mountain peaks of the Olympian range in Washington territory, a range which sinks to the eastward only to rise again in the dome of Mount Baker, ever white with snow, and forming a feature as fine as Japan's Sacred Mountain.

CANADIAN PACIFIC RAILWAY COMPANY

Twenty-seventh Annual Report of the Directors of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company for the year ended 30th June 1908.

To the Shareholders—

1. The accounts of the Company for the year ended 30th June 1908 show the following results:—

Gross Earnings	\$71,384,173.72
Working Expenses	<u>49,591,807.70</u>
Net Earnings	\$21,792,366.02
Net Earnings of Steamships in excess of amount included in monthly reports	<u>1,112,759.24</u>
Carry forward, \$	22,905,125.26

180 YESTERDAY AND TO-DAY IN CANADA

	Brought forward, \$22,905,125.26
Interest on deposits and loan	\$484,560.64
Interest from Minneapolis, St. Paul and Sault Ste. Marie Ry., on bonds held by the Company	159,720.00
Interest from Mineral Range Railroad Co., on bonds held by the Company	50,160.00
Interest from Montreal and Atlantic Ry., and on other bonds held by the Company	58,962.89
Dividend on St. John Bridge and Railway Extension Company Stock	50,000.00
Dividends on Minneapolis, St. Paul and Sault Ste. Marie Ry., Preferred and Ordinary Stocks held by the Company	738,470.50
	<u>1,541,874.03</u>
	<u>\$24,446,999.29</u>
Deduct Fixed Charges	8,770,076.71
Surplus	<u>\$15,676,922.58</u>
Deduct amount transferred to Steamship Replacement Account	\$800,000.00
Contribution to Pension Fund	80,000.00
From this there has been charged a half-yearly dividend on Preference Stock of 2 per cent., paid 1st April 1908	940,340.45
And a half-yearly dividend on Ordinary Stock of 3 per cent., paid 1st April 1908	<u>3,650,400.00</u>
	<u>4,590,740.45</u>
	<u>\$10,206,182.13</u>
From this there has been declared a second half-yearly dividend on Preference Stock of 2 per cent., payable 1st October 1908	\$976,066.65
And a second half-yearly dividend on Ordinary Stock of 3 per cent., payable 1st October 1908	<u>3,650,400.00</u>
	<u>4,626,466.65</u>
Leaving Net Surplus for the year	<u>\$5,579,715.48</u>

In addition to the above dividends on Ordinary Stock, 1 per cent. was declared from interest on Land Funds.

2. The working expenses for the year amounted to 69.47 per cent. of the gross earnings, and the net earnings to 30.53 per cent., as compared with 64.96 and 35.04 per cent. respectively in 1907.

3. Four per cent. Consolidated Debenture Stock to the amount of £1,975,000 was created and sold, and of the proceeds the sum of £1,321,594 was applied towards the construction of branch lines in Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia; £175,152 towards the completion of two new lake steamers; and the balance, £478,254, was used for acquiring the bonds of other railway companies, whose lines constitute a portion of your system, the interest on which had, with your authority, been guaranteed by your Company.

4. Preference Stock to the amount of £1,000,000 was created and sold for the purpose of meeting expenditures that you had sanctioned.

5. Your guarantee of interest was endorsed on 4 per cent. Consolidated Mortgage Bonds of the Minneapolis, St. Paul and Saulte Ste. Marie Railway Company to the amount of \$1,680,000 issued and sold to meet the cost of constructing 84 miles of railway added to that Company's system.

6. There was a decided falling-off in the sales of your agricultural lands, the total area disposed of in the year being 164,450 acres, as against 994,840 acres in the previous year. The average price realised, however, was much better, being \$9.54 per acre.

7. The contract with the Imperial Government for the carriage of the mails between Liverpool and Hong-Kong was renewed for a further period of three years, but the rate of compensation per annum was reduced by £15,000.

8. The Alberta Railway and Irrigation Company, owning 113 miles of railway in Southern Alberta, as well as an important colliery, and about 425,000 acres of land, part of which is served by irrigation ditches, was operated by its owners as a close friendly connection of your Company, yielding to your lines a large revenue from traffic interchanged, and furnishing the Company and settlers along the railway a supply of coal. To insure a continuance of this desirable connection, your directors deem it prudent for the Company to secure such an interest in the property as will constitute a substantial control, and they have arranged to do this at an approximate cost of \$2,000,000. Apart from the traffic advantages thereby safeguarded, the investment itself will prove a profitable one.

9. The increase for the year in the item "Railway and Equipment" was abnormal, being in round figures \$31,377,000, exclusive of an appropriation from surplus earnings of \$3,800,000. Of this expenditure \$7,500,000 was for new lines under construction; \$10,400,000 for additional rolling stock, shops and machinery; \$7,800,000 for double tracks and reduction of grades; and \$9,500,000 for additional yards, buildings, sidings, and for general

improvements to your property. Notwithstanding this outlay for improvements, and the falling-off in traffic, the charges against the year's income for the upkeep of the property were continued on a liberal basis.

10. Pursuant to the authority given at the special general meeting of the shareholders held 30th December 1907, the directors offered to the shareholders at par \$24,336,000 of the ordinary capital stock of the Company. Practically the whole amount was taken, and payments were made in anticipation of the dates mentioned in the circular. This leaves an amount of \$3,984,000 still unissued, but in order that you may be in a position to provide additional money from this source if and when necessary, your directors thought it wise to ask the consent of the Governor-General in Council to a further increase in the ordinary capital stock from \$150,000,000 to \$200,000,000. This consent has been formally given, and you will be asked at the special general meeting of the shareholders, to be held Wednesday, 7th October, to sanction and approve the increase in the authorised ordinary capital stock, and to take such other measures as will enable your directors to utilise it in such amounts from time to time as may be desirable in connection with the Company's capital requirements. While recommending this increase as a precautionary measure, there is no immediate necessity for issuing any portion of the additional amount, as you have ample funds in hand, but

with your vast property in a growing country the demands for works, and more particularly for rolling stock, involving large outlay, are sure to continue, and your directors should be in a position to meet these promptly when they arise.

T. G. SHAUGHNESSY, *President.*

MONTREAL, 31st August 1908.

LORD STRATHCONA says that the child now lives who will see the population of the Dominion equal to that of the United Kingdom. When one considers the enormous opportunities for development, it will readily be admitted that the popular High Commissioner for the Dominion in this country is not one whit too sanguine. Before many years are over we shall have, not one, as now, but three transcontinental railways across-country to the Pacific—the Grand Trunk, the Canadian Northern, and the Canadian Pacific. These lines are opening up enormous tracts of land, which will need British capital and British labour for their development. Prince Rupert, the terminus of the Grand Trunk on the Pacific side, will become another Vancouver, and possibly even a greater commercial entrepôt for trade between Canada, the East, and Australia.

SIR THOMAS SHAUGHNESSY, the President of the Canadian Pacific Railway, says: "While recognising the west, we must not, as we are apt to do,

forget the great progress made in Eastern Canada. It used to be objected that the migration to the west was no advantage to Canada, because it was merely moving population from east to west, and so depleting Ontario farms. But in the twenty years from 1890 to 1909 the area of land under cultivation in Ontario has increased 30 per cent., while the value of the field crops has increased 50 per cent., due to better prices and cultivation. It is a striking fact that last year the money value of the field crops of Ontario was 60 per cent. greater than from all the field crops west of Lake Superior. Coupling Ontario and Quebec, we find that last year the money value of these two provinces was 100 per cent. more than that of all crops west of Lake Superior."

Further, said Sir Thomas, the growth of eastern cities was not paid enough attention to. He considered that greater Montreal had increased by 100,000 in the past seven years, while taking the growth of the various Ontario and Quebec cities, he thought it would approximate the entire growth of population of the west during the same period.

BRITISH EMIGRANTS' SHARE.

"Now, with regard to this all-important question of the British emigrants' share, I would say this: Thousands upon thousands of United States farmers are pouring into our west, and doing

splendidly there. They make splendid Canadian citizens. From their experience of similar conditions to the southward, on inferior land which costs five or six times as much, they find no difficulty about the first pioneer work. They will live in a tent or hut till their land is broken and sown. That means saving in money and time when both are most valuable. But the English emigrant, however strong his land-hunger, is not good at that. He has never done that sort of pioneering, and is rather afraid of it, apparently; though I doubt if his forefathers were. We believe in dealing with facts as we find them, and we do not want the people of this country to lag behind or lose the opportunities of claiming and playing their full part in Canada's wonderful progress. I believe that you had 35,000 applications for 1600 small holdings in England. We can easily provide for ten times and a hundred times the number of the disappointed in Canada; and the Canadian Pacific Railway is now going to make an effort to provide even for their prejudices against the aspects of early 'roughing it,' which I just mentioned.

FINE CHANCE FOR SETTLERS.

“What we propose to do is to provide farms for suitable men in the west, fence them, and plough and sow part of the land for them, and put up houses and barns; so that when the new settler arrives he will simply step on to a ready-

made farm, awaiting only the routine of farm work. In actual cost—the value, of course, would be higher—this will represent, say, £800, a prohibitive figure for many a good emigrant. Yes, but we should let him pay it over a period of ten years, and a ten years' rental of £80 a year is not much to pay for ownership of a freehold farm and farmhouse and buildings on the richest land in the world. More than that, a good deal is paid for much smaller farms in England, in the shape of rent only, with no prospect of ownership. In the wheat belt each of these farms would consist of 160 acres; in the Canadian Pacific Railway irrigated belt of Southern Alberta they would, of course, be smaller. A man needs less of irrigated land, because he gives it far closer culture. What it means is that the farmer who arrives with even £100 will be sure of success, if he has industry and application. A 320-acre farm in the wheat belt would not cost double the price of the 160-acre farm. The irrigated belt is making a splendidly successful showing, and we shall increase it by another million acres. As you know, the climate of that part of Southern Alberta is especially agreeable and genial.

“As an example of what is being done now in the west, I heard the other day of a man in Southern Alberta who bought 2400 acres for \$33,000. The value of that man's crop this year was exactly \$66,000, or double the purchase price of the land. That means high-grade farming,

and superlatively high-grade land. The land is there in abundance; it awaits only the industry of the farmer. I have just returned from a tour through the west, and was never so forcibly struck by the wealth of opportunity which there awaits the men with capital, the men with brains, and the men with muscle and industry.

“With regard to the great question of Canada and naval defence, I should say that what the great bulk of our people feel about this is that they want to furnish the kind of help which will be of the most real and practical value to the Empire. As is perfectly natural, the largest number probably favour the idea of a Canadian navy. Life in Canada makes men always favour things Canadian. My own idea is that I should like Canada to get the mother country to build a couple of Dreadnoughts at the Dominion's expense. Canada could then lease these to Britain at a peppercorn rent, and so get over the vexed point of public money going without representation. After all, Canada would not allow the no-taxation-without-representation plea to prevent her sending a sum of money—say to Australia, to help in the mitigation of some national calamity. We did that when San Francisco was burnt. In any case Canada is clearly ready and anxious to face her due responsibilities where naval defence is concerned, as in every other direction. And so she should be, for there is no more progressively prosperous country in the world.”

Sir Thomas claimed the right to qualify as a manufacturer, since, through the Canadian Pacific Railway connection with the Angus shops, he supervised in a general way one of the largest manufacturing concerns in Canada. The position of the Canadian Pacific Railway in relation to the Angus shops was, however, unique, since they were not only the manufacturer, but also the consumer.

“We have no direct monetary advantage from the tariff,” proceeded Sir Thomas, “because if there were no tariff we could import our engines and cars, and save the investment we have found necessary for the Angus shops. We could have imported the 18,000 cars and 140 locomotives built there during the past four years. These, at a cost of some \$20,000,000, would have been built elsewhere, and that money would have been for all time lost to the people of this country. More than this, the 5000 or 6000 employees, representing a population of 20,000 people, for whom that work furnished employment, would not have been so employed, and the country would have lost that population of 20,000 people, while we should also have lost the passenger and freight traffic resulting from that population.

“When the Canadian Pacific Railway was opened for traffic in 1886, we had about 3000 miles of railway. This has now grown to about 10,000 miles in Canada, and the other railways of the country have been progressing in about the same degree. We have rather too many railways for

our population in Canada, because at present there is not the requisite density of traffic. Notwithstanding this I can truthfully say that the people of Canada to-day are getting as low rates for passenger and freight traffic as any country in the world, while the men they employ are receiving wages equal to those paid in the United States, and from 50 to 100 per cent. more than in any European country."

In such a country as Canada, a railway had many functions to perform besides carrying passengers and freight, collecting revenues, and dividing any profits as dividends. As an instance, he said after the organisation of the Canadian Pacific Railway it was found necessary to establish an immigration department, on which large sums were spent to attract settlers to Canada. Then steamships were added to the Pacific, to insure that traffic between Great Britain and Japan, China, Australia, and the Orient should go both ways through Canada. Then hotels had to be built throughout the country to furnish good accommodation to travellers, and steamships established on the Great Lakes for traffic and tourist trade, while, finally, it was found necessary to attack the initial stage of the business with a fleet on the Atlantic.

This was a great advantage to the manufacturers of Eastern Canada, said Sir Thomas. Older nations had to go to the far corners of the earth to find customers, often very poor. But in Canada, owing to the development of the west,

the manufacturers found their customers in their own country, their own people, and prosperous citizens, amongst the best people to trade with in the world.

But he pointed out that the time would come when the west would do most of its own manufacturing, as had been the case in the States. He could remember when it was thought that the manufacturing interests of the States would always be in New England and the eastern cities, but it had since spread far west, and the movement was still progressing, and this same progression was bound to become manifest in Canada.

GRAND TRUNK RAILWAY

We have spoken of an accomplished fact, namely, the line which takes you without any break from Montreal to Vancouver, and we must now consider for a moment another gigantic scheme, which, although only an addition to the Grand Trunk Railway already existing, will be an addition vastly overshadowing what has already been accomplished under the name of the Grand Trunk. Its elongation across the continent was proposed some years before the date of 1893, when the company was incorporated by Act of Parliament—the construction and operation of a line wholly within Canadian territory, 3600 miles long, without counting many branch lines, the main one of these branches being a line southerly 200 miles to

Gravenhurst in Ontario. The object of these two branch lines will be best understood when we trace the direction of the main artery, which forces its way west to north of Quebec, and, running afar to the northwards of existing lines, will open for the sportsman as well as for the settler opportunities undreamt of except in recent years, and probably to be realised in a brief period. There is much fair land in the northern Quebec province which hardy French Canadians will know how to use.

From a military point of view, another interior line traversing the continent will be of the highest value. The line on leaving Quebec province would seem ambitious to reach Hudson Bay and James Bay at once, but that plan is deferred until another great branch may ultimately arrive at Port Churchill. The main route sweeps away due westwards to the north of Lake Nipigon, which, with the Lake of the Woods, may be called the two small parents of the great Lake Superior. Entering Winnipeg, it runs parallel with the frontier as far as Brandon, but the ambitious line rivalling the steamer service on the Saskatchewan, leaps again to the northward, making direct for Edmonton, there reaching the centre of an admirable country full of names that remind us of recent days, when the only people were the redskins, except for the scattered posts of the Scottish employees of the Hudson's Bay Company. Lacombe, a place intermediate between Calgary and Edmonton, commemorates the remarkable career of a French Canadian missionary, who

has given us the most trustworthy information as regards the wild tribes of the Crees, Blackfeet, and the Sioux; while the Indian names survive not only in Saskatchewan, but in Athabaska, Assiniboine, Webiskaw, Ponoka, Wetaskiwin, and many others. About a multitude of lakes rises a forest of pines, throwing their dark, long shadows over waters ice-bound from November to April; these forests stretch in the shape of a bow across the northern continent from east to west. It is a forest mainly composed of spruce, not very tall, but very dense, and there are also willows and birch of several kinds. Into this northern timber land some buffalo, who fled from their persecutors of the plain, seem likely to survive and develop new habits. Again starting westward, the Grand Trunk takes its way through the Yellow Head Pass of the Rocky Mountains, and, traversing branches of the Fraser River by the Hudson's Bay Company's post called by its name, and Port George, it daringly conquers more difficulties until it finds a secure haven on the Pacific coast.

It is in contemplation also to have another gigantic branch northward to the Yukon country, reaching as far as Dawson—named after a distinguished man of science of that name, who for long presided over the Geological Survey of Canada. Needless to say, such an extension of a track will lead to the gold-bearing country which has become so famous in recent years.

The Report of the Company says the branches

of the Eastern Division are designed to make connection between the territory along the St. Lawrence River and the lakes with the main trunk line of the National Trans-continental Railway, and on the Western Division they are projected for the most part through desirable territory to reach important competitive points.

This great undertaking, which surpasses in magnitude and importance any plan of railway construction hitherto conceived as a whole, has been projected to meet the pressing demand for transportation facilities in British North America, caused by the large tide of immigration which is now flowing into that country from Great Britain, Northern Europe, and still more extensively from the Western States of the United States, seeking the rich lands which lie so abundantly in the provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta.

The agreements between the Company and the Government providing for this new Trans-continental Railway are of a twofold character, which, when carried out, will combine a railway constructed at the expense of the Government with the lines of a private corporation into one system, under the entire control, management, and operation of the Grand Trunk Pacific Company.

The authorised capital stock of the Company is \$45,000,000, of which \$20,000,000 may be issued as Preferred. The Grand Trunk Railway Company of Canada is to acquire all of the Common Stock (except shares held by directors) in

consideration for guarantees, &c., and must retain a majority holding during the term of the agreements with the Government.

The eastern terminus of the railway will be at Moncton, New Brunswick, from which point the seaport of Halifax will be reached over the Inter-colonial Railway, a branch line being projected to St. John. The distance to the first-named port is 183 miles, and to the latter 89 miles. The western terminus will be at Prince Rupert, on the Pacific coast, near the southern boundary of Alaska.

For the purposes of construction, the projected line is divided into two great divisions, namely, the Eastern Division and the Western Division, the point of division being Winnipeg, Manitoba.

EASTERN DIVISION

Moncton to Winnipeg, 1800 Miles.—Commencing at Moncton, the line will take the most direct practicable route within the province of Quebec to the city of Quebec. At Chaudiere Junction, five miles above Quebec, the new line will cross the St. Lawrence River by a bridge now under construction by the Quebec Bridge and Railway Company, which will be the largest cantilever bridge in the world. The elevation of the rail will be 150 feet above high water for a width of 1800 feet, admitting of the free passage underneath of all ocean steamers. The approaches from either end to the centre span are 720 feet each, giving a total

length of bridge of 3240 feet. From Quebec a direct route will be taken, passing in the vicinity of Lake Abitibi, and to the north of Lake Nepigon, to Winnipeg, an estimated distance of 1800 miles from Moncton. The main line of this Division will be built at the cost of the Canadian Government and leased to the Company for a period of fifty years, and the branch lines will be built by the Company. Under the provisions of the Acts and Agreements, the Government has appointed four Commissioners, under the name of "The Commissioners of the Trans-continental Railway," who will have charge of the construction of this portion of the main line on behalf of the Government under the following conditions:—

The rental payable by the Company under the terms of its lease of the Eastern Division will be as follows:—

For the first seven years of the said term the Company shall operate the same, subject only to payment of "working expenditure"; for the next succeeding forty-three years the Company shall pay annually to the Government, by way of rental, a sum equal to 3 per cent. per annum upon the cost of the construction of the said Division, provided that if, in any one or more of the first three years of the said period of forty-three years, the net earnings of the said Division, over and above "working expenditure," shall not amount to 3 per cent. of the cost of construction, the difference between the net earnings and the rental shall not

be payable by the Company, but shall be capitalised and form part of the cost of construction, upon the whole amount of which rental is required to be paid at the rate aforesaid after the first ten years of the said lease, and during the remainder of the said term.

At the expiration of the period of fifty years, the Company has the privilege of an extension of the lease for another period of fifty years, in the event the Government then determines not to undertake the operation of the said Division; but should the Government take over the operation of this Division, the Company shall be entitled, for a further period of fifty years, to such running powers and haulage rights as may be necessary to continuity of operation between the said Western Division and other portions of the Company's system and the Grand Trunk Railway system, on such terms as may from time to time be agreed upon.

By the terms of the lease to the Company of this portion of the railway it will also be seen that the Company will practically have free use of it for a period of seven years, and taking into account the time allowed for construction, which is fixed at seven years, no payments will require to be made on account of rental until 1919, and since it is to pass through an entirely new and undeveloped section of the country which is now known to be rich in agricultural and mineral resources, as well as timber, it is anticipated that long before the first payment on account of rental becomes due, the

Company will have reaped a rich harvest from the traffic that will exist upon its completion. This section of the line between Quebec and Winnipeg will pass through what may appropriately be termed the mineral belt of Eastern Canada, as in this district, adjacent to the main line, are located the now famous cobalt deposits, as well as nickel, copper, iron, &c., which are only awaiting the advent of the railway to be brought forth for manufacture.

While, as stated in the foregoing, the main line of the Eastern Division will be leased to the Company, the branches of this Division will be constructed and owned by the Company, and a subsidy has been granted by the Provincial Government of Ontario in aid of the construction of the branch from the main line southerly to Fort William and Port Arthur, which is known as the Lake Superior Branch, of \$2000 per mile cash and 6000 acres of land per mile.

The branch which is projected from the main line of the Eastern Division to North Bay or Gravenhurst, will also be an important one as forming the connection between the new Trans-continental Railway and the present Grand Trunk Railway system. The same may also be said of the projected branch from the main line of the Eastern Division to Montreal. These lines will traverse new country and provide transportation facilities for the location of industries adjacent to the extensive water-powers that abound in this section.

The country through which the Prairie Section of the railway will pass contains land now known to be well adapted for the growing of wheat, which in extent is four times the wheat-growing area of the United States, and is the great agricultural belt of the North-West. This land, which is now being rapidly taken up by settlers, produces rich crops the first year of cultivation, and will furnish a large traffic for the railway as rapidly as it can be extended, therefore amply warranting the Company in assuming the payment of the interest charges on the cost of construction, from the beginning. The Mountain Section, however, passing through the mineral deposits, will require a little longer time for development, and, as stated, the Government has therefore assumed the payment of the interest charges under its guarantee of three-quarters of the cost of construction, for the first seven years after completion (waiving their rights of recourse on the Company in the event of default, for an additional three years), and allowing for the period of construction, which is fixed at seven years, not until 1919 will the Company be required to assume this liability beyond the interest charges on the one-quarter of the cost of construction under the guarantee of the Grand Trunk Railway Company of Canada. Considering the rapid settlement and development of the country which will take place from the commencement of the railway, and also in view of what is already known of the great natural wealth of Canada, in addition to the new revelations

in this respect which are being made from day to day, and the large traffic which will result from these conditions, default by the Company in the discharge of its interest liabilities as they accrue from time to time is so far removed as to be placed almost beyond possibility.

One of the latest developments in connection with the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway has been the selection by the Company of the Yellowhead Pass route through the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific coast, which was approved by the Government in November 1906. This question has been a very important one as bearing upon the future prospects of the Company in respect of the gradients obtained, which enter so largely into the economical or costly operation of the railway, according as they are light or heavy. With the object, therefore, of ascertaining the best route available, the Company have had a large staff of engineers in the field extending over a period of almost three years, who made exhaustive explorations comprising the Peace River Pass, the Pine River Pass, the Wapiti Pass, and a number of intermediate passes, with the result that the Yellowhead Pass route was adopted, whereby a maximum gradient of only four-tenths of one per cent., or a rise of 21 feet in the mile, has been obtained against eastbound traffic for the entire distance between Edmonton and the coast, and but five-tenths of one per cent., or a rise of 26 feet in the mile, has been obtained against westbound traffic, which can perhaps be

better understood when it is borne in mind that this is no greater than the extremely low grades which have been obtained through the level country on the Prairie Section. In crossing the Rocky Mountains but one summit is encountered, the maximum altitude of which is only 3712 feet. These remarkable conditions exist in this northern locality on account of the fact that the ranges of mountains along the western portion of the American continent, which have their origin in Mexico, reach their maximum altitude in the region of the 40th parallel of latitude, from which they gradually recede to the north. No better illustration of these physical conditions could perhaps be given than a comparison of the summits and gradients of the five existing American trans-continental railways with the Grand Trunk Pacific, which is shown on page 202.

From this comparison it will be observed, as already stated, that in the case of the Grand Trunk Pacific but one summit is encountered, having an altitude of 3712 feet, with no greater gradient in either direction than five-tenths of one per cent., or a rise of 26 feet to the mile, west of Winnipeg, which is increased to six-tenths of one per cent. east of Winnipeg, while in the case of the Canadian Pacific two summits are surmounted with a maximum altitude of 5299 feet and a maximum gradient of four and one-half per cent., or 237 feet to the mile; the Great Northern has three summits of a maximum altitude of 5202 feet and a maximum gradient of two and two-tenths per cent., or 116 feet

Comparison of Summit Elevations, Maximum Gradients and Total Elevation ascended for Various Trans-continental Railways.

Name of Railway.	Highest Summits.	Max. Gradient in feet per mile.		Total Ascent in feet overcome.	
		East-bound.	West-bound.	East-bound.	West-bound.
Grand Trunk Pacific: Western Div. } Winnipeg to } Pr. Rupert } Eastern Div. } Winnipeg to } Moncton ... }	1 Summit 3,712	21	26	6,990	6,890
Canadian Pacific } }	2 Summits 5,299 4,308	237	116	23,106	23,051
Great Northern } }	3 Summits 5,569 5,532 2,849	116	116	17,830	17,137
Union Pacific System: Omaha to San Francisco... } }	5 Summits 8,247 6,953 3,537 3,936 4,204	106	116	18,171	17,171
Santa Fe System					

to the mile; the Northern Pacific three summits having a maximum altitude of 5569 feet and a maximum gradient of two and two-tenths per cent., or 116 feet to the mile; the Union Pacific three summits having a maximum altitude of 8247 feet and a maximum gradient of two and two-tenths per cent., or 116 feet to the mile, in reaching San Francisco, and in reaching Portland, Oregon, five summits are encountered with a maximum altitude of 8247 feet and a maximum gradient of two and two-tenths per cent., or 116 feet to the mile; the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe Railway six summits having a maximum altitude of 7150 feet and a maximum gradient of three and three-tenths per cent., or 175 feet to the mile.

Where the Grand Trunk Pacific will reap the first benefit from these exceptional conditions will, of course, be in the great economy and low cost of operation which can be obtained from the very commencement, when this item is of such vast importance in the case of a newly-constructed railway at a time when the traffic and the revenue therefrom must of necessity be light, but with the gradual evolution of the enterprise and from explorations which are being made in all directions, it would appear that the period of light traffic will be of short duration.

Considering, therefore, the very low grades which have been secured on the Mountain Section, as shown in the foregoing, together with the character of the country to be traversed, which

abounds in mineral and agricultural wealth, the Company's prospects have indeed been promising since its inception, and they are growing brighter day by day.

Coincident with the selection of the route through the Rocky Mountains has been the location of the terminus on the Pacific coast, which, if one feature can be considered more important than another in connection with the development of the Company's plans, this question may very properly be so treated, in view of subsequent events which will result therefrom. At the outset the subject presented many difficulties, as the British Columbia coast does not possess many favourable harbours, and it therefore became necessary for the Company's harbour engineers to explore and examine the coast with the object of ascertaining the location best suited for the purpose. This work was diligently prosecuted for about a year, embracing all the available harbours within the limits of the province, with the result that the point selected, namely, Prince Rupert, is situated within fifty miles of the southern extremity of Alaska, and is reached from the Pacific Ocean *via* Dixon Entrance and Brown Passage. Prince Rupert Harbour possesses some of the greatest advantages to ocean shipping that can be found along the entire Pacific coast. It has a direct channel passage leading into it of more than half a mile in width, and is sufficient in extent to accommodate enormous shipping. Mr. P. M. Bredt, Dominion Government Inspector of

Agencies, who made the trip up the British Columbia coast by steamer from Victoria to Skagway, Alaska, thus describes it in the *Victoria Daily Colonist* of October 6, 1906: "It is certainly the most picturesque country one could imagine. We were delighted and surprised at its grandeur; it is like several Norways in one wonderful panorama. Among many other changes for the better that I noticed was that of the improved conditions of travel. The boat in which we made the trip was commodious and comfortable, luxuriously fitted with the latest improvements, with the additional recommendation of good cuisine and attendance, a good sea-boat, a genial commander, and pleasant and capable officers. We enjoyed the trip immensely, and were fortunate enough to have as fellow-passenger, President Hays of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway. We had thus the chance to visit Prince Rupert. In my opinion it is an ideal location for the terminus, and the harbour is unsurpassed on the coast. At present the hydrographic survey is still incomplete, and mariners enter for the first time with natural caution; but once having made the entrance, they say that they would have no fear about entering at any time. While we were there the weather was very stormy, with a nasty sea running outside. Inside, however, it was perfectly calm, the position being well protected from the prevailing winds.

"Certainly," continued Mr. Bredt, "there is room there for a great city, and Digby Island would make

an ideal suburb or summer resort. Communication would have to be by ferry, I think, though the dividing passage is narrow and the distance short—not greater than between North Vancouver and Vancouver City, if as far; it would be practically a part of the city.

“There is plenty of activity in evidence at Prince Rupert; houses for the engineers are being rapidly constructed, and gangs of men are busy clearing land for the town site. Already there is a very serviceable wharf which they intend to extend immediately, and everything seems to point to quick development.”

The site is a picturesque one. The land slopes back gently for distances ranging from half a mile to two or three miles. Here and there the ground rises abruptly, providing the necessary fall for drainage and sewerage; while a shore line five or six miles in extent sweeps around the front of the city. The view from these elevated stations and from the back is a charming one. On the opposite shore mountains slope down to the water. To the north-west, through a channel studded with islands, is situated the famous Indian village of Metlakatla, known on the coast as the “Holy City.”

It is situated about 550 miles north of Vancouver, and, on account of this northerly location, it is estimated that the new Trans-continental Railway will possess the shortest route from Liverpool to Asiatic ports by at least two days' sail; and this saving in distance will also be realised between

American Atlantic ports and trans-Pacific points. It lies in the centre of the salmon-fishing industry of British Columbia, being in the immediate vicinity of a large number of canneries which ship their product throughout the world; and here is also to be found, off the banks of Queen Charlotte Islands, the finest halibut fishing that is known to exist, tons of which are being taken annually to supply eastern markets, and this traffic will be greatly augmented upon the completion of transportation facilities right at hand. Indeed, it can hardly be otherwise than that the enormous traffic which now awaits the advent of the railway, and that which will result in the future from the great development which has recently been taking place in this northern country, will take the railway at the nearest point, and thus avail of the expeditious transportation thereby afforded as against consuming many hours longer by water route to southerly ports.

Of incalculable advantage and benefit to this new enterprise is its relation to the Grand Trunk Railway Company of Canada, with its 4800 miles of railway, on which is situated all the cities and the principal towns in eastern Canada, among the former being Windsor, London, Hamilton, Toronto, Montreal, and Quebec. Montreal, the first city of the Dominion, situated at the head of ocean navigation on the river St. Lawrence, must always maintain her position as the metropolis of Canada, with her splendid harbour and her unlimited resources for industrial growth. The city of Quebec

also promises great development with the advent of the new Trans-continental Railway; and these advantages will be largely augmented in conjunction with the Grand Trunk Railway, occupying, as the pioneer railway of the Dominion, the strongest position in the way of terminal facilities and track connections with eastern manufacturing plants and for export shipping. Halifax and St. John, the principal cities in the Maritime Provinces, with their growing population and constituting the Canadian seaports on the Atlantic, which will be reached by the new railway, will be large and important contributors to its traffic. Not alone are these advantages confined to Canada, but situated on this great railway system are also the large cities of Chicago, Detroit, Toledo, Buffalo, and Portland, in the United States. With this unrivalled position, which can only be obtained by any transportation company after years of labour and experience, the new Trans-continental Railway will at once become an exclusive partner, and from the beginning will be placed in possession of an enormous general traffic already created and originating on the Grand Trunk Railway system, but hitherto being carried into the North-West over other lines.

THE GRAND TRUNK RAILWAY COMPANY
OF CANADA

REPORT OF THE DIRECTORS

April 1909.

The Directors herewith submit to the Proprietors the Accounts of the Company for the half-year ended the 31st December 1908.

1. The following summary shows a comparison of the half-year's Revenue Account with that of the corresponding half-year, ended 31st December 1907 :—

31st December 1907.		31st December 1908
£3,763,246	Gross Receipts, as per Account No. 7	£3,382,841 10 0
	<i>Deduct—</i>	
2,710,934	Working Expenses, being at the rate of 71.61 per cent., as compared with 72.03 per cent. in 1907 . . .	2,422,413 11 0
£1,052,312	Net Traffic Receipts . . .	£960,427 19 0
	<i>Add—</i>	
16,013	Amount received from the International Bridge Company . . .	16,012 16 7
900	Interest on Toledo, Saginaw, and Muskegon Bonds . . .	—
6,507	Interest on Bonds of Central Vermont Railway	6,506 14 3
66,491	Interest on Securities of Controlled Lines and on St. Clair Tunnel Bonds acquired by the issue of Grand Trunk Four per Cent. De-	
	benture Stock	68,739 7 3
52,171	Balance of General Interest Account	42,625 17 5
£1,194,394	Net Revenue Receipts . . .	£1,094,312 14 6

2. The following are the net revenue charges for the half-year, compared with the corresponding period, as per Account No. 8, viz. :—

31st December 1907.		31st December 1908.
£77,603	Rents (Leased Lines)	£77,603 0 9
492,279	Interest on Debenture Stocks and Bonds of the Company	498,624 6 8
42,757	Interest on Debenture Stock and Bonds of Lines consolidated with the Grand Trunk Company	36,394 5 9
60,365	Canada Atlantic Railway deficit	43,378 4 11
<u>£673,004</u>		<u>£655,999 18 1</u>
5,785	<i>Deduct</i> —Detroit, Grand Haven, and Milwaukee Surplus	3,139 6 9
<u>£667,219</u>		<u>£652,860 11 4</u>
527,175	Leaving a surplus of	441,452 3 2
<u>£1,194,394</u>		<u>£1,094,312 14 6</u>

3. Adding the balance of £1625, 19s. 2d. at the credit of Net Revenue Account on the 30th June 1908, to the above surplus for the past half-year of £441,452, 3s. 2d., the total amount available for dividend is £443,078, 2s. 4d., from which the Directors recommend the payment of the following dividends, viz. :—

Dividend for the half-year on the Four per Cent.	
Guaranteed Stock	£196,800 4 3
Dividend of Five per Cent. on the First Preference	
Stock	170,841 10 0
Dividend of Two and one-half per Cent. on the	
Second Preference Stock	63,210 0 4
	<u>£430,851 14 7</u>

Leaving a balance of £12,226, 7s. 9d. to be carried forward to next half-year's account.

Gross Receipts.

4. The following table exhibits a comparison of the receipts for the half-years ending the 31st December 1908 and 1907 :—

Description of Receipts.	1908.	1907.	Increase.	Decrease.
	£	£	£	£
Passengers	1,072,408	1,162,593	...	90,185
Mails and Express . . .	169,302	174,604	...	5,302
Freight and Live Stock .	2,046,367	2,347,182	...	300,815
Miscellaneous	94,764	78,867	15,897	...
	3,382,841	3,763,246	...	380,405

5. Traffic Statistics.

	1908.	1907.	Decrease.
Passengers carried .	6,017,560	6,291,396	273,836
Average fare per passenger	42.77d.	44.35d.	1.58d.
Tons of freight and live stock	8,086,716	8,881,347	794,631
Average rate per ton	60.73d.	63.43d.	2.70d.
Tons carried 1 mile .	1,435,357,181	1,710,193,134	274,835,953
Earnings per train-mile	82.90d.	85.81d.	2.91d.

The average rate per ton per mile on the entire freight business was 0.69 of a cent, compared with 0.67 of a cent in the corresponding half-year.

Working Expenses.

6. The working expenses, excluding taxes, amounted in the half-year to £2,350,067, or 69.47 per cent. of the gross receipts, as compared with £2,646,670, or 70.32 per cent. in the corresponding half-year; a decrease in amount of £296,603, and of 0.85 per cent. in the proportion of the gross receipts.

