

with the smallest degree of comfort without a fair knowledge of Russian. The national spirit has taken great development in recent years, and received much encouragement from the Emperor and Empress-Dowager—the idol of the National school—as it did from Alexander III. It is now almost as “bad form” for a Russian to speak to a Russian in French, as it was in former days to speak Russian at Court.

*Officering of the Reserves and the Militia.*—If the officering of the Standing Army presents an ever-increasing difficulty, that for the Reserves and the Militia is much greater. There is always a large deficiency, although commissions are liberally given to officers retiring from the Standing Army, to “Volunteers” on completion of their limited engagements, and to senior non-commissioned officers.

*Non-Commissioned Officers.*—Similarly, great exertions have to be put forward to obtain non-commissioned officers, to induce them to re-engage, and to provide them with adequate instruction.

In the first place, there are Instruction Battalions for all arms—500 strong. The course begins on October 1 in each year, and lasts for seven months. Soldiers of promise may be sent to it after their second year's manoeuvres. If they come up to the standard they revert to their corps with acting rank, and are confirmed after three years' service. Their pay is then subject to an annual increment, and if they serve for ten years they are sure of civil employment, for all the railways, and nearly every other institution, either belong to the State or are State controlled. There are also excellent openings in the Gendarmerie and the Custom House, which employ a vast number of men.

*Discipline.*—Akin to the regulations governing officers and non-commissioned officers is the great question of discipline. Returning to the Russian Army after an interval of twenty five years, the most

remarkable in the history of the world for progress in civil liberty, one might expect to find that the disciplinary hold had become less firm. But, if anything, the contrary, so far as outward appearances go, is the fact. The discipline of the Army, and, indeed, of the Civil Service also, is as perfect as ever. Every office and grade, from Minister to schoolboy, has its martial uniform, and never puts it off. Travel from the Vistula to the Amur, and neither in public street nor at lonely station, will you see any deviation of the strict military bearing and salutation of the subordinate towards the superior. And while this is the case, those friendly greetings of the superior, from the Tsar downwards, to the inferior, on coming into and leaving his presence, are still typical of the friendliness and "bonhomie" of Russian life.

"Good morning, my children," says the Emperor or senior officer.

"We wish your Majesty" (or "Excellency" according to grade) "good health," reply the men in melodious chorus.

Then the senior officer, sergeant, or soldier gives his verbal state of the division, regiment, or barrack-room. On leaving, if pleased, the inspecting officer says aloud, "Spasebo" (I thank you) or "Ochen harascho" (quite satisfactory).

The Chief of Police throws his "Good day" at the constable as he passes him, and in such case the latter knows it is well, and he was in his right place. In a Government office the hand-shaking every morning, and, indeed, half a dozen times in the day, is positively exasperating and consumes valuable time.

*Infantry.*—There are three infantry divisions of the Guard, two quartered in St. Petersburg and one in Warsaw. The twelve regiments, with forty-eight battalions, are known only by their names, and it is noteworthy that the Emperor has never given himself higher rank than that of, Colonel of the Preobrajensky

Regiment. Bicycling once in the uniform of that ancient corps, and alone, as the Tsars of Russia love to be when circumstances permit, His Majesty—at least, so the story goes—was stopped and called to account for not saluting a General on foot, who failed to recognise the cyclist.

The regiments of the infantry of the line are numbered 1 to 180. Four regiments, or sixteen battalions, make up an infantry division, divided into two brigades, the first having red shoulder-straps, the second blue. There are forty-nine such divisions, of which four are Grenadier divisions, with sixty-four battalions, and in addition there are seventy-four battalions of rifles in brigades of four regiments, with two battalions each.