7. The following table exhibits a comparison of the revenue expenditure, including taxes, for the half-years ended the 31st December 1908 and 1907:—

Description of Expenditure.	1908.	1907.	Increase.	Decrease.
	£	£	£	£
Maintenance of Way and Structures	568,395	583,457	...	15,062
Maintenance of Equipment	414,450	538,968	...	124,518
Conducting Transportation	1,286,819	1,445,413	...	158,594
General Expenses.	80,404	78,833	1,571	...
Taxes	72,346	64,263	8,083	...
Total	2,422,414	2,710,934	...	288,520
Percentage of Gross Receipts	71.61	72.03	...	0.42
Expenditure per train-mile	59.37 <i>d.</i>	61.82 <i>d.</i>	...	2.45 <i>d.</i>

Train Mileage.

8. The train mileage of the half-year compares with that for the half-year ending 31st December 1907 as follows:—

Description of Mileage.	1908.	1907.	Increase.	Decrease.
Passenger	4,440,222	4,622,481	...	182,259
Freight	5,102,507	5,654,836	...	552,329
Mixed Trains	250,497	248,005	2,492	...
Total	9,793,226	10,525,322	...	732,096

9. From the foregoing statements it will be observed that the gross receipts for the half-year show a decrease of £380,405, or 10.11 per cent.; the working expenses, including taxes, a decrease of £288,520, or 10.64 per cent.; and the train mileage a decrease of 732,096, or 6.96 per cent.

Capital Account.

10. The actual expenditure on Capital Account, as detailed in Account No. 5, was as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
New Works	44,783	1	6
Double Track :	58,576	6	5
Land Purchased	4,325	14	1
Grand Trunk Western Fractional Certificates purchased	88	10	0
	£107,773	12	0
	£107,773	12	0

11. This amount of £107,773, 12s. was reduced by £1987, os. 5d., representing the premium on Four per Cent. Debenture Stock sold and exchanged, thus making the total charges to the Capital Account for the half-year £105,786, 11s. 7d.

Rolling Stock.

12. The details of the stock of engines and cars belonging to the Company are shown in Account No. 6.

13. Two passenger, 30 freight, and 5 switch engines were purchased, and 15 engines scrapped; and 10 first-class cars, 3 mail cars, 1 derrick, and 2 caboose cars were built in the Company's shops during the half-year, on Revenue Account.

14. The amount at the debit of the Engine and Car Renewal Suspense Account at the 31st December 1908 was £544,149, 10s. 9d., of which £246,116, 16s. 8d. was in respect of engines, and £298,032, 14s. 1d. in respect of cars.

15. The amount which has been expended on account of these special renewals in advance is £554,794 in respect of engines, and £826,963 in respect of cars, or a total of £1,381,757, which amount was to be charged to revenue over a period of five years, commencing with 1906. During the years 1906 and 1907 there was credited to this account, by charges to revenue and by credits for engines and cars sold, the sum of £752,750, and during the year 1908

£84,858, leaving the above-mentioned balance of £544,149, 10s. 9d. still to be charged.

Canada Atlantic Railway.

16. The gross receipts of the Canada Atlantic Railway Company for the half-year amounted to £207,662, against £244,147 in 1907, a decrease of £36,485, and the working expenses were £187,939, against £242,409, a decrease of £54,470, leaving a net revenue balance of £19,723, against £1738, an increase of £17,985, compared with the corresponding period of 1907.

17. The net revenue charges for the half-year were £63,101, against £62,103, so that there was a net revenue deficiency of £43,378, compared with £60,365 in 1907. This deficiency is debited in Account No. 8.

18. The number of passengers carried during the half-year was 275,871, against 280,844, a decrease of 4973, or 1.77 per cent. ; and the passenger train receipts, including mails and express receipts, were £49,032, against £56,973, a decrease of £7941, or 13.93 per cent.

19. The quantity of freight moved was 1,192,452 tons, against 1,137,372 tons in 1907, an increase of 55,080 tons, or 4.84 per cent. ; and the receipts from freight traffic were £153,141, against £181,193, a decrease of £28,052, or 15.48 per cent.

Grand Trunk Western Railway.

20. The gross receipts of the Grand Trunk Western Railway Company for the half-year amounted to £587,541, against £683,757 in 1907, a decrease of £96,216, and the working expenses were £464,031, against £578,802, a decrease of £114,771, leaving a net profit of £123,510, against £104,955, an increase of £18,555, compared with the corresponding period of 1907.

21. The net revenue charges for the half-year were £99,187, against £88,970, so that there was, on the 31st December, a net revenue credit of £24,323, which amount is carried forward, as compared with £15,985 for the corresponding half-year of 1907.

22. The number of passengers carried during the half-year was 919,597, against 953,235, a decrease of 33,638, or 3.53 per cent.; and the passenger train receipts, including mails and express receipts, were £217,762, against £230,649, a decrease of £12,887, or 5.59 per cent.

23. The quantity of freight moved during the half-year was 1,555,695 tons, against 1,842,873 tons, a decrease of 287,178 tons, or 15.58 per cent., and the receipts from this traffic were £368,162, against £452,606, a decrease of £84,444, or 18.66 per cent.

Detroit, Grand Haven, and Milwaukee Railway.

24. The gross receipts of the Detroit, Grand Haven, and Milwaukee Railway for the half-year

were £186,803, against £206,671 in 1907, a decrease of £19,868; the working expenses were £145,831, against £163,156, a decrease of £17,325; thus leaving a balance of £40,972, against £43,515, a decrease in net revenue of £2543, compared with the corresponding half-year of 1907.

25. The net revenue charges for the half-year were £37,833, against £37,730 in 1907, so that there was a net revenue surplus of £3139, as compared with £5785 for the corresponding period of 1907. The above surplus of £3139 is credited in Account No. 8.

26. The number of passengers carried during the half-year was 446,936, against 440,979, an increase of 5957, or 1.35 per cent.; and the passenger receipts, including mails and express receipts, were £70,300, against £73,778, a decrease of £3478, or 4.71 per cent.

27. The quantity of freight moved was 925,289 tons, against 844,891 tons in 1907, an increase of 80,398 tons, or 9.51 per cent.; and the receipts from freight traffic were £109,616, against £127,356 in 1907, a decrease of £17,740, or 13.93 per cent.

Grand Trunk Pacific Railway.

28. The erection of the important bridges at Battle River and Clover Bar, near Edmonton, having been completed, the laying of the remainder of the track between Winnipeg and Edmonton is being proceeded with, and will be finished during

the present season. The Company has been informed by the Dominion Government that it is expected the line between Winnipeg and Lake Superior Junction will be completed during the summer, in which case—the Lake Superior Branch being already completed—there will be a continuous line from Fort William, on Lake Superior, to Edmonton, of about 1250 miles, available for the movement of this year's harvest.

29. Owing to the unprecedented increase in the cost of labour and materials which took place in the years 1906 and 1907, the expenditure on the Prairie Section has exceeded the estimates by about \$10,000,000, and the Canadian Government, recognising the causes of such increase as having been beyond the power of the Company to control, and upon the report of their engineer, have agreed to ask Parliament to authorise them to advance the above sum to the Grand Trunk Pacific Company at 4 per cent. per annum for ten years, on the security of bonds of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway guaranteed by the Grand Trunk Company.

On behalf of the Board,

C. RIVERS WILSON, *President.*

DASHWOOD HOUSE, LONDON,

6th April 1909.

The gross receipts amounted to £2,919,192 and £3,382,841 for the half-years ended 30th June

and 31st December 1908 respectively. The gross receipts for the June half-year of 1909 amounted to £2,866,468, and the gross receipts as published weekly for the December half-year of 1909 amounted to £3,605,806.

Canadian ambition is not even limited to the possession of world-visited harbours on the Atlantic and Pacific—she desires also to have an outlet through James and Hudson Bay to the ocean above Labrador and south of Greenland, a great mass of country lying nearest to the British Isles. This was the dream of Prince Rupert, after whom much territory in the far North-East was called. The man who charged with such desperate bravery upon the Cromwellian infantry with his cavalry at Edgehill was equally ready, with much less potent weapons than is on land the shock of charging steeds, to attack the ice-floes of the Arctic, and he had much reason to believe that access to the American continent could be had by means of the gigantic gulf which looks on the map as though its farther extremity left a mere strip of land between itself and the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

Ever since Prince Rupert's day sailing-vessels have in the summer-time made successful voyages to what was afterwards called Fort Churchill. If sailing-vessels could regularly perform this voyage, and could with almost mathematical certainty, or at all events with very few losses, execute their errand and bring back a cargo of furs, it seems to

stand to reason that steamers can do more. To be sure, a period during which it is safe to dare the melting fields of ice and to find a free channel is but brief, but steamers are not now dependent on paddle-wheels, which can be easily crushed, or single screws, whose blades may be broken. The steamers fortified against the ice and possessing three screws, as in the turbine system, should make the passage safely and swiftly. They should be able to enter through Hudson Straits in any convenient number. It would not be necessary for them to remain long at Churchill, or at the mouth of the Nelson River, or at any place chosen as possessing the deepest water. They could come away swiftly, and if the percentage of loss among sailing-vessels using this route for over two hundred years has been small, why should we anticipate disasters to the infinitely better equipped fleet? It is these considerations which have made Canadians consider whether it may not be possible to ship far more than furs from such a port during a brief period of the year.

The enormous crops of wheat, it is urged, may also be sent where only the skins of wild animals formerly left the country, and surveys have been made which show that it is no very difficult engineering task to build a railway along the Nelson River to this northern sea.

A gallant colonel in the Canadian militia, who is, like many of his comrades, a very competent engineer, recently made an interesting journey which took him from the Saskatchewan to where the Little

Churchill River becomes practicable for canoes. He, with a white comrade, got together some Indians who had some acquaintance with the stream ; he made a successful descent along the Little Churchill to where it joins what is called the Big River of the same name. At the junction of the streams the Indians said they had heard that the water was very difficult below, and that they could not proceed further. It required much persuasion before they would undertake to man the canoes for his further progress, but the Colonel persevered, and they embarked, only to find very soon that he had undertaken a most difficult exploit. The stream ran more and more swiftly, the rapids of the river became more dangerous, yet to land on either bank was impossible. The shore ice still fringed the edge of the water, and the canoes, had they attempted a landing, would have been in danger of being cut to pieces. So on they flew, the Indians managing the craft with marvellous skill. But sixty miles of strong and broken water had to be passed before they at length could cease from incessant watchfulness and strenuous labour. Then onward with far less trouble they let the stream carry them, halting at nights to make camp where in many places the Colonel observed silver foxes among their brighter coloured brethren. Arriving happily at Churchill, the return journey was made up the Nelson River, and the results of surveys duly communicated to the Government at Ottawa.

A minor difficulty which can be easily overcome

is the shallowness of the water along much of the shore of James Bay. If grain be stored in the quantities anticipated at any railway line, it will be a question of detail what method will be the quickest to transfer it to the ships, which must, in all probability, lie pretty far out until dredging or other engineering operations can be undertaken to let the ships come alongside the wharf. Indeed, this difficulty is evidence of a very curious fact—the whole of the northern portion of the continent seems to be rising from the sea with a quickness rare in geological annals. Millions of years have probably been occupied in raising or depressing many of the land surfaces which have either been overflowed by the ocean or have been raised therefrom. But along the James Bay shores you will see bones of whales and other marine animals lying considerably above the present high-water mark of the tide. Again, throughout the lake- and pond-pitted country north and south of the Saskatchewan you will find marshes and shallow pools and alkaline stretches of surface water in every appearance and stage of desiccation. The haunt in autumn of the white-plumaged pelican, and swan, and geese—birds which still make many of these lakelets look as though they were sown with seed pearls, when they are migrating south with their young families, reared during the spring-time in the lonely arctic regions—all these haunts are seemingly being raised to become mere depressions in the great plains covered with prairie grasses.

Canada now numbers between 7,000,000 and 8,000,000 people, and the citizens elect their own governments, legislating in a Federal capital, representing a nation growing every day in strength and self-confidence. She is as proud as ever of being the leading nation outside of Britain in position, yet one with her in blood, sentiment, and pride in the Empire. The confidence the colony placed in early times in asking Britain to undertake a representation of her interests in foreign countries is continued, but now the mother country welcomes the direct representation of Canada through one of her statesmen in associating him with the trained diplomatists named by the British Government to support any colonial contention.

We have elsewhere quoted an eminent Canadian lawyer, Mr. Justice Longley, who has recently vindicated the manner in which, even in the earlier times, British ministers backed up in negotiation the desires of Canada. He goes back to the proceedings after the War of Independence. The American commissioner, Franklyn, proposed that what is now Nova Scotia, on the Atlantic, should be included in the United States. Part of the country which was held to be Canadian under the French treaty of 1763, by the Quebec Act of 1774, including a territory as far north as the Great Lakes, became American at a date when no actual maps existed, and it was supposed that the Lake of the Woods was the mother of the Mississippi. But great as was the

concession to the revolted colonies of lands practically unknown, the British commissioners succeeded in keeping for the united Empire and loyalists a vast territory, much of which is turning out to be as good as anything to the south of the boundary land, and to be possessed of some advantages which no part of the United States except the frontier states can boast. The principal of these may be held to be the freedom of Canada from the presence of the black man. The negro imported from West Africa for the sake of labour in the hot south and in all the country up to a line drawn east and west from Washington, has influenced for the worse all lands where he may be found. His presence may be a necessity in climates where white labour cannot be easily employed; but white men are far better without him. The wholesome winter frost of Canada's snow gives rest to the soil, and exiles the negro. It may be affirmed that the British commissioners did more for their young colony than would have been possible if their young communities had been rich enough to have survey officers in the Government at that time. The boundaries fixed by the treaty of 1783 were drawn at a time when Maine was part of the province of Massachusetts, and Nova Scotia included New Brunswick. The northern boundaries of these states extended to the St. Lawrence. The treaty of 1763 gave up New France or Canada to Great Britain. In those days tracks inland were chiefly along the rivers, and it shows how important they were when it

became a principle to be followed as far as possible, that each Government was to possess also the sources of the rivers if they occupied the territories through which they empty into the sea. Through all the disputes for rectification of boundary we see this river claim or height of land claim used by one party against the other as emigrants came; and these local disputes were always arising. In 1827 a war was threatened regarding the land of St. Lawrence highlands, and the King of the Netherlands was made the arbitrator. Again in 1839 rival timber merchants came to blows, and commissioners from London and Washington settled the matter, and these disputes were again laid aside by a treaty of 1842, and there is no doubt that the British Government did their best for the Canadian colonies in questions where neither of the national Governments desired to see the matter determined by war. War had indeed broken out in 1812-15, and thereafter a treaty in 1818 decided on the question of relative interest. The United States renounced the right to take or cure fish from anybody's water except from some parts of the water of the coast of Newfoundland and Labrador, and then the important question of the boundary in the west was settled at the 49th parallel north latitude. Geographical knowledge halted at the Rockies. At that time the Mexican Government was in possession of California, and Russia and the Hudson's Bay Company were only beginning to explore the countries which were to

them respectively Far East and Far West. They called everything except California by the name of Oregon.

The Americans at one time seemed to wish to insist upon the 54th degree line, which would have taken most of British Columbia, and the British on their side wished for the mouth of the Columbia River, and the commissioner again settled the present boundary, and thus again the Britons did their best to secure for Canada most valuable ground. In 1871 again the Colonies could certainly not complain of any laxity on the part of Britain; the mother country was quite ready to back up with arms the forces of Canada had they been drawn into trouble through sympathy with the South, or through the unpleasantness resulting from the seizure under the British flag of the Southern commissioners, Messrs. Mason and Slidell, or, again, through the escape from arrest in England of the steamer *Alabama*. This last matter was indeed a most difficult one. British law did not provide for the arrest of any ship upon mere suspicion. The *Alabama* got away before she had given ground for any seizure. I remember another vessel, called *Pampero*, which was also supposed to be fitting out as a warship for the Confederacy, but there was no evidence against her. She was narrowly watched; the ordinary operations of a vessel fitting for sea could not give occasion for action against her. She was preparing for sea at Bowling on the Clyde, whence merchant vessels free under international

laws were steaming every month across the Atlantic to take their chance of capture in running the barricade of southern ports. What was to distinguish the *Pampero* from any barricade runner, supposing she were destined for that lawful trade? There was nothing. Still, up to the moment of her sailing, the Government officials watched her, and then suddenly one morning they pounced upon her and arrested her. Why? Because they found that her decks had been strengthened by extra timbers just below her ports. The decks must have received their strengthening timbers in order to support the weight of cannons; had she not put in those few extra planks she would have escaped, but the addition of these finished her chance. Upon such slender evidence was it necessary for the Government to act? The wonder is, not why one *Alabama* escaped to prey upon American commerce, but why there were not a dozen or more ships of her class upon the high seas.

CHAPTER XII

THE CONFERENCES—WHAT THEY MEANT

Face to face talk every four years up to 1909—Great Britain remains impassive under Cobden ideas—Colonies prove that their import duties have benefited them, increased capital, kept up wages—They continue to offer Great Britain Preference—And hope she will join in moderate Import Duties against foreigners—Elections in 1908–1909 seem to show that Conferences are changing British views in favour of Colonial desires.

The Conference which ended in the so-called Liberal Governments "banging the door" on any arrangement involving a difference in Fiscal Treatment between Britain and her Colonies, and Britain and Foreigners.

THE good done in having conferences every three or four years, and thereby making clear to the Empire the position of each member of it, regarding common questions, has been shown by the experience of the first meetings. People in Britain denied that the Colonies asked for preferential treatment. They were confuted by representative after representative of the leading Colonies. The position of the present Government in Great Britain was made equally clear. They would not face the chance of any unpopularity at home for the sake of

the Colonies. They believed any distinction made in fiscal matters to be wrong economically. They thought with Cobden and Bastiat, and would not believe that the experience of the Colonies applied to home affairs. They were willing to consider help to steamers and cheap mail services, but all must depend on the feeling of the foreigner. If he were hurt, or any of Cobden's doctrines violated, they would never dream of such encouragement to "sister States," never do anything that might alienate the affections of foreigners, who have always shown themselves wherever they are, to be such real, dear, and true friends to us under all circumstances, and would never, never offend them, or take on themselves any of the fiscal risks the Colonies take on themselves. The Colonies' position was that they had benefited in their experience of a tariff against foreigners, and that they had used it to advantage, and given Great Britain a large preference. They intimated that they would give foreigners an intermediate advantage which would not swamp Great Britain's advantage, when foreigners desired to deal with them. They did not want Great Britain to do anything to burden her poor. But they denied from their own experience that any such result could flow from a moderate import duty and preference to Colonies.

Hear what Sir WILFRID LAURIER said: Why was not a universal preference given? Because the economic conditions are not the same. In Great Britain you have an old country, wealthy, with nothing

new to do. In the new countries we have to create. We feel strong enough in Canada to give a preference to the old country on all our manufactures. In Australia and New Zealand, &c., they are not yet strong enough. It is essential to leave to each country the extent of the preference they may give.

Speaking on behalf of Canada, Sir Wilfrid emphatically declared that it was Canada's desire to give a preference to all other Colonies. It will be seen he has no fear of inter-State arrangements of this nature producing hate between them as imagined by some of our British Free Traders, to be the effect of Britain and her Colonies pursuing this policy.

We have, he said, "a tariff for general purposes, and a preferential tariff. Between these we have an intermediate tariff. The object of this is to enter into arrangements with other Powers to have trade arrangements with them. (This has since been sought with several.) France, for instance, would take our intermediate tariff, knowing there was a lower differential tariff under all circumstances for the Mother Country and other British dominions.

"The present preference in favour of Great Britain is $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. If France or another Power had the intermediate tariff, the preference in Britain's favour would be reduced as compared with France by 3 or 4 per cent., but never more than 5 per cent. Instead of having a preference of

33 $\frac{1}{3}$, Great Britain would have a preference of 28. That would be the limit."

Mr. DEAKIN, head of the Australian Government, said: It seems that the mere procedure of the House of Commons is to be put against the idea of tariff and preference. Surely the House of Commons knows how to make nice habits curtsey to great occasions. Why should no preference be possible to Great Britain unless it were scientifically perfect? No tariff and no budget in any country ever fulfils such conditions. We must not shirk new departures because they will be criticised. Life moves in contest and criticism. Any fear of this means that our opponents condemn our whole system of free Parliamentary Government. Any objection that the right of criticism of taxation, or, in other words, "grievances before supply," must be discussed in the House of Commons, is an objection against any treaty with foreign Powers. You must not do what the Colonies have done for fear of making discriminations! You must not ask anywhere for most favoured nation treatment for fear of bringing yourself and your relations with them into the field of conflict! What we have in mind is a general agreement of a simple character at first, which might be extended. Its enlargement would be based on experience. I am not aware that in Canada the resolutions passed, though not reciprocated, produce hate against Great Britain!

These are some of the disastrous consequences

Mr. Churchill imagined. Any new course invites challenge in the first instance. Then it abates: One looks to experience when all these theories of fearful consequences are paraded. What is our experience after granting preference? In Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, we have eager politicians, yet they don't "blackguard" each other because they have to make arrangements in detail on tariffs between each State! In Australia we had all these theories. Dear food for the people—intercolonial hate, &c. &c.—all were alleged to be inevitable. Experience, that great teacher, showed in time that all these fears were baseless. We have been through the precise experience imagined for this old country by Mr. Churchill, and we have found nothing to justify such morbid anticipations. It is unnecessary to imagine that nothing done can be withdrawn. No self-governing community would part with its rights over its own taxation for more than a very limited period. No preference is proposed in perpetuity. Each of the countries in the Empire, having entered into a treaty of reciprocity for a limited period, would hold to it without undue exacerbation on the part of its politicians or people. *We have tried it, and therefore know.* Another argument at present used by British Ministers is that if you do something, you will have to do a great deal more. *Our experience does not warrant that conclusion. We have gone back when we thought we had made a mistake, and gone forward when we thought we had made a success.*

Sir WILFRID LAURIER—Of late Canadian preference to British trade has been $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent., and has increased British trade with Canada from 29 millions to 69 millions in 1907. Canada has a large free list, which covers all raw materials. All canals and railroads, as well as the tariff, are designed to throw trade towards Mother Country. We have done all we can. We have told the British there is a way of doing more by preference in mutual trade. In the Conference of 1902 our proposed resolutions were: "That this Conference recognises that the principle of preferential trade between the United Kingdom and His Majesty's dominions beyond seas would stimulate and facilitate mutual commercial intercourse, and would, by promoting the development of the resources and industries of the several points strengthen the Empire." There is a qualification in the next statement: "That this Conference recognises that, in the present circumstances of the Colonies, it is not practicable to adopt a general system of free trade as between the mother country and the British Dominions beyond seas. That in view, however, of promoting the increase of trade within the Empire, it is desirable that the Colonies which have not adopted such a policy should, so far as their circumstances permit, give substantial preferential treatment to the products and manufacturers of the United Kingdom."

Canada does not desire that the British Government should do anything contrary to British people's

interests. Each member of the Empire must judge of its own interests. But when Canada passed the resolution of 1902 Britain had put a duty on corn, and Canada thought it would be good policy to give a preference on such duty—that is, that Canadian corn should come into England at less price than foreign. But the British Parliament thought otherwise, and removed the duties on corn instead of giving Canada a preference. The next resolution was “That the prime ministers present at the Conference undertake to submit to their respective governments the principle of the resolution, and request them to give effect to it.” Another resolution was: “That, with a view of promoting increase of trade within the Empire, all Colonies should give preference to the United Kingdom.” Since then almost all have shown desire to give preference to Mother Country. Now let us see if Sir Wilfrid Laurier and others who have had experience share the fear that negotiations for preference must engender hatred! Sir Wilfrid continued by saying that he endorsed Mr. Deakin’s resolution: “That it is desirable that the preferential treatment accorded by the Colonies to the Mother Country be also granted to the products of other self-governing Colonies.” Sir Wilfrid said: “I should subscribe with both hands to this; and on behalf of the people of Canada I would be prepared to enter into an absolute arrangement. Any preference we give to the Mother Land we give to you.”

Sir WILLIAM LYNE—British imports are decreasing to our own sister States. This is so in Australia enormously, as against foreign imports. Australia is convinced that preference given by Australia would do much to change this for Britain's good.

They want to have the chance given by England of supplying England with most of what is now supplied by foreigners.

If England puts on a slight duty, more wheat would be grown in Colonies.

Now 55 per cent. of wheat she consumes is supplied from within the Empire; 45 per cent. is foreign. It would not be difficult to supply the 44 per cent., with a little encouragement, from Imperial sources alone.

Foreign countries are too dependent on our trade to desire to raise prohibitive imposts against us.

Each part of the Empire should help their countrymen of the Empire as against foreigners.

“The true policy would treat the Colonists as if they inhabited an English county, giving them liberty to grow and manufacture what they pleased. It would differ from the system of the Free Traders, for, in place of disadvantages, it would give them, in common with all their fellow-subjects, an advantage in the Imperial markets, and take in return a reciprocal advantage in the Colonial markets, instead of being opened to all, as now, without distinction, would give a preference to British subjects. It requires little foresight to see how powerfully self-interest would

bind the Colonies to the Mother Country and the Mother Country to the Colonies."

Sir William Lyne said that it was in his recollection that Australian harbours used to see little but the Union Jack on the ships that came. Now the German and French flags were at every wharf.

Mr. LLOYD GEORGE was convinced that to tax the food of the people is to put an undue burden on the poorest in Great Britain for the sake of Imperial co-operation; but desired to assist in this by other means.

British trade is good as compared with Protectionist countries. Twenty-five per cent. increase in five years with Germany, United States, and France in manufactured goods. There is not a great market in the world in which we have not more than held our own. Wages are better in Great Britain, and go further in purchasing necessities.

Temptation to increase duties would be irresistible if forced by France or Germany. It would tell on poor. Unemployment is not on the increase. As to good trade, take cotton. We have in Great Britain increased our trade by 20 million pounds in four years. In shipping we have four times as much as she has with all her subsidies.

Great Britain is best customer Colonies have.

Appointment of consuls in Colonial countries might be made to assist trade knowledge. Increase speed of vessels, and so shorten distance between Great Britain and the Colonies. Imperial commercial travellers might be appointed. State

subsidies for shipping not so useful as organisation of railway system for encouraging Colonial trade. The German railway is a bonus on exports, and the British railway is a bonus to the foreign exporter to this country. Germany through-rate-system is good—Railways there are the States', and through co-operation of all lines can afford to make up loss on some lines regarded as important.

It will be seen that Mr. Lloyd-George based his objections on supposed rise of food prices without more money to pay for them.

Mr. WINSTON CHURCHILL objected to protection or preference on political, parliamentary, and diplomatic grounds.

Parliament would discuss all items for preference or protection, and breed hostility in Colonies by criticising items which they desire.

Instead of present family feeling, there would arise a mere business partnership, or even partnership would become unpopular. Every tax would have to figure every year in British Budget. The opposers of preference would point out that Britain does not get proportional value. Balances would be set up between Colonies and Mother Country. Reciprocal preference would involve interference with principle of self-government. Before voting preference British Members of Parliament might try to interfere with a Colonial government's action which the British representative might have disliked. This would be an inexhaustible cause of friction. "Grievances before supply" would be

brought forward on both sides, British and Colonial. Neither side would be any longer free, and the "preferences" would become locked preferences.

Preference means enhancement of price. You will breed hatred to Colonies if each thing is done for them means dearer food.

It will be seen that Mr. Churchill's speech shows: Belief that preference means protection? But why must we go too far? Why may not moderate preference be sustained? Is not this like saying we cannot try the temperature of water without bathing altogether in it?

Colonies do not hate each other because they bargain. The family would only always have most favourable treatment—an expression and practice—not destruction of diplomacy or good understanding.

Mr. DEAKIN—The special circumstances of this country seem to us to offer a margin even in respect of food-stuffs and raw material, in which both of those could be dealt with, and effectively dealt with, to our great gain, yet without altering the place which the United Kingdom has to-day as the best market for foreigners in the world. We deem it necessary that each country does what is judged best for itself. We study our own interests, and expect Great Britain to do the same. If the result of having duties and granting a preference is to build up dominions beyond the seas, it should be remembered that they were, are, and are likely to be the best customers of this (old) country. Consequently you have a direct trade interest in

multiplying their population and increasing their consuming power by preferences.

We have no dogmas. Our method is to study each industry and its needs, or each kind of production, and to see how far it will pay to foster it. I agree with Mr. Schultz, when he sees how British trade with Colonies has been decreasing as compared with their trade with foreigners: "We give to our rivals great advantages. We give our rivals a free market of 43 million British to add to their own free market in their own country."

Preferential trade and retaliation against foreign countries which penalise our trade, as in the case of food to Germany, are among the several means by which the Empire can recover its lost ground in trading. "Where the treasure is, there will the heart be also." We should place our treasure within the Empire. Australia asks if it can retain its present trade without preference in British market. It cannot. Denmark, for instance, gets railway preference, cutting out our butter by the action of railway companies. Australia is by far England's best customer, so encourage our trade with you!

By British trade with foreigners you build up their mercantile marine. The want of unity of the different parts of our Empire enables foreign countries to adopt various courses inimical to British interests.

The power possessed by the British by the possession of a great market is little realised.

United, it is enormous. It is a case of all for each, and each for all. See how Germany retired from its position of antagonism to Canada, which Germany assumed when Canada granted preference to the British manufacturer. We do not plead (in asking for preferences in trade) for something which is to involve sacrifices to any member of the Empire, but for a *co-operation* which is to be mutually beneficial.

Mr. JOSEPH WARD (New Zealand)—New Zealand has honest desire to place her position before the British Government. If homeland sees proper to reciprocate the preferences we have given, New Zealand would be only too glad to extend the system upon a mutual basis. I believe that if a rise in the price of food to the British people were to be proposed, they should not accept any such proposal. It is because I do not believe that any rise in food prices would come from a preference on certain articles that I am in favour of preference: goods pay double duty with us if they are of foreign extraction. If you give the Colonies a chance, the competition between them for the British market will give you an article at as low a price as you would get it from foreigners. It is because I believe this that I desire a line to be drawn between protection and preference on certain articles as against the same articles from foreign countries.

I am glad that trade correspondents have been appointed by Great Britain to the Colonies. Could

British and French ships not have preference in rates in passing the Suez Canal? We want Australia and New Zealand brought within twenty days of London—by steamers on Pacific (twelve days), rail across Canada (four days), steamers across Atlantic (four days). It can be done.

Dr. JAMESON—Mr. Rhodes made the proposal of preference to the Old Country in 1890. We (Africa) ask for preference. We wish the principle established; however small it is, we will be thankful. England was built up by protection; after sixty years of so-called free trade she is finding herself handicapped. Other nations are catching her up. Our idea is that having preference within the Empire might lead to free trade within the Empire, and that again would compel fiscal improvement among outside nations, and practically compel free trade throughout the world.

The Hon. F. R. MOOR (Natal)—Wants preference and lowering of passenger rates, through Government help, on steamers to Colonies.

Sir JAMES MACKAY (India) declared himself against the Colonial proposals. Speaking of what he thought were the interests of India, which country does well under existing conditions, any change might bring retaliation against India on the part of foreign countries.

If she remained outside any Imperial combine, she would still be subjected to this danger. Any measure which disturbs the natural course of her trade must reflect unfavourably, not on Indian trade

alone, but on that of the whole of the British Empire.

General BOTHA wished the resolution of 1892 to remain unaltered. Each country must judge for itself. England at last election pronounced against preference.

Sir ROBERT BOND said ditto to Sir Wilfrid Laurier.

Mr. ASQUITH—We are all agreed that each country must judge for itself. At present we all are well affected to each other. We have found free trade good, but we do not press it on any member of the Empire. We do not complain if duties are imposed against British goods. The vital necessity of free trade for Great Britain is more proved than sixty years ago, in Cobden's time. How otherwise could we maintain our good position against competition of all the world? We do the carrying trade of more than half the world. By free trade we have been able to have cheap food. Curtail that and raw materials, and we damage our people.

We have the "most favoured nation clause" with all our chief rivals. We stand better in the foreign protected markets than do foreigners. Lately our trade has been growing still greater in those markets. No tariff rule can exclude good British articles. (*Note.*—If this be so, could small preference to Colonies have any bad effect?)

Colonial preferences amount to very little. Yet, in return for them, Great Britain is asked to give

up free trade, which you call a fetish, and we think must remain our principle.

Sir WILLIAM LYNE—The food of the working classes would not be dearer to them in Great Britain. Over half of the wheat you use comes now from British possessions. It is ridiculous to think that 2s. per quarter charge on foreign wheat would raise prices. Give us your market, and you will see it would not. It would cheapen the cost of production to us. More land would come under wheat.

In estimating relative positions of Great Britain and foreign States, you must look only at the proportion Great Britain still enjoys of our trade. The foreigners are catching you up. Their proportion of trade with your Colonies is always increasing as compared with your proportion. Your so-called free trade is restricting your trade within the Empire.

In regard to foreign reprisals (if you gave preference and put a duty all round), each nation claims its own rights, and all fully understand that each must protect its own people's industry.

Great Britain and the Colonies are now helping to build up huge foreign navies, because, by refusing preference, you divert employment to Germany.

Adam Smith says: "Retaliatory duties are a matter for deliberation when a foreign nation restrains by high tariffs."

Give us money to quicken communication. With

better steam communication, emigration to Australia would increase.

Dr. SMART (Cape) pointed out how, generation after generation, there was a less proportion of those who knew British ties, and who would therefore not regret making commercial ties with others. All the Colonies want a low tariff and preference here. In India, I think the majority of Anglo-Indians want this also—perhaps a majority of educated Indians. Sir James Mackay, who had objected in India's interest, asked for lower duties on tobacco, and hoped that if Great Britain gave preference to Colonies she would give it to India also. Then you are going to give preference to Ireland in growing tobacco. Why not do more?

Australia gives preference to South African alcohol. Give us preference now on tobacco and wine and corn. Although Russia puts a tax on Indian tea, there is more sent to Russia than ever. This shows that such necessities do not feel a small tax. It is true, as stated, that, relatively to foreigners, Great Britain is not keeping her old place. Our wine trade was great in Cobden's day. His French treaty half ruined it. Sixty years ago we sent 800,000 gallons; now there is not more than £6000 worth where there would have been a gigantic trade. (It is easy to mix the African wines as the French do.)

Mr. ASQUITH—You would persuade our people that free trade is a fetish. A penal duty on grain and foreign produce is wholly alien to British

ideas, and, once introduced, the change will produce antagonism that must produce either total free trade or total protection. There is no comparison possible between the two. (*Note.*—And this is said with prosperous Holland, with mild tariff, in view—a tariff much milder than before!) Britain would not give any preference which shall be even-handed, doing justice to each Colony as compared with others, unless you include raw materials. It can only be done by taxing food and raw materials—that is, shortening the supply of food and materials for manufacture. I know you dispute that. (*Note.*—They all did.) But that is what we believe. But though I will not tolerate preference, I agree that foreign steamship subsidies, and railway rates, and commercial intelligence, and more full communication between different parts of the Empire, the cheapening of the Suez Canal charges, are good, and we are most anxious to consider how to assist in all these matters.

Sir WILLAM LYNE thought Mr. Asquith's speech unfavourable to Colonial wishes. We cannot, any of us, allow our labour to be paid as is Asiatic labour. India, therefore, cannot be put on the same plane.

The position has advanced since 1902. We have put the matter before our country, and the result is a House unanimous for preference.

Australia's offer is not small. It amounts now to £1,200,000 of preference. Twenty million colonists ask Great Britain to consider this question.

As to extra cost of living, it would not tell. We have areas large enough to supply Great Britain with wheat-flour. If we get the home market we will put enough land under crops. I do not think there is the slightest danger so far as the British consumer is concerned. Australia exports 70,000,000 bushels, and imports about 46,000,000. This trade is being sucked away by foreigners to foreign ports. Foreigners are sucking away the employment and the life-blood of the Mother Country. The younger generation are getting callous. To prevent this, our young men should know more of Great Britain, and she of us. Unless closer commercial relations are encouraged, unity will be undermined. We warn you of dangers attacking the whole Empire. Our harbours were full of British ships. It is not so now. Foreigners are largely there. The foreigners have now a tonnage in Australian waters equal to Great Britain. Trade returns show great relative losses for Great Britain. Australian Governments have tried to encourage British trade by giving contracts to British in preference to foreigners, but the foreign tide of success rises steadily. Where we can supply raw material, why not give us preference? You have in Great Britain a margin of importation which comes mainly from the foreigners, and that we seek emphatically to be given an opportunity over the foreigner to supply to you, *and at no greater price*. A slight preference in our favour would not make British people one penny the poorer. I may say that in

New South Wales the effect of a protective tariff, small as it is, averagely low as it is, has given that country a revenue, through the customs, which has allowed it to pay £600,000 a year in pensions to the poor. We give them 10s., or, if married, £1 per week.

Dr. JAMESON (fourth day) reminded the Conference that when he was speaking here the most able statesman in South Africa was speaking there, saying that reciprocity was an absolute necessity if the existing preference in South Africa, at all events, was likely to be continued.

Mr. LLOYD GEORGE—We are not in a position to tax food-stuff and raw materials here. We agree with all you say on co-operation except as to ways and means. We wish to make sacrifices; but to tax food would be to put this sacrifice on the poorest and helpless, and to tax raw material would fetter us in fighting our rivals in trade. Our trade is good with foreign Powers, actually and proportionately. We must calculate by both these standards. In machinery, for instance, although we have only 40 millions of people to Germany's and the United States' 140 millions, we export as great a value as both of these countries. Our men are paid higher wages than Germany gives her workmen. In cottons also we do well, and pay workmen better than in Germany. Cheap labour for the cheaper products, and dearer labour for the dearer products, is Mr. Deakin's rendering of our position as stated by me. Mr. Chamberlain was right in pointing out

that foreign tariffs had made our trade go down in 1903. Since then there has been a turn, and there has been a great rise in exports to protected countries. Excluding ships, this has changed from 71½ millions in 1902 to 90 millions in 1906. Trade with the Colonies in the same years has gone up from 94 millions to 107 millions. All this does not include our coal exports. There is not a great market in the world in which we have not more than held our own in the last few years. As to wages, a report made under a Conservative Government said Germany's wages are two-thirds of ours, and France gives three-fourths only what we give labourers. . . . That was said in 1902. We have more than held our own under Free Trade. We are told that 2s. a quarter on wheat would make no difference. See what happened when in Germany this duty was only 2s. 2d. She went on to 6s. and 10s., then dropped to 7s. She was pushed on to higher prices. That is what we are afraid of here. But when Germany had only 2s. on as duty, the price of wheat in Germany was in excess of our price by 2s. Of course preference to Colonies would affect the result with us, and not with Germany, who has no wheat-growing Colonies; but you in the Colonies could not give us enough—no, not by millions of bushels of wheat—nor by tens of millions of bushels.

Dr. JAMESON here said no Colony dreamt of hurting the poor Britisher. Preference, not Protection, was what was wanted. In reply to Mr. Lloyd George asking how long it would be before the 150

million bushels could be provided necessary to the Britisher, it was declared that 100 million was produced now. Sir Wilfrid Laurier said Canada anticipated raising 600,000, but could give no specified date, saying it was contingent. Mr. Lloyd George said we can't make the poor man's bread contingent. He proceeded to say he would be glad if emigration could be encouraged to Colonies. Our fluctuations in numbers of unemployed are less than in protected countries. In shipping we have four times what Germany has of mercantile marine tonnage. British shipping with the Colonies amounts to 20½ million tons. The foreign tonnage is only one-sixth or one-seventh of ours. Foreigners begin to trade direct with you, without the British middleman employed by them before. The moment they buy from you, that creates trade. You colonists start buying back. As long as we were the purchasers we British got all the advantage; as soon as they bought they got some advantage. That is our Free Trade argument. The fact that we trade freely with the whole world makes them buy from us. Let us go from this question, which the last elections have settled for the present, to other matters you desire. Cheaper cable communication is desired; commercial agents are wanted; better communications for passenger traffic and transport. All this we desire also.

Mr. WINSTON CHURCHILL objected to Preference from political and diplomatic points of view. Debates on duties would embitter Parliament against

the Colonies, and would create hostility and retaliation against Britain in foreign countries.

Sir WILFRID LAURIER said a week had passed in debate, and he intended to move again the resolution of 1902. He rejected the idea of agreement on Zollverein lines. In Germany commercial unity preceded political unity. It is the reverse with us.

The Colonies must have duties to encourage manufactures. Great Britain at present wants only "Free Trade." We have given you $33\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. (*Note.*—Remember that Sir Wilfrid Laurier, speaking for a tariff, shows that the national policy, excluding as far as possible foreign manufactures—a policy bitterly fought against by his party in 1877—receives now his and his party's entire assent, proving how beneficial all parties in Canada acknowledge a tariff to have been proved to be to that country.) Each country must "Go as you please." Our preference is on goods liable to excise duty—tobacco, spirits, &c.

The following resolutions were carried:—

1. That this Conference recognises that the principle of preferential trade between the United Kingdom and His Majesty's Dominions beyond the seas would stimulate and facilitate mutual commercial intercourse, and would, by promoting the development of the resources and industries of the several parts, strengthen the Empire.
2. That this Conference recognises that, in the

present circumstances of the Colonies, it is not practicable to adopt a general system of Free Trade as between the Mother Country and the British Dominions beyond the seas.

3. That with a view, however, to promoting the increase of trade within the Empire, it is desirable that those Colonies which have not already adopted such a policy should, as far as their circumstances permit, give substantial preferential treatment to the products and manufactures of the United Kingdom.

4. That the Prime Ministers of the Colonies respectfully urge on His Majesty's Government the expediency of granting in the United Kingdom preferential treatment to the products and manufactures of the Colonies, either by exemption from or reduction of duties now or hereafter imposed.

5. That the Prime Ministers present at the Conference undertake to submit to their respective Governments, at the earliest opportunity, the principle of the resolution, and to request them to take such measures as may be necessary to give effect to it.

Commercial Relations.

That, without prejudice to the Resolutions already accepted or the reservation of His Majesty's Government, this Conference, recognising the importance of promoting greater freedom and fuller development of commercial intercourse within the Empire, believes that these objects may be best secured by leaving to each part of the Empire liberty of action in selecting the most suitable means for attaining them, having regard to its own special conditions and requirements, and that every effort should be made to bring about co-operation in matters of mutual interest.

Commercial Relations and British Shipping.

That it is advisable, in the interests both of the United Kingdom and His Majesty's Dominions beyond the seas, that efforts in favour of British manufactured goods and British shipping should be supported as far as is practicable.

This terminated the last Conference.

THE ARGUMENTS USED ON EACH SIDE—

This is what was said, briefly summarised.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier and Mr. Deakin both repeated the former conference's results—namely, the request by the Colonies, the refusal by the home Government of acceptance of resolutions binding the old country to change her ways; and Lord Salisbury was quoted as saying in 1887, when conferences were first commenced: "I fear that we must, for the present, put in the distant and shadowy portion of our task, and not in the practical part of it, any hope of establishing a Customs Union among the various parts of the Empire. I do not think that in the nature of things it is impossible; I do not think that the mere fact that we are separated by the sea renders it impossible. In fact, the case of Ireland, which has a Customs Union with England, shows that it is not impossible. But the resolutions that were come to in respect to our fiscal policy forty years ago (this was said in 1887) set any such possibility entirely aside, and

it cannot be now resumed until on one side or the other very different notions with regard to fiscal policy prevail from those which prevail at the present moment."

Then, as now, the old country was "free trading," the Colonies protectionist. The first conference took up the question of preferential trade in the proposal of Sir Samuel Griffin: "The governing bodies of the Empire should see that their own subjects have a preference over foreign subjects in the matter of trade." He continued: "If any member of the Empire thinks fit to impose customs charges, it should be recognised that goods coming from British possessions should be subject to a lighter duty than those coming from foreign countries." Sir Samuel represented Queensland. Mr. Service for Victoria, Australasia, also said: "I am not a Free Trader who believes in Free Trade as a fetish, or hold that circumstances may never arise which might demand a revision of our policy on the subject of Free Trade." Mr. Deakin in 1887 also said: "It is not for the Colonies to urge this proposal as one which would be of benefit to them. It is an imperial matter, and until the head and the heart of the Empire have become convinced, our voices must be futile."

There was another conference at Ottawa in 1894 which recommended the cancelling of any treaties hindering the Colonies from making their own tariff arrangements—and also resolved that the governments confer on preference for the

United Kingdom. The Cape representative, Mr. Hofmeyr, proposed a slight tax on all foreign goods, the proceeds to be given to common naval defence. He thought any small tax on food in the United Kingdom would have but little effect, and that for a short time only, in any rise of price. In 1897, when we next met, Preference was still a live question. At every conference this issue of a general tax, and Preference to those within the Empire, has been raised. The resolution of 1892 Sir W. Laurier desires to have reaffirmed now in 1907. Lately many members of Parliament sent to Australia a message remonstrating against Australian parliamentary candidates advocating a tax on food in Britain on account of her many poor. The Australians only repeated with emphasis their request. We only ask what we believe will be a benefit to both parties. But each party must be the judge if there be benefit. Great Britain is the best market in the world. If it becomes slightly less so to the foreigner, this would not check his dealing with Great Britain.

What is the impression left on the mind of the reader of these speeches? Is it not that the spokesmen of the old country are afraid to move, while the representatives of the young States are not only not afraid, but, having experienced the benefits they desire to make general, are full of confidence? Great Britain declares that she has so many poor, so many helpless, that she cannot provide food for them if they be likely to lose anything of the pittance

that supports life within them at the present time. She fears any change from her present position, which is one, she says, that has made her an opulent country. But this opulence does not make her enterprising in her policy. There are too many among the opulent who hunger. She is afraid to move—afraid of her own people who, she imagines, will, when poor, suffer yet more, and will, when rich, compel her Government to raise even higher that tariff wall which she thinks will hurt her poor, and should therefore not be built at all. It seems a strange state of nervousness for statesmen to display! On the other hand, the young States and statesmen say: “Our people were poor, and have become rich by preserving for themselves their own market. We were a mere dumping-ground for the manufactures of others beyond our borders—foreigners who desired to keep us mere purchasers of their manufactures, wishing that in return we should only send them raw materials and food supplies from agricultural lands. Now, we can supply them both with these things, and we can supply them also with manufactured goods because fiscal arrangements have been made to give our people a chance, which they have used, to manufacture all things wanted by our people. Ever since we began this system of mild Protection we have prospered. Capital has been attracted to our lands. Cities have increased. Men and women have come in ever greater numbers to share our prosperity; and the old land has watched and been glad of her

children's success, but is afraid to follow their ways, because she fears that her own people will push their own Government too far, and make what may be wisdom into foolishness." Is it not a strange fear? Will not the very pressure, if there be increased poverty, prevent people from going too far? But the young States say: "You need not go one inch further than you find for your benefit. We don't press you. We only say that our parties who fought against a tariff now declare for it. No voice is against it, though there was as much fear as you now show. Preference for friends while you keep up a tariff for your people cannot hurt you—for it will encourage you and us. It will make our friends over seas more numerous. It will give capital to us who are your friends. It will give more employment to your poor at home, and provide them with more chances when your people come to us. It is not necessary to do much at once. States on the continent of Europe have low tariffs. They and we have made abatements when we saw it to be advisable. Five per cent. against the foreigner is not much, and not likely to cause disturbance to any extent if you keep a preference for our goods—a preference that will help us and you. But 5 per cent. can be tried at first. No one desires you to make your poor still poorer. Try what has succeeded with us—at first try it on a small scale. It can be altered if it does not pay. We are always altering our tariffs according to convenience and experience, but we desire always to

give the old country the best terms. We may be tempted to give nearly as good terms abroad, but we do not wish to do this. We want to deal with our kith and kin at home. Our people have known how to prevent unduly high tariffs being put on. Why should the old country be less able to do this than are her children? See how many firms of foreigners are now putting capital into our country by putting up factories. So does capital flow in. Look how in Canada there are now industries where thirty years ago there were none. Look at our agricultural implements, our furniture, even sewing-machines (as at Montreal and Belleville), where we manufactured none before. There was no use formerly in placing our money in these factories. As soon as we did so the country was artificially flooded with cheaper goods of the kind we wanted to make ourselves, and our enterprise collapsed. Then up went the artificially and temporarily lowered prices. Now how different! We manufacture, and we tempt others to employ our people by spending money on erecting factories to employ our people and manufacture what we want at home. We have not feared to face fears and hostile theories. We have dared, and daring, have succeeded. The voice of the theoretic Free Trader is silenced in our lands, and with his disappearance has come prosperity. What is there to be afraid of?"

"Ah, but," say the timid ones, "tell us exactly what you mean to do. On what scale do you mean to act?"

The reply is, we must act as circumstances in each case direct. A low general tariff is necessary. How much must depend on circumstances, and beyond that each article must be judged separately. You may as well stop a crowd at the entrance of Bond Street, and say "Ladies and gentlemen, before you are allowed to shop in this street, you must tell the world exactly what it is you wish to buy, and the price you mean to go to for each thing." The examination would be impossible, for there would be hundreds of wants, and no one would promise that the article would please before examination. The outside that any one could promise would be, "Well, I'll spend more than twenty shillings in Bond Street. Beyond that anything may be spent, according to wants." A tariff is made by experience. The want of a tariff is made by fears, nightmares, and philosophic theories.

I close with words written in 1890, which still hold good: "If England is always to defend the Colonies, as I hope she always will, the equivalent hope may be expressed that to the best of their power the Colonial Governments will assist her in her need in the same way. It is in this direction that in the future some understanding will be arrived at. It is the first and longest step in the consummation of a real federation. But the desire for these matters must be felt by the colonists, the need recognised, before England can properly urge more than discussion and consultation. If Australia

manages to do that which the statesmen of America and Canada were able to do, and for which her statesmen should be equal, and found a Union, then another stumbling-block in the way of federation will be removed, for we shall have a representative of the Dominion of Australia, as we have a High Commissioner representing Canada. The High Commissioner has since the creation of the office been a statesman in the closest touch with the Federal Government. His value as a representative, placed on equal terms with the British Plenipotentiary when foreign treaties have to be adjusted, has been amply proved, and the united Australian States or Provinces will find that such a representative is necessary. His appointment would make the formation of an Imperial Council more easy. But in saying this, I speak only words I have heard from Australians competent to judge. There is no doubt that some participation in Imperial Council must be arranged for in the near future. The Conference summoned two years ago was of great service, and it may be repeated with advantage. It would, however, be well not to repeat it too often. Perhaps once in every three or four years it might be arranged that such a Conference should take place, and that questions and desires which had in the meantime become prominent should be talked over. There is but little doubt that the range of items on which we at present in Great Britain levy some slight duty could be extended to the advantage of our Colonies. Articles of common

use and manufacture do not rise in price under a small duty. It is the more elaborate articles, requiring costly machinery for their make and transport for a distance before they are consumed, that are raised in price by a tariff. It may be possible for the Labour Unions in the several countries to name those common articles which could be supplied within the Empire, and for which we need not be dependent on the foreigner. New South Wales might join Britain in this, but it is to be remembered that foreign retaliation in the exclusion of goods must also be borne in mind, and any list of articles asked for as dutiable should be considered with the greatest care, and conjointly by the delegates appointed to their Conferences. Let us back to the utmost of our power the desires they may express, believing that any little sacrifice will be repaid a hundredfold in the continued close alliance of our strong brothers across the sea."

CHAPTER XIII

WHAT HAS BEEN DONE

SUPPORT OF COLONY IN TREATIES

IT has often been said that the interests of Canada have been sacrificed by Britain's faulty diplomacy. I would like the reader to peruse part, if not the whole, of an address delivered by Mr. Justice Longley at Halifax in April 1909.

HAS BRITAIN SACRIFICED CANADA'S INTERESTS ?

Address delivered by Mr. Justice Longley, before the Canadian Club at Halifax, April 6, 1909

For many years there has been a constant and reiterated assertion in Canada that important interests have been sacrificed by the Imperial Government, either from incompetence or subservience to the United States. On public occasions we are accustomed to hear patriotic Canadians deplore the humiliating losses to which this country has been subjected by the stupidity of British diplomatists. For many years we have heard from all quarters the declaration that, through imperial weakness, we were robbed of our just rights on the Alaska boundary arbitration. And very recently at a dinner in Montreal, at which Mr. James Bryce, the British

ambassador at Washington, was a guest, an enthusiastic Canadian took advantage of the occasion to declare that, while Canada has great territories, he wanted Mr. Bryce to understand that she had none to give away. This was received with deafening applause, designed to impress the imperial representative with the fact that Canada was going to submit to no more imperial complacency.

Wholly Unjust and without Foundation.—Such a charge is a serious one under any circumstances, and now that Canada is becoming a large, important, and almost entirely self-governing country, claiming the right to make, or take part in the making of our own treaties and bargains, the question is one of moment, and ought to be carefully looked into. The object of this paper is to show that the charge is wholly unjust and without any substantial foundation.

I propose to briefly review the incidents connected with each of the important treaties and arbitrations in which Canadian interests have been involved, and attempt to demonstrate that in none of them has incompetence been displayed by the Imperial Government, nor is there a trace of a disposition to make Canadian interests subservient to the United States or any country whatsoever.

Discussion of Treaty of 1783.—It can scarcely be claimed that Canada was directly concerned in the treaty of peace and independence between Great Britain and the United States concluded in 1783. Outside of the thirteen revolted states there were

settlements in Acadia and along the St. Lawrence River, mostly French. The latter was designated "Canada," and had been acquired by conquest in 1759. The boundaries of French Canada were extensive, and reached as far as the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers. The war of suppression had been carried on for years, under pressure from the King, and repeated disasters were making it unpopular with the English people. The great Lord Chatham was denouncing it amid the plaudits of the nation. The surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown had given the *coup de grâce* to Lord North's administration, and another was formed under the Marquis of Rockingham, with such advanced Liberals as Charles Fox and Lord Shelburne as ministers. Popular opinion demanded, and the new ministers were anxious for, peace, and the Foreign Secretary took steps to negotiate at Paris to this end. Lord Shelburne selected as the British negotiator a Mr. Oswald, who was a successful Scotch merchant, whose wife had large estates in America and the West Indies, and who, it was believed, would be agreeable to Mr. Franklyn. As the American Congress sent John Adams and John Jay, two very able men, to co-operate with Mr. Franklyn in the negotiation, it is scarcely deniable that he was over-matched. Mr. Fox did not approve of Oswald, and had Thomas Grenville as his agent in Paris. These negotiations are a long story.

The Story of the Negotiations.—Franklyn suggested that Canada and Acadia should be handed

over to the new Commonwealth, and Oswald was quite complacent about it; but in the end the British Government rejected this proposition. Mr. Henry Strachey was sent to complete negotiations, and it only remained to accept the independence of the thirteen states and to fix the boundaries. The boundaries agreed upon in the Treaty of Paris, 1783, were not strictly the boundaries between the British possessions and the United States. France was really a party to the treaty, as it was negotiated under the eye and with the full knowledge of the French Government. It was contemporaneous with the treaty of peace signed between Great Britain and France at Versailles the same day. The boundaries fixed in that treaty were the boundaries of the United States, and represented the area to which that nation was to be confined. The eastern and northern boundaries represented the demarcation between the United States and British territory. France and Spain held large areas on the west and south of the original thirteen states, and Great Britain could not have undertaken to fix the limitations of the United States in these directions. The boundaries of the United States were, therefore, made in such a form as not to interfere with territory held by France and Spain.

Adjusted so that Territory was Affected.—But they were adjusted in such a way that part of what was Canadian territory under the treaty with France in 1763, and by the Quebec Act of 1774, was added

to the territory of the original thirteen states. It was urged by the American negotiators that to have confined the United States to the actual boundaries of the thirteen states would have left them without room for growth and expansion, and, therefore, concessions of western territory were granted as far north as the lakes. But it must be borne in mind that this land was entirely unsettled, and its potential value could not then be realised as fully as events have since demonstrated. The St. Croix River was the extreme eastern boundary, thence from its head-waters to run due north to the height of land dividing the waters of the Atlantic from those of the St. Lawrence; thence along the highland extended to the Connecticut River at forty-five degrees north latitude; thence to run due west to the St. Lawrence River; thence the St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes were the boundaries. From Lake Superior the line was to run west to the Lake of the Woods; thence west to the Mississippi River, the head-waters of which were then supposed to reach a point north of this line. Subsequently it was discovered that the head-waters of the Mississippi did not extend as far north as the Lake of the Woods, and by subsequent treaty the boundary was to extend westerly on the forty-ninth parallel to the Rocky Mountains.

That Part which Extended to the Ohio.—Complaint has always been made that the British Government did not insist upon holding that part of New France which extended to the Ohio and

Mississippi Rivers. If this had been insisted upon, the present great states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and part of Minnesota would have belonged to Canada. It seems to me very useless to revert to these old matters. The United States negotiators would not agree to these boundaries. They urged that in parting from the old country, it was in every way desirable that they should separate on good terms.

They pointed out that this western territory was essential to their growth and expansion. They could scarcely hope to develop international proportions if their boundaries were confined to the strip of states along the Atlantic Ocean. British commissioners, perhaps too complacently, conceded a boundary which extended to the Great Lakes. But it was done a hundred and twenty-five years ago, and to moan over it is idle. The largest and possibly the best part of the continent was left. Canada has a territory nearly as large as Europe, and ample for all the growth and expansion she can achieve in a cycle of ages, and we can very well afford to let the past rest. Let us develop what we have and look to the future.

The Ashburton Treaty of 1842.—This is the treaty concerning which the feeling is almost universal, that Canada's interests were sacrificed by the ineffectiveness of British diplomacy, and therefore it will with difficulty be believed that a careful study of the whole question will demonstrate that it was the United States that suffered, and Canada

which gained. Yet, in spite of the long-cherished convictions which have been held on this point, I shall venture to present the other idea.

The difficulties concerning the eastern and north-eastern boundaries of the United States arose from the interpretation of the treaty of 1783. In this is found the following clause:—

“ARTICLE 2. And that all disputes which might arise in future on the subject of the boundaries of the said United States may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared that the following shall be their boundaries, viz.: From the north-west angle of Nova Scotia, namely, that angle which is formed by a line drawn due north from the source of the St. Croix River to the highlands; along the said highlands which divide those rivers which empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean to the north-westernmost head of Connecticut River; thence east by a line which is to be drawn along the middle of the river St. Croix from its mouth in the Bay of Fundy, and from its source directly north to the aforesaid highlands, which divide the rivers which fall into the Atlantic Ocean from those which fall into the river St. Lawrence.”

Let it be borne in mind that the boundaries fixed by this treaty were not new, but were in the exact phraseology which had been already fixed by imperial act at a time when all the sections concerned were colonies of Great Britain. Maine was then a part of the province of Massachusetts, and Nova Scotia included New Brunswick. The Quebec Act of 1774 fixed the southern boundaries

of Quebec as follows: "On the south by a line from the Bay of Chaleur along the highlands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the sea," &c.

In the charter of Nova Scotia to Sir William Alexander in 1621 the western boundary of the province was the St. Croix River to its source, and a line thence northerly to the nearest water falling into the St. Lawrence.

Extended to St. Lawrence at the First.—Originally, the northern boundary of Massachusetts and Nova Scotia extended to the river St. Lawrence. Their limits were therefore restricted by the proclamation of 1763, made after the treaty with France which ceded New France, or Canada, to Great Britain, and the Quebec Act of 1774, which gave that province a strip of territory south of the St. Lawrence, extending to the highlands, or watershed, separating the streams flowing into the St. Lawrence from those flowing into the sea.

The Words before and after Identical.—In the treaty of 1783, therefore, the words used in describing the boundaries of the United States were exactly the words which described the boundaries of these provinces before the revolutionary war. The first difficulty arose over the identity of the St. Croix River. Another smaller river had come to be called the St. Croix; the present St. Croix River was called the Scoodic. The Americans claimed to the St. John River, the British to the Penobscot. To settle

this difficulty, a commission was appointed, consisting of Thomas Barclay, of Annapolis, representing the British Government, and David Howell, of Rhode Island, representing the United States. These selected Egbert Benson, of New York, as umpire. Ward Chipman, senr., was counsel for Great Britain, and James Sullivan for the United States. Investigation revealed that the St. Croix Island, on which De Monts spent the winter of 1604-5, was at the mouth of the then Scoodic River. The Scoodic, now the St. Croix, River was adopted. The American commissioners acted absolutely fairly, and the award was unanimous. Ward Chipman was the most notable figure in the early life of New Brunswick, its ablest advocate, and its strongest man. He made a special study of this boundary question, and he and his son, Ward Chipman, junr., afterwards Chief Justice of New Brunswick, continued to act as counsel for the British side in further disputes. The St. Croix River was traced to its source, and a monument erected, which was ever afterwards recognised by all parties. Subsequent disputes were in respect of the line north of this monument.

The Map used at Paris in 1783.—It is reasonably certain that the negotiators at Paris in 1783 used Mitchell's map of this section in their negotiations, and the only highlands shown on this map are those near the St. Lawrence River, not far from the Little Metis River. Unquestionably, this was the place where the parties thought the original line

was to run. It must be borne in mind that the boundary of New France was exactly the same between that province and Nova Scotia and that province and Massachusetts. If Nova Scotia ran to the highlands near the St. Lawrence, Massachusetts went there. If Nova Scotia's boundary was much farther south, then Massachusetts' would be correspondingly south, for precisely the same line—"the highlands separating the waters flowing into the St. Lawrence from those flowing into the sea"—the southern boundary of Quebec, applied both to Nova Scotia and Massachusetts alike.

Much Difficulty might have been Avoided.—No doubt existed at the early stages that in seeking the north-west angle of Nova Scotia it was necessary to cross the St. John River, and seek a point very much farther north. If this due north line had crossed the St. John River west of the Madawaska River, it is likely that much subsequent difficulty would have been avoided. It was never a question simply of a few miles more or less of land, but there was a most serious question involved in crossing the St. John River east of the Madawaska. The only means of communication between Canada and Nova Scotia at that time was up the St. John River to the Madawaska, thence by the Madawaska to the Temiscouata Lake, thence by an easy road following an Indian trail to the St. Lawrence. It was by this route that parties went back and forth between the two provinces from Halifax to Quebec. It was down the Madawaska that settlers came that

founded the Madawaska colony, of which Edmundston is now the centre, and which was about the only settlement in the disputed territory. This Madawaska route was not only the shortest and most direct from Nova Scotia to Quebec, but it was the only possible route in winter when the navigation of the St. Lawrence was closed. It was the only route in winter from Quebec to England through British territory. Mails were sometimes sent to England, by courtesy, through American ports, but war or misunderstanding might stop this at any time, and as a military measure the Madawaska route must be kept open at all hazards.

A Man of Foresight and Intelligent Zeal.—The first man to realise the seriousness of this feature of the boundary was Sir Guy Carleton, at that time Governor-General of Canada. The more this remarkable man is studied, the more one is impressed with his foresight and intelligent zeal. He saw the difficulty as early as 1785, and took steps to prevent this all-important route from falling into the control of the United States if it could be avoided. That the north-west angle of Nova Scotia would cross the St. John River was not then seriously disputed by any. Ward Chipman, the best-informed man on the boundary, and the persistent advocate of British claims, made this statement before the St. Croix commissioners in 1797: "A line due north from the source of the western or main branch of the Scoodic or St. Croix will fully secure this effect (to keep sources of rivers in

territory through which they empty) to the United States in every instance, and also to Great Britain in all instances except in that of the river St. John, where it becomes impossible, by reason that the source of this river is to the westward, not only of the western boundary line of Nova Scotia, but of the sources of the Penobscot, and even of the Kenebec, so that this north line must of necessity cross the river St. John."

His Object to keep open Communication.—In 1787 Lord Dorchester wrote to his brother, Thomas Carleton, the Governor of New Brunswick, requesting him to appoint a surveyor-general to meet a similar officer in Quebec, to determine the boundary between the two provinces. His object was, as expressed in his letter, to keep open the communication. While the dispute with the United States as to the boundary was still outstanding, he made an appeal to his brother, the Governor of New Brunswick, to settle the boundary between New Brunswick and Quebec in such a way as would be averse to the American claim that the boundaries of Maine went so far north. His foreseeing judgment recognised that the case against the United States could not be successfully resisted if New Brunswick persisted in claiming a northern boundary so near the St. Lawrence, because the northern boundary of New Brunswick and Massachusetts was the same. The New Brunswick Government absolutely refused to yield a foot of their claim north at the very moment that they were using every effort to curtail

the northern boundaries of Maine, which were identical with their own.

United States' Claim to St. Lawrence Highlands.—When it became essential to contest the claim of Massachusetts to the boundaries which the terms of the treaty manifestly gave her, in order to preserve the Madawaska route, every form of ingenuity was resorted to to escape the full claim to the highlands near the St. Lawrence. New Brunswick surveyors professed to discover a few hills forty miles north of the monument at the head of the St. Croix River, and these hills were seriously contended for by Mr. Ward Chipman as the highlands of the treaty, although in no sense did they divide the waters flowing into the St. Lawrence from those flowing into the sea, and notwithstanding his previous statement that the line must inevitably cross St. John River and run north of it. All sorts of surveys were made, and various propositions were propounded, but the United States would accept none of them, and stoutly maintained its claim to the highlands near the St. Lawrence.

Settlement formed on Disputed Territory.—In time the inevitable happened. Settlements were formed on or near the disputed territory, and these ultimately came in conflict in 1827, and war was threatened. To avert hostilities, a convention was agreed upon, submitting the points in dispute to the King of the Netherlands. After hearing all that could be said and submitted on both sides, he made an award, which gave to the United States nearly

all they claimed, but fixed a compromise line which gave to New Brunswick and Quebec the Madawaska River and the St. John River down to where the line due north from the head of the St. Croix strikes that river just beyond Grand Falls—much more indeed than the United States got under the arbitration treaty—yet this decision was accepted by Great Britain, New Brunswick, and Canada, because it gave them the coveted route of communication for which they had always contended, but the United States declined to accept this award, favourable as it was, giving them nearly all the territory they had contended for.

In 1839 this disputed territory led to further trouble. A collision occurred between rival lumbermen, and armed men were sent to the scene by the Governor of Maine and Governor of New Brunswick. Fortunately, by the influence of the Washington Government, moderation prevented actual hostilities. Once more the matter was referred by mutual consent to a joint commission. Mr. Daniel Webster represented the United States, and Mr. Alexander Baring, Lord Ashburton, represented Great Britain.

Canadians overestimate the Alleged Loss.—It has been repeatedly asserted that Baring was a weak man, and that Webster got the better of him. Mr. Baring, though an able business man, and head of the great Baring House, was, perhaps, not an experienced negotiator. But Canadians preposterously overestimate the importance of the matter

in dispute and the alleged loss that accrued. The general impression is that the result of this convention was the projection of the State of Maine into Canadian territory, and that but for this treaty, a short line of railway from St. John to Montreal could have been built on Canadian soil. A careful examination into the matter will demonstrate that this is a cherished illusion. The disputed territory in the Aroostook valley amounted to twelve thousand square miles of land, and if every foot of it had been given to New Brunswick, the State of Maine would still have projected to almost as large extent as at present. The result of the convention was a compromise, by which the United States got seven thousand square miles and New Brunswick five thousand.

The Dispute came to head after Treaty.—The dispute between Quebec and New Brunswick as to the boundaries between them, which had been active for years before the treaty, came to a head after the treaty. As it was impossible for the two provinces to reach an amicable adjustment, it was taken up by the Colonial Office under Mr. Gladstone. Two commissioners, Major Robinson and Captain Henderson, were sent out to examine carefully into the boundaries between the two provinces, and these made their report, which, after some further adjudication, was confirmed by the Imperial Parliament. The boundary fixed was a compromise. The commissioners had the assistance and advice of Hon. J. W. Johnstone, at that time

Attorney-General of Nova Scotia, and their report is an extremely able, logical, and lucid statement, doubtless the work of that great Nova Scotian. One of the most remarkable features of this report is that the commissioners hold that New Brunswick is in the right in her claim for the St. Lawrence watershed as her northern boundary. If this be so, why was Maine not equally entitled? They also declare that New Brunswick has no claim to any territory west of the due north line and south of the highlands, and that Quebec has no claim to any territory south of the northern watershed. Consequently the territory west of the due north line does not belong to either. Then, pray, to whom did it belong, if not to Maine? But the commissioners declare that as by the treaty of 1842 this territory is British, they are called upon to divide it as fairly and conveniently as possible between the two provinces. This area amounts to something like 5000 square miles, and it is apportioned to these two provinces, to which neither have a just claim; and this is the way that Canada was sacrificed by the Ashburton treaty.

Might have got Assent of Senate.—No convention giving Canada the whole of this area could have possibly obtained the assent of the United States Senate. It was with difficulty that that body was induced to approve of the treaty actually made; if nothing had been conceded by Mr. Baring, there would have been no convention. The difficulty would have grown acute, and certainly ended

in war. Was it worth while to go to war over 7000 square miles of timber land? If New Brunswick had obtained every acre she was seeking, so far as I can make out from a careful examination of the map, every foot of the present short line, from Montreal to St. John, would still have been laid on American soil, and many miles from any Canadian territory.

Much has been said in respect to the use of a map by Mr. Webster with a red line, said to have been marked by Benjamin Franklin, which supported the British contention. A thorough investigation into the matter disposes of any significance to be attached to this incident. Mr. Webster had a map, obtained from the archives at Paris, with a red line, indicating a boundary favourable to British claims, and he did make good use of it with the United States Senate. But that this map was marked by Franklin there is not a particle of proof. Mr. Webster was Secretary of State, and naturally anxious that his arrangement of the matter should be ratified, and a troublesome and dangerous matter of dispute be disposed of. His treaty encountered the almost invariable fate of all treaties made by the American executive, and signs were not wanting that this treaty would fail of ratification. Mr. Webster went before a committee of the Senate to use his efforts to secure its assent, and one of the ingenious and effective means employed by him was the theatrical exhibition of this map, which so alarmed the senators that the treaty was promptly ratified.

The Map sent to the King by Oswald.—But history has made a further discovery in respect of maps. At the very moment Ashburton was negotiating with Mr. Webster there was in His Majesty's archives in London a map sent to the King by Mr. Oswald, showing the boundary line agreed upon between Great Britain and the United States at Paris, and this map placed the line exactly as the United States claimed it. Whether this map was brought to the notice of Lord Ashburton, or whether he "concealed it" in his negotiations, is not known, but scarcely any one would believe he would be such a fool as to exhibit it, if he had it with him when negotiating, and I fail to see why Mr. Webster should be accused of moral delinquency for not exhibiting his Paris map to Ashburton, even if it had possessed any real validity.

The Oregon Treaty of 1846.—At the conclusion of the war of 1812–15, between Great Britain and the United States, it became necessary to adjust matters between the two countries by a treaty, which was concluded in 1818.

It will scarcely be claimed that in this treaty Canadian interests were sacrificed. Under its provisions, the United States was compelled to renounce for ever the right to take or cure fish, from any British water, except some parts of the coast around Newfoundland and Labrador. Another provision of this treaty was the adjustment of the boundary between the United States and British America in the west, where settlement was already

beginning. This was fixed at the forty-ninth parallel N. latitude to the summit of the Rocky Mountains. Beyond that, little was known. California was in possession of Mexico, Russia had some fur-trading stations on the islands south of Alaska, and the Hudson's Bay Company was pushing its trading posts to the shores of the Pacific. All north of California and south of Russian holdings was known as Oregon. The arrangement, under the treaty of 1818, was that this region should be jointly occupied by the two countries for ten years. In 1827 this was renewed by convention indefinitely. In 1824 the United States made a treaty with Russia, acknowledging her rights on the coast, as far as 54 deg. 40 min. north latitude. In 1825, Great Britain, by treaty, similarly acknowledged Russian coast rights to 54 deg. 40 min. Therefore Oregon included the strip west of the Rocky Mountains between California and 54 deg. 40 min.