In marching the Russian infantry has absolutely no equal. Nothing is omitted to develop and improve it. The vast hedgeless country facilitates great extension in movement, and all that can be done to make the march cheerful and pleasant is done. The Russian does not yield to the Italian in his love for song, or to the Spaniard in his love for dancing and fun. They sing every inch of the way, and often and often a dancer will step in front of his company and by merry carnival antics send the laughter round. That is the way to get men along and keep them good-tempered under adverse conditions. The man who helps therein renders good service, and is let off some guard or fatigue or gets an extra ration or tot. How different to our comparatively dull, silent, march in serried fours! "The soldier who sings as he marches, marches to victory." So wrote Lord Wolseley for the book of marching songs I induced Messrs. Clowes to publish. But it remains on their bookshelves, and the songless British officer, unless in command of troops of the cheery Indian Army, has the greatest difficulty in getting anyone to start a decent chorus, even on foot, and much less mounted or with guns.

The Russian infantryman is also a real "handy man." There are few things he cannot do, or will not try to do, if taken the right way. As for food, he never had much, even when growing, and as he is rarely under twenty-three or twenty-four years of age, if on a campaign, he escapes many of the constitutional dangers of extreme youth.

*Mounted Infantry.*—But it is in Mounted Infantry work that the world military is now humbly following the ancient lead of Russia. Wholly apart from the sixteen regiments, with ninety-six sotnias, of Cossacks, the finest mounted infantry in the world—equally good on horse or foot, dare-devils to whom riding and horsemanship are as much second nature as to the old Boers of the Transvaal—there are fifty-six regiments of dragoons. Concerning these I wrote in 1877 from the Imperial camp at Kishineff:

"The dragoons will render especial service. They are in reality mounted rifles, and for their employment this campaign is peculiarly adapted. Alone of all the Powers in Europe the Russians have recognised the great utility of mounted infantry. They move in threes,<sup>1</sup> the centre file holds the horse of his comrade on either side when the order to act on foot is given. The horse detachment remains under the command of the senior subaltern. He is directed to keep under cover, yet near at hand, that the word 'To horse!' may be immediately put into execution to charge disheartened infantry, to meet cavalry face to face, to seize a position, or to retire swiftly before superior numbers."

Would that these words had been written by a stronger hand. We have learnt the Russian lesson,

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<sup>1</sup> The Russians contend that "threes" are infinitely better than "fours" for mounted infantry. True, a rifle is lost in each section. But the centre file can manage a led horse on each side, whereas No. 1 horse usually manages No. 3, *i.e.*, the horseholder, of the section of "fours."



but twenty-five years too late, and by blood and disaster, instead of by observation and power to grasp new ideas. Sir Edward Hutton, the Commandant of the Australian Forces, stood, before the South African War, almost alone in the British Army, all of whose wars are mounted infantry campaigns, in urging their indispensable utility.

A warning let me give. If the Russians ever invade India, they will do so with 200,000 mounted infantry, and we must have better and more numerous marksmen, *on horses*,<sup>1</sup> to oppose and circumvent them, if they chance to come alive through the passes.

The Russian Cavalry is organised in 19 cavalry divisions of 2 brigades each, or, in other words, in 85 regiments, with in war 503 squadrons, and 7 squadrons of mounted police. There are two divisions of Cavalry of the Guard, with 10 regiments—4 cuirassiers (the Chevalier Garde, the Garde à Cheval, the Curassiers of the Emperor and of the Empress), 2 of dragoons, 2 of hussars, and 2 of lancers—the heavy regiments with 4 squadrons, the light regiments with 6 each.

The horse provision for such an enormous mounted force—each regiment of 6 squadrons requiring 1,000 horses—necessarily entails the most elaborate arrangements. Practically every cavalry division has its remount establishment in one or other of the great horse-breeding provinces of the South-East. There are also remount commissions, each buying from 800 to 1,000 horses. But the system of selection and distribution is not a little complicated and difficult of explanation.

*The Artillery.*—Every infantry division has a field artillery brigade, of from 6 to 9 batteries of 8 guns each, attached to it, and every cavalry division has in like manner a horse artillery brigade, with 6 guns per

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<sup>1</sup> See page 26, speech of Sir Power Palmer to the General officers at Delhi.

battery. The field battery has about 250 men and 207 horses, and the horse battery 208 officers and men and 250 horses. The artillery is now in process of rearmament with a 3in. quick-firing gun of the most recent pattern.