A Changed Attitude after Election.—The usual result of joint occupation ensued. The American fur traders, under Jacob Astor, were pushing their posts on the Pacific, as likewise the Hudson's Bay Company. Clarke and Lewis made their famous expedition in 1806, and the reports of this sent hordes of settlers from the western states across the Rockies. The occupation was then joint, and the authority equal; but men cannot obtain grants of land under a joint authority. The question grew acute. The President, Mr. Tyler, was disposed to have the differences referred to arbitration; but this

did not suit the political exigencies of the Democratic party on the eve of a presidential campaign. They said, in effect: We are owners of North America—the whole belongs to us. There is nothing to settle. We will hold to 54 deg. 40 min. or fight. With this tocsin they went to the country and won — Mr. Polk, the Democratic candidate, being elected. But, charged with the responsibility of office, he did not choose to fight Great Britain, and agreed to a reference to a joint commission. The administration in this case took unusual precautions to secure a ratification of their proposed action. All treaties and conventions, by the constitution of the United States, are subject to ratification by the Senate. Treaties have failed to secure such ratification, chiefly on account of political considerations; but in this case, the wily Secretary of State, Buchanan, secured the adoption in advance of a resolution in the Senate, favouring a settlement on the lines he was proposing to follow.

Foolish and Hot-headed on Both Sides.—Foolish and hot-headed persons wanted the United States to insist upon the 54 deg. 40 min. line, which would have taken nearly all the valuable part of British Columbia, including Vancouver Island. Equally foolish people, mostly those interested in the fur trade, wished the British Government to insist upon the mouth of the Columbia River as a boundary. Either proposition was preposterous, and would never have been accepted by the other party. The commissioners did the only rational thing that could

have been done—extended the boundary from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean, on the forty-ninth parallel. Yet for generations we have heard that Canadian territorial rights were sacrificed by Great Britain, and even a professed judicial writer of history of such respectability as Mr. Thomas Hodgins, K.C., in an article in the Canadian “Encyclopedia,” finds occasion to refer to this treaty in these terms:—

“In 1846, during the honeymoon of the timid islanders and anti-colonial politicians, the diplomatic lever of the United States prised Great Britain and Canada out of several millions of acres in the Oregon territory, together with their British settlers and traders, and a sea-coast of about six degrees of latitude on the Pacific Ocean, with good harbour for naval stations.” Such statements are a travesty upon history, and a libel upon British policy. Vancouver Island extended south of the forty-ninth parallel, but it was stipulated in the convention that the whole island should belong to Great Britain.

The Treaty of Washington of 1871.—For some years after the War of the Secession, a grave difficulty had arisen between the United States and Great Britain in respect to the piratical cruisers, *Alabama*, *Florida*, and *Shanandoah*, which were built in British ports for the Southern Confederacy. Strictly speaking, a breach of neutrality occurred—at all events, in respect of the *Alabama*. The American ambassador brought to the attention of the British Government the evidence of the vessel’s

character and her destination. The matter was submitted to the law adviser of the Crown, who happened to be ill. This delayed his report to the point of culpability. An order was at length obtained to detain her. While it was on its way to Liverpool, the vessel escaped under pretence of a trial trip. She was not then fitted for service or armed, and took her armament on board at the Azores; but the fact remained that there had been culpable delay, and a breach of the neutrality laws had been made. The *Alabama* had extensively preyed upon American commerce, and after the rebellion was repressed, demands were made upon the Imperial Government for compensation. If these had been reasonable, it is not unlikely the British Government would have adjusted them, but the American claim grew to absurd proportions.

To make England responsible for Cost.—It was sought to make Great Britain, in effect, responsible for the cost of the war. After much correspondence in 1869, a convention was agreed to between Lord Clarendon, Foreign Secretary, and Mr. Reverdy Johnson, American minister at London, whereby all claims of the subjects and citizens of the two countries arising out of the war should be determined by independent arbitration. Before this could be ratified by the Senate, Andrew Johnston had gone out of office, and General Grant became President, with another Cabinet. The Republican Senate was under the lead of Charles Sumner, Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, and it

suited the purpose of Mr. Sumner that this fair arrangement should not be ratified, and it was accordingly rejected.

The Claims pressed afresh.—After Mr. Fish became Secretary of State, under Grant, the claims were pressed afresh, and, under the inspiration of Sumner, Motley, the American minister, revived a claim based on Great Britain's proclamation of June 1861, recognising the contestants as belligerents, and proclaiming neutrality. Many unpleasant incidents occurred in connection with this protracted correspondence. A proposition was made that all differences should be settled on the basis of handing over Canada to the United States. The *London Times*, by implication, favoured this. A sense of national obligation, however, prevented any serious consideration of this amiable proposition. Concurrently with these unpleasant negotiations, another occasion for friction had arisen. The reciprocity treaty with Canada had been terminated summarily by the United States in 1871. This necessitated the protection of Canadian fishing grounds, inviting occasional seizures of American fishing vessels. The Canadian people, also, were clamouring for renewed trade relations.

In time, both these questions, and some others of less acute character, were by arrangement referred to a joint high commission—composed of representatives appointed by both Governments—Sir John Macdonald being one of the British commissioners, chosen especially to represent Canadian

interests. This treaty provided that any claim for losses on the part of American citizens from the *Alabama* depredations should be referred to a judicial tribunal to meet at Geneva. This was a happy disposition of these vexed claims, which had been a source of great trouble to the Imperial Government, because they felt that technically they had been in the wrong.

Wanted a Measure of Reciprocity.—The fishery question was disposed of on the basis of giving American fishermen full rights in our waters, in return for free fish and oils in the American market, plus any monetary consideration which a tribunal therein created should award. Sir John Macdonald did not feel satisfied with this arrangement; he wanted a measure of reciprocity to satisfy the Canadian people, and this the American commissioners flatly refused to give. He hesitated about signing the treaty, and it was then pointed out to him by his associate commissioners that his failure to sign the treaty might lead to the belief that it would not be ratified by the Canadian Parliament, jeopardise its acceptance by the Senate, and thus leave open the ugly and distressing question of the *Alabama* claims. Acting in an imperial spirit, he sacrificed his own convictions of Canada's interests, and signed the treaty. But can it be fairly said that Canada's interests were sacrificed? Sir John Macdonald was a politician—head of a Government dependent upon popular support for its existence. He naturally feared the

political consequences of yielding the fishing rights on the terms of free fish and monetary compensation, but who will say that, looking at it broadly, Canada had no obligations to uphold Imperial policy? Besides, as the event showed, he had the support of the Canadian people in the treaty. It was ratified by an immense majority in the House of Commons. Nearly all the members from Nova Scotia, most interested in the fishery clauses, voted for the treaty. Mr. P. Power, representing one of the great fishing counties of the province, forsook his party to give it his approval. At an election, held soon after, Nova Scotia sent only one straight opponent of the Government, and New Brunswick a great majority of supporters. For twenty years longer, Sir John stood in the limelight of public notice in Canada, and had many charges made against his character and policy—never did I hear the statement made that, among his faults, was to be placed the sacrifice of Canadian interests at Washington. He did what any honourable and patriotic Canadian would have done, and to have jeopardised the settlement of grave outstanding difficulties between the two great nations for the matter of a little more or little less reciprocity between the United States and Canada, would have been a policy, narrow, provincial, and unworthy of a statesman.

Other Matters under this Treaty.—Some other matters were disposed of by this treaty, which must be briefly noticed.

When defining the boundary between the United States and Canada, on the Pacific, Vancouver Island had been given to Great Britain. There was an island, San Juan, near it, the possession of which, under the terms of the treaty, was open to doubt. It depended upon which was the channel. The island was becoming inhabited, and its jurisdiction must be settled. It was decided to leave it to the arbitration of the Emperor of Germany. This certainly was fair. All the evidence was submitted to his consideration, and he acted under the advice of his most eminent jurists. He gave the island to the United States. But where is the basis for any charge that anything was done by the British Government derogatory to Canadian rights? On the contrary, the full assistance of every department of the Imperial Government was placed absolutely at the disposal of the Canadian authorities, and no effort to present and enforce Canadian claims was spared.

The Fisheries Arbitration of 1877.—In 1877 the arbitration to determine the value of the rights given to Americans in our waters over the value of those which had been granted Canadians in American waters, met at Halifax. Canada's arbitrator was appointed entirely on the nomination of the Canadian Government, Sir A. T. Galt. The umpire, M. Delfosse, was agreed to by the Canadian Government. The Canadian Government appointed all the counsel engaged in the

case—indeed was given practical control of the proceedings, the Imperial Government being formally represented by F. C. Ford. The award was for \$5,500,000, and no Canadian of intelligence will say that the sum was not sufficient and handsome. In this case, therefore, no ground is afforded for the charge that Canada's interests were sacrificed by imperial complacency.

Regarding the Treaty of 1888.—Another treaty with the United States was concluded in 1888 at Washington. Canada was represented by Sir Charles Tupper. He cordially concurred in the treaty, which was satisfactory to the Canadian people, as far as it went. It was rejected by the American Senate. It was approved by the Imperial Government, and would undoubtedly have been ratified by the Dominion Parliament if it had been approved by the Senate. A *modus vivendi* was arranged for conducting fishery affairs between the two countries for two years. The Dominion Parliament placed in the hands of the Governor in Council the power of extending the operation of this *modus vivendi* from year to year. Voluntarily, this has been done ever since, and to-day this same *modus vivendi* is in operation, by the free action of the Canadian Government. No American fishermen are permitted to fish within the three-mile limit, but they can, by paying a licence fee, obtain bait and supplies in our ports, and while transshipment of cargoes in Canadian ports is purely optional on the part of

the Canadian Customs department, I am informed this privilege, when applied for, is rarely denied.

Clearly Canada's interests were not sacrificed in the convention of 1888.

The Behring Sea Arbitration of 1893.—It is not necessary to make more than a passing reference to this matter. The American Government, which acquired Alaska from Russia in 1867, made extravagant claims as to their exclusive rights to use the waters of Behring Sea, which, if acknowledged, would have shut Canadian sealers out of all opportunity of participating in the catch. In August 1886 the United States Government seized Canadian vessels in Behring Sea, sixty miles from land. The Imperial Government took up the matter, at the instance of the Canadian Government, and so pressed the matter as to induce the United States to release the vessels, the officers and crews; but this was done, to use the language of Mr. Bayard, Secretary of State, "without conclusion of any questions which may be found to be involved in these cases of seizure."

In 1889 five more British ships were seized and condemned. The Imperial Government again took up the matter, and Mr. Blaine, Secretary of State, was driven to put forward a claim that Russia had exclusive jurisdiction within coastal waters, extending 100 miles from land, which, after the sale of Alaska, had become vested in the United States. This claim was distinctly repudiated by the Imperial

Government, and the negotiation terminated. In 1891, to prevent an outbreak of hostilities, Great Britain arranged a *modus vivendi* with the United States, which Canada agreed to, but very reluctantly, and so persistently pressed her views that a treaty of arbitration was entered into between Great Britain and the United States on April 18, 1892.

A Complete Victory for Canadian Contentions.
—Under the terms of this treaty, a tribunal was appointed to determine the matters at issue, to consist of two jurists to be appointed by the United States, two by Great Britain, and one each by France, Italy, and Norway and Sweden. In selecting the British arbitrators, the Canadian Government was given a free hand. Lord Hannan, an eminent English judge, and Sir John Thompson were chosen. In all previous arbitrations, while Canada had been left free in the conduct of the case, an imperial representative had always been on the ground. In this case the British Government appointed C. H. Tupper as its official representative. He chose his own counsel, and the Attorney- and Solicitor-General of England accepted briefs with Canadian counsel. The result was a complete victory for Canadian contentions as to the unfounded character of American claims to exclusive jurisdiction, and the embodiment of a series of regulations of common value in preserving the seal for the joint benefit of United States and Canadian sealers.

No foundation can here be found for the charge of sacrificing Canadian interests.

The Alaska Boundary.—But we now come to the consideration of the last important arbitration, and the one on which most of the claim of sacrifice has been based—the Alaska boundary. To properly place this matter in a just light, an exhaustive investigation of all the antecedent facts is necessary, and this can only be pursued here to a very limited extent. The literature on the topic would make a respectable library, and the inaccessible character of the region in question adds difficulty and mystery to the subject.

In the latter part of the eighteenth century, when there was scarcely an inhabitant on the Pacific coast, except in California, the Russian traders were seeking to found a fur enterprise on the Pacific coast north of latitude 55—chiefly among the islands which, in honour of the Czar, were named Alexander Archipelago. These efforts were not very successful, but they had the patronage and support of the Emperor, and in 1799, in their behalf he issued a ukase, giving one company—the United Trading Company—exclusive right to trade with the Indians and deal in furs. A port was erected on one of the islands, called then New Archangel (since called Sitka), and a Russian governor located there, with authority. But in the course of time American vessels from the Pacific coast began to visit these waters, and to interfere with the trade. These traders conveyed their cargoes of

furs to Canton, and disposed of them at large profits. This conduct greatly impaired the value of the Russian company's monopoly.

Making Use of Trading Vessels.—Presently the Russian company was compelled to make use of the American trading vessels to send their furs to China for sale; but in time the governor found that the American traders were bringing liquor, firearms, and ammunition, and disposing of them to the Indians, which constituted a menace to the peace and security of the Russian colonies. The Russian Government protested against this practice to the United States Government, but no real satisfaction was obtained from this source. In 1811 the Russian Government entered into an agreement with J. J. Astor, the chief of the American traders, whereby he was to furnish the Russian colony with supplies at fixed prices, transmit the company's furs to China, and dispose of them on commission, and prevent smuggling and the sale of intoxicants and firearms.

But the war of 1812 broke out at that time between Great Britain and the United States, and prevented this agreement from being put into operation.

At last, in 1821, the Emperor Alexander issued a ukase, granting exclusive rights of commerce, whale-fishing, and fur-trading to Russian subjects, and forbidding all foreign vessels from approaching within 100 Italian miles of any land under Russian jurisdiction.

This proposition was in violation of recognised international marine law, and was at once resisted by the United States and Great Britain, whose Hudson Bay fur-traders had extended their operations to the Pacific Ocean. When the attention of the Russian Foreign Office was directed to the invalidity of the ukase, an intimation was given to both these countries that the prohibition of 100 miles would not be insisted upon, but the Emperor did not wish the matter specially and officially dealt with; and it was ultimately agreed that a treaty should be made between Russia, on the one side, and Great Britain and the United States on the other, which would settle all matters in difference, and include provisions which would amount to an abandoning of the prohibition of access by ships of commerce to the waters of the Behring Sea.

Preferring Claims to New Territorial Rights.—But as the negotiations progressed, it was found that the United States was preferring claims to territorial rights along the coast up to the 61st parallel north latitude, which Great Britain did not recognise, nor Russia either. So the British ambassador, Sir Charles Bagot, withdrew from joint negotiations, and the Americans concluded a treaty with Russia in 1824 by which they secured the rights of navigation involved, the right to trade in Russian ports for ten years, and they abandoned all territorial rights on the coast north of 54 deg. 40 min. N. latitude. This treaty does not concern the matter now under consideration.

The next year, however, a treaty was concluded between Great Britain and Russia, in which the same maritime rights were secured, and the right of trading in Russian ports on the Pacific coast for ten years. But another and very grave question arose between these two countries. The United States had no territorial possessions on the coast north of the Columbia River, latitude 46 degrees or 47 degrees. Whereas, the Hudson's Bay Company, under the British flag and jurisdiction, were extending their posts to the coast as far north as the Mackenzie River. The Russian traders were carrying on their business on the islands forming the Alexander Archipelago, and their trading towns, of which New Archangel was chief, were all on the islands. They were not really desirous of establishing posts on the mainland, but what concerned them most of all was that between 54 deg. 40 min. and Alaska proper no Hudson Bay trading-posts should be formed upon the coast adjoining these islands, and they therefore insisted that the treaty should give them a *lisière* (strip of land) along the coast, in order that they might be safe from competing British trading-posts opposite their island posts.

Conceived it a Great Menace.—The monopoly of the Russian Fur Company was of value only so long as there were no trading establishments located on the bordering coast, over which their exclusive rights extended. The company would have been glad to escape the annoyance of the

coasting traders by water, but this could not be avoided. What they conceived as a greater menace was a single trading-post on the shore. The British negotiator, in his reply to this demand of a *lisière*, mentioned as an objection that "it deprived his Britannic Majesty of sovereignty over all the inlets and small bays lying between latitude 56 deg. and 54 deg. 40 min." This should be carefully noted as bearing on the subsequent contention of Canada in respect to the Lynn Canal. Sir Charles Bagot then intimated that Great Britain would accept a line on the north of Prince of Wales Island, and "thence extending on the mainland to a point ten marine leagues from the coast, the line would run from this point toward the north and north-west parallel to the sinuosities of the coast, and always at the distance of ten marine leagues from the shore, as far as the 140 degrees of longitude, thence to the Polar Sea."

The Line that was ultimately Agreed upon.— Except that the south line was ultimately placed at the south of Prince of Wales Island, latitude 54 deg. 40 min., this is the line that was ultimately agreed upon:—

Article 3 of the treaty is as follows:—

"(3) The line of demarcation between the possessions of the high contracting parties, upon the coast of the continent, and the islands of America to the north-west, shall be drawn in the following manner:—

"Commencing from the southernmost point

of the island called Prince of Wales Island, which point lies in the parallel of 54.40 N. latitude and between 131 and 133 degrees of west longitude (meridian of Greenwich), the said line shall ascend to the north along the channel called the Portland Channel as far as the point of the continent where it strikes the 56th degree of N. latitude, from this last-mentioned point, the line of demarcation shall follow the summit of the mountains situated parallel to the coast, as far as the point of intersection of the 141st degree of west longitude (of the same meridian), and finally, from the said point of intersection the said meridian line of the 141st degree in its prolongation as far as the Frozen Ocean, shall form the limit between Russian and British possessions on the continent of America to the north-west."

The Line of Demarcation.—“(4) With reference to the line of demarcation laid down in the preceding article, it is understood :—

“First.—That the island called Prince of Wales Island shall belong wholly to Russia.

“Second.—That whenever the summit of the mountains which extend in a direction parallel to the coast, from the 56th degree of north latitude to the point of intersection of the 141st degree of west longitude shall prove to be at the distance of more than ten marine leagues from the ocean, the limit between the British possessions and the line of coast, which shall belong to Russia, as above mentioned, shall be formed by a line parallel to the

windings of the coast, and which shall never exceed the distance of ten marine leagues therefrom.

“(5) It is moreover agreed that no establishment shall be formed by either of the two parties within the limits assigned by the two preceding articles to the possessions of the other; consequently British subjects shall not form any establishment, either upon the coast or upon the border of the continent, comprised within the limit of the Russian possessions as designated in the two preceding articles; and in like manner no establishment shall be formed by Russian subjects beyond the said limits.”

This is the treaty whose interpretation was the subject-matter of the Alaska Boundary award.

The Purchase of Alaska from Russia.—In 1867 the United States purchased Alaska from Russia for \$7,000,000, and acquired whatever territorial rights in North-West America Russia possessed, and became the inheritors of the rights acquired under this treaty.

For nearly fifty years no question arose under this treaty. The maps that were published afterwards in Russia, in the United States, in Great Britain, and in British North America, represented the strip of land ceded to Russia under the treaty of 1825 substantially as they now are, as a result of the arbitration. As the country was wild and uninhabited, no person had any concern in the matter. It was rarely visited.

The strip of land was simply a sea of mountains, wild and desolate, except whérē penetrated in two

or three places by rivers which emptied into the Pacific.

After British Columbia became Canadian.—The first time any question of boundary was raised, so far as can be ascertained, was after British Columbia had been admitted to the Dominion, and it occurred to the Federal Government that it would be advisable to have the boundary between the province and Alaska, including the islands and strip of land, defined; and application was made to the British minister at Washington to approach the United States Government with a view of having a joint commission appointed by the two countries for the purpose of defining the boundary. The United States authorities consulted with those persons employed in their service in this region most fitted to advise in the matter, and these experts said that it would require an expenditure of \$1,500,000, and at least nine years' time, to accomplish such a purpose, owing to the character of the country—barren, inhospitable mountains. Congress was not disposed to make such a large appropriation for a purpose which then seemed of small importance, and the matter remained undisposed of. The suggestion was made by the American experts that a survey of the rivers piercing the mountains—the Stikine, the Taku, and the Chilcat, emptying into the Lynn Canal, would suffice for all practical purposes, as the line between these defined parts could be easily recognised by imaginary projections from the known points. Even this proposition did not appeal to

Congress, and nothing was done until 1876, when a very delicate question arose.

People drawn by Finds of Gold.—Gold had been discovered in the Cassiar district in British Columbia, not very far from the Stikine River, and people had flocked there by the usual lure of gold discoveries. A man named Peter Martin had committed some crime, and the British Columbia court at Cassiar had tried him, found him guilty, and sentenced him to a term of imprisonment. But there was no suitable jail in the Cassiar district, and it had accordingly been arranged that he should be taken to Victoria and imprisoned there. But there was no practicable means of conveying him to Victoria, except *via* the Stikine River, which ran through a strip of land belonging to the United States. Now the treaty had secured to Great Britain the right of navigating this and the other rivers for the purpose of commerce. The supplies to the Cassiar mines went by this river, the judge went that way to hold his court, and the only way to get this man to Victoria was to send him down the river, and ship him from Wrangel to Victoria. He was accordingly sent in charge of a constable, and several persons were in the boat. On the way down the river the constable landed to make a fire and cook provisions. After the meal, Martin, who was in chains, managed to get hold of a gun, assaulted the constable, and made a dash for liberty. He was, however, overpowered and taken on to Victoria, where he was tried for his assault upon a police officer. He was

not defended, but the question as to whether the assault was made on American or British soil was considered, and the judge charged the jury that there was no evidence which securely fixed the jurisdiction. He therefore told them that they were at liberty to find him guilty if they were satisfied he had committed the offence. He was convicted and sentenced to one year and nine months' imprisonment.

The Court had no Jurisdiction.—Meanwhile the matter had been brought to the notice of the United States Government, and the Secretary of State wrote to the British minister, claiming that Martin had been convicted in a British court of an offence committed on United States soil, and therefore the court had no jurisdiction. It also claimed that while the subjects of Great Britain had the right of navigating the Stikine River, they had no power to convey a prisoner by this river through American territory, and the moment he touched their land he became free, subject to extradition. The matter was referred to the Canadian Government, and Mr. Edward Blake, the Minister of Justice, made an elaborate report upon it. He was not disposed to admit that the crime was committed on American soil, but he properly held that the burden of proving jurisdiction was upon the Crown, and it had not been clearly established that the crime was committed on British soil, therefore Martin could not be held. A survey made at this time at the instance of the Dominion Government by Mr. Joseph

Hunter, of the Stikine River, revealed the fact that the boundary, as he conceived it, under the treaty, was east of the spot where the crime was committed. In the end the Canadian Government ordered Martin's release, but in order not to commit themselves on the matter of the boundary, they did this on the ground that a prisoner could not be conveyed in custody through the territory of another country—which was a breach of territorial rights.

The Discovery of Gold in Yukon.—What brought the matter to an issue was the discovery of gold in the Yukon, and the rush of multitudes there in 1896 and the following years. The natural means of access was through the White Pass of the Rockies, some distance above the head of Lynn Canal. On this canal, near its head, the United States Government had established towns and a customs house at Dyea and Skagway, and all persons and all goods going into the Yukon had to report at the customs house at Skagway. Canada felt the need of a port on the Lynn Canal, and then arose the agitation for a settlement of the boundary question, in such a way, if possible, as to get a port in some of these navigable inlets. Consequently, in the joint high commission which had been arranged between Canada and the United States to discuss and settle, if possible, all questions then outstanding, the boundary was made one of the subjects of prime importance.

Confronted by Usages of Generations.—The task before the Canadians was a very difficult one.

They were confronted by the usages of generations —by a uniform series of maps recognised by all the countries concerned. As late as 1884 an official map of British Columbia had been prepared under the direction of the Provincial Government, and this gave the boundaries between that province and the United States almost precisely in accordance with the line ultimately established. The treaty said, "Commencing from the southernmost point of the island called Prince of Wales, the line shall ascend north, along the channel called the Portland Channel, till it strikes the 56th degree of latitude." It seemed enormously difficult to get the line defined to suit, by using that channel, so the Canadians prepared a map showing the line running up the Clarence Strait. It was conceded on all sides that the negotiators of the treaty of 1825 had before them the maps and narrative of Vancouver, the only person who had made a careful survey of this region, and his maps contained the names of all the islands and inlets in that vicinity. Portland Channel is plainly marked in his maps, and his narrative makes clear what he meant by it. The Americans, of course, declined to recognise a line entirely different from that clearly defined by the treaty, and ultimately it was found impossible to reach any agreement on the subject by the joint commissioners.

Not Open to Discussion. — The American negotiators felt that the line was clear, and not open to either discussion or arbitration. Most great nations refuse to arbitrate respecting territory,

the right to which is reasonably clear; and it was with considerable difficulty that, by persistent pressure, the Canadian Government, acting through the Imperial Foreign Office, at last obtained a treaty with the United States, agreeing to refer the matter of the boundary to a tribunal consisting of "six impartial jurists of repute, who shall consider judicially the question submitted to them, each of whom shall first subscribe an oath that he will impartially consider the arguments and evidence presented to the tribunal, and will decide thereupon according to his true judgment."

This treaty was ratified by his Majesty, and also the United States Senate. Then came the appointment of the jurists. The President appointed Mr. Elihu Root, Secretary of War, and Senators Lodge and Turner. In the strict sense of the word these men could hardly be called impartial jurists. They were all eminent lawyers, and quite fitted, by training and character, to fill any judicial office in the United States. But they were not then judges, and they were all actively engaged in political life. They were not the men whom the President, if he had been free, would probably have chosen; but it is an open secret that he was not free. The Senate was not very favourable to submitting a question which they thought was not open to doubt to arbitration, but they agreed to confirm the treaty on being assured that the President would appoint men acceptable to them, and it was only upon this assurance that the treaty was ratified.

Britain in no way Disregarded our Interests.

—Of course the Canadian Government protested, and I am going to deal fully with this protest, for the purpose of demonstrating in the clearest manner that in this matter the Imperial Government in no way disregarded Canadian interests, but on the other hand, put the determination of the whole course to be pursued in the hands of the Canadian Government. When Lord Minto, on behalf of the Canadian Government, cabled their protest to the Colonial Secretary, that gentleman sent immediately the following answer :—

“LONDON, *February 27, 1903.*

“With reference to your telegram dated the 19th and 21st of February, the selection of American members of tribunal has been the source of as much surprise to his Majesty’s Government as to your ministers. Situation is full of difficulty, and his Majesty’s Government earnestly desire to have concurrence of your ministers in dealing with it.

“It seems certain to his Majesty’s Government that it would be useless to press the United States Government to withdraw names put forward, and arguments relative to the fitness of the three American representatives, however convincing, can have no practical results.

“His Majesty’s Government have, therefore, to choose between breaking off negotiations altogether or accepting American nominations, and appointing as their colleagues representatives who will meet

the altered circumstances of the case. They would regard the first alternative as a grave misfortune to the interests of Canada, and would prefer that the inquiry should proceed, in confident hope that Canadian or British interests would not be prejudiced thereby, as, even in the event of failure, much important information upon controverted points would be collected and placed before the public, and reasonable settlement at some future time thereby facilitated.

“ His Majesty’s Government earnestly hope that these considerations may be carefully weighed by your ministers, and that they will favour his Majesty’s Government, if they agree with the opinion stated above, with an expression of their views as to the most advantageous composition of the British side of the tribunal. ON SLOW.”

The Reply sent by Lord Minto.—Lord Minto, on behalf of his ministers, on March 6 replied in the following terms:—

“ OTTAWA, *March 6, 1903.*

“ My ministers have observed from the public press, and have also been officially informed, that while the matter is still under consideration, the treaty has been confirmed by his Majesty’s Government, and an exchange of ratifications has already taken place at Washington. It is presumed that this fact precludes further discussion, and my ministers will, therefore, proceed to do whatever is necessary on their part to make good the engagements of

his Majesty's Government ; but they must reserve the right to submit to the Canadian Parliament the whole correspondence, or such statement of the case as will fully explain the whole matter, and especially the manner in which the assent of Canada was obtained.

“ My ministers do not agree with the suggestion that the altered circumstances justify a departure on the British side from the disposition previously manifested respecting the composition of the tribunal. If members of the tribunal are to be appointed by his Majesty's Government, my ministers are of the opinion that only judges of the higher courts, who, in the best sense of the word, would be impartial jurists of repute, should be chosen.”

From this it will be observed that the Imperial Government offered even to break off negotiations, if Canada insisted upon it, which would have been a grave and unjustifiable step, as they also gave the Canadian Government the right to appoint, as their representatives on the commission, men who will meet the altered circumstances of the case ; in other words, if the Americans appointed three interested men as their jurists, the Canadians should appoint three jurists of the same type on their side. Surely, here was no indication of a disposition to sacrifice Canada in any way. The Canadian Government, to their credit be it said, declined this alternative, but when the appointments came to be made, two of their appointees were, in some respects, of a type corresponding to the American appointees. The

original arbitrators named by Canada were the Lord Chief Justice, Lord Alverstone, Judge Armour, of the Supreme Court of Canada, and Sir Louis Jette, Lieutenant-Governor of Quebec. Judge Armour having died before the commission assembled, his place was taken by Mr. A. B. Aylesworth, an eminent Canadian barrister. All the arbitrators were required to take an oath to determine the matter impartially according to the evidence, which was as binding upon them as the oath taken by a judge of the higher court.

An Examination in Detail.—Examine the status of these arbitrators a little in detail. Mr. Aylesworth was an eminent and high-minded Canadian barrister—not more so than Mr. Root. Mr. Root was in public life and had political ambitions—so, indeed, had Mr. Aylesworth. He was not then in Parliament, but was an active supporter of the Government; his name had been mentioned as a possible minister, and very soon after the award he was actually sworn in a minister in Sir Wilfrid's Government. Sir Louis Jette was a high-minded gentleman who had been on the bench, but was now Lieutenant-Governor. He was a staunch friend of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, a sturdy Canadian, and naturally inclined to uphold Canadian rights as fully as was Mr. Root or either of his colleagues, who were all men of high repute and unblemished character. The only member of the commission, therefore, who was actually under judicial responsibility was Lord Alverstone, and the only one who

could fulfil the literal conditions of the treaty—an impartial jurist of repute. He had no political interests to serve; as an Englishman, his sympathies would naturally be with a great British commonwealth, but, occupying the great position of Lord Chief Justice, he could be relied upon to be influenced by nothing except the essential rights of the case. To all intents, it seems to me, the case might have been left to his single arbitration, as in the end it proved to be.

The Arbitrators meet in London.—The arbitrators met in London in the summer of 1903. Great Britain was represented again by a Canadian, Mr. Clifford Sifton. Eminent counsel were engaged—English and Canadian. Elaborate cases and arguments, accompanied by a multitude of maps and charts, were presented on both sides. This body of literature would make a fair library. Nothing was omitted which could throw the faintest light on the subject. There were seven questions submitted for the determination of the tribunal, and it is most convenient to deal with these in detail.

(1) What is intended as the point of commencement of the line?

The answer to this was unanimous—Cape Muzon.

(2) What channel is the Portland Channel?

The point of issue here was, which of the two channels called on the maps Portland Channel should be followed? The largest of the two inlets was the southern one, which, if fixed, would have left the two large islands of Pearse and Wales in

United States territory; but all the commissioners agreed—the three Americans concurring in this, though the United States counsel had strenuously resisted it—that, according to Vancouver's chart and narrative, it was the narrower inlet to the north, called in recent American maps Pearse's Inlet, which Vancouver had called in honour of the Duke of Portland, and the larger channel had been named by him Observatory Inlet. This decision was favourable to Canada's contention, and the action of the American commissioners and their reasons for it were eminently judicial in spirit. Unfortunately a difference occurred as to the outlet of the Portland Channel. By a straight line this canal runs to the ocean north of two small islands named Sitklan and Kannaghunut, but the channel north of these islands is narrow, and in places shallow and incapable of navigation by large craft, whereas between Wales and Sitklan Islands there is a broad and deep channel which forms the natural outlet of the canal. The Americans decided that the outlet should be the broad and navigable one called Tongas Straits, between Wales and Sitklan Islands. Sir Louis Jette and Mr. Aylesworth decided it should be the narrow strait north of Sitklan and Kannaghunut Islands. Lord Alverstone, in a carefully reasoned judgment, weighing with absolute fairness the pros and cons, decided that the Tongas Strait, between Wales and Sitklan Islands, was the route taken by Vancouver, and was the most natural outlet of Portland Channel.

The Point round which Controversy Rages.—It was upon this point that most of the subsequent controversy has taken place. Sir Louis Jette and Mr. Aylesworth dwell upon the fact that, at the session of the arbitrators at which the question of whether the north or south inlet was Portland Channel was under consideration, the decision was that the north inlet was the true Portland Channel, and that this involved taking the straight and narrow line to the coast. The decision was in favour of the north inlet, but this did not necessarily involve that its outlet should be the narrow and non-navigable line, when near its south-western extremity there was a broad and deep channel, which Vancouver himself had chosen, on his voyage down the channel, as his means of reaching the sea. The most casual glance at the map will indicate to any one whose mind is not blinded by prejudice that this Tongas Strait is the natural outlet. It corresponds also with the object of the convention of 1825—Russia was to have to 54 deg. 40 min. The line from Cape Muzon at 54 deg. 40 min. strikes the coast islands at Tongas Strait at just about 54 deg. 40 min., whereas, if it entered at the narrow strait north of Kannaghunut Island, it would be above 55 N. latitude.

Alverstone's Decision Reasonable.—Lord Alverstone may have been wrong—all human beings are fallible. Giving the matter my best consideration, I think his decision was reasonable and fair. But who will say that it was not honestly and

impartially given according to his best knowledge and ability? What motive could he have had in deciding adversely to Canada in a matter purely judicial? Some persons have been absurd enough to charge that this was done at the instance of the Imperial Government, who were interested in getting the matter disposed of. No rational man who stops to reflect can ever give such a proposition a moment's thought. No Cabinet Minister in the Imperial Government would ever think of venturing to approach a British judge and seek to influence his decision. Even in Canada, where some think our ideals are not as high as those in England, no Cabinet Minister would approach a Canadian judge and propose that he should violate his judicial oath for political or national reasons, and, if it were attempted, it would be instantly and properly re-sented. Lord Alverstone stands on the highest plane among British jurists. As Sir Richard Webster he was twice Attorney-General of England—one of the most eminent men at the bar in his time; and, when he was elevated to one of the greatest judicial posts in the nation or the world, what being could imagine him prostituting a spotless name and reputation by entering into a low intrigue with politicians to colour his judgment according to political needs? These unjustifiable insinuations, which were scattered broadcast over Canada for years by persons who had probably never spent two hours in careful study of the points at issue, were an unmerited aspersion on British honour, and

were and are as baseless and unfounded as the fables of Æsop or the fantastic imaginings of the Baron Munchausen.

Are the Barren Islands a Source of Danger?—

One other absurdity in this connection must be noted. It has been persistently alleged that possession of these two barren islands of a few acres is a danger to us, as they can be made a base for military and naval operations by the United States. If they were handed over to Canada to-morrow, the United States, within five miles of these islands, could erect all the military posts and naval stations she required on her own adjoining territory. This is another instance of the folly which is born of zeal without intelligence and reflection. The possession of the islands or want of them is of such infinitesimal importance to Canada that discussion of them is fruitless. Under the award Canada did add to her territory two large islands which had long been claimed by the United States, and for this let us be duly thankful; but it is at the same time idle to regard this acquisition as of any great value or importance to Canada.