*Conclusion.*—It is not necessary to enter into further details concerning the various arms of the Russian service. But the able work of Captain von Drygalski, published by Zuckschwerdt & Co., of Leipsic, is much to be commended for the accuracy of its information. In so vast an organisation, however, as the Russian Army, it is difficult for any work, however careful, to be absolutely up to date.<sup>1</sup> There is of necessity constant change in matters of detail. But, taken as a whole, there can be little doubt that, subject only to the somewhat serious difficulty as to officers, and the immense distances separating different parts of the machine taking its motive power from the distant northern seaboard, the Russian Army of 1903 is in a highly efficient state. Its only rival as a land force is in Germany, and what it may lack in theoretical organisation is more than made up by the reserves it ever holds under "Generals January and February," and the fact that *its objective is clear and known to all who will see*, while the entire Empire is practically secure from attack. The mobilisation difficulty is also facilitated by the constantly augmenting war-chest, estimated at £100,000,000 in gold, and by the infinite forethought bestowed on every detail of railway preparation. Not only is every line ready to double its rail power, embanked and bridged to that end in most cases, but the rails and sleepers are, to large extent, in hand and conveniently stored, with troop and horse platforms far beyond any peace requirements.

<sup>1</sup> It has been gratifying to learn, both from Russian and British officers having expert knowledge of the facts, that this sketch of "The Russian Army of To-Day" is, in their opinion, an accurate representation of the actual condition of things.

It is well, then, for the world that His Imperial Majesty Nicholas II., Lord and Autocrat of All the Russias, and his august Consort, are sincere friends of peace, with clearest understanding how essential and indispensable peace is, for the lagging progress and development of that Empire, which, in point of area and population, is second only to the realms of Britain.—*The Daily Telegraph.*

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## THE INDIAN FRONTIER QUESTION.

### AFRIDIS OF THE KHYBER.

"THE frontier was his post, and the future his field." Thus runs the legend on the monument at Peshawar of Major Mackeson. Since his death, half a century ago, there has been a great transformation at Peshawar. Frontier town of India it still is. But what a hive of life and industry its bazaar, where all the tribes of Central Asia strive to do business! And in the broad avenues of the British cantonments what a sphere of order and neatness and civilisation! Still, however, the frontier question is the question before India, and it is still unanswered. Of the problem Peshawar is the centre. "The defiles of the Khyber, and the peaks of the Black Mountain" have witnessed the exploits of many a gallant officer since the day when Death Hill found Mackeson in the front, and will mark the future of many a one yet to come.

Peshawar is the middle point of the North-West frontier line, or, rather, that of the Punjab, stretching from Hazara on the north, to Dera Ghazi Khan on the west, over 700 miles in length. The fertile valley in which it stands is watered by the Swat and Kabul rivers, but the border is held by wild fanatical Mohammedan tribes. Of these, the Afridis are the chief. They number about 500,000, divided into eight clans,

of whom six are known as Khyber Afridis, and they hold the metalled road through the Khyber Pass, the main approach to India from Central Asia. This gives them great importance, and it is added to by their extraordinarily bellicose character. The Afridis have a fighting strength of about 20,000. Fighting is all they care for, and in the absence of any enemy against whom they can unite, urged on by their mullahs and maliks, they must fight amongst themselves, tribe against tribe, family against family, man against man.

The Afridi is a tall, lean highlander, brave and hardy, yet cold-blooded and treacherous, with an insatiable appetite for firearms, to acquire which he will resort to murder or robbery with equanimity. The probability is that he has a blood feud with nine out of ten of his own people, and to avenge it he will wait patiently for days, months, and years.

The stories one hears in the Khyber seem hardly credible. Every house has its wall and tower. Within a few hundred yards of the fort at Jamrud the owner of one tower lays lifelong siege to the owner of another. Neither dare show himself in the open. The one made a covered way wherein to attain the high road, the recognised sanctuary. His neighbour bought the land at the further end, and thereon erected a little fort to make the retreat untenable. Night attacks are incessant. No man sleeps without drawing his ladder up into the tower after him. No notice is taken of shots. Even the firing of a small cannon is a frequent occurrence.