*Canada's Object to Obtain a Port.—*The disposal of the rest of the line does not require lengthy consideration. It was ultimately established on practically the lines that had been adopted in all the maps which had been made and used by Russia, the United States, Great Britain, Canada, and British Columbia from the date of the treaty of 1825 until the discovery of gold on the Yukon, when Canada

prepared a map for use in negotiating with the Americans at the meeting of the joint high commissioners in 1897. That map made the line beginning on the coast at 54 deg. 40 min. to run up the Clarence Strait; but as the language of the treaty so expressly stated the Portland Channel, this was abandoned in presenting their case to the tribunal in 1903, and the southern line ran up the Portland Channel until it met the 56th parallel. The object of Canada was to obtain a port, and the line urged by Canada consequently ran along the coast in such a way as to cross the Lynn Canal before its head waters were reached. If this had been adopted, the two American towns or posts of Dyea and Skagway would have been in Canadian territory, and the Stars and Stripes would have been pulled down, and the Union Jack put up. This would have been a very pleasant and desirable event for Canada; but it could scarcely have been done consistently with the plainly declared objects of the negotiators of the treaty of 1825. The Russian negotiators made a very explicit declaration of their reasons for insisting upon a strip of land on the coast of the mainland. It was that the Hudson's Bay Company, or any other fur-trading company, should not be able to interfere with their posts on the islands of Alexander Archipelago, by an adjoining port on the coast. Reverting again to the reports of the negotiations, let us note the words of the Russian plenipotentiaries, Count Nesselrode and M. de Poletica. Sir Charles Bagot, the British plenipotentiary, had, in

reply to the demand for this *lisière*, or strip of land on the mainland, made the following representations: "A line of demarcation drawn from the southern extremity of Prince of Wales Island to the mouth of Portland Channel, thence up the middle of the channel until it touches the mainland, thence to the mountains bordering the coast, and thence along the mountains as far as 139 longitude, would deprive his Britannic Majesty of sovereignty over all the inlets and small bays lying between latitude 56 and 54.40, whereof several (as there is every reason to believe) communicate directly with the establishments of the Hudson's Bay Company, and are consequently of essential importance to its commerce."

The Reply of the Russians.—To this the Russian plenipotentiaries replied that those proposals had been examined by the Emperor, who had charged them to repeat to the British plenipotentiaries "that the possession of Prince of Wales Island without a slice of territory upon the coast situated in front of that island could be of no utility to Russia. That any establishment formed upon said island, or upon the surrounding islands, would find itself, as it were, flanked by the English establishments on the mainland, and completely at the mercy of these latter." This was the basis of negotiations insisted upon by Russia to the end. Sir Charles Bagot broke off negotiations for a time, but his place was taken later by Sir Stratford Canning, who, under instructions, consented to this *lisière*, or strip, on the terms demanded by Russia. It is perfectly clear that if

the Hudson's Bay Company could have created a port under this treaty, on the Lynn Canal, that everything which the Russian Government had insisted upon avoiding would have been done, and, therefore, in making maps of the strip of land as it ran north to Mount St. Elias, it was drawn, as the treaty requires, parallel to the sinuosities of the coast, and curved about the head of Lynn Canal, as in respect to all the other sinuosities of the coast.

Canada's Fight was a Good One.—Canada made a good fight for a line that would suit her interests, and give her a port on Lynn Canal. In brief, her point was that the boundary fixed by the treaty was "a line of demarcation following the crest of the mountains situated parallel to the coast," subject to the condition that "if such a line should anywhere exceed the distance of ten marine leagues from the ocean, then the boundary between the British and Russian territory should be formed by a line parallel to the sinuosities and distant therefrom not more than ten marine leagues." This method of fixing the boundaries was derived from Vancouver's maps and charts; these are preserved, and he has traced upon them a regular line of mountains situate near the coast. This, as a matter of fact, was purely imaginary. As he sailed near the coast, the shore presented the appearance of a continuous mountain range; but in the efforts of both Governments to obtain a range of sufficient regularity to constitute a natural boundary within ten leagues of the coast,

the chief thing discovered by explorers was that no such regular range exists. Most of those who have endeavoured to survey this wild and in places almost inaccessible region report that there is a sea of mountains along the coast with no range of regular form which could be adopted.

A Range near the Coast.—Dr. George M. Dawson, the Canadian explorer, intimates that something like a range could be obtained near the coast, the summit of which would be from five to seven or eight miles from the shore. It was the Canadian contention before the tribunal that a range of mountains near the coast could be obtained, and that as the treaty only mentioned ten leagues as the maximum distance from the shore, where a regular mountain range could not be obtained, the line ought to be fixed near the shore, according to the general contour of the mountains near the coast. Conceding the fact that a regular range near this exists, which was stoutly denied upon accumulated authority by the United States consul, and granted the tribunal had fixed the line accordingly, this would have been of little, if any, advantage to Canada. It was not a mile or two more or less of worthless mountain territory they were seeking—it was a port on the Lynn or Taku inlets that was sought. It was not a question of the width of the *lisière*, or strip, but the direction it ran. If it wound around the inlets so as to make it impossible to have a seaport on them, it did not matter whether it was ten marine leagues or five marine leagues.

Parallel to the Sinuosities of Coast.—The American arbitrators, of course, decided that the line ran parallel to the sinuosities of the coast, and therefore around the heads of the inlets. The Canadian arbitrators decided that Taku inlet and Lynn Canal were not coast or ocean, and the line, therefore, in following the nearest range, crossed these inlets. The determination, therefore, was with Lord Alverstone. If he had concurred in the conclusions of the Canadians there would have been no result ; but in a carefully reasoned judgment, in which all material points are weighed with exact impartiality, he decided “ that the treaty called for a line parallel with the sinuosities of the coast, and that there should remain with Russia a continuous fringe or strip of coast on the mainland, not exceeding ten marine miles in width, separating the British possessions from the bays, ports, inlets, havens, and waters of the ocean.”

Is he Amenable to Attack and Aspersions ?—After giving the fullest investigation of the whole question, this is exactly the conclusion I have reached, and this is the judgment I would have been compelled to give under oath. But all mortals are fallible ; Lord Alverstone may have been wrong, and my impressions may be erroneous. But is he amenable to attack, and to be exposed to all sorts of imputations upon his integrity and honour because he reached this conclusion ? Read all the facts—all the arguments presented—and then read his calm, judicial reasoning, and no reasonable man will say his judgment is not worthy a high-minded British

judge. He gave his decision and his reasons for it. These reasons may not be infallible, but they are clearly judicial, and supported by an array of facts which make it impossible to say that the conclusion was not impartial and honestly made. There exists no basis for any imputations whatever upon the fairness and honour of the Lord Chief Justice, and history will so declare.

How was Imperial Government responsible?

—But assuming, for a moment, that Lord Alverstone forgot his oath, and ignored his judicial obligations, pray how was the Imperial Government responsible for this? They appointed him with the assent of Canada. They had offered to allow Canada to appoint three men who would meet the three United States jurists on even ground. Canada had declined this, and agreed to Lord Alverstone. If he decided against them, even wrongly, upon what ground can it be alleged that Canada was sacrificed by British complacency? The tribunal that decided the question was a tribunal that Canada accepted without protest, so far as her appointees were concerned; the suggestion that members of the Imperial Government “approached” the Lord Chief Justice and “induced” him to decide against Canada is too monstrous for consideration.

Fighting for Canada from Beginning to End.—

The British Attorney-General was fighting for Canada from the beginning to the end of the contest, and after the decision was given his eminent services were fittingly acknowledged publicly and

formally by Hon. Mr. Sifton, the British-Canadian representative. Once again it must be distinctly stated that the British judges do not permit Cabinet ministers to attempt to influence them in their judicial decisions, and it does not seem to be going very far to say that imperial ministers are not in the habit of attempting to plot with judges to get decisions to suit their political interests. The whole suggestion is too absurd for serious consideration, and is referred to because there has been in this country an unending chorus from press and people in Canada on this question, which could have no meaning at all unless it was based on a dishonourable intrigue between an imperial minister and a British judge. If the Imperial Government were really so pusillanimous as to be seeking a means of sacrificing the interests of their greatest dependency to curry favour with their most powerful rival, would Lord Onslow have written to Lord Minto, suggesting to the Canadian Government the "appointing as their colleagues representatives who will meet the altered circumstances of the case"?

Not one Incident proving Sacrifice.—The only additional observation I make is, that there is not one incident in connection with this Alaska boundary award from beginning to end that justifies any charge that Great Britain sacrificed Canadian interests. The whole weight and influence of her diplomacy was freely used to secure Canadian ends. The full conduct and control of the matter was unreservedly placed in Canadian hands, and if the

results were unsatisfactory no blame can be attached to any department in the Imperial Cabinet. I think it was decided rightly. I am satisfied that Canada went into the contest with the weaker case, but if I am wrong upon this point, still responsibility for failure in no sense rests with the Imperial Government.

A Canadian rather than Imperialist.—Few will charge me with being an Imperialist. I am a Canadian, and love my country, am proud of its present development, and look forward with high hopes of its future greatness. Canada is large and rich enough to claim a right to a voice in all matters concerning her relations to the rest of the world. As long as we are a part of the Empire, all treaties with foreign countries must be negotiated and concluded in the name of the sovereign. While this is technically true, as a matter of fact, since confederation, Great Britain has taken no step in any matter relating to our interests without giving Canada a commanding voice in its determination.

Nothing at all in the Charge.—She gave Canada a powerful representation in the Treaty of Washington, she gave her authority to George Brown to negotiate in the name of the sovereign a reciprocity treaty in 1874, to Sir Charles Tupper to make a trade treaty with France in 1893, and recently to Messrs. Fielding and Brodeur to make another with the same country. These gentlemen were handicapped by no official meddling. They had the use of the King's name and their own sweet will. The

Behring Sea matter was settled by Canadians to suit themselves; the Washington treaty of 1888 was negotiated with Sir Charles Tupper representing Canada, and in the joint high commission of 1897-98 to adjust matters between the United States and Canada, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Sir Richard Cartwright, Sir Louis Davies, and John Charlton represented Canada, and Lord Herschell was the only Englishman on it, and he was there by Canadian request. Where, pray, is there an instance which justifies even a suspicion that Great Britain since confederation has in the smallest degree sacrificed Canadian interests by design or by imbecile complacency? Yet this is the reiterated charge.

Cease pleading the Baby Act.—As Canada grows and becomes more important, she will exercise a larger influence and assume a fuller responsibility in the disposal of matters touching her interests in foreign countries. The time may come when she will assume full responsibility. But while we should be always ready to uphold our rights firmly and tenaciously, it is not manly, when we lose, to seek to shift the responsibility upon the imperial authorities. It is not a very manly thing to do if there was some justification for it. It is never heroic for a man or a nation to throw blame on others; it is especially ignoble to do so without any justification whatever. Let us grow and develop and fulfil to the highest degree our national aims and aspirations, but, in the name of Canadian manhood, let us have done with pleading the baby act, and meanly seeking

to assuage our national disappointments by unfounded imputations upon the intelligence and good faith of the Imperial Government.

Lord Dufferin was the last governor in whose instructions or commission from home there was any mention formally indicated regarding reservation for the home Government's consideration of the action advised by Canadian ministers. In 1879 the dismissal of a French Canadian Lieutenant-Governor was reserved for the Colonial Minister's approval, but only on the proposal of a Canadian Prime Minister for a Federal Government. This Government was informed by the Secretary of State that the Canadian Government must take all responsibility. In further evidence that it was desired to meet the colonial wishes, the Envoy from Canada to London was given the title of High Commissioner, and was consulted on all Canadian matters. The importance of this official has steadily increased. Sir Charles Tupper made the period of his representation of Canadian interests notable in many ways, and he has never ceased to illustrate in a convincing manner the advantage to both countries of having a leading Canadian statesman resident amongst us. Of the magnificent services performed both for Canada and for Great Britain by the present High Commissioner, Lord Strathcona, it is hardly necessary to speak, for his praise is in the mouths of all men on both sides of the Atlantic. It has been found to be an immense benefit for

Canada to have one representative able to give utterance to the desires of the whole country; nor has a jealousy often shown against an individual named by the Government of a democracy as its representative, followed the appointment of these most distinguished gentlemen.

Again, when it has seemed advisable to have a consultation before the adoption of any step involving concurrence on the part of the daughter States, Britain has asked the leading men in power to assemble in London in conference, with the happiest results. These gentlemen have not only had the opportunity of speaking to their fellow envoys or ministers at the conference table, but have been able to accept invitations to public meetings at which they have had opportunity to interest their audiences in the views they have supported. How complete has been the acceptance of the verdict of the constituencies in the Colonies has been shown when not a word of advice, much less a remonstrance, has been uttered against the tariffs adopted on imports in pursuit of a policy which to the old-fashioned British politicians of both parties was anathema. The treaties with Belgium and Germany, which up to the "seventies" hampered Canada in making whatever tariff arrangement she chose, were cancelled at the desire of the Government whose wishes Sir Alexander Galt was the first of Canadian envoys to express. In the numerous negotiations which the adoption of a tariff necessitates, the Canadian

minister sent over to France, or any other country interested, has had the uniform support and countenance of the British ambassador accredited to the nation concerned. It has been the same in regard to the diplomatic effort which has been happily crowned with success, in what we call the Far East, and the Canadians call the Far West—namely, in Japan—where the troublesome immigration question had been most ably discussed by Mr. Lemieux, supported by the British ambassador to Japan.

Sir CHARLES TUPPER said: "I have met from the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and from other gentlemen connected with the Foreign Office, the same hearty and generous responses to every proposal I have felt it my duty to submit. I may go further, and say that, so far as our foreign commerce is concerned, they have at once in the most generous spirit responded to the desire of Canada that her representative should be charged as plenipotentiary with the duty and responsibility of negotiating treaties in regard to foreign powers, and they did me the higher honour of at once placing me on equal terms with Sir Robert Morier, the British ambassador, in a negotiation of a treaty with Spain. You will at once see that nothing has been wanting on the part of her Majesty's Government to give me aid and co-operation. It is said, But why not seek independence for yourselves? Gentlemen, I say at once, that I regard the proposal for independence as the most fatal delusion, so

far as Canada is concerned, that could be presented for our consideration. At this moment, living under the ægis of this great Empire, we possess an amount of power and influence which Canada could not possibly obtain otherwise. I am not speaking mere sentiment, but I know, after spending twenty-nine years of my life consecutively in the Parliament of my own country, no man would stand the slightest chance of securing an election in any one of the Canadian constituencies from Prince Edward's Island to British Columbia were he to advocate the disintegration of the Empire."

EMIGRATION

Twenty-one thousand boys and girls have been sent out by Dr. Barnardo's agency alone in twenty years.

I append in reference to emigration letters from boys and girls sent by Dr. Barnardo's agency from the East of London alone. A similar agency has sent many thousands from Scotland. The success of this system of sending boys and girls under organised supervision and careful selection and in concert with the Provincial Governments may be held now to be proved. Would it not be well and in the interest of Great Britain that her Government should send from all towns and congested districts? It would be a certain way of diminishing the poverty which shows itself as inevitable

through the flocking into the cities from the country districts; and the cry goes up winter after winter from almost all British towns complaining of want of employment. It would not tell at once, but it would tell heavily in a few years. Again assistance from home for approved and selected institutes for the reception of women would help both the old country and the new. This, however, must be undertaken on a much smaller and more carefully guarded scale than such a plan as that favoured by Stepney in London, and Glasgow in Scotland, where all are received who may apply.

Listen to the boys' evidence in Ontario:—

“WALKERVILLE, ONT.

“DEAR SIR,—I will tell you about the farm I am on. Although it is a small one, we have two milking cows, a calf, and a heifer out at pasture, two horses, Prince and George, both very quiet, and fifteen ducks. We had 300 chickens, but a rat comes every night and takes one or two, and we cannot catch him, so we haven't got as many as 300 now. We had a nice lot of cherries this year altogether. I picked twelve bushels of them. I have been pulling weeds and hoeing tomatoes and other things in the garden. I feed and water the horses, herd the cows and water them, feed the pigs, and do a few chores besides. We have twenty-one acres of oats and barley, and they will be ready to cultivate this week.

“SIDNEY WM. OSBORNE (12.)”

“PANMURE, ONT.

“I guess you would like to know how I have got along the last few years. I have done fine. I go to the shanty every fall. I went the 1st of October last year, and I stayed till the 1st April. I have over \$400 in the bank now, and I am thinking of taking a trip out west this fall, to see the country, and if I like it I will take up land out there; but I am doing well in Ontario, and maybe I can do better in the west. WILLIAM SHEPPERD (20).”

“CARLINGFORD, ONT.

“DEAR MR. OWEN,—You will be surprised to hear from me. We have our hay, wheat, and barley cut. I loaded nearly all the wheat. We were drawing manure to-day. We have about twenty-five head of cattle, thirteen cows, two pigs, seven horses, and one colt. TOM MASON (13).”

“HICKSON, ONT.

“Another year has passed, and I am now sending in my account. It is not as much as I expected it would be, but, nevertheless, it is better than nothing. I am sending \$32, of which please accept \$2 as my subscription to our honourable institutions.

“ROBERT E. WATSON (18).”

“LITTLE BRITAIN.

“Just a few lines to let you know that I have struck the best place in Mariposa—just the place

I have been looking for. I am getting \$190 per year. I think I shall make it my home for a few years. I am two farms west of Arthur Nash. I shall go over and help Cowperthwaite's boy as much as I can. I liked that place first-rate. My sister is working at the same place as Fred.

"FRED MAWSON (14)."

Girls (Ontario).

"NORTH GOWER, ONT., July 3, 1908.

"I do not have such a lot of work to do. I have most of the afternoon picking berries. I am really trying to do my best, because I know that it would please you and everybody else. They often laugh at the way I speak because I talk English, but I do not mind that as long as I have a good home, as I am pretty sure I have. Mr. Good and all the boys think as much about me as if I was one of the family. We had a school picnic, and I went to it and run. I can milk cows, and sometimes when I want to milk more than my share, they are so kind they tell me not to. When I came here I weighed 69 lbs., and when Johnny weighed me to-night I weighed 72 lbs., so you may know I have plenty of food and a warm bed to lie in. Mrs. Good just made me a cool dress yesterday, so that I would not be hot when I would be picking berries. She also made me a nice dress for Sunday, one for the house, another for school, besides fixing my English dresses just like the Canadians. She got me a hat,

as well as giving me money and providing me with stamps."

"PARIS, ONT.

"Just a few lines to let you know how I am getting on. I like my home in Paris very much, and hope to stay a good long time. Every one around here is good and kind to me. I think I was very fortunate to get into such a good place. It is so pretty up this way. We have lots of flowers and fruit trees. We have had quite a bit of rain lately, but it has done quite a lot of good, as we were badly in need of rain. We are having some lovely weather, not too hot, but just nice. The grass is so nice and green. We have two lawns to keep nice, and we believe ours is kept the nicest of any around here. There is hardly any one that passes here, but what they don't say how pretty our place always looks, and we know it does, too. I hear from my friends in England."

Boys and Girls (Ontario).

We need not go beyond the confines of our own fair Ontario to see how little waifs, through the good providence of God and the Christian benevolence of the Barnardo Homes, may become men and women gifted and respected in various walks of life. A gentleman who has occasion to visit homes in Eastern Ontario as a Sunday school official, often meets with very striking cases of the advance of Barnardo boys and girls to the front

ranks in Canadian society. Not many miles from historic Kingston, he met with a minister of a large and prosperous church, beloved by his people and respected by all the country side, who was once a little rescued waif. He also knows a rich farmer, with his broad acres and cattle worth \$10,000, who was a Barnardo boy.

Boys (Saskatchewan).

“MOOSOMIN, SASK.

“I now take the great pleasure of writing you these few lines, hoping you are in as good health as it leaves me at the present. I wish the Homes every success. I have been out since 1901. I am doing well, and I am with a good farmer now, but I could go back to the place where I have worked before. I am getting to be quite a farmer, though I am a carpenter by trade. This is a fine country, and I always give it a good name. There have been lots around who do not like it, and give it a bad name. I tell them if they don't like it to pack their duds and get right out of it. I thank the dear old Homes for bringing me to such a good country and helping me to lead such a good life. I thank the Homes again and again a thousand times.

“PHILIP PARKES (20).”

Joseph Cowley is only nineteen, and his brother, Edward, is three years older. They say they are lucky in having railway accommodation brought to

their very door. One can hardly deny their luck, but when we consider the enterprize of Canadian railways we can hardly say that it is exceptional.

“ASQUITH, SASK.

“I will start from the first. We left England on September 22, 1897, for Canada, and I am glad I did. We sailed on the good ship *Labrador*, which I see has been wrecked since. We had a very pleasant voyage across the ocean, a little over nine days' sailing. We landed at Quebec and jumped on the train for Winnipeg, where I stayed for two weeks. Then I was moved on west. Everybody was saying, “Go west, young man, go west.” Well, I went west as far as Osler, where I found my place of abode for a little while with Mr. Joseph Caswell. I stayed at Osler three years, and then we moved to Saskatoon, and I stayed with Mr. Caswell for two years more. Then I went ‘hoeing my own row,’ which was not an easy one by any means, but I am getting along not too bad now. I was working around Saskatoon for some time, and then I moved thirty-five miles west again, so you see I have been going west all right. In 1903 my brother came up here, and we took up a homestead each, right beside each other, so we have 320 acres between us, but the only drawback was no railroad. Thirty-five miles from a railroad is not very nice, but we have got plenty of them now. The C.P.R. runs right by my brother's quarter, and we have a siding $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles from us, and then we have the

G.T.P. one mile from us, so you see we struck it very lucky. We have rented our farms for two years now, and we have been working out trying to make money ; but *money* is a hard thing to get hold of, but very easy to spend, as the old saying is. If ever I get hold of a dollar again, I am going to hold on to it. It's your only friend when you are all in, down and out. That is just what I think, and I believe there are a good many more like me. We have got our homesteads improved now, and we consider that they are worth 4000 dollars, so that isn't too bad, is it? Well, I would advise every young man to come west if there is any push in him. He can make a nice living and put a little in the bank every year—lay it away for a rainy day. He must keep away from the bar-room though, or he never will have anything, only a bad name, and that you can get if you aren't careful. I think I will draw this to a close now, or some one will think I am preaching a sermon instead of writing a letter, so this is all this time. Yours very truly,

“JOSEPH COWLEY (19).”

Albert E. Stubbington sends the following encouraging letter. He has been through the mill himself, and now is anxious to have a little Barnardo boy to live within the light and presence of his good example :—

“MOOSOMIN, SASK.

“Since I came to this country life has had its ups and downs ; but I can say, on the whole, that

the North-West is *the* place for a boy to become a well-to-do independent farmer, or whatever he cares to be. I have started to farm for myself, and am doing first-rate. I have got horses and implements and everything to work a quarter-section of land, also sixteen head of cattle, sixteen pigs, and fifty hens. My first crop was 300 bushels of wheat, 650 of oats, and a fair crop of potatoes, and everything is my own ; so you see a boy can get along who has a good mind and tries hard to do what is right. Since I wrote to you last I am happy to say I am married, and I have had no chance, so far, to regret doing so. I am sorry to say that I cannot oblige you with any picture of myself or my surroundings, but hope to be able to send you same in the future. I most heartily thank Dr. Barnardo for sending me out here to such a glorious country as Canada, and it is needless to say that if at any time I can help along his good work, I will most gladly do so. Wishing the Homes a merry Christmas and a happy and prosperous New Year, I remain, yours truly,

ALBERT E. STUBBINGTON (20)."

"WAWOTA, SASK.

"The first thing I will talk about is when I came to the North-West, which was in 1896. I came to my first employer, Mr. Wm. M'Pherson, of Wawota, Sask., where I served four years, and it was four years of experience and hard work ; but that is what we all should have, according to the old saying, 'Earn your bread by the sweat of your

brow.' It is true I earned it, and all my friends can prove it, and I am better off to-day. I will tell any of our boys and girls, if you go through some hard experiences at first, it leads you to be able to go through harder ones easier in the future. When I first came to Mr. M'Pherson I had a twenty-five mile drive, and when I came to the house I thought it was some Indian shack; but I soon found out that the North-West was full of sod-roofed houses at that time, which is some twelve years ago. It is different now, with the great crops, which have been giving the farmers good frame houses and barns. A good, comfortable home is something to be proud of, and all this has come to them from good crops and the cattle. We must not forget the cattle, for of late years (the last two years), unfortunately, the crops have been frozen, and the cattle in most cases have taken their place. I have had some experience with cattle—have bought two lots, and made money both times. I say once more that, if you have a home in the West, you have something to be proud of, because you can raise your crops and raise your cattle and horses and anything else in the animal line. Come to the West. The West is the place for a good-living young man and woman. Don't be afraid to come. With God's help you will get along. I have tried it now for twelve years, and I am satisfied with it; but, as you know, some of us are not as strong as others, and it came to me that I am not strong. I was told by the doctor I would have to try something

easier than farming, but I like farming, and have been working out all the time. I should have had a farm of my own, but, as I always got steady work, I did not bother taking up one. There is a lot of land for home-steading farther west, so, if my health keeps good, I have a chance yet. Come along ; you have a chance as well as I have. The crops this year, as far as I know, in the wheat averaged twelve bushels to the acre, and oats forty bushels to the acre. The potato crop was good in most places, and the hay crop splendid. I think the more of Dr. Barnardo's boys who come out to take up land in the West, the more money they will have for themselves. We must keep the late Dr. Barnardo's great work in mind, and think what he has done for us, sending us out to this great land of wealth. When I first came out to Wawota, Sask., there were not many places taken up in the settlement, but the people keep coming in more and more all the time, and now what have we? We have a town at Wawota, which was started three years ago, and it is steadily growing. It was the great work of the Canadian Pacific Railway in bringing the railway through, which means good times for the country, and saves all those twenty-five mile drives, which I know were very hard on horses. It is the iron horse that does the hard pulling now. I am sorry I have not a photograph of myself. I had my photo taken two years ago, but they went as fast as I got them ; but as soon as I get it taken again I will send you one. I will

tell you one thing more. I went down to Muskoka last winter to see Mr. and Mrs. Morgan, the people to whom I went when I first came to Canada. One thing, I had a happy home there—a home that I will never forget. I wish all of the late Dr. Barnardo's boys and girls a good home in the West, and may God bless you all and be with you till we meet again. One of your boys,

“JOHN JAMES SMITH (22).”

Boys (British Columbia).

The West has other attractions besides farming. There is the lumber camp, and Albert A. Solomon throws some light on that side of western life—

“DEER PARK, B.C.

“A small account of my life in British Columbia. It is not on the prairie, but in the great mountains of British Columbia. Having enough of the cold West, I thought I would try the mountains of British Columbia, and there is no better place than British Columbia for the young man. I am not more than a year here yet, but one can tell some pretty good stories in a short time. At present I am working in the bush here, and getting from \$2.50 to \$3.00 a day. It is contract work, but my partner and I are cutting from 5000 to 6000 feet a day, and we get a dollar a 1000. Any young man that knows what a saw is can do that. For example, I will send a photo which we had

taken cutting down a 3-foot tree. We have had a little snow here, but it is all gone again, and all going fine. We have the finest boating that there is on any lake. It is all newly settled here, and there are no towns yet, but there are two steamers daily, and for the sportsman there is no better country. Our neighbour came home to-day, and brought a fine-looking mountain lion. I am tired this evening, so think I will close."

"VANCOUVER, BRITISH COLUMBIA.

"I take pleasure in writing you a few lines to let you know how I got along in Canada. I came out in April 1898, and was given a situation on a farm at Red Deer, Alberta, where I stayed four years, which was the agreement made by Mr. Owen. At the end of the fourth year I left and worked for several different farmers around there, and got along first-rate with all of them. I was in Alberta about eight years, and I must say before I go any further that, altogether, I enjoyed the best of health during the eight years I was there. I don't think I ever stopped work a day for sickness, and I think that's going some. I took a great interest in farming and looking after stock. I always liked working among cattle. I had six head of my own, and I also had a fine saddle pony. Everybody advised me to take up a homestead and settle down, but I thought I would rather go farther west, where it wasn't quite so cold in the winter, and where I could take up a fruit farm if I wished, so I started

out. I worked in the woods one winter, and the next spring I came on to Vancouver. I have not got the fruit farm yet, but I have been here two years. I like the coast first-rate. We have lovely summers here, but the winters being wet are against it for me. I think I would rather have the cold winters of Alberta rather than the rain. I have a good inside job, and so I am not out in the rain much. I am getting on fine."

CHAPTER XIV

WHAT MAY STILL BE DONE

"Be not weary of well-doing"

THE NEW LAND

They left the old land sadly
When first they came away,
The women and men leaving Strath and Ben
To find where their fortunes lay.
They sing those songs more gladly
Now, in the new land here—
The words are the same, but the song is aflame,
Heart-stirred by the new land's cheer.

We've gold for many miners,
Two oceans guard our coal,
The silver breaks our giant lakes.
So fill the flowing bowl
And drink—Quebec ! Ontario !
Our central prairie home !
Our forests so vast in the east and the west,
Our rivers' jewelled foam !

There's nothing like our country,
Land of the freeman true,
God gave us the best of the east and the west,
From Pole to the far Peru !
So here's to the maple leaf !
We'll drink to the Plain and Pine !
To "Canada first !" Thank God He has nursed
This land that is thine and mine !

An Emigrant's Information office has been established. Each post office has the notice of

where labour is most wanted. The statements of the various Governments are quoted in brief—what is there more to do? Thus the handbooks giving fuller information are said in the notices to be obtained by writing to London, and at the expense of a penny. But this is a roundabout fashion of putting knowledge into a man or woman's head when he or she applies at the post office for the emigrant's notice. Why not have the handbooks on sale for a penny or a halfpenny at the post office, so that all town or country folk can buy them over the post office counter whenever they go to buy a stamp or post a letter.

The Penny Postage to the sister States has been established. It is a great gain. Mr. Henniker Heaton deserves gratitude for the persistence with which he has fought for this boon, and M. Lemieux and Mr. Sydney Buxton respectively, Canadian and British Postmasters, have earned the gratitude of all of us. It would be difficult to apportion the praise, as was boldly done by a bold Canadian, who said that Lemieux of the two men was the best, as his French name asserts, and that Mr. Sydney Buxton was S.B., or second best! This is not a perfect description, for Mr. Henniker Heaton is as good as both, or, at all events, has double aspirations! What more is wanted? Strangely, perhaps, a little editorship of important news. When an important Government statement is made on either side, it is curious how frequently the point is missed by the

telegraph agencies. Whenever there is a judicial decision affecting international relations, such as the Alaska boundary, whenever there is a Government statement in the Commons or Lords, or in the Colonial Houses of Parliament, an official telegram should be sent to the Government concerned, giving the real words, and, if possible, a very brief statement of the case, that no mistake be made, no misunderstanding arise, and no ignorance prevail.

Preference is accorded to member States of the Empire in the case of bonds to bearer, and in the case of other securities transferable by delivery, the rise in taxation on foreign transactions is not to extend to colonial transactions in the heavier stamp exaction on financial sub-investments. It would be well if securities issued by provinces and municipalities, and, with strict qualification, by railways and manufactory companies, could have similar preference. The more we can encourage our British capital to find safe investment in the Empire as compared with foreign countries, the more will imperial interests be bound together. Trustees should have greater freedom in placing money in colonial first-class securities.

Emigration Aided by the State.—Mr. R. Arthur of New South Wales is the last to enforce the plea for State aid for the emigration of the young from cities.

“It is almost impossible to expect adults who have been accustomed to occupations such as these

to become farm labourers. They may accept work on a farm temporarily, but the city is calling them all the time, and on the slightest provocation they desert the country to compete in the town labour market.

“And along with them go a certain proportion of the unemployable, whom any community is glad to get rid of, and ship off under the faint belief that a transformation of character may be effected under other skies. It is the fear of these possibilities which impels organised labour in the various colonies to take up a hostile attitude to all immigration, and makes the politicians in power far more cautious in their immigration policies than they otherwise would be.

“It might seem, then, that an *impasse* had been reached, and that any negotiations between the Home and Colonial Governments must inevitably be futile.

“But I am positive that some solution of the difficulty can be arrived at. I have for long been convinced that one of the best immigrants that a country can receive is the lad from the age of fifteen to twenty-one years.

“I was led to this belief in this way.

“Some years ago I came to realise that there were many lads in Sydney, New South Wales, where I live, who, if given the opportunity, would prefer a country life rather than some town occupation. A scheme was evolved by which lads could be sent either direct to the bush or given a three

months' preliminary training free at a Government farm, where they learnt to milk, plough, ride, drive, and feed stock, going thence to situations with farmers.

"The scheme has proved a distinct success. Not only lads straight from school, but others who have given up their places in factories, shops, banks, Government and private offices, have settled down to a contented and promising life on the land. Some have already taken up selections with money saved out of their wages, as the youngest lad begins with 10s. a week and his keep, and can rise in a year or two to 15s. and £1. Those who obtain employment on sheep stations, where they can acquire in the course of time a knowledge of sheep-shearing, can earn from 10s. to £2 a day during the shearing season.

"The demand in Australia for the services of these lads is so great that each one of them can have the pick of twenty or thirty places.

"In consequence of this, my thoughts turned naturally to the thousands of young fellows in Great Britain who, it seemed to me, might be glad to follow this example. I sent a letter describing the opportunities offered, but dwelling also on the monotony and hardships of the life, to a paper which has a large circulation among English boys, and by a few return mails the organisation of which I have the honour to be President, the Immigration League of Australasia, received over 500 letters from writers of all classes, and ages ranging from

fourteen to twenty-one years, who declared emphatically that they were anxious to come to Australia and adopt a country life. Most of these lads were living in large cities, and many of them expressed their disgust at being cribbed and confined in an office or a factory. Many, again, were either out of work or only in casual employment. The only thing which prevented most of them from starting at once was the lack of money to pay the passage fare. Some had saved a few pounds, but the £16 necessary to get to Australia was entirely beyond them. A few, however, have been able to raise the amount, and are now doing well on Australian farms.

“Now I maintain that here is the basis of a scheme with regard to which the Home and Colonial Governments could meet on common ground, and which could be of immense benefit to the communities concerned.

“If for the next ten years 100,000 British lads were kept annually from entering the already overstocked labour market, it would give those who did so a better chance, and would check to some extent the displacement of adult by boy labour which is so common. It would also lessen the ranks of the casual employed. And the lads themselves would gain opportunities for advancement which would be denied to most of them in the Old Country.

“On the other hand, the Colonies would receive them with open arms. The consistent success of

the 12,000 Barnardo boys who have gone to Canada, and the way they are sought after by farmers, are conclusive proofs of this. And I make bold to say that Australasia would accept gladly at least 50,000 a year.

“The merits of the lad as immigrant are self-evident. He is plastic, learns easily, and is quickly moulded to new conditions. Not being master of a trade, he is under no temptation to leave the country for the city. Nor has he acquired objectionable habits, such as drinking and gambling, nor been exposed to the deteriorating influences of casual employment.

“In nineteen cases out of twenty he would do well and give satisfaction, ending often by becoming a prosperous landowner.

“But the feminine side of the question must not be overlooked, and here again much could be done.

“In the United Kingdom there are at least a million more females than males. Most of these are doomed to enforced celibacy instead of being the mothers of sons of the Empire. Transfer some of them to the daughter States, where the shortage of women is even more striking than the superfluity in the Motherland, and the great majority would be granted the opportunity of following woman's natural destiny, that of wife and mother. This in itself would put up the birth-rate considerably in the Colonies.

“It may be urged that it would be undesirable to take lads and young women away from their

homes at so early an age, but the objection has little weight. Lads join the mercantile marine at fifteen or sixteen years of age, and are thrown practically on their own resources. And the young women who go to domestic service in the United Kingdom are exposed to the same temptations and dangers that they would have to face in the Colonies.

“Moreover, a rigorous supervision of the young immigrants could be insisted upon. Strict conditions could be laid down regarding the treatment of lads by the farmers who employed them, and visiting inspectors could ascertain if these were being complied with. Again, it would be easy to form a committee of ladies in each colony to take an interest in the young women and keep in touch with them.

“Let it also not be forgotten that many of these young immigrants would save money and send for their parents in course of time.

“One other suggestion I would make which seems to me of practical value, at least so far as Australia and New Zealand are concerned.

“Every year some thousand men complete their period of active service in India and return to England to join the Reserve. As a rule these men have considerable difficulty in finding employment, because they have enlisted at an age before which they could master some skilled trade. On the other hand, they are young, active, accustomed to roughing it, and in many cases can handle

horses. They are therefore the very men who would be of value on the Australian sheep stations as boundary riders and stockmen, &c. And I know from hundreds of letters received from such men that they would gladly come to Australia if they were allowed to do so. I understand that permission has been given to a number of reservists to leave the United Kingdom. Why, then, should the reservists in India be compelled to return home? Why should they not go straight to the country wanting them?"

The observations of Mr. Richard Arthur, those spoken by him as embodying ideas from New South Wales, are equally applicable to Canada.