Albeit the Afridi brought under discipline makes a fine soldier, very popular with his officers. He sinks race quarrel for a time, but its fire is not extinguished. Over 4,000 Afridis are in the Indian Army. There are also two battalions of Khyber Rifles under the commandantship of Major Roos Keppel. The formation of this frontier militia from the tribes was a happy inspiration. They are doing exceedingly well,

and skilfully handled a number of men find therein congenial occupation. It is true we are training them to arms, but the result is undoubtedly good. The presence of one battalion at Jamrud, and another at Lundi Kotal, with detachments at Fort Maude and Ali Masjid, has a deterrent effect upon the lawlessness of their kinsmen so long as they are in a fairly quiescent state.

But the whole of their history is antagonistic to much reliability attaching to outward signs. The treaty of Gandamak, which closed the first phase of the operations in Afghanistan in 1878-79, materially altered the relations of the Afridis towards us. The ninth clause ran :—

“The British Government will retain in its own hands the control of the Khyber and Michin Passes, which lie between Peshawar and Jellalabad, and of all relations with the independent tribes connected with these passes.”

In 1881 an agreement was signed with the leaders of the tribes, by which, in return for a subsidy of about £8,000 a year, they undertook to secure the road, to maintain matchlock men for the purpose, and to levy no tolls upon the caravans passing between Afghanistan and India. These matchlock men were subsequently formed into the Khyber Rifles, and in 1896 British officers were added.

Everything appeared to be going well until 1897, when Afghan agents appeared to be moving about among the Afridis, with promises of armament and hints of a “Ghaza” against the Christian infidel. In June the escort of the political officer was attacked, and in the following month that distinguished Frontier General, Sir Bindon Blood, was given three brigades for the systematic punishment of the tribes around the Malakand and Mohmand—a task in which he was successful, despite the belief that the highlands of Tirah were absolutely inaccessible.



On August 17th, 1897, the Commissioner at Peshawar telegraphed to the Government of India that everything was quiet, and that reports from a reliable source showed that there was no serious or general movement among the Afridis. But that same evening an Afridi lashbar 10,000 strong, accompanied by 1,500 mullahs, was reported as marching to attack the Khyber Pass from Lundi Kotal, and five days later the fort at that advanced post was captured.

In 1898 a fresh arrangement was entered into with the tribes, and subject to the preservation of order and security of life and property on the road and railway, and in the forts and posts within the limits of the Pass, the Afridis were to be left to manage their own affairs in their own country, receiving an allowance as formerly.

Since then things have gone well upon the whole. But there are not wanting signs from time to time of agitation. The source is generally to be traced to Afghan intrigue, and it is necessary to maintain ceaseless vigilance, especially in the presence of rumoured efforts to recruit Afridis for the army of the new Ameer.

There are some in India who think that these turbulent tribes upon the frontier are a perpetual source of uprest and danger, and that they should be taken once for all under effective control. Others, on the other hand, think that they are in themselves, considering their fanatical determination to preserve their independence, a protection against invasion. The latter, among whom is believed to be Lord Curzon, are probably in the right, and the less the tribes are interfered with the better, so long as the passes are kept open to trade and can be seized if necessary. It is impossible to exaggerate the difficulties of the country, the precipitous mountains, the narrow defiles, the scarcity of water and vegetation.

Upon caravan days, and still more for the passage of a single traveller, every height has to be guarded by a picket, and to look from the last hill on the British side, into the rugged "sea" of Afghanistan, necessitates advanced scouts, flanking parties, and outward signs of preparedness for fight, or there might be no return.

Well, it is beyond all question that between Northern India and Russia there are 200 miles of barren land, bristling with natural obstacles, and peopled by fierce races, who know that their only chance of freedom lies in friendship with the British, who have no further ambitions in conquest.—*Sheffield Telegraph*.