Look again at the question of profitable money grants—profitable for mother country and daughter States. The good derived by Germany from State support of shipping lines has become so evident to her people that very considerable subsidies are given by her Government to steamship companies whose vessels tend to strengthen national commerce. This she does although she has two colonies—and it may be said that none of her colonies at present pay their expenses; yet Germany's mercantile marine is preferred to the British in many parts of the world for the conveyance of cargo and passengers. We, on the other hand, have many colonies, some of which have now practically the standing of separate nations, so numerous is their population and so great is the amount of the tonnage they employ, yet the effort made to retain the trade for our own ships

has been feeble. A money grant for the carriage of the mails on the most economic principles is usually all that is given, yet the growing sympathy for the proposal to have an all-red route round the world, connecting each British-bred country, by magnificent steamers, with the others, has been met with considerable sympathy. Sir Wilfrid Laurier has spoken in its favour, and there have been voices from among the ministers of the Liberal party here approving of the line taken in this matter by the Liberal party in Canada.

Already the Canadian Pacific Company possess steamers second to none, and affording comfort to the poorest traveller across the Atlantic. In regard to further representation of the Empire in London, I repeat proposals and comments I have quoted before.

At the Colonial Institute in 1884 a suggestion was formally made by the Canadian Governor-General that a council in which such envoys might sit should form part of the regular Imperial Government. It is noteworthy that Lord Grey approved of such a scheme, and in 1885 he spoke on the subject as follows :—

“ The difficulty of devising any mode of enabling the Colonies to exercise any real influence in the Imperial Government is very great, and I must confess myself quite unable to propose one which would be altogether satisfactory. But, in the absence of any better arrangement, I am still of opinion that a suggestion I threw out in an article I

contributed to the *Nineteenth Century* of April 1879 might be adopted with advantage. What I proposed was that we should revert to what was the practice up to the middle of the last century, of making large use of a Committee of the Privy Council in the management of colonial affairs. The Board of Trade, under the name of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade and Plantations, took an effective part with the Secretary of State in colonial administration. This practice has long fallen into disuse, and the amount of other business now assigned to the Board of Trade makes it undesirable that it should be revived; but I think advantage would be derived from giving the Colonial Secretary the assistance of another Committee appointed for that purpose, which might also be made the means of enabling the most important Colonies to exercise the influence they ought to have in directing the policy of the Government in all matters affecting the common interests of the whole Empire. With this view the Queen might be advised to appoint to be members of her Privy Council such of the agents of the principal Colonies as might receive from the Legislatures they represent sufficient salaries to enable them to reside in this country and perform the duties assigned to them.

“To a Committee composed of these colonists, with such other members of the Privy Council as her Majesty may from time to time direct to be summoned to it, the Colonial Secretary might be empowered to refer such questions as he should

think proper for their advice. The reports of this Committee would, of course, have no legal authority until confirmed by the Queen, on the advice of her ministers, whose responsibility for all the acts of the Government would thus remain unaltered. But the colonial agents representing the several Legislatures would exercise a powerful influence in guiding the policy of the Government. Questions arise which more immediately affect the Colonies, but on which peace or war for the Empire may eventually turn—such as those relating to the maintenance of British rights of fishery. These would naturally be referred to such a Committee; and if a quarrel with some foreign State should arise from the course taken by our Government, it would have far more hearty support from the Colonies if they had, through their representatives, been consulted on the steps that had led to it. There are very many other matters on which the wishes and opinions of the Colonies ought to have weight in deciding on the measures of the Government, and on all these the proposed Committee would enable them to make themselves heard. The Imperial Government would not rightly resist what might be found from the proceedings of the Committee to be the general wish of the Colonies; and, on the other hand, it would derive from it valuable support in resisting unreasonable wishes sometimes put forward by the Colonies. That unreasonable wishes and demands are sometimes urged by the Colonies is very clear. Nothing, for instance, can, I think, be

more unreasonable than the demand which seems now to be made by the Australian Colonies that England should set up a claim to dominion over the whole Pacific, with a right to exclude all other nations from islands which neither she nor her colonists are able to occupy and administer. If this demand were gravely put forward in the Colonial Committee which I have suggested, the Secretary of State would almost certainly find himself supported in opposing so preposterous a demand by representatives of all the Colonies not immediately concerned. At the same time, the claim of the Cape Colonists that no foreign Power should be allowed to occupy Zululand would probably be supported by the whole Committee. In short, the English at home would be able to secure support for their opposition to manifestly unreasonable colonial propositions among the reasonable colonial representatives, but when the English beyond the sea were unanimous in opposing home policy, there would be a free presumption that we were in the wrong. Such at least seems a reasonable and a practical suggestion, which only needs to be worked with prudence and common sense in order to arrest the tendencies working in favour of disintegration and to operate directly in favour of the restoration and the maintenance of the unity of the Empire."

Some objections expressed to this plan may be given in the form of double columns, giving in one the objection and in the other the answer.

Such a council would lead to delay.

Indian Council has been proved an unnecessary adjunct to the machinery of the India Office.

Envoys would not understand Crown Colony questions so well as Colonial Office clerks.

In nine cases out of ten, questions discussed would concern one colony only, or at most two. Envoys of those not affected would have no business.

“Log rolling,” or agreement between Colonies to tax British Treasury, would arise. Newfoundland might say to Queensland, you get John Bull to protect my fisheries, and I'll get him to annex New Guinea. John Bull to protect us both against consequences.

Agents - General might thwart English Government.

English Cabinet should alone be consulted.

What use? when Canada declares herself against a war, how could Council proceed?

Colonial envoys, being at hand, can be consulted as soon as a Cabinet or foreign ambassadors. Telegraphs make necessary communication with the Colonies instantaneous.

This may be granted without affecting question of Colonial Council. In Indian Council voices only of old ex-officials are heard, and no serious result is possible from neglect or over-ruling of their advice. Envoys' voices are the responsible voices of living nations, whose goodwill or hostility must influence decisions.

Granted, and they would not interfere in them.

Where envoys are interested they would say so. Where not, they would let transactions, as now, be concluded by Colonial Secretary and agent of colony affected. That some may listen without interfering is not an objection except against all councils.

Common sense is more likely to be exercised by Council of Representatives than by two working together to influence Colonial Secretary. This last procedure could take place now, if it be possible or likely to take place at all.

Impossible consistently with the Colonies wishing to be represented. Colonial air removes English party hate, and even eradicates Irish hostility.

This theory gives up hope of keeping any but our own island and fortified posts in Empire.

The British Government would probably have to acquiesce in any general dissent to a war.

They have not asked for a Council.

Would be instituted to influence Colonies for Free Trade. Would be instituted to get Protection introduced into England.

"A proposal to restore Downing Street rule."

Political and commercial egotism make it impossible.

Put relatives into same house, and they will quarrel.

If dissent came from one great Colony alone, that Colony's antagonism would not be stronger, but modified, if she were consulted about danger, instead of, as now, having the chance of being thrust into it without warning.

True—and don't have it constituted till they do.

Moral of such objections: Each part of Empire must take its own way in commercial policy.

On the contrary, gives surest means of counteracting any tendency to such a nightmare.

Trade of each on its own lines can be protected by power of all. Imperial machine can push interest of each. Witness Canadian envoy and British ambassador working as coadjutors to get Canadian Treaty of Commerce with Spain. Different trade treaties for different parts of Empire can be negotiated by combined imperial machinery.

Council would not put them into same house, but add a storey (for increasing family) to house of each; insure common drainage provisions to prevent sewer gases; and engage a policeman, paid by each householder, to protect property of all.

Of the "pros" and "cons" above enumerated, the most important is the question, "Who wants this Council?" There may be a great deal of good in the proposal, but the good must first be seen by the Colonies, and they must express their desire to be thus consulted before any Council be constituted.

On one great subject there has of late years been no doubt of the desire of the younger members of our Empire. They themselves in various degrees have adopted a tariff taxing imports from abroad. They do not wish us to do so if on examination of their own experience we still believe that a British tariff would hurt British citizens, but they themselves have proved that they derive great benefits from the adoption of this policy. So much has this been the case in Canada that the Liberal party, which most strenuously opposed, has been converted, and during the last election there was no question of reverting to Free Trade, or to a mere revenue tariff. They naturally think that what has proved good for themselves cannot be evil for the mother country. They point to the experience also of the United States as an even stronger case, for the Americans had long-established industries which are not threatened to any great extent by foreign importation, yet at the last presidential election in the United States there was no word uttered in favour of going back to Free Trade. They point also to the experience of Australia. They show that New South Wales, always "Free Trade" up to a recent date, now favours a tariff. It is declared that their wages have increased for the working men as the capital attracted to the country has founded many manufactories, and since the so-called national policy was adopted after the election of 1878, which brought Sir John Macdonald into power, there has been an immense advance in all national prosperity.

The argument used by those in England who fear any fiscal change, that any protection once adopted will inevitably be driven too far, has been proved vain imagination. In all countries of any extent the difference of habitation and geographical variety causes opposition to any extreme protection unless it can be clearly proved to be the overmastering interest of all. Lord Kimberley, when Colonial Secretary, wrote to me, exclaiming, "What (blank) your ministers must be to put taxes, for instance, on American ploughs, when they must know that making them at home will only give them an inferior article at a higher price!" I took special pains to find out what the effect was of the exclusion of American ploughs. For a little while Canadian ploughs were considered in the prairie country to be inferior, but in a short while, when the Canadian manufactories were got into thorough working order, the quality was as good and the price was as reasonable as before the imposition of a tariff. Now the price is less by 15 to 25 per cent. than it was before 1878 for all agricultural implements!

Bankers are not usually men who welcome "wild experiments," or who speak well of them when made. Every "Liberal" in Canada in 1877 declared that Bastiat and Cobden had proved Free Trade to be necessary for a country's salvation. But elections proved that the people desired the wild experiment of making goods for themselves. In every constituency the question was fought out.

The result is that, after twenty-five years' trial, the Bankers' Report is to the following effect:—

“The cost of living in Canada has doubtless increased during the past twenty to twenty-five years, but work is far more plentiful now, while wages are proportionately higher, and in every way money more easily made. In natural sequence, the country, and the citizens thereof, are vastly more prosperous now than during the period under comparison, and there is very little poverty in the land. The only individuals who may suffer are the comparatively few whose sole income is derived from money invested in high-class securities.”

In Canada free traders are so few and far between in both political parties that Free Trade is as dead an issue as annexation to the United States. I speak from personal knowledge, for I have annually visited every town of importance from the Atlantic to the Pacific, naturally meeting most of the important people in the social and business world.

There are many conditions which are unlike in Great Britain and in Canada. One has limited advantages from a limited amount of coal, precious metals, sunshine, and rich soil. The other has quantities of all of these, though less coal in the central regions has been discovered for the present. But in the conditions that make for a tariff, with preference for commercial allies, both countries have similar conditions, for both desire to give their kith and kin all advantage compatible with their own

welfare ; and both know that welfare is dependent on manufacturing themselves all that they require, so that no hostile victory may at any time wholly cut off their supplies, and that they may be, as far as possible, able to pay their workers good wages, thereby enabling workmen to buy food in a good market at more even prices than is the case where hostile combinations may be able to conspire against their interests and effect great alterations of price.

And so it has been proved over and over again that a tariff does not at once jump up to abnormal height and remain there ; it is constantly to be adjusted and changed to suit the varying needs as time goes on ; but in one thing it is stable—it prevents dumping ; that is to say, it prevents an organised ring of foreign manufacturers from smashing the chances of a native industry arising. This was done over and over again in the districts where such factory was growing, by the temporary sale below price of the articles it was to produce. Down went the infant enterprise, and up went the prices which had only temporary and artificial decline, brought about by the autocratic power of the foreign ring. The foreign manufacturers' desire was not to give cheap goods to the Canadians, but to compel Canadians to take their goods at the prices thought best for the foreigners' profit. So far from a tariff being immutable, taxes upon articles are constantly lowered as well as raised. Not only the example of Canada, but the example of a country very near to Great Britain, namely, the little kingdom of Holland, with

its colonial empire, proves that even a general tariff can be lowered as it suits the interests of a nation to do so. Canada, with an average tariff of 33 per cent., gives Britain a preference of 17 per cent. It will be much to the advantage of British manufacturers to establish their firms in Canada. The Americans have taken largely to do so. It is said that this year there were between 140 and 150 United States firms, with an aggregate capital of 140 million dollars, "started" in Canada. Many are found in Ontario and Montreal, but the United States firms are especially active now in investing in elevators and other agencies for the handling of the Canadian wheat crop of the west. The lumbering, fishing, and mining industries are also attracting many enterprising men with money from the Republic. In Canadian lumbering alone some 25 millions of United States money is invested; and as for mining, an authority tells the *Toronto Globe* that "United States capitalists are to-day just as closely in touch with what is going on in the Cobalt and Gowganda districts as are Canadians." At least six of the largest producing silver mines of Cobalt are controlled by United States money. The bond field is, however, left almost entirely to the Englishman.

What has been conclusively proved during the last twenty-five years is a truth of the maxim first enunciated by Mr. Foster, "that trade follows the flag." That the Canadians desire that this should continue has been proved by a very large preference they give to British imports; sometimes one hears

talk on the European side which displays the most extraordinary ignorance of the main conditions of colonial well-being. These wiseacres speak as though it were wrong on the part of the younger States to put any taxes at all on anything coming from the old country. If they only take the trouble to correspond through the penny post with their sons, nephews, or cousins in Canada, they will find that personal consideration and patriotism of the eminently human kind which desires that one's own pocket, and the pocket of one's village, city, or county may be benefited, prevails also amongst their relatives. They desire to be producers just as the old countryman desires to be a producer. When once they have mastered this main fact in human nature, they will see that it is necessary to cherish some amount of sympathy in trying to place themselves in one's friend's shoes, and to look at things also from his point of view. The old countryman may ultimately be made to understand that this is for his advantage as well as for his offspring's; for, unless the company of John Bull & Sons desire to have all management placed in the hands of John Bull, and none in those of his sons, he may be pretty sure that his business will not long survive. You must have strong sons or friends for a strong company, and the stronger the sons can make their own action on their own initiative the better it will be for the firm. They who imagine that nothing but a one-sided Free Trade can benefit Britain must try to remember that their relatives

across the water were formerly possessed of exactly the same theories. What was cheap could never be nasty, and could never lead to want of employment or prevent factories from arising! The wealth of the people could never be affected by dependence on the productions of others! It was only seen slowly, as wages did not rise, and as capital did not come into the country, that though all nature might be fair, man could not be content to stick in the mud; and they gave up following a theory which, however sound upon paper, had been proved to be purposeless for the advance in commerce and production, and for the aims they had at heart, namely, the independence and progress of a rising nation. The more independent Canada becomes, the more she can supply her own needs for defence; maintaining herself on her own food, and supplying even her luxuries from native sources, the stronger will be the arm she can hold out to help John Bull in time of need. Therefore, for John Bull to take a pride in huddling himself in his own mantle—a philosophic theory—and to reject almost as an unheard-of folly colonial requests that we should examine whether we may not meet the rest of the Empire in their wishes regarding fiscal collaboration, is hardly a sign of statesmanship. The argument against making experiments because we cannot retrace any steps taken after a tariff has been declared, shows a caution which even the most cautious Scotsman in Canada will tell the

old countryman is misplaced. Changes are constantly being made; each article on the tariff list had to have its separate case considered at intervals over and over again, and the idea that the people will be driven too far shows a strange want of confidence in our countrymen. You might as well prevent people from going through Oxford Street on the plea that they must ruin themselves by shopping; nobody on these principles ought to attend a racecourse for fear they should be ruined by betting. It is very difficult for any class of interest to run away with the leadership in an educated country; there are too many other classes jealous or hostile through their leadership, and the falsehood of extremes is rarely seen except where the people are volatile and ignorant. Mutual interests are the real safeguards against disunion, and that these can best be strengthened by helping local interests, is, in brief, the prime element of success in keeping our Empire one and indivisible. We must recognise the necessity for the full growth of each country comprised in the great union, in accordance with each country's own idea of what is best. Where the experience of the United States of America and of Canada can be quoted, our British local interests will be helped.

It must be remembered that though Canada is represented by a peer, and probably will always be represented by a distinguished politician, or, at all events, a man thoroughly in touch with the Cabinet of the day, Australia and the Cape and

other States have not yet sent men to whom the same place is marked out as for the Canadian; it is therefore well to bear in mind that more organisation will be necessary in future, when men in the position of envoys may be sent here.

Each may form in his own mind an idea how this scheme might have worked out during the last twenty years. Take, for instance, the existence of such a committee of envoys before the Boer War—a question may be put in what measure each colony would have backed up the policy which resulted in the war, in which their own troops assisted with such signal success. Each man may estimate for himself what would have been the reception of the proposal to hand over all power to the various African communities four years after that campaign. They will be able to judge whether the Canadian example of giving free institutions to the French Canadians was on a par with the African case. He would remember that in Canada it is manifest that the French Canadian province would be almost surrounded in the future by English-speaking colonies, and he would also see that in Africa the only colony where the English-speaking people were in the majority was Natal, which was almost surrounded by the Dutch-speaking population. The truth is, that a wider standpoint must at all events be taken in the African case, for there, to a greater extent than in the Canadian example, it is the outside, and what may almost be called sea-borne, influence which

must be relied upon to maintain the constitutional forms of parliamentary freedom which are associated with the British name, and which have been successful as yet only amongst white populations accustomed to exercise self-government, and possessing education, not only of the schools, but also from the consciousness of being descended from men who have through centuries been able to make their own history.

The Colonies desire improved cable communication, mail communication, and the frequent diffusion of commercial intelligence, the multiplying of commercial agencies in the country, as all parts of our system.

Preferential trade, in their eyes, means all these things, as well as promoting our dealing with each other's commodities.

All, or any of them, will be welcomed.

CHAPTER XV
VALUABLE STATISTICS

TABLE I

Colony.	Population.			Revenue.		
	1891.	1901.	1907 (Estimate).	1890.	1900.	1907.
				£	£	£
Canada	4,833,239	5,371,315	6,153,789	8,199,785	10,549,885	*16,473,091
New South Wales	1,132,234	1,354,846	1,573,224	9,305,691	9,973,736	15,152,206
Victoria	1,140,405	1,201,070	1,258,140	8,343,588	7,450,676	9,699,796
New Zealand	626,658	772,719	941,824	4,496,028	5,699,618	9,154,295
Tasmania	146,667	172,475	184,008	758,100	943,970	1,184,715
South Australia	320,431	362,604	396,028	2,804,727	2,853,329	3,721,034
Western Australia	49,782	184,124	263,846	414,314	2,875,396	3,837,604
Queensland	393,718	498,129	546,467	3,350,223	4,588,207	5,072,479
Cape of Good Hope †	1,527,224	2,349,908 (estimate only)	2,507,500	4,394,294	6,236,210	7,701,192

* 1906 latest complete twelve months.

† Exclusive of the population of Pondoland and British Bechuanaland, annexed in 1894 and 1895 respectively.

Colony.	Expenditure.			Debt.		
	1890.	1900.	1907.	1890.	1900.	1907.
Canada	£ 7,401,314	£ 8,894,806	*13,821,687	£ 58,790,198	£ 71,138,421	£ 78,104,292
New South Wales	9,385,669	10,086,186	13,638,731	46,030,449	61,801,409	78,722,300
Victoria	9,128,699	7,280,689	9,015,732	41,377,693	48,774,885	52,954,989
New Zealand	4,369,566	5,140,128	8,320,580	38,802,350	49,591,245	66,453,897
Tasmania	722,746	871,454	1,128,885	6,028,950	8,511,005	9,706,768
South Australia	2,724,089	2,936,619	3,865,385	20,401,500	26,131,780	26,460,268
Western Australia	401,737	2,615,675	3,931,715	1,367,444	9,874,640	18,722,638
Queensland	3,684,655	4,540,418	4,679,998	28,226,934	36,033,604	41,155,167
Cape of Good Hope	3,843,169	6,587,586	8,349,316	23,748,921	31,097,825	46,259,790

* 1906, latest twelve months available.

TABLE II.

Colony.	1890.		1900.		1907.	
	Total Imports.	From Great Britain.	Total Imports.	From Great Britain.	Total Imports.	From Great Britain.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Canada	25,039,365	8,938,707	38,963,530	9,343,622	76,205,207	19,700,000
New South Wales	22,615,004	8,628,007	27,561,071	9,923,117	*20,860,391	†10,047,928
Victoria	22,954,015	9,607,193	18,301,811	7,055,028	*17,101,022	†8,617,057
South Australia	8,262,673	2,483,416	8,034,552	2,397,684	*4,815,459	†2,513,376
Queensland	5,066,700	2,120,071	7,184,112	3,100,706	*4,617,439	†2,518,968
Western Australia	874,447	415,149	5,962,178	2,225,746	*3,587,548	†2,315,966
Tasmania	1,897,512	680,760	2,073,657	628,663	*827,174	†562,538
New Zealand	6,260,525	4,221,270	10,646,096	6,504,484	17,302,861	10,278,019
Cape of Good Hope	10,106,466	8,535,266	19,678,336	13,018,953	15,599,655	9,796,998

* Excluding inter-State trade.

† 1906. Figures for 1907 not available.

T A B L E I I I .

Colony.	1890.			1900.			1907.		
	Imports, less Bullion and Specie.	Customs Revenue.	Per Cent-age.	Imports, less Bullion and Specie.	Customs Revenue.	Per Cent-age.	Imports, less Bullion and Specie.	Customs Revenue.	Per Cent-age.
Canada . . .	£ 24,816,829	£ 4,915,322	20	£ 37,258,577	£ 5,936,118	16	£ 74,859,093	* £ 9,468,834	13
New South Wales .	19,952,392	1,879,086	9	23,008,735	1,437,303	6	Figures for the Australian States are not available. The amount for the Commonwealth in 1907 was £49,967,842	7,660,874	15
Victoria . . .	22,284,907	2,704,380	12	16,767,566	2,121,762	13			
South Australia .	8,041,010	706,100	9	7,933,701	669,755	8			
Queensland . . .	4,741,818	1,242,343	26	6,813,834	1,424,279	21	Commonwealth in 1907 was £49,967,842	3,134,250	19
Western Australia .	820,847	178,231	22	5,958,680	944,746	16			
Tasmania . . .	1,781,437	330,991	19	2,032,006	472,032	23	16,540,454	1,762,897	11
New Zealand . . .	5,930,089	1,541,395	26	10,208,453	2,170,354	21	15,475,122		
Cape of Good Hope	9,366,172	1,352,955	14	17,162,610	2,309,769	13			

* 1906. Figures for latest twelve months available.

Destination of Mine Products during the Fiscal Year

1905-1906.

EXPORTS.

Destination.	Value.	Destination.	Value.
	\$		\$
United States . . .	32,869,004	Mexico	11,235
Great Britain . . .	1,475,839	British West Indies . . .	7,394
Newfoundland . . .	468,383	Australia	5,927
Germany	124,257	Austria Hungary . . .	4,950
China	114,270	Cent. Am. States . . .	2,000
Belgium	91,885	Holland	1,506
Japan	81,185	Norway	450
Bermuda	71,609	New Zealand	398
France	56,447	Hong Kong	380
St. Pierre Miquelon .	26,985	British Guiana	15
Italy	24,907		
British Africa	18,452	Total	35,469,631
Cuba	12,253		

As would naturally be expected, these statistics show that the metallic ores constitute the bulk of the exports, and that over 92 per cent. of the total exports went to the United States, and only 4 per cent. to Great Britain.

There is but one metal refinery in Canada, viz. at Trail, British Columbia, at which fine gold, fine silver, and pig-lead are produced; but the great bulk of the products of the metallurgical furnaces in this province are shipped to the United States for refining. In Ontario, also, practically all the metallic ore production, comprising chiefly the nickel copper ores of Sudbury district, and the rich silver ores of Cobalt, though partially

reduced in Canada, are ultimately exported to the United States or Great Britain for refining. So also many of the non-metallic minerals, asbestos, gypsum, mica, corundum, are largely exported.

Statistics of imports of minerals and mineral products during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1906, compiled from the same source, are shown in the last table.

Since we export practically all our metallic ores, it naturally follows that we are compelled to import a large value in metals and their manufactures. Thus we find that in 1905-6, out of a total importation of minerals and mineral products of \$89,389,504, iron and steel and their manufactures make up over 43 millions, while coal and coke account for another 20 millions. Copper, gold, lead, brass, tin, zinc, and their manufactures, make up nearly 10 millions more.

Mineral and Mineral Products for Fiscal Year 1905-1906.

IMPORTS.

Products.	Value.	Products.	Value.
	\$		\$
Alumina	194,083	Bells and gongs. . .	109,129
Alum and aluminous cake	51,914	Bismuth	949
Aluminium	192,044	Blast furnace slags. . .	19,005
Antimony	42,517	Borax	78,277
" salts	13,780	Bricks and tiles . . .	460,410
Arsenic	19,169	" fire	539,962
Asbestos and mfrs. of	137,974	Buhrstones	2,661
Asphaltum	172,641		
		Carry forward . . .	2,034,515

IMPORTS (*continued*)

Products.	Value.	Products.	Value.
	\$		\$
Carry forward	2,034,515	Metallic alloys—	
Cement	995,731	Babbitt metal	59,662
Chalk, prepared	32,906	Brass and mfrs. of	1,785,005
Clays	220,504	Britannia metal	40,462
Coal	19,153,832	German silver	84,295
„ tar pitch	154,628	Type metal	8,675
Coke	1,311,375	Mineral and bituminous substances, N.O.P.	77,694
Copper and mfrs. of	3,102,157	Mineralogical specimens	726
Cryolite	22,793	Mineral and metallic pigments, paints, and colours	1,237,796
Crucibles, clay or plumbago	32,950	Mineral water, including aerated water	178,639
Chloride of lime	59,315	Nickel	15,976
Earthenware	1,692,359	Ores of metals, N.E.S.	2,270,036
Electric carbons	118,757	Paraffin wax	9,721
Emery	63,861	„ „ candles	15,804
Feldspar, quartz, flint, &c.	30,801	Petroleum and products of	2,575,350
Fullers' earth	4,644	Phosphate (fertiliser)	20,497
Fossils	15	Platinum, mfrs. of	54,494
Gold and silver and mfrs. of	555,701	Precious stones	1,601,545
Graphite and mfrs. of	55,756	Pumice	9,053
Gypsum, plaster of Paris, &c.	67,549	Salt	412,019
Iron and steel—		Saltpetre	109,005
Pigs, scraps, blooms, &c.	2,451,416	Sand and gravel	173,727
Rolled bars, plates, &c., including chrome steel	12,342,364	Slate and mfrs. of	112,941
Ferro-silicon, ferro-manganese, &c.	462,739	Stone and mfrs. of	370,190
Manufactures of—		Sulphate of copper	95,049
machinery, hardware, &c.	27,978,941	„ „ iron	2,493
Kainite	3,411	Sulphur	436,827
Lead and mfrs. of	412,197	Sulphuric acid	8,558
Lime	93,630	Tufa calcareous	30
Litharge	39,836	Tin and manufactures of	3,336,948
Lithographic stone	6,772	Whiting	44,876
Manganese, oxide of	5,508	Zinc and mfrs. of	466,627
Magnesia	8,727		
Marble and mfrs. of	189,589	Total	89,389,504
Mercury	69,505		

VALUE OF CABLE COMMUNICATION

(As Expressed lately by Press Representatives).

Mr. Brierly (*Montreal Herald*) said they had been told that owing to the tremendous business done by the cable companies with the United States they could not expect any reduction in the Canadian rates, because it would affect rates to the United States. In view of this dependence upon a foreign country, they need not therefore pay too much respect to the demand of the cable companies for compensation in the event of State-owned lines of communication. It was hardly tolerable for Canada to pay 10 cents a Press word across the Atlantic when Australia paid only 5 cents over the much greater distance across the Pacific.

Mr. Dafoe (*Winnipeg Free Press*) heartily supported the resolution. They wanted a 5 cents rate across the Atlantic. If they could get it by wireless telegraphy, well and good; if not, let them get it by cable. He did not, however, believe in State-owned concerns cutting the throats of privately owned lines. He did not suppose there was any intention of buying out the privately owned cables, and he did not suppose there was any intention of operating State-owned lines at less than cost. But while they were careful of vested rights,

let them not forget the rights of the public. The condition that should fix the price of any public utility was the cost to-day of supplying the need. If they could build a cable to-day between England and Canada which, as a legitimate business proposition, could carry cablegrams at half the present rates, it was a perfectly proper thing to build that line and put the reduced rate into effect irrespective of its business consequences.

Dr. J. A. Macdonald (*Toronto Globe*) said as Canadian newspaper men they knew that they paid for everything they got in Canada from the Canadian Pacific Railway, and they paid for some things they did not get. If the despatches did not suit the corporation they did not get them. He hoped and believed that the Marconi system would be in operation long before the Governments of this country and Canada got actively on the job. He was not afraid of the Empire going to pieces because they had no State-owned system. The Empire was all right.

EMIGRATION AND BRITISH SENTIMENT.

At the conclusion of the discussion on cables, the Conference adopted *nem. con.* a resolution, moved by Sir Hugh Graham, proprietor of the *Montreal Star*, urging the Press of Great Britain and the Colonies to act in concert in the wise direction of the surplus population of the mother country to those Colonies which stand in need of

additional population. "Canada," he said, "is the keystone to the imperial arch. If the keystone were to fall the arch would be in peril." The steadfastness of Canada in this position, added Sir Hugh, depended upon the sentiment of the majority of her people. To-day that majority was overwhelmingly British. The United Empire loyalist feeling persisted in the older provinces, and French Canada was contentedly British; but the immigration of foreigners was threatening that majority. From the reports of the Minister of the Interior the Canadian immigration figures were: For 1907—British, 103,966; non-British, 119,736. For 1908—British, 120,182; non-British, 142,287. The foreigner could not be expected to bring British sentiment with him, and it was much to hope that he would not bring anti-British sentiment. Many British emigrants went to foreign countries ignorant of the fact that the Colonies had immensely superior attractions for settlers, as evidenced by the rush of emigrants to Canada from the very country where most British emigrants went. To quote from Government returns again: During the past ten years 920,220 left British shores for the United States, while 519,845 left for Canada in the same period. If British subjects at home were going to emigrate, surely it was better for the Empire that they should go to a land where they would still be under the flag, and where their children would be available for the protection of the Empire, than to one where

their children at all events were very certain to forswear their allegiance, and to become possible enemies of the home of their fathers. There was no better service that Britons could perform for the Empire than to keep the natural increase of British population within its "far flung" boundary line. Canada was the richest prize offering in the market of the world to-day. The keen Americans, having spied out the land, were coming by trainloads. People from all parts of Europe were coming by shiploads, and the country was filling up fast; but vast numbers of the newcomers knew little of the British Empire, and cared less. The handful of Canadians, though in the majority now, could be regarded as no more than a small garrison holding the fort in an immense country. They had held it for a century and a half, but the attacks had been few and half-hearted. They were thought to be guarding a few acres of snow; now it was known they were guarding a Klondyke, a Cobalt, the most valuable forest reserve in the world, the greatest wheat fields, fabulous mineral deposits—in a word, most of what was left of the natural resources of the rich North American continent. The siege would now begin in earnest. The result would depend upon succour from the British Isles. They wanted good people from all lands, but they wanted more from Britain. In this connection he was authorised to say that a serious effort would be made to commemorate that Conference by organising an association in

Canada embracing leading journalists and public-spirited citizens, not to supersede, but to aid, strengthen, and stimulate existing organisations of all kinds to the end that desirable immigrants should receive the utmost encouragement. This was more an imperial than a colonial matter, and it was hoped the Press of Great Britain would at least give to the movement all the moral support that its importance demanded.

READY-MADE HOMES IN CANADA FOR BRITISHERS.

Mr. PETERSON says: "Individual effort must be stimulated and a keen sense of responsibility inculcated. It may, therefore, be taken for granted that the class of colonists the railway company will endeavour to interest in its project is one that gives reasonable promise of being successful and independent. The conditions and restrictions surrounding the scheme will be designed with that end in view. The company believes in the small farm. For that reason the holdings will be limited to from 80 to 100 acres of irrigable land, or 160 acres of non-irrigated lands situated in the more humid belt of the west.

"It is the intention of the company to erect all absolutely necessary buildings in advance of the arrival of the colonist. These buildings will be designed to house the settler and his live stock for

the first few years, and until such time as he is able to provide more commodious structures himself, when the original buildings may be utilised by him for other necessary purposes. These structures will be of the class generally erected by the newcomer. Placing contracts for these buildings in a wholesale way will, it is reasonable to suppose, enable the company to obtain the closest possible prices for work and material, of which, of course, the individual colonist reaps the benefit.

“ The initial period is generally the critical one. Colonists often become discouraged, after settling on the virgin prairie, during the time which elapses before a cash revenue begins to come in. Through inexperience many settlers over-estimate the effectiveness of their capital, and a promising career is at times brought to a sudden termination owing to such miscalculation. To make the colonist almost immediately revenue-producing, it will be the aim of the company to break up a portion of each holding, probably from 40 to 60 acres, the year prior to his going into occupation, so that there may be a crop available in a few months after he has taken possession. This crop ought to provide a cash income during the first season, varying from £100 to £250, according to the season and the state of the grain market.

“ The total cost of putting up the necessary buildings, preparing the crop, providing domestic water supply, and enclosing the holding with a suitable fence, will be added to the regular list price

of the land, and the settler will be given the opportunity of repaying the amount in ten equal, annual instalments, with the usual rate of interest on the unpaid balance.

“It would be the company’s intention to settle the colonists in units up to sixteen families. Friends or relatives might in this way arrange to settle close together. This would give a sufficient population to have school facilities provided at once in each settlement. A main road would be graded through the settlement, and a site arranged for school and church at the most central point. In fact, every effort would be made to provide adequate social and educational facilities. The company does not believe in unwieldy colony settlements; besides, the small-colony unit would provide for a more extensive distribution of British settlers throughout Western Canada, and would thus be more in line with the company’s desires.

“Considerable detail has yet to be worked out by the company’s officials before it is possible to deal definitely with the financial phase of the scheme. Indeed, it may be expected that the preliminary programme will be considerably amended after we commence active operations on the new plan, and have an opportunity of studying the class of colonists we shall be dealing with. It is at present expected that the holdings will vary in area from 80 to 160 acres. In some cases they may be slightly larger. The prices at which the company’s lands are at present disposed of vary from

£3 to £8 per acre. It would perhaps be safe to estimate the land value of the average holding at from £600 to £750. It is estimated that the cost of erecting the necessary buildings, placing other improvements on the land, breaking, seed &c., will amount to about £300. To this extent the company proposes to bear the entire financial burden on a ten-year repayment plan.

“The settler’s own capital might advantageously be expended as follows: For the purchase of the necessary live stock, £100; for furniture, household expenses, and horse feed, about £25; one-half the total cost of implements (the balance being repayable to the dealer at a future date), another £50; transportation to Canada, about £25—or a total of £200. The colonist with £200, or over, would, according to the above estimate, be starting under the most favourable auspices. If a settler had grown-up children who could assist in the farm work and were willing to work out for wages part of the time during the first year or two, a somewhat smaller capital would suffice. Six months after going into occupation a crop would be available out of which the settler would be expected to partly fulfil his obligations to the railway company.”

RECENT IMMIGRATION INTO THE WEST.

There are often among the 160,000 who now for some time to come may be expected annually,

families who have themselves quitted the old country in their youth, and can only be called Americans in that they have become naturalised in the United States of America as farmers or farm hands, or in occupations in some one of the many rising towns. The country which was "the back of beyond" has been settled by them, and they have done well; but they think, from the accounts they hear of the northland, that they can do still better. Of such a class was a gentleman whose acquaintance I made in Nebraska. In a fertile, flat part of that State, where patches of wood often showed behind prosperous-looking farms and the neat farmhouses, we stopped the train for the night to enable the ladies of the party to have a quiet evening. A dwelling about a mile away had a track leading to it from the railway line. We walked to the place. I was in advance of the others, and greeted the farmer, who at once returned my good wishes with the words "Come ben." Then I knew I had a Scots countryman before me, and probably a friend. We entered together a neat parlour, and on the wall was a print of the (then) Prince of Wales. I said that the sister of that man, pointing at the print, was making a picture of the house as he might see from the window. He thought I was a madman, and told me that I was ill, and might sit down. But soon he found I was all right, and I got him to come out and speak to the artist, and to believe that I was clothed in my right mind. Now this man has gone north, and

has pitched on another place, and has cultivated it, and probably may move on again, for activity in one place does not suit our folk there so much as energy shown in many. So the Irishman displays his energy, not in asking or buying land he may so easily call his own in the New World, but in going from city to city, seeking where best he may get gold, but staying seldom all his days in any one place. For many years to come there will be newcomers buying up those who have settled before them, and there will be consequent movements, lessened when there is scope for a town to arise, when, as if by magic, a short decade may see various races represented in a community which will gladly practise British law, although many of its community may have had no experience of any system nearly so productive of security and success. Among the Americans who have recently been induced to come north are members of the Mormon settlement about the Great Salt Lake. These men have left their peculiar institutions behind them, and, cultivating the virtues of the usual family life, are greatly valued as good workers, excellent citizens, and most ingenious in their ability to conduct systems of irrigation in dry lands requiring the leading and spreading of water to make them fertile. There are not many such tracts in Canada, but there are a few, and the experience gained in the deserts around Ogden and Salt Lake City have stood these men in good stead in making them to be much sought for as skilled irrigators.