The 18th of the 20 remarkable letters from the special correspondent of *The Times*<sup>1</sup> (Mr. Victor Chirrol) upon "The Middle Eastern Question," appearing in the issue of March 30th, 1903, referring to Afghanistan, is of especial importance. Two paragraphs from this article demand particular attention:

"The policy laid down by Lord Curzon will, it may be hoped, fortify the confidence of the tribes. If we can once convince them that we have no wish to annex their territory and are quite ready to entrust to garrisons drawn from amongst themselves the defence of their native valleys and hills, so long as they can be trusted to discharge those duties loyally and efficiently, one of the chief opportunities of the mischief-maker, both on the borderland and at Kabul, will be gone."

"The fluctuations of British policy, largely due to, and perhaps inseparable from, our institutions and system of government, have repeatedly shaken the confidence of the Afghans both in the sincerity of our friendship and in our power to give practical effect to it. This is certainly not the moment when we can afford to raise doubts as to either. Afghanistan is still, and

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<sup>1</sup> It is probable that these letters will be republished in book form. They merit the most earnest consideration.

perhaps more than ever, a factor of the utmost importance to our Indian Empire. Whatever the future may have in store, our immediate and imperative duty is to see that no pretext be given to the Afghans for suspecting us of lukewarmness or timidity in the discharge of our own obligations towards them, as their trustees in all international questions affecting their interests. Then only shall we be entitled to insist upon their punctual discharge of the obligations they have contracted towards us."

N.B.—It is to be remembered that the Khyber route is by no means the only access to India from Central Asia. The Kandahar-Quetta line is of at least equal importance, and Persia presents an arena daily increasing in importance as regards access to India with the advance of Russian, and the retrogression of British influence.

See Note on p. 58.

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## IS INDIA READY?

"To find the real British Army you must go to India." This was the opinion expressed by Mr. G. W. Steevens, who died at Ladysmith, in his interesting book "In India." It means that the British Army in India is in all respects ready for war. The proposition is worth examination. It is sometimes alleged as a sufficient excuse for all the shortcomings of the British Army at home, that the uncertainty against what enemy, in what country, in what climate the war will be, is so great that any effective preparation would be a profligate waste of money. It is held to cover the absence of a general staff, the absence of any plan of campaign, the postponement of all arrangements for command and direction. A foolish public may not wholly endorse this view.

In India the same excuse cannot hold good. The Indian Empire is in exactly the same position as

Germany. The German General Staff recognises that what it has to do is to make every preparation for its war with France, or Russia, or Austria. Those preparations involve no breach in friendly relations. Their perfection under the guidance of Count von Moltke was the sole cause of the overwhelming successes of 1866 and 1870. Everything was ready. Everybody knew his place and what he had to do. The only probable external war in which India is likely to be engaged is with Russia. Recognition of the obvious fact and preparation for it by every means is the paramount duty of those in authority. Nothing should be left to chance, and there is no reason why everyone and everything should not be ready if the time should come. Calcutta enjoys this advantage over Berlin—that alliances can be far more accurately foreseen, that the attack by land can only come upon one side, that no counter-scheme of offence or invasion is necessary, and that the frontier is more inaccessible, further from the hostile base, and capable of more ready defence. In the place of an imaginary border line, there is a long stretch of most difficult country. Hence there is not the faintest excuse for non-readiness in every particular.

Is India ready? The answer must be sought far beyond the Delhi Manœuvres. They disclosed many shortcomings in transport and supply—the very branches which did best of all in South Africa. They disclosed some antiquated methods. But, most of all, they disclosed in the opinion of nearly everyone an utterly defective staff organisation. It was shown in a variety of ways—in the absence of orders, in contradiction of orders, in frequent confusion, and the leading of subordinates in general ignorance of what was intended or what was wanted.\* That this should be so now, after all our experience, all our lessons, and all their cost, as it was thirty years ago, passes understanding.