Fifty-nine thousand from the United States, with \$220 apiece, is the calculation made in regard to the increase of population and wealth in one season from one source alone! There was double that number of men and dollars if the influx during 1909 from all sources be counted. Is not this a marvellous result for a territory the old French philosopher of the eighteenth century called "a few acres of snow"? And what is the character of the men and women who have gone northwards over the frontier line, the imaginary physical line that separates the Federal States from the constitutional commonwealth of Canada? They are mostly men of the hardiest European nationalities and races—Danes, Norwegians, Scots, English, some Germans, Dutch, and many Swedes. They have gone north because they have heard that the prairies there are better nourished in moisture and soil than where they first settled. This report has been confirmed to them by those of their friends who in previous years made a move, and wrote that their movement had been wise. Each family has brought with them the household goods they possessed in the States, or has turned them into dollars to buy afresh from the Canadian manufactories, which are ready to supply them with all goods and agricultural implements at less cost than they could obtain them for in their first homes. They are all cheerful and eager to take up the duties of Canadian citizenship. But there is another class other than they who mean to depend on the soil. These are the men of money

who find that the Canadian country is filling up with those who will constitute a fine market, which they mean to keep for Canadians. These capitalists do not mean to be deprived of their market, and so they invest their capital in Canada, employing Canadians in building great factories, whence they can put out their manufactures, and sell without paying the duty exacted on manufactures made in the south. This has brought enormous sums to be employed in paying Canadian labour.

In the year 1894 the Dominion Government withdrew from sale and homestead entry a tract of land containing some millions of acres located east of the city of Calgary, along the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway. The object of that reservation was to provide for the construction, ultimately, of an irrigation scheme to cover the fertile Bow River Valley. The Canadian Pacific Railway Company undertook to construct the gigantic irrigation system in question, and selected as part of its land grant a block comprising three million acres of the best agricultural lands. It had now been opened for colonisation, and this project—the greatest of the kind on the American continent—was being pushed to its completion. The tract had an average width of 40 miles from north to south, and extended eastwards from Calgary 150 miles.

SMALL HOLDINGS IN CANADA.

Having in mind the potentialities of the soil under irrigation and the paramount importance of encouraging British emigrants, Sir Thomas Shaughnessy formulated the broad lines of an agricultural holdings scheme whereby ready-made farms would be provided for them. The large number of applications for land in England under the Small Holdings Act proved the desire of many persons to return to the land, and to secure thereby a brighter future for themselves and their families than they could otherwise have hoped for. In encouraging such persons to emigrate to Canada and take up those small farms, on strictly business lines, much would, it was felt, be done to foster imperial sentiment. Holdings would be limited to 80 or 100 acres of irrigable land, or 160 acres of non-irrigated land, in the more humid belt of the west. Houses and buildings sufficient for the first few years' use would be erected in advance of the immigrants' arrival. The cost of preparing the crop, fencing, and domestic water supply would be added to the cost of land, and be repayable in ten annual instalments. Settlements would be formed in units up to sixteen families, and a main through road, with church and school sites, would be laid out. The Canadian Pacific Railway Company's policy in regard to settlers was somewhat paternal, and its interest in them did not, like an ordinary de-

velopment company, cease when the last instalment had been paid.

The colonists would be carefully selected, and preference would be given to married men with families, and they would be practically partners with the company in Canadian development. Settlement of British lands by British immigrants was an imperial duty, yet in the last fiscal year of Canada only 6900 British settlers made homestead entries, against 10,500 Americans and 3350 Austro-Hungarians. He relied upon British imperial instincts to aid in building up a "greater Empire than has been."

Sir THOMAS SHAUGHNESSY said that the population of Canada had been increasing by leaps and bounds, and it would not be a matter of surprise if the population had increased to 12½ millions before 1920, a large proportion of which would come from the United States and the continent of Europe. Those people were, from the Canadian economic standpoint, useful citizens, but it was eminently desirable that they should introduce a very considerable number of those who had been raised under the British flag. At one time the Canadian Pacific Railway Company might have been accused of endeavouring to utilise British sentiment for the purpose of getting British money if it had advocated that. Those days were past, and no one would suspect them now of having a selfish motive at the back of that proposition. The great difficulty in dealing with the British settler was that he

had had no experience of the conditions in a new country like Canada; it was otherwise with the American farmer who migrated into Canada. The British settler had not been accustomed to hardship, and he (the speaker) did not know why he should want to become accustomed to it. The company were proposing to meet his necessities by the scheme outlined in the paper, so that they would not have to submit to privation at all, but simply move in their furniture and harvest a crop in the autumn after they took possession. It had been said that they would deplete the agricultural population of Great Britain too much by such a scheme. Well, it was transferring people from one part of the British Empire to another part. He was satisfied that, as had happened in Ontario, the places of those who left for the north-west would be filled, and, in England, by the young men who at present drifted into the cities. If they took 100,000 a year of the population to Canada, he had no doubt that their places on the land here would speedily be filled. During the past year two new towns had been established every week in Western Canada, and a new school-house had been put up for every day in the year.

CITY OF EDMONTON.

Applications are being received by Messrs. Glyn, Mills, Currie & Co. for £187,300 $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

sterling debentures of the City of Edmonton. The issue price is 102½ per cent., payable as to 10 per cent. on application, 30 per cent. on allotment, 30 per cent. on August 20, and 32½ per cent. on September 20. The interest dates are June 1 and December 1, and the principal is repayable, at the option of the holder, in Toronto or Montreal as to £4600 on June 1, 1917, £149,500 on June 1, 1929, and £33,200 on June 1, 1949. The debentures constitute a general obligation of the city, and the proceeds are required to carry out works already sanctioned in connection with the development of the city.

Edmonton is the capital and seat of the Legislature of the Province of Alberta; it is the terminus of an important branch of the Canadian Pacific Railway, on the main line of the Canadian Northern Railway, and the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway, when completed, is also to pass through the city. The province has an area of 253,540 square miles, and the city has grown rapidly in the last few years, the population being now estimated at 20,000. The net assessment for 1908 amounted to £4,507,042, and the total debenture debt, including the present issue, is £835,319, and the income from all sources for 1908 was £106,976, while the borrowing powers of the city (exclusive of loans for public works and local improvements) on the present assessable value is £901,408.

LOW TAXES IN THE WEST.

No country or section has lower taxes than Western Canada. In this connection it may be cited that there is no poll tax and no personal property tax. There are taxes for two purposes, namely, local improvements and school maintenance.

The 1908 assessment on unimproved wheat lands of finest quality amounted to $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents per acre or \$8.80 on a farm of 160 acres. The average taxes on a highly improved farm, well located, and in one of the best districts, are \$38, or 12 cents per acre. All farm land taxes are payable in December of each year—after the farmer has sold his crop.

CALGARY.

American agriculturists who purchased land in the Bow Valley last spring and returned to the States to take off the crop on their farms south of the line, have now safely marketed their crops, sold their American holdings, and are bringing the proceeds of the sales into this district. Quite recently a special train of thirty cars arrived here full of American settlers. One hundred people occupied the coaches, and three hundred head of stock and \$100,000 worth of settlers' effects filled the freight cars. The twenty families which composed the

party had purchased 20,000 acres of land north of Strathmore. It is estimated that each family will invest from \$10,000 upwards.

According to an estimate prepared by the Canadian Census Bureau, the population of the prairie provinces, which was only 800,000 in 1906, has increased to 1,100,000 within the past three years.

The estimate is as follows:—

	Census. June, 1906.	Estimates. May 1, 1909.
Manitoba	365,688	484,519
Saskatchewan	257,762	349,645
Alberta	185,412	273,412
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	808,862	1,107,576

Of the increase at least 150,000 is estimated to have come from the United States, as only 148,700 of the overseas immigrants have gone west, 233,000 of them having settled in the older provinces.

An immigrant becomes a ward of the Government for one year. Once a new-comer enters the immigration area—that is, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta—we care for him in sickness or distress, pay his doctor's bills, nurse him, rebuild his house if it burns, and otherwise are responsible for his welfare.

Why do we do it? It pays. We have found that the nearer the Government comes to the immigrant, the nearer the immigrant comes to the

Government. It makes him a better citizen. He feels that he has something better to depend on than even neighbours and friends. And from that feeling springs a regard for his adopted country that can be only likened to a man who adopts religion ; he believes in it.

CHAPTER XVI

SPORT

IT is recorded that long before the invention of motor cars, and when even a good horse in a cab was rare, a London sportsman arrived at New York by steamer and told a hotel messenger to take his things to the nearest good inn, and to have a cab ready to drive him to the buffalo grounds. Alas! there are no more buffalo grounds far or near. The few of the ancient race that survive are State prisoners in "reserves," where they lead an uninteresting existence, and buffalo meat and buffalo "robes" or skins are no longer the cheapest and best cover against the cold of an American winter. Nor can the famous grizzly bear, the next of the large game beasts of the continent, be found, as in the old days, on the banks of the Saskatchewan, or, indeed, anywhere nearer than the Rocky Mountains to the eastward, and of late there have been but very few near the great shallow river that flows from the mountains to the Lake Winnipeg, whence it issues forth under the alias of the name of Nelson, to pour into James Bay, the great inlet of the Atlantic. The present Duke of Richmond once had the luck to kill a grizzly at Fort

Carleton, and he can say what none, or only one or two more can say, namely, that he killed his grizzly with one shot from the saddle. The bear came out of a clump of willows, and Lord March was riding one of the horses belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company at this post, then in charge of Mr. Clark, the companion in remarkable marches of the author of "The Great Lone Land."

To pass to the most imposing form of all among the brutes of the wilderness, the moose can never be called graceful. Indeed, the inclination to "high shoulders," held to be ugly in man, seems doubly ugly in the beasts; and the Canadian buffalo, moose, and white woolly mountain goat are all clumsily and hugely shoulder "humped." The force of the blow of the great "deer's" fore-feet is tremendous, and the safest time to hunt him is in the deep snow that prevents him from leaving the "yards" or trampled snow coverts he prepares for himself and company during the winter. One was tamed to run in harness at Frederickton, New Brunswick, and I had two little fellows, captured on the banks of the Ottawa River, brought to Government House stables, and fairly well educated to run in a light trap. The experiment was, however, not popular with the two moose, or with the stablemen, or with the horses meeting the strange "equipage" or "moose-page" on the road. The horses shied desperately. The moose also shied, and the driver was found lamenting the new fashion of progression,

having picked himself up more or less successfully after "spills" on the wayside—the young moose generally on its legs, but philosophically quiet, and not inclined to seek further adventure. Mr. Cumberland, the thought-reader, who thought he could divine much, failed in divining one of these pets; for when the eldest of them was brought into a dark room, and the diviner had rushed along the passage holding the hand of the man who had been told to think fixedly of something, and the door of the room had been opened and the diviner's hand laid on the shaggy coat of the astonished and silent moose, the blindfolded Mr. Cumberland cried out "A donkey," but no answering yee-haw of asinine approbation greeted his too hasty guess at identification. They grew very quickly, and were finally thought to be too large for a light carriage and too ungainly for a heavy one, and that, in the political language of the country, the expression used when an official is dismissed, "your usefulness is gone," had to be employed, and they were dismissed from the easy life of stall and manger. Of course much the finest of the whole deer tribe is the great red deer of Canada, the wapiti, which existed all over the country at one time, and has his brethren or first cousins in Asia, showing that the sea-sound of Behring Straits is a thing of yesterday, geologically speaking, and that there was no break of land between America and Asia.

The wapiti seems to be the big brother of the red deer. It is difficult to find any distinction

except that of size between the two; yet the one animal is always big and the other always smaller. It is one of those differences which are perpetuated, just as the big negro on the West Coast is a man like the pigmy negro, who has always remained a small man, while the other blacks have remained big. Can mere feeding account for this difference, or can we doubt that food, or other cause combined with food, stunted one deer's or one man's descendants, while others, having much the same opportunities of getting food, remained or became big? The stature of Adam and Eve has never been measured by any of their successors, and we do not know their measurements. Would Eve have looked with much astonishment at an African pigmy moulded as we know he has been moulded—as a small man with a wide nose—ever since the days of Herodotus? Did Eve herself have a nice nose? Who knows? Was Adam reddish, or yellowish, or brownish, or even black? Was his hair quite straight? Was Eve more prehensile in climbing trees and stealing apples than she ought to have been according to modern ideas, and why did not she make Adam climb for her? Could he not manage it on account of not being grasping enough in character or manual dexterity? Why do small differences go on perpetuating themselves from generation to generation? There are two blackbirds in North America, and each kind is so like the other that it is very difficult to distinguish them, especially as they herd together, as chaffinches and bramble finches do in

winter here. Yet the two kinds are distinct, and one kind is fond of building the nest over water and the other is not. Why? They have almost identical bills and building materials, but one kind has one fashion and the other has another idea of picturesque surroundings, but only at breeding time. So wapiti prefer to remain bigger than red deer, though so alike, and have done so. No red deer yet found alive, or fossil or semi-fossil, is quite so large as a wapiti. But I have seen red deer antlers dug out of the ground at the mouth of a Scots river which must have been (for there was only a large fragment by which to judge) very nearly as large as a small wapiti horn. That the red deer were larger in Europe when they had ample feeding and range can be seen from the specimens handed down to us from the Middle Ages in German museums and castles. The reindeer are always called cariboo, and with them there are slight differences—the species which live in the Muskeg swampy country in the far north having feet of greater spread, apparently to assist them in getting safely over the bogs. The natives have never domesticated them, and have made no use of them except as game for food, and have only used their hides for clothing.

Of the great cats there are only the puma or panther and the lynx remaining in Canada. The so-called panther is a handsome, tawny-coloured animal, about the size of a leopard, and the lynx is a finely marked variety still tolerably common.

On the plains there used to be seen frequently

the very pretty little antelope the huntsmen called the Furcifer antelope, the only species known in modern times, and now, alas, exterminated with its friend the buffalo. The dresses of the women of the redskins were usually made of the fine and excellent leather of this graceful creature, which was much cleverer in keeping out of harm's way than were many of the dwellers on the prairie. But it were irony, when we think of sport, to speak of the game the hunters have so easily wiped out as they have "the American bison" and the antelope! There are, however, still plenty of bear—grizzly, and the gaunt and more formidable tawny bear—besides the white wild goat and the graceful big-horn sheep in the Rockies; plenty of moose in Old Canada, and plenty of cariboo in the far north. There, too, in the utmost region of human habitation, in the country of the Esquimaux, and a little farther to the south, are still plenty of the strange, thick-pelted Arctic "cattle," the musk ox, with the queer light patch in the long dark-brown coarse hair in the middle of his back, and the wide-spreading hoofs, formed to support his weight as he passes over the snow. A fierce little bull will give much sport, and, what is more, much good food in places where life is not too easily sustained. Indeed, it is curious how easy it is to starve in many parts of the great North American continent.

The bird life in the woods is not easy to use for food except at certain seasons—indeed, the silence of the great forests has something awful in

it, and one must have one's beans and bacon if wishing to be certain that hunger will not become your only companion. Of water there will probably be no lack in stream and lake, but of flesh there will be little, unless good luck and good hunting give you large game. Among the creatures which have disappeared are the passenger pigeons, which used to be seen in millions. Wilson, the Scots bird lover, who wrote in the eighteenth century, describes the flocks of these birds as darkening the daylight. I passed five years on the North American continent, and visited twenty-three states and territories of the Union, and most of the Canadian districts, and only once saw a single bird of this beautiful species, and that bird was flying along the Assiniboine River near its junction with the Red River of the north, not far from Winnipeg. There is a little dove called the "mourning dove" which may be politely grieving for the "passenger" cousin it seems to be displacing, but it never appears in the gigantic flocks of its predecessor. There are no pigeons like the British stock dove or wood pigeon. But Canada has in her woods several varieties of grouse, or, as the birds are called there, "partridges." None have the excellent taste of the prairie "chicken," which are always excellent if they have round tails or sharp tails, but the forest kinds are very welcome for the camp pot, and are better than the Norwegian reiper. But what a varied "menu" the grouse of Canada provide! There are the Alaska spruce species, the Canadian ruffed, the Canadian

spruce, the Columbian sharp-tailed, the dusky, the Franklin, the gray ruffed, the Hudsonian spruce, the northern sharp-tailed, the Oregon ruffed, the vinnated, the prairie sharp-tailed, the Richardson (named after the naturalist who wrote so charmingly of the natural history of the Mackenzie River valley), the ruffed, and then finally the sooty and the sage—the last a big bird, bigger than the capercailzie, and about as inferior to the other grouse as the big Norwegian is to the black game and red grouse of Scotland. Then there are a few ptarmigan in British Columbia, where pheasants have become acclimatised, and bid fair to be a most valuable addition to the game all along the Pacific coast. What one regrets in the fate of the large wild birds is the almost extinction of the native turkey, once quite common in Eastern Canada, and now rarely seen. But the shooting of this bird must have been so easy that it can hardly be called “sport.” Duck murder is, however, always accounted as sport, however easy it may be, probably because only one kind has been tamed to any great extent by man; and one can shoot nine or ten different kinds of wild duck in one day, with two or three different kinds of geese in the rivers, later in the autumn. What is difficult to explain is why several of these ducks are found all round the northern world, and others of the same powers of flight and fond of the same food are so exclusively American. Thus the dusky duck, in appearance like the female mallard, prefers America, and so do the cinnamon

teal and the red-head, the close friend and companion of the canvas-back. These two think the wild rice so good that Europe is hardly worth visiting. Then there is the lovely wood duck, breeding in trees and refusing to quack, but possessing a pleasant unduck-like note.

British Columbia's hunting grounds comprise an area of 400 by 700 miles, teeming with wild life. Black and grizzly bears, panthers, lynx, mountain sheep and goats, wildcats, wolves, wolverines, moose, cariboo and other species of deer are included in the game list.

As there are usually ten men anxious to have some fishing to one able to afford to make a shooting expedition, it is worth mentioning that good trout fishing can be had in all the streams descending from the Rocky Mountains. In the east there are beautiful clear streams like the Bow River, now well known; and for men who can afford a lengthy journey there is the wonderful fishing in the Upper Mackenzie, while the splendid grayling with the enormous back fin starred with cerulean blue spots gives excellent sport. Away from the hills and swift streams the mysterious universal nature law, which makes trout give place to other fish, of course has its way, and to get them in the low country you must go to the seaside, and there on the Atlantic, from the sub-polar rivers to the American border, along thousands of miles of indented coast, the fly fisherman may find sport. The best rivers near the States are usually leased to American syndicates,

but salmon and trout are to be had all along the shores wherever a stream issues from the low spruce woods to seek its way through the boulder stones thickly spread by the spring ice on the shores, to the salt water. On the Labrador side of the St. Lawrence, for instance, you can take your stand, rod in hand, when the tide is coming in, on one of the rock boulders, or, shifting from one boulder to another by the help of the boat, and so get fresh casts and any number of trout. To hire a little sailing-boat at one of the seaports—a vessel big enough for you to make it a temporary home—and then to sail it in summer along the coast, is a delightful way of obtaining sport. But within reach of the railways there are always lakes where modest baskets may be made with every comfort. Only one more word of advice. Take mosquito-nets, face-guards, and gloves with you, turpentine or other oil, if you desire to remain philosophical and happy. One great argument for coasting along the seaside is that mosquitoes do not admire the salt breezes, and a sea breeze renders it unnecessary to “make a smudge” of smoke, or to wear veils which are not consistent with “free fooders’” desire that your hand reach your mouth with the foreigner mosquito trying to step in also!

Were one creature to grow forth gradually by natural selection and descent from another, we might suppose the shrew mouse, with its tiny trunk nose, to grow into the huge trunked elephant, or the tiny wren to “develop” in ages into some gigantic

bird greater than the vulture. Whether from external resemblances or from structural analogies, namely, those of skeletons, ideas be drawn of gradual development and differentiation of species, nothing in such theories can account for the difference between man and worm, or reptile and bird, unless, indeed, it be assumed that because some reptiles were winged, therefore bird and reptile, feathered or unfeathered, might come from one source. These imaginations do violence to common sense, and seek to shirk belief in the Creator's power of separate "life installation." From geological evidence we may be sure that were climate again to change, and the bare regions of northern and Arctic Europe, Asia, and America to turn again to be lands under tropic heat, there would again be created for them a series of fresh forms of life such as those that peopled these tracts and have left their bones to certify to their existence. It is not long ago in geological time that the forests of Greenland were sweet with flowering magnolias, and the ice-floes of the polar north and south will again be teeming with fervid heat. Do we assume with the philosophers of development of new forms by long descent that the creatures which will then crowd sea and swamp and land will be the descendants of anything we see now, as living with man on the earth of to-day? Why should we, when in man, under most favourable conditions of past life, no tails have been developed, and man's craft and longing has not been able to manufacture one feather to help him

to rival the birds? But enough of such ponderous ponderings. Let us descend to earth or its neighbourhood, and see on the plains in autumn the countless birds which have gone to the far north for what the Scots house advertisers call "retirement with amenity," wing their way south from the icy breeding-grounds, and pausing to amuse themselves with company and chatter on the lakes of the prairies. These lakes you may see any day in September and early October white with wild-fowl. The most striking among these are the white pelicans, swans, and cranes, and then the masses of duck of so many kinds that it is easy for a gunner to bag nine or ten different species in a few hours. Pelicans and cranes are not to be highly recommended, but the swans and the geese are all good, and so are most of the ducks.

These ever differing but so closely allied kinds of grouse or partridges, all belonging to one type, repeat the ever-recurring question no theory propounded by the school of those represented in England by Darwin or Huxley will ever settle. That school of evolution—that is, of belief that all varieties came practically from one ancestral type, modified by climate, food, and circumstances—gets no nearer the question how these dissimilarities in similarity, continued as long as we can trace the different genera, arose, and are preserved to keep species ever alike, ever apart. Why should one of the starling tribe burst out into gold and crimson patches on his shoulders? Why should an old crow in England go

to the southern seas and have the pleasure of seeing his children come out of the nest as birds of paradise, which are in skeleton, voice, and much else crows, gorgeous crows, and nothing more? To find bones of monkey-like men, and to find skeletons of hare-like horses, is no solution of the question. The question is, How does creative power answer to the local need or special opportunity? How does this all-pervading element of life become a living embodiment in flesh and bone, fur and feather and hair-covered, when none existed before those of whose existence we find evidence in rocks? Some are visible to the eye, some are so large that human eye has never seen the like except in the great whales. There are countless millions which are not, and never were, visible to the eye. Are we to look to some of these viewless, tiny atoms as able to come together and be promoted in the scale of creation as builders themselves of higher organisations? Does creative power build up anew and anew the perishing forms of the higher life from the unseen myriads of microbes which are ever warring on each other or on dead matter? Whence is the invisible life fed? We may ask and ask in vain. All we know is that we are a mass of microbes, and that all we see is full of life unseen. Must we be limited in our conception of the origin of life to this Earth, or may pulsing molecules come to recruit even the unseen microbes from other planets? Who can tell? All we can know is that by the testimony of the rocks, hewn, melted, or mixed

before man was known, there was life in greater, as well as in the minute forms on this speck in space, on this world, which seems so big and is so small in comparison with the whirling universe around it. We know, too, that life has always bred kindred forms, but apparently never by direct descent, but by heat, cold, water, salt, or conditions of plain and hill, acting on infusorial or whatever we may call the invisible minute organisms which are everywhere endowed with vital power.

These are some of the mysteries many sportsmen will have puzzled themselves in observing, whether they were shooting or fishing, or amusing themselves by picking up the fossils from rock or bed of clay. The best sportsmen are often the best naturalists, now that they have the microscope to help them. Among no creatures are there more curious differences in similitude than among the salmonidæ, and nowhere can these be studied better than in Canada.

Miss Agnes Deans Cameron, in her admirable new book, "The New North," which should be read by all who either doubt or believe in the undeveloped resources of the far north-west, quotes a resident at Lesser Slave Lake, who said, "No need to starve here. The trout run up to forty lbs. each. There are white fish and grayling, and berries all the year round. In summer there are the red and white currants, raspberries, saskatoons, blueberries, gooseberries, and strawberries,

and all winter long there are both high bush and low bush cranberries." Edmonton, from which this lake is easily reached, is the capital of Alberta Province, and is a great centre for sportsmen.

APPENDIX

THE CANADIAN NORTHERN RAILWAY

THE Canadian Northern Railway is the most distinctive exhibit of the expansion of Canada during the twentieth century. Unlike other great enterprises in the Dominion, it began without long-prepared co-operation of political and financial interests. The western prairies were able to produce from themselves a railway which should extend to the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, and with the possibility came the men with insight, courage, capacity, and experience, who could create an organisation such as had been thought to be impossible aforesaid.

The Canadian Northern began in December 1896 as the Lake Manitoba Railway and Canal Company, with 100 miles of line, beginning at Gladstone, a village 83 miles north-west of Winnipeg, and finding its first terminus at a spot on the prairie called Dauphin. Under several charters, and with the acquisition in June 1901 of 350 miles of the Northern Pacific in Southern Manitoba, the senior prairie province was given its first Canadian competitive service to the head of navigation in January 1902, with the completion of a line from Winnipeg to Port Arthur, then a town of about 2500 inhabitants.

The Canadian Northern has steadily expanded — its growth from the beginning has averaged more than a mile a day—until there are now in operation west of Lake Superior 3215 miles, with about 800 miles under

construction, of which about 400 will shortly be ready for operation; and in Eastern Ontario, Quebec, and Nova Scotia there are, as separate companies, but with sympathetic operation, in anticipation of the linking-up that will make of the Canadian Northern a transcontinental system, railways of 1200 miles of track, with 100 miles more under actual construction.

The Canadian Northern proper reached Edmonton with its main line in November 1905. Edmonton is 1265 miles from Port Arthur. From the eastern boundary of Manitoba the railway traverses the west sections of the provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta, and follows for the greater part of its route the line which was first selected by the Government for the Canadian Pacific Railway, and which was described, after abundant exploration of the whole of the north-west territories, as "The Fertile Belt," another name for the valley of the Saskatchewan.

But the main line is served by feeders nearly twice as long as itself. The heads of the enterprise have been intimately acquainted with Western Canada for many years, and have chosen the best sections of country for their branches. The annual reports of the Company show that from the beginning there has been not only a rapid increase in the total amount of gross and net earnings, but also in the gross and net earnings per mile—the new branch lines have not been even temporarily a drag on the whole.

For example, from the line that is being built from Saskatoon to Calgary, of which only 76 miles was in operation after the 1909 harvest, over 2,000,000 bushels of grain have been hauled over the almost 1000 miles between Saskatoon and Port Arthur. The centre of the 1910 immigration into the great Saskatchewan plains is Kindersley, 60 miles beyond the present operating ter-

minus of this branch at Rosetown, to which the Construction Department, over rails laid before the freeze-up of 1909, were carrying during this spring forty car-loads of settlers' effects daily, while at the town which has sprung up a great business is being done with immigrants who buy stock, lumber, or implements on the spot.

The successful management of the railway, which has not only paid its fixed charges, but has earned a surplus in each year of its existence, has created widespread demands for its extension, in response to which the provincial Governments of Saskatchewan and Alberta, during the legislative sessions of 1909, guaranteed the bonds for branch lines that will give to many new districts their first service, and to others a competitive service. It is worthy of note that these guarantees, in response to public opinion, were given after the close of a shipping season (when every farmer wishes quick despatch of his crop to the head of navigation), during which not a single complaint was made to the Railway Commission of shortage of cars at Canadian Northern points.

The policy of guaranteeing bonds enables capital to be cheaply obtained, especially as the Canadian Northern Railway has not called upon any Government to implement any guarantee that has been given. The past winter has furnished a striking example of the confidence engendered in Canada by this record. The province of British Columbia, desirous of obtaining direct connection with the prairie provinces through a railway that has established large earnings over a vast extent of rapidly developing territory, appealed to the country on a proposal to guarantee the bonds of 600 miles of the Canadian Northern from the Yellowhead Pass to Vancouver, and from Victoria to Barkley Sound, on the west coast of Vancouver Island, at the rate of \$35,000 per mile. The elections returned only four opponents of the

Government in a House of forty, and an Act has since been passed completing the guarantees, and providing for the building of the road within four years, and construction is now under way.

East of Port Arthur there are two gaps to be bridged by the Canadian Northern Ontario Railway in order to connect the west with St. Lawrence tidewater—from Port Arthur to Goroconda Junction, about 470 miles, and join Toronto to Ottawa. The survey of the former line is being completed, and Ontario legislation provides for a land grant of 2,000,000 acres. The first 100 miles between Toronto and Ottawa, now in hand, will be finished in 1910. Arrangements are being made for connecting also with Buffalo, to handle American business. The line between Toronto and Goroconda Junction, 320 miles, serves, besides the Nenskotta Lakes, a large farming, lumbering, and mineral district, a branch line to the ore docks at Key Harbour, on Georgian Bay, having been constructed to handle the output of the Moose Mountain iron mines. The Canadian Northern Ontario has also been constructed from Ottawa to Hawkesbury, where by connection with the Canadian Northern Quebec the Dominion capital has a new railway service to Montreal and Quebec.

The Canadian Northern Railway also has the closest relations with steamship lines on the great lakes, and therefore handles its freight during the summer from Montreal to Edmonton. The year 1910 is notable for the inauguration of the fast fortnightly service of the Canadian Northern steamships, the *Royal Edward* and the *Royal George*, between Bristol, Quebec, and Montreal, beginning on May 12. Immigrants will therefore be taken from Bristol to Edmonton by the Canadian Northern, except for the distance between Ottawa and Port Arthur.

As an enterprise not vital to the ocean-to-ocean development, but giving to Nova Scotia a much-desired railway service, the Halifax and South-Western Railway, serving the south shore, the centre of the province, and part of the Annapolis Valley, is controlled by the Canadian Northern, as is also an important coal-carrying line in Cape Breton Island, which has created the town of Inverness, and given large business to the ice-free port of Port Hastings, on the straits of Canso, the length of both Nova Scotia lines being 431 miles.

CANADIAN NORTHERN RAILWAY COMPANY

SEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE DIRECTORS

Submitted to the Shareholders of the Company at the Annual General Meeting held at the Company's Offices in Toronto on Saturday, the Thirtieth day of October 1909.

To the Shareholders—

The results of the Company's operations for the fiscal year ended 30th June 1909 are as follows :—

GROSS EARNINGS—

From Passenger Traffic	\$1,928,686.35
From Freight Traffic	7,481,325.94
From Express, Mail, Telegraph, Dining and Sleeping Cars, Interest and Profits from Elevators and other Subsidiary Companies .	1,171,755.64

\$10,581,767.93

Working Expenses (including Taxes, &c.)	7,015,405.76
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Net Earnings	\$3,566,362.17
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Fixed Charges (as per statement, page 16)	2,919,617.13
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Surplus for the year	<u>\$646,745.04</u>
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The average mileage operated during the year ended 30th June 1909 was 3013 miles, compared with 2866 miles for the preceding year.

The gross earnings show an increase of \$872,305.22, or 8.98 per cent., and a gain in net earnings of \$533,675.28, or 17.60 per cent., over the preceding year.

The working expenses were 72.55 per cent. of the gross earnings of the railway proper, and 66.30 per cent. of the gross earnings from all sources, compared with 74.10 per cent. and 68.77 per cent. respectively last year.

The increase in gross earnings, while comparing favourably with the increased mileage operated, is not as large as your Directors hoped. This is explained in part by the unusually quiet conditions of business generally throughout the Dominion, which was reflected in a substantial decrease in the movement of westbound commodity traffic, a standard of traffic which earns for all railways the highest rates. Since the close of the fiscal year, however, there has been a very gratifying increase in the four months' business to 31st October over the corresponding period of last year of \$561,300, and to this increase the westbound traffic has contributed largely; indeed, the volume of business received from the manufacturing sections of Eastern Canada and from Great Britain is quite as large as in the buoyant years of 1905 and 1906.

Your Directors are confident that a proportionate increase over last year's figures will continue, for the grain crop of 1909 is one of the best for several years, and grades uniformly higher than any previous year. This opinion is fully sustained by the larger milling interests and the elevator companies operating in Western Canada. While the increase in yield and quality extends over the entire territory served by your Railway, the outstanding fact of the year is the leading position gained by the Province of Saskatchewan in the production of wheat and other grains.

The following figures are taken from the last estimates of the Minister of Agriculture for the Province of Saskatchewan, published on October 2, 1909:—

	Bushels.
Wheat	84,000,000
Oats	102,800,000
Barley	8,000,000
Flax	3,800,000

The rapid rise of the Province of Saskatchewan to pre-eminence is especially gratifying to your Directors, because it is chiefly in that Province that they have extended the mileage of your Railway during the last four years. It has been their aim to acquire the advantages of first construction in the best districts of all sections of the Province; and their efforts to pre-empt, as it were, the most advantageous positions for the Company have been co-existent with the desires of the farming population, expressed through their representatives in the Legislatures, to be served by your Railway. The case of the extension of the railway from Saskatoon towards Calgary admirably illustrates this aspect of the policy of your Directors. During the year sixty miles of the line were opened for traffic, and it is estimated will furnish your Railway with two million bushels of grain for shipment to Port Arthur, one thousand miles distant. The line has recently been extended an additional sixty miles to the new town of Kindersley, and the grading has been completed for a further sixty miles. The railway traverses the most fertile section of the Great Saskatchewan Plains, in which your Company has heavy holdings of land in the vicinity of the homesteads and pre-emptions which constitute the greatest remaining block of surveyed unoccupied wheat lands of this continent. The extension of your

lines in the Province of Saskatchewan is the logical outcome of the methods adopted in Manitoba, which have proved so satisfactory in every way.

In the Province of Alberta, following a demand to connect Edmonton with Calgary and the southern portion of the Province, the construction of a line has been rapidly pushed forward; steps are also being taken towards reaching the coal fields of the Brazeau River, in which are most extensive deposits of easily mined high-grade coal. It is expected that your Railway will reach Calgary from the north and the east next year, and that Southern Alberta will be served in the following year. These extensions in territory, which afford a large and expanding market for British Columbia, have already produced a widespread demand for the speedy continuation of your Railway to the Pacific Coast.

Your Directors are glad to note the further justification of their policy of selling lands to the homeseeker as against the speculator that is seen in the substantial increase in the areas under cultivation in all the districts tributary to your newer branch lines. Adjacent to the line between Saskatoon and Calgary, now completed, your Directors have sold large quantities of land, on which the increase in cultivated areas, since the railway was built, is phenomenal. At Rosetown, to take one example, which has only since the close of the present fiscal year been placed under the Operating Department, three elevators have already been built to receive the grain now being threshed.

The land sales during the past year were 116,662 acres, and realised \$1,091,722.37—an average of \$9.36 per acre. Whilst the acreage sold was less than that of the previous year, the average price realised has been increased by \$1.04 per acre. Very satisfactory land sales have been made since the close of the fiscal

year at still higher prices, and negotiations are now going forward for numerous sales at further enhanced values.

The increase in facilities for the production of grain, cattle, and other farm product has the double advantage of increasing the demand for lumber and other building materials, the manufacture of which, at various points on your Railway, becomes each year a more important traffic factor. At Fort Frances large pulpwood and paper mill industries are being established in connection with the development of the water-power at that point; but a notable feature of the recent expansion of the Western Canadian Provinces is the multiplication of general manufacturing plants, chiefly in the City of Winnipeg, where there are now 144 operating factories of all kinds.

During the last five years certain allied companies have been amalgamated with your Company, in addition to which a large amount of new mileage has been added to the system in respect of all which an adjustment of the capital stock has been made during the year.

During the year, by the direction of the shareholders, £1,027,400 Four Per Cent. Land Grant Bonds were issued on the security of 1,250,000 acres of selected lands, the proceeds of which have been applied to the general purposes of the Company. Your Directors have exercised their authority under the Mortgage to redeem part of the issue, and from payments received on land sales have retired £40,000 of the Bonds, so that the liability is now £987,400 or \$4,805,346.66, as it appears in the general balance sheet.

Additional Car Trust obligations were incurred amounting to \$2,500,000.00, to provide the necessary equipment of all kinds to meet the requirements of traffic. Obligations incurred for the same purpose in previous years were repaid to the extent of \$2,350,000.00 during

the year, so that the liability on this account has been increased by only \$150,000.00.

In pursuance with your Directors' policy of keeping pace in every way with the development of each section of country served by your Railway, it has been necessary to incur further large expenditures in maintaining and improving the physical conditions of your property as a whole. At Port Arthur additional docks and sheds for the accommodation of both passengers and freight traffic carried over the Great Lakes have been constructed. Interests closely allied with your Railway are building a palatial hotel in close proximity to your station at Port Arthur, which will be ready for next summer's tourist business. Industrially the city continues to make satisfactory progress. The Atikokan Iron Company's furnaces are continuing to produce an excellent quality of pig iron, the ore for which is hauled by your Railway. The construction of an extensive shipbuilding plant within the city's limits has been started; and other enterprises requiring large quantities of iron for the Western market will be commenced shortly. In Winnipeg the completed Fort Rouge shops have proved of great value in the economical maintenance of equipment. The Fort Garry Station, in which the Dominion Government and Grand Trunk Pacific Railway will be your tenants, is nearing completion, and will, it is expected, be in full use next spring.

The connection of your Railway at Fort Frances with the Duluth, Rainy Lake, and Winnipeg Railway has induced a satisfactory traffic from the Middle Western States through the important port of Duluth. This connection gives to your Railway a much longer haul than heretofore from the growing passenger and freight business originating in the United States.

The lines under construction in Alberta will furnish

abundant traffic immediately they are opened; for in the Central and Southern parts of that Province the need for additional railways has been strongly represented to your Directors. To the north of Edmonton and in the extensive Peace River district there is already the nucleus of prosperous agricultural settlement; and a general trade throughout a territory five times as large as the United Kingdom, at present without railway service.

WM. MACKENZIE,
President.

From the latest available information we find that the following figures represent the number of immigrants who are known to have entered Canada during 1910:—

January	6,638
February	10,162
March	33,065
April	48,182
May	47,589

From 1st March to 1st August the emigration from the British Isles to Canada reached a total of 41,452, a figure which is 20,000 more than that for the same time last year.

Regarding the number of acres taken up last year and in the present year, it is stated that for the year ended 31st March 1909 the number of homesteads (160 acres) reported was 39,081. The figures for the current year (1910), so far as they are available, are as follows:—

	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.
Manitoba	152	161	202	324	281	354	307
Saskatchewan	976	1069	2688	4240	3745	3440	2576
Alberta	1558	1007	1901	2620	2328	1985	1356
British Columbia	12	17	28	25	20	23	21

2

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INDEX

A

Acadia, 263
 Adams, John, 263
 Agricultural implements, prices,
 32
Alabama, 226, 227, 281
 Alaska boundary arbitration,
 261, 290 *seq.*
 — Purchased by United States,
 288, 296
 Alberta, 102 *seq.*, 406, 412
 — Cattle traffic and feeding,
 114
 — Cement, 104
 — Cheese factories and cream-
 eries, 111
 — Chinook winds, 102
 — Dryness, 108
 — Education, 116
 — Emigration and immigrants,
 117, 118, 388, 389
 — Medicine Hat wheat, 117
 — Railway and Irrigation Com-
 pany, 182
 — Settlers' letters, 105, 106,
 107
 — Southern farms, 187
 — University, 116
 — Wheat and cereals, 103, 110,
 115, 117
 Alexander Archipelago, 290, 293,
 312
 Alexander, Emperor, ukase, 291
 Alexander, Sir William, charter
 of Nova Scotia, 268
 Alverstone, Lord, 306, 308, 309,
 310, 316, 317
 Annapolis, 53, 409

Antelope, 395
 — Disappearing, 100
 Apples, 31
 — Orchards at Fundy, 53
 Armour, Judge, 306
 Armstrong, I. O., "Some Re-
 sources and Openings," 169
 Aroostook Valley, 275
 Arthur, R., on emigration of
 youths, 340 *seq.*
 Asphalt field, 123
 Asquith, Rt. Hon. H. H., on free
 trade, 242, 244
 Astor, Jacob, 279, 291
 Athabasca, 120 *seq.*, 193
 — Asphalt field, 123, 124
 — Bitumen, 123, 124
 — Gas well, 122
 — Mineral wealth, 120
 — North land's resources, 120
 seq.
 — Oil fields, 122
 — Poplars and other woods,
 125
 — Timber industry, 124
 Atikokan Iron Company, 414
 Austen, Mr., 93
 Australia, attitude towards pre-
 ference, 230, 231, 234, 235, 238,
 239, 244, 245, 253, 254
 — Demand for immigrants,
 342
 Aylesworth, A. B., 306, 308, 309

B

Bagot, Sir Charles, 292, 294, 312,
 313

- Baker, Mount, 56, 179
 Balfour, Rt. Hon. A. J., speech
 on Imperial naval policy, 159
 Bankers' report on cost of living
 in Canada, 355
 Barber, William, on Alberta, 103
 Barclay, Thomas, 269
 Baring, Alexander, Lord Ashbur-
 ton, 274, 276
 Barnardo boys in Canada, 325
 seq., 344
 Barnstead, Arthur S., 47, 48
 Bastiat's doctrines, 229, 354
 Bayard, Secretary of State, 288
 Bear, grizzly, 390, 395
 Bear-hunting, 66
 Beaufort, Lake, 1
 Belly River, 109, 167
 Benson, Egbert, 269
 Beresford, Lord Charles, on im-
 perial naval policy, 161
 Bison, 92
 Blackbirds, two kinds, 393
 Blaine, Secretary of State, 288
 Blake, Edward, 22, 299
 Board of Trade as Committee of
 Privy Council for Trade, &c.,
 348
 Bond, Sir Robert, on preference,
 242
 Borden, Mr., on Canadian naval
 policy, 143 *seq.*
 Botha, General, on preference,
 242
 Bow River, 109, 398
 Bow River Valley, irrigation
 scheme, 382
 Brazeau River coal fields, 412
 Bredt, P. M., on Prince Rupert,
 205
 Brierly, on cable communication,
 371
 Bristol, 408
 British and German navies, 146
 seq.
 British Columbia, 54 *seq.*, 228,
 280, 407, 412
 — Boundaries, 59, 60, 297
 — Coal mines, 58
 British Columbia Valley. *See*
 that title
 — Dairying, 56
 — Fertile lands, 54
 — Fruit-growing, 55, 56
 — Game, 65 *seq.*
 — Gold in, 298
 — Hunting-grounds, 298
 — Kettle River Valley, 59, 60
 — Kootenays coal mines, 58
 — Letters from emigrants,
 335
 — Minerals, 58
 — Official map, 301
 — Prince Edward Island.
 See that title
 — Products and scenery, 58
 — Size, 56, 57
 — Vancouver Island, 60 *seq.*
 See that title
 Brodeur, on Canadian manu-
 factures and navy, 138 *seq.*,
 319
 Brown, Chas. H., 107
 Brown, George, 319
 Bryce, James, in Montreal, 261
 Buchanan, Secretary of State,
 280
 Buffalo, 12, 408
 — Bones at Regina, 84
 — Scarce, 92, 100, 176, 390
 Buxton, Sydney, 339
- C
- Cable communication, value of,
 371 *seq.*
 Calgary, 113, 167, 387, 406, 411,
 412
 — Brick-making, 104
 — Irrigation scheme, 168, 382
 California, 225, 279
 Cameron, Agnes Deans, "The
 New North," 403
 Campbelltown, 10
 Canada, 265
 — Agricultural belt of north-
 west, 199

- Canada, Attitude towards preference, 3, 189, 230, 233, 250, 353, 355, 357
- Barnardo boys in, 325 *seq.*, 344
- Boundaries, 225 *seq.*, 263 *seq.*, 274 *seq.*
- Cost of living in, 355
- Desires outlet on Arctic, 219 *seq.*
- Eastern, mineral belt, 198
- — Progress in, 185
- Foreign firms in, 357
- Immigration, 194, 373, 375
- — Into west, 378 *seq.*
- — Settlers' capital, 378
- Industry, Van Horne on, 3 *seq.*
- Larger influence and responsibility, 320, 359
- Lumber industry, 357
- Manufactures, 138
- Military defence, 134 *seq.*, 151 *seq.*, 160
- Militia, 72, 134, 135, 136, 154, 155
- National highways, 167 *seq.*
- Naval policy, 126, 128 *seq.*, 139 *seq.*, 157, 161 *seq.*, 188
- Population, 223, 364
- Port on Lynn Canal, 311, 314, 315
- Position of, 128
- Ready-made homes for Britishers, 375
- Small holdings in, 383
- Sport, 390 *seq.*
- Statistics, 364 *seq.*
- — Expenditure and Debt, 365
- — Imports, 366, 367
- — Mine products — exports, 368
- — Mineral products — imports, 369
- — Population, 364
- — Revenue, 364
- Treaties concerning. *See* Treaties
- Canada, Western, low taxes, 387
- Canadian Northern Railway, 184, 405 *seq.*
- Branches, 406
- Car Trust, 413
- Dauphin, 405
- Duluth, Rainy Lake, and Winnipeg Railway, 414
- Fort Garry Station, 414
- Growth, 405, 406
- Halifax and South-Western Railway, 409
- Lake Manitoba Railway and Canal Company, 405
- Land sales, 412
- Linking-up, 406
- Management, 407
- Northern Pacific Railway, 405
- Ontario Railway, 408
- Organisation, 405
- Quebec, 408
- Report, October 1909, 409 *seq.*
- Steamships, 408
- Canadian Pacific Railway Company, 167 *seq.*, 406
- Angus shops, 189
- British emigrants, 185
- Capital, 176
- Cars, 178
- Cheaper grain, 169
- Construction work, 167, 174, 181
- Exhibitions, 171
- Farms, 168, 186, 375 *seq.*
- Fertility of lands along route, 177, 178
- Flower-gardens at stations, 170
- Functions, 190
- Hotels, 170, 178, 190
- Immigration scheme, 190, 375 *seq.*, 383 *seq.*
- Industrial, 169
- Irrigation and fruit-farming, 168, 382
- Lands Department, 169
- Lethbridge, 167

- Canadian Pacific Railway, Manufacturers' customers, 190
 — Report, June 1908, 177, 179
seq.
 — Sections, four, 175
 — Settlers, fine chance for, 186
 — Steamships, 190, 347
 — Summer camps, 170
 — Telegraphs and telephones, 171
 — Through traffic, 172, 173
 — Wages, 190
 — Wisconsin Central Railroad, 167
 Canning, Sir Stratford, 313
 Cape Breton Island, 409
 — Steel Company, 47, 49
 — Sydney coal mines, 45
 Cariboo (reindeer), 11, 12, 40, 41, 66, 67, 68, 394, 395, 398
 Carleton, Sir Guy, 271
 Carleton, Thomas, 272
 Carpet cactus, 108
 Cartwright, Sir R., 320
 Cascapedia River, 10
 Cassiar game district, 66, 67
 — Gold mines, 298
 Cattle in Alberta, 114
 Cattle in Manitoba, 79, 80
 Cavalry, "riders of the plains," 91
 Cedar or thuya, 19
 Cement, 104
 Chaleurs, Bay of, 10, 12, 268
 Champlain, Canadian soldier, 8
 Champlain, Lake, 9
 Charlottetown sheep exhibition, 69
 Charlton, John, 320
Charybdis, 129
 Chatham, Lord, 263
 Chatham, New Brunswick, 37
 Chilcat River, 297
 Chipman, Ward, senr. and junr., 269, 271, 273
 Churchill Rivers, 223
 Churchill, Winston, on preference, 239, 251
 Clarence Strait, 312
 Clarendon, Lord, 282
 Clarke and Lewis, expedition, 1806, 279
 Climatic changes, 400
 Coal mines, 45, 46, 121
 Cobalt and silver, 19, 26, 27, 198, 368
 Cobden's doctrines, 229 *seq.*, 354
 Colonies and Imperial Government, 347 *seq.*
 — "Pros" and "Cons," 351
 Colonies, attitude towards preference, 228 *seq.*, 250, 252, 256, 353 *seq.*, 362. *See* Australia, Canada, &c.
 Columbia River, 174, 175, 280, 293
 Columbia Valley, 63 *seq.*, 64
 — Farms, 65
 — Fisheries, 64
 — Fruits, 64, 169
 — Gold mining, 64
 Conferences, 259
 — Fiscal, 228 *seq.*, 253, 322
 — — Arguments, 252 *seq.*
 — — Colonies' position, 229
 — — Commercial relations, 251
 — — Free markets, 239
 — — Resolutions, 250
 — — Tariffs, 230 *seq.*
 — Imperial defence, 143, 144, 159 *seq.*
 — Results, 322
 Conger, Captain, 72
 Connecticut River, 265
 Cornwallis, surrender at Yorktown, 263
 Cranes, 401
 Creosote, 45, 46
 Croal, on sections of Canadian Pacific Railway, 175
 Crow's Nest Pass Railway, 62
 Cumberland, thought-reader, and moose, 392
 Curling, 21
 Curtis, Fred, 76
 Custer, General, 97

D

- Dafoe, on cable communication, 371
 Davis, Sir Louis, 320
 Dawson, 193
 Dawson, George M., 315
 De Monts, 269
 Deakin, Hon. A., on preference, 231, 234, 238, 252, 253
 Deer, 12, 40, 66
 Deer, red, 392, 394
 Delfosse, M., 286
 Denison, Colonel, 33
 Denmark, railway preference, 239
 Dixon, Captain Homer, 72
 Dominion Steel and Iron Company, 46, 47, 49, 51
 Dorchester, Lord, 272
 Dove, "mourning," 396
 Duck-shooting, 397
 Dufferin, Lord, 321
 Duluth Port, 414
 Dunn, Hon. A. J., 42
 Dyea, 300, 312

E

- Eagle Narrows, 175
 Edmonton, capital of Alberta, 87, 192, 218, 385, 406, 408, 412, 415
 — Bridge, 269
 — Centre for sportsmen, 403
 — City debentures, 385
 Elk River, 62
 Emigration, 82, 338 *seq.*
 — British sentiment and, 5, 372, 373, 375, 385
 — Information office, 338
 — Letters from Dr. Barnardo's boys and girls, 107, 325 *seq.*
 — State-aided, 340 *seq.* *See also* Immigration
 Empire Day celebrations, 138
 Esher, Lord, on naval defence, 160
 Esquimalt, 129, 130

- Evans, Major, 72
 Evarts, American Secretary of State, 22
 Evolution, 401

F

- Federation, 125
 Ferdinand, Prince, 35
 Fish, Secretary of State, 283
 Fishery, British rights of, 349
 Fishery question, 278, 284, 286, 287
 Flies, black and Brulé, 12
 Flook, Joseph, 106
Florida, 281
 Fly-fishing, 398
 Ford, F. C., 287
 Forests, silence of, 395
 Fort Churchill, 219
 Fort Frances, 413, 414
 Fort William, 198, 218
 Foster, George E., 78
 Foster on "Trade follows the flag," 357
 Fox, Charles, 263
 Foxes, yellow and silver, 12, 221
 Franklin, Benjamin, 277
 Franklyn, negotiated Treaty of Paris, 1783, 263
 Fraser River, 172, 175
 Frechette, Louis, 2
 Frederick the Great, 35
 Frederickton, 37
 French Canadian attitude towards British flag, 2
 French, General Sir John, on Imperial Defence Committee, 164
 Fundy, Bay of, 133, 267
 — Lands round, 52
 Fur animals, 12
 Fur traders, 279, 290 *seq.* *See* Russian and Hudson's Bay Co.

G

- Galt, Sir Alexander, 286, 322
 — Irrigation works, 109

- Game, 390 *seq.*
 Gas well, 122
 Gaspé, on Bay of Chaleurs, 133
 Gatinau River, 25
 Geese, 222, 397, 401
 George, Rt. Hon. D. Lloyd-, on preference, 236, 247, 248
 Georgia, Gulf of, 60
 Georgian Bay Canal, 33
 German Naval Bill, 1900, 146 and *n.*
 Germany and Great Britain, 127
 — Emperor of, as arbitrator, 286
 — State support of shipping lines, 346
 Girls as emigrants, 344
 Girouard, Sir Percy, 132
 Gladstone, W. E., on strength of England, 145
 Gladstone Village, 405
 Goat-hunting, 67
 — White wild, 395
 Gold in Athabasca, 120
 — In British Columbia, 298
 — In Yukon, 300
 Goroconda Junction, 408
 Graham, Sir Hugh, on emigration, 372
 Grand Trunk Railway Company, 186, 191 *seq.*
 — Canada Atlantic Report, 215
 — Detroit, Grand Haven, and Milwaukee Report, 216
 — Pacific, 191 *seq.*
 — — Agreements with Government, 194, 196
 — — Branch lines, 191 *seq.*
 — — Bridges, 217
 — — Capital, 194
 — — Course, 192, 200
 — — Divisions, 195 *seq.*
 — — Gradients, summits, 202, 203
 — — Lake Superior Branch, 198
 — — Prairie section, 199, 218
 — — Prospects, 204
 Grand Trunk Pacific Termini, 195, 204
 — — Yellowhead Pass route, 200
 — — Prospects, 208
 — — Receipts, 218
 — — Report, Ap. 1909, 209 *seq.*
 — — Western Report, 216
 Grant, General, 282
 Grayling, 398
 Great Britain—
 — Attitude towards Canada, 223, 225, 226, 261 *seq.*, 303 *seq.*, 318 *seq.*
 — Attitude towards preference, 254 *seq.*, 258, 355
 — Difficulties with United States, 1871, 281 *seq.*
 — Germany and, 127
 — Trade with, 4
 — Treaty of Paris with United States, 1783, 262 *seq.*
 — Wine trade, 246
 Greenland forests, 400
 Greig, Professor R. B., on Alberta, 103
 Grenville, Thomas, 263
 Grey, Earl, on British Columbia, 55
 — On Colonies and Imperial Government, 347 *seq.*
 — On Immigration, 119
 Griffen, Sir Samuel, on preference, 253
 Grouse ("partridges"), 396, 401
 Gypsum on Peace River, 121
- ## H
- Halibut-fishing, 207
 Halifax and South-Western Railway, 409
 Halifax, Port, 52, 129, 130, 133, 150, 157, 195, 208
 Hall, Sydney, 93
 Hannan, Lord, 289
 Hare, forest, 11
 Haro Straits, 60

- Hawkesbury, 408
 Hay scarce in Alberta, 107, 115
 Hays, President, 205
 Heaton, Henniker, 339
 Henderson, Captain, 275
 Herschell, Lord, 320
 Hill, James, 173
 Hodgins, Thomas, on Great Britain and Canada, 281
 Hofmeyer, on preference, 254
 Howard, John, 48
 Howell, David, 269
 Hudson's Bay Company, 225
 — Recompensed, 176
 — Trading posts, 177, 192, 279, 293, 313
 Hunter, Joseph, 300
- I
- Ice-cutting yachts, 20
 Illinois, 266
 Immigration, 3, 5, 77. *See also* Emigration
 Immigration League of Australasia, 342
 Imperial Conferences. *See* Conferences.
 Imperial Government and colonies, 347 *seq.*
 — Council, 259
 — "Pros" and "cons," 351
 India, preference affecting, 241, 244
 Indiana, 266
 Indians—
 — Articles of commerce, 96
 — Blackfeet, 88, 89, 193
 — — Councils, 98
 — — Poundmaker, Crowfoot, 97
 — Buffalo-hide tepees, 88, 92, 96
 — Councils and speeches, 98, 100
 — Crees, 193
 — Names, 193
 — Power of endurance, 94, 95, 97
- Indians, Red, headquarters, 87, 88
 — Reserve lands, 101
 — Sioux, 193
 — — Chief, Sitting Bull, 97
 — — Councils, 98
 — Sun dance, 93
 — Taste in dress, 95
 — Weapons, 97, 98
 Inverness, 409
 Investments in Canada, 76, 77
 Iron mines at Wabana, 45
 Irrigation, 109
- J
- James' Bay shores, 222
 Jameson, Dr., on preference, 241, 247, 248
 Jameson, Mr., 150
 Japanese question of immigration into Canada, 3, 323
 Jay, John, 263
 Jette, Sir Louis, 306, 308, 309
 Johnson, Reverdy, 282
 Johnstone, Hon. J. W., 275
- K
- Kamloops, 176
 Kannaghunut Island, 308, 309
 Kenebec River, 272
 Ketchen, Captain, 72
 Kettle River Valley, 60
 Key Harbour, 408
 Kimberley, Lord, 354
 Kindersley, 406, 411
 Kingston, Military College, 20, 33, 132, 135, 143, 152, 153
 Kirby, "The Golden Dog," 23
 Knight, L. B., 42
 Kootenay River, 62
 Kootenays, coal mines, 58
- L
- La Crosse, 88 *seq.*
 Labrador, 12

Lachine Rapids, 3
 Lacombe, 192
 Lake, Mr., 144
 Lake of the Woods, 174, 192, 223, 265
 Laurier, Sir Wilfrid, 45, 320, 347
 — Address in Toronto, 126 *seq.*
 — On Naval Service of Canada, 142, 143
 — On Preference, 230, 233, 249, 250, 252, 254
 Lawrence, Fredk. S., on "Resources of the Great Northlands," 120 *seq.*
 Lemieux, Hon. M., 2, 323, 339
 Levis, French governor, 7, 8
 Little Metis River, 269
 Lobinière, Sir Jolli de, 2
 Lodge, Senator, 302
 Longley, Justice, 223
 — On relations between Great Britain and Canada, 261 *seq.*
 Louisbourg, fortifications, 9
 Lower Arrow Lake, 59
 Lumsden, 86
 Lyne, Sir William, on fiscal policy, 235, 243, 245
 Lynn Canal, 294, 297, 300, 314, 316
 Lynx, 394, 398

M

Macdonald, Dr. J. A., on cable communication, 372
 — Sir John, 32, 173, 283, 284, 285, 353
 Macdonell, Major, 72
 M'Gregor, Dr. James, 93
 Mackay, Sir James, on preference, 241, 244
 Mackenzie River, Upper, 398
 M'Millan, Sir Daniel and Lady, 72
 Madawaska Colony and River, 270, 271, 273, 274
 Maine, 267

Manitoba, 70 *seq.*, 406, 412
 — Boys' review, 70 *seq.*
 — Cattle, 79
 — Immigrants, 388, 389
 — Natural resources, 78
 — Prairie provinces, 74, 76
 — Wheat production, 78-80
 Maple tree and sugar, 16, 17
 March, Lord, 391
 Marker, Dairy Commissioner, 112
 Martin, Peter, 298
 Mason and Slidell, 226
 Massachusetts, 267, 268, 270
 Metapedia River, 10
 Methakatla, "Holy City," 206
 Michigan, 266
 Millar, Duff, on New Brunswick, 38 *seq.*
 Minerals in Ontario, 26
 Minneapolis mills, 5
 Minnesota, 266
 Minto, Earl, protests to Colonial Secretary, 303, 304
 Mississippi River, 265
 — Source, 109
 Missouri River, source, 109
 Monk, Mr., 150
 Monkton, 37, 195, 196
 Montcalm, Marquis, 7, 8
 Montreal, capital of old Quebec, 6, 198, 408
 — Growth of, 185
 — Position, 3, 207
 — Victoria tubular bridge, 9
 Moor, Hon. F. R., on preference, 241
 Moose, 11, 36, 37, 40, 41, 66, 67, 68, 395, 398
 — In harness, 391
 Moose Mountain iron mines, 408
 Morier, Sir Robert, 323
 Mormon emigrants, 380
 Mormons, irrigation works, 109
 Mosquitoes, 12, 399
 Moxley, American minister, 283
 Musk ox, 12, 395
 Muzon, Cape, 307, 309

N

- Nanaimo, 130, 133
 Natal, 361
 — Attitude towards preference, 241
 National highways, 167 *seq.* See titles of railways
 Nebraska, 379
 Negroes in United States, 224
 Nelson River, 220, 221
 Nenskotta Lakes, 408
 Nesselrode, Count, 312
 Netherlands, King of the, award, 273
 New Archangel (Sitka), 290, 293
 New Brunswick, 35 *seq.*, 267
 — Boundary dispute with Quebec, 275
 — Cheese and butter factories, 39
 — Connection with Great Britain, 35
 — Crown Lands Settlement Act, 42
 — Education, 40
 — Emigration, 37, 38
 — Famous for sport, 36
 — Farms, 37, 38
 — Fishing dispute, 36
 — Fishing regulations, 41
 — Land grants, 39, 42
 — Shooting season, 40
 — Sportsman's guide, 42
 — University, 40
 New France. See Canada
 New South Wales, attitude towards preference, 353
 New Zealand, attitude towards preference, 240
 — *Dreadnought*, 145, 154
 Newfoundland and Labrador fishing, 278
 Newfoundland iron mines, 45
 Niagara Falls, 23
 Nickel, 19, 26, 27, 198
 Nipigon, Lake, 192
 Nipissing, Lake, 175
 Nova Scotia, 44 *seq.*, 267, 270, 406

- Nova Scotia, Annapolis, 53
 — Boundaries, 270
 — British emigrants, 47
 — Charter, 268
 — Coal, 45, 50
 — Farms for sale, 47
 — Fruit exhibits, 48
 — Gold mining, 51
 — Manufactures, 45, 50
 — Official report on, 47
 — Railway service, 409
 — Steel output, 1908, 50
 — Tonnage, 52

O

- Ogden, 380
 Ohio, 265, 266
 Oilfields, 122
 Okanagan Lake, 60
 Oliver, report on Alberta immigration, 118
 Olympian Mountains, 56, 179
 Onslow, Earl, reply to Lord Minto, 303, 318
 Ontario, 18 *seq.*, 406
 — Agricultural conditions, 28
 — Area, 25
 — Crown lands, 27
 — Dairying, 31
 — Education, 25, 29
 — Farm values, 28
 — Fish and game, 28
 — Fruit-growing, 31
 — Growth of, 185
 — Letters from emigrants, 325 *seq.*
 — Live stock, 30
 — Manufactures, 27, 33
 — Military service, 33
 — Mining, 26
 — Peninsular farms, 23
 — Population, 25
 — Products, 30
 — Rural life in, 24
 — Social conditions, 29
 — Timber, 25
 — Winter in, 32

- Ontario, work for competent labourers, 32
 Ontario, Lake, 20, 23
 Oregon, 226, 279
 Orleans, island, 7, 8
 Oswald, Mr., 263, 264, 278
 Ottawa (Bye Town), 19, 24, 408
 — Conference at, 253
 — Fisheries, 36
- P
- Pampero*, 226, 227
 Panther (puma), 394, 398
 Peace River, 415
 Peaches, 31
 Pearse Island, 307
 Pelicans, 222, 401
 Penny postage to sister states, 339
 Penobscot River, 268, 272
 Perouse, La, 8, 131
 Peters, F. W., 169
 Peterson, on colonists, 375
 Pheasants, 397
 Pigeons, passenger, 396
 Pine forest, 193
 Pipe-heads, 96
 Pitch, 45, 46
 Ploughs, 354
 Poletica, M. de, 312
 Polk, Mr., 280
 Porpoises, 12
 Port Arthur, 133, 198, 405, 406, 408, 411, 414
 Port Churchill, 192
 Port George, 193
 Port Hastings, 409
 Port Moody, 176
 Portland Channel, 301, 307, 308, 309, 312, 313
 Power, P., 285
 Prescott, 19
 Prince Edward Island—
 — Cheese factories, 111
 — Sheep industry, 69
 Prince of Wales Island, 294, 295, 301, 307, 308, 313
- Prince Rupert, 184, 195, 205
 — Harbour, 204
 — Site, 206
 — territory named after, 219
 Ptarmigan, 397
- Q
- Qu'Appelle Valley, 81, 87 *seq.*
 — Sun dance, 93
 Quebec, 1 *seq.*, 207, 406, 408
 — Agriculture, 13
 — Chief industries, 15
 — Battle, 7, 8
 — Boundary dispute with New Brunswick, 275
 — Coal consumption, 51
 — Dairy industry, 15
 — Eastern townships, 13
 — Typical, 14
 — Growth of, 185
 — Live-stock industry, 16
 — Maple-sugar industry, 16
 — Railway bridge, 195
 — Religion, 10
 — Situation, 7
 — Small-arms and ammunition factory, 136, 156
 Quebec Act, 1774, 264, 267, 268
 Queen Charlotte Islands, 207
- R
- Railways—
 — Construction, 9
 — Exports and, 237
 — Gradients and summits, 201, 202. *See* Names of lines
 Red Indian headquarters, 87, 88
 Red River expedition, 174
 Regina, 84, 87
 Reservists, opening for, 345
 Rhodes, Cecil, proposed preference, 241
 Richmond, Duke of, 391
 Riel, Louis, 173
 Rivers as boundaries, 224, 265

Robin, legend of, 44
 Robinson, Major, 275
 Rockingham, Marquis of, 263
 Rocky Mountains, 62, 281
 — Passes, 172
 — White Pass, 300
 — Yellow Head Pass, 193, 200,
 407
 Rogers, discovers pass for Cana-
 dian Pacific Railway, 174
 Root, Elihu, 302, 306
 Rosetown, 407, 412
 Rowe, Sidney, 75
 Russia—
 — Demands, 312, 313
 — Fur-trading stations, 279,
 290, 293, 312
 — Taxes Indian tea, 244
 Russian Fur Company, 293
 Ryerson, Dr., 25

S

St. Andrews, harbour, 37
 St. Charles River, 7
 St. Croix Island, 269
 St. Croix River, 265, 267, 268,
 269, 273
 St. Elias, Mount, 314
 St. John, 37, 208
 St. John, Lake, settlements, 12
 St. John River, 268, 270, 271,
 274
 St. Juan de Fuca Straits, 56, 60
 St. Lawrence River, 2, 19, 265,
 268
 — Highlands, settlements on,
 225, 273
 Salisbury, Marquis of, on Cus-
 toms' Union, 252
 Salmon fishing, 10 *seq.*, 36, 57,
 399
 Salt in Athabasca, 121
 Salt Lake City, 380
 San Francisco burnt, 188
 San Juan Island, 286
 Saskatchewan, 81 *seq.*, 406
 — Area, 85

Saskatchewan, immigrants, 388,
 389, 406
 — — Letters from, 329 *seq.*
 — Indians, 87 *seq.* *See also*
 Indians
 — Qu'Appelle, 81, 87 *seq.*
 — Regina, 84, 87
 — Wheat and grain produc-
 tion, 410, 411
 Saskatchewan River, journey to
 Churchill, 220
 Saskatoon, 86, 406, 411
 Saunders, Dr., 78
 Schultz, on free markets, 239
 Soodic River, 268, 269
 Scotsmen, 10
 Selkirk Range, pass, 172
 Service, on free trade, 253
Shanandoah, 281
 Shaughnessy, Sir Thomas G.—
 — Agricultural holdings
 scheme, 383
 — On Canadian Pacific Rail-
 way, 189
 — On progress in Eastern Ca-
 nada, 185
 — On settlers, 384
 Sheep, hunting, 67
 — Industry, 69
 Shelburne, Lord, 263
 Shipley, Robert, experience in
 Saskatchewan, 85
 Sifton, Hon. Clifford, 307, 318
 Sitklan Island, 308
 Sitting Bull, Sioux chief, 97
 Skagway, 300, 312
 Smart, Dr., on preference, 244
 Smith, D. G., 42
 — Sir Donald. *See* Strathcona,
 Lord
 — Obed., 74, 76, 77
 South Africa, British policy in,
 361
 Species, development and differ-
 entiation, 400
 Sproule, on emergency and war,
 143
 Squirrels, flying, 12
 Statistics, 364 *seq.*

Steamship companies — all-red route, 346, 347
 Steele, Colonel, 72, 73
 Stephen, George (Lord Mount Stephen), 6, 173
 Stikine River, 297, 298, 299
 Strachey, Henry, 264
 Strathcona, Lord, 6, 173
 — As High Commissioner, 321
 — On population of Canada, 184
 Sullivan, James, 269
 Sumner, Charles, 282
 Sun dance, 93
 Superior, Lake, 265, 405
 Swans, 222, 401
 Sydney, Nova Scotia, 133

T

Taku Inlet, 315, 316
 Taku River, 297
 Tar, 45, 46
 Tariffs — general, preferential, and intermediate, 230
 Thompson, Sir John, 289
 Thompson River, 175
 Tongas Straits, 308, 309
 Toronto, 408
 — American Secretary of State at, 22
 — Ontario Club opened, 126
 — Winter sports, 20
 Tory, Dr., on Alberta University, 116
 Trade correspondents to colonies, 240
 Trade prospects, 3 *seq.*
 Treaties and arbitrations involving Canadian interests, 262 *seq.*
 — Alaska boundary arbitrators, 261, 290 *seq.*, 302 *seq.*
 — Ashburton, 1842, 266 *seq.*
 — Maps, 269, 277, 278
 — Behring Sea, 1893, 288 *seq.*, 320
 — Fisheries, 1877, 286 *seq.*
 — Oregon, 1846, 278 *seq.*
 — Paris, 1783, 262 *seq.*

Treaties, Paris, map used, 269
 — Washington, 1871, 281 *seq.*, 319; 1888, 287, 320
 Trinidad bitumen, 123
 Trout-fishing, 36, 109, 179, 398, 399
Truth, on Canadian Pacific Railway, 76
 Tupper, Sir Charles, 173, 287, 289, 319, 320, 321, 323
 Turkey, native, 397
 Turner, Senator, 302
 Tyler, President, 279

U

United States—
 — Attitude towards preference, 353
 — Boundaries, 223 *seq.*, 264 *seq.*, 274 *seq.*, 293
 — Claim to St. Lawrence Highlands, 273
 — Emigrants into Canada, 380
 — Export of wheat, 83
 — Firms in Canada, 357
 — Purchase Alaska, 288, 296
 — Reciprocity treaty with Canada, 283
 — Tariff and Canadian industry, 3 *seq.*
 United Trading Company, 290

V

Van Horne, Sir William—
 — Engineering and financial projects, 173
 — On Canadian industry, 3 *seq.*
 Vancouver Island, 54, 60 *seq.*, 280, 281, 286, 407
 — Climate, flowers, and timber, 61
 — Fruit, 62, 63, 169
 Vancouver's charts, 301, 308, 309, 314
 Vaux, Major, 72

Versailles, treaty of, 264
 Victoria, 179, 407
 — View from, 56
 Victoria Falls Bridge, 167

W

Wabana iron mines, 45
 Wapiti, 392, 394
 War organisation, 161
 Ward, Joseph, on preference, 240
 Webster, Daniel, 274, 277
 Webster, Sir Richard. *See* Alverstone, Lord
 Whale Island, naval drill at, 150
 Wheat, 5
 — Area, 199
 — Export of, from United States, 83
 White, Sir William, 131
 Wild duck, 401
 Wild-fowl, 88, 401
 Williams, A. Bryan, on game in British Columbia, 65 *seq.*

Wilson, C. Rivers, 218
 Wilson, on passenger pigeons, 396
 Winnipeg, 195, 405, 413
 — Boy soldiers, 73
 — Fort Rouge shops, 414
 Wisconsin, 266
 Wolfe, 8
 — Difficulty in taking Quebec, 7
 — Heroism at Louisbourg, 9
 Wolseley, Sir Garnet (Field-Marshal Lord), 174
 Wolves, 398
 Woods of pine, birch, maple, 12
 Wrangel, 66, 68, 298

Y

Yellow Head Pass, 193, 200, 407
 Yukon, discovery of gold in, 300, 311

Z

Zululand, 350

93

97

101

102

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