Lord Rosebery has been upbraiding the Government

upon the platform for sending Lord Kitchener "to the Himalayas" when he is so much wanted at home. But it is perfectly certain that he has ample scope for much-needed work as Commander-in-Chief in India. What are his functions in that capacity? Of course the answer will be that the Commander-in-Chief is wholly and solely responsible for the Army in India, both British and Native, and everything connected with its training and work in peace and in the field. That is quite incorrect. The Commander-in-Chief is certainly an extra-ordinary member of the Viceregal Council. But he only sits thereon with the Military member, the Finance member, the Home member, the Public Works member, and the Legal member. In a military sense he is responsible for the military staff only of the Army, and in the matter of military accounts, military works, supply and transport, ordnance, and the Indian Medical Service he is practically subordinate to the Military member of Council, who occupies an analogous position to that of Secretary of State for War, and whose authority upon expenditure and the Services under his charge has to be sought by formal application through the Secretary to the Military Department.

There is neither Chief of the Staff nor General Staff. When the South African War broke out generals were often given staff officers whom they did not know, and some of whom were inexperienced in staff work. The result history records. Similarly, during the campaign staffs grew to the most inordinate size. A brigadier would have ten or a dozen staff officers. The "intelligence" officer was, more often than not, picked up on a letter of introduction or from a casual acquaintance. The staff of Lord Kitchener himself was almost the only small one, consisting of two or three hard-working members. In India numbers have been and are the rule. Sometimes they have one set of titles, sometimes another, and then on mobilisation the experienced



are left at the base, and the improvised staffs pushed up to the front, instead of the precisely contrary procedure which common sense would dictate. Nor in the absence of any officer of high rank with authority over the whole staff, has experience of the theatre of war been the sole passport to staff employment on the frontier.

As with the staff, so with brigades. They are improvised and even to a large extent so are regiments. The field strength of a battalion at home is 1,010 of all ranks. In India, where sick and casualties are many, the field strength of a British regiment is for some inscrutable reason only 850, and of an infantry battalion of the Indian Army only 750. The consequence is a weak brigade—often not more than 1,200 or 1,300 men—and greatly increased difficulty to the brigadier, who before giving an order must first inquire what the strength of a battalion may be, and almost of each of its weak companies. This weakness of units in the British Army is the more strange as all modern experience is exactly in the contrary direction. It is costly in officers, and affords little scope for the development of individual responsibility. In the Indian Army battalions work rather on the double-company system, each under a British officer, and it gives excellent results.

Field training in India has hitherto been conspicuous by its absence, although there never was a country so well suited for it, almost throughout its length and breadth. In a recent estimate the amount allowed for field training was under £1,500. But it is evident that a very different feeling now prevails on the subject.

In the matter of Mounted Infantry Sir Power Palmer, recently addressing the assembled generals, said :

“We have only been able to collect a small body of mounted infantry, as its organisation in India is still in its infancy. It has been proved that it is impossible to have too many mobile infantry in a country adapted to

their action. Whether we shall be able to afford to feed their mounts beyond our frontier is another question, but the training of cavalry will have to be very different to what it has been in the past if it expects to take the part that I hope to see it take in future wars."

This was a very frank expression on the part of the late Commander-in-Chief. As to India being an ideal mounted infantry country, there are no two opinions, and it is worthy of note that the Russians have in their Dragoon Corps and Cossacks upwards of 200,000 mounted infantry upon small horses,<sup>1</sup> and organised apart from the infantry, an arm we reduce still further in strength, to put them on horseback and on every odd job. For frontier warfare, also, it is claimed as essential by the most experienced, that every officer, and, if possible, every non-commissioned officer, should understand signalling both by night and day. It is usually the only means of communication.

It will thus be seen that the opinion left on the mind of the traveller is that there is much, very much, yet to be done before the Army in India can answer conscientiously that it is ready—*absolutely ready*—for war. But, nevertheless, the 20,000 infantry, the 6,000 cavalry, the 8,000 horses, and the 124 guns assembled at Delhi impressed all who saw them, and conveyed the assurance that, so far as officers and men were individually concerned, the future, if heed be taken in high quarters, will be worthy of the past.—*The Army and Navy Gazette*.

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## THE INDIAN CAVALRY.

THERE was certainly no subject of more general admiration at the Delhi Durbar than the cavalry of the Indian Army. This is saying a good deal. But the closer the inquiry into its composition and organisation the greater the interest. There are nineteen

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<sup>1</sup> See page 15.

regiments of Bengal Cavalry, seven of Bombay, four of the Punjab, and two of Central Indian Horse. These have four squadrons, each with a British squadron leader and squadron officer, a British colonel, and a medical officer. There are also three regiments of Madras Cavalry, and four in the Hyderabad Contingent. But these latter seven corps have three squadrons instead of four, and their organisation is on a different footing to the thirty-two regiments first named. The Government mounts and equips the Madras and Hyderabad Cavalry. The others are on the Siladar basis—that is, they mount and equip themselves. Nor is there on that account any lack of recruits. They have not to be attracted by bounties or specious arguments at the street corner. They are eager to serve for the honour of serving. Of what class are such men? Nearly all landowners or the sons of landowners—real yeomen, in fact. Whence come they? Despite the nomenclature of Bengal and Bombay, the great majority of troopers are furnished by the fighting races of the north—not a few even by the Pathan tribes, to whom war is second nature. They either bring a serviceable horse, accepted as a charger, or a capital of from 200 to 250 rupees (about £15), and in some regiments even more. They have to furnish high testimonials. If after such probation as to the colonel seems proper, a recruit is accepted, he passes beneath an arch of swords or lances, and issues an admitted sowar. His capital is placed to his credit. From the Chunda Fund he is supplied with a horse. The regimental stores supply him with uniform, equipment, saddlery, and other requisites. The cost is repaid by instalments from his monthly pay. Against this, too, are debited many subscriptions—some obligatory, such as 3s. 4d. to the horse fund, 8d. a month to the pony fund or mule chunda, as also the expenditure for food and forage with the regimental purveyors, and any deductions in respect of quarters.

It may be assumed that the pay to discharge all these obligations is of considerable amount. It commences at 31 rupees (£2 1s. 4d.) a month, and rises by good conduct to 4s. more. The annual cost, therefore, of a trooper to the State, including his horse, pay, food, forage, equipment, and quarters, is under £25—much less than half that of the British infantry soldier, and but £5 more than the Imperial Yeoman costs for his fourteen days' training.

There is no more vexed subject of communication between the War Office and the several units of the British Army than that of accounts. Correspondence over pennies absorbs pounds. So far as the Indian Cavalry is concerned, there is nothing which occupies the authorities less. The colonel of a regiment is held responsible that the accounts are kept strictly according to order. All officers in turn are required to take charge of the accounts, so that all may have a complete insight into the manner of conducting the business of a regiment. The Acquittance Roll is signed or sealed monthly by every man in durbar, and all the heads of account duly balanced.

*The British Officers.*—Responsibility is the order of the day. The colonel engages the men, punishes them, furloughs them, dismisses them, pensions them; he purchases the horses, provides the equipment. As he is, so is the regiment. The result is nearly always a man of large and wide ideas. It rarely happens that more than half of the nine combatant British officers are present at the same time. Command of a squadron or a wing frequently falls, therefore, to quite young men. The tests to which officers volunteering from the British Army for the Indian Army are subjected, ensure a very high standard, and the best naturally go to the cavalry, offering, as it does, great advantages. The work is hard, but it is well done, and no finer body of men exists. They are on the best of terms with the Native officers.

*The Native Officers.*—These are nominated by the colonel and rise from jemadar at £5 a month to risaldar-major at £20. The risaldar-major is practically the medium of communication between the colonel, the adjutant, and the native officers. They spend their lives with the regiment. The length of the service of the non-commissioned officers and men also frequently extends to 25 or 30 years. Then they are entitled to a pension, and take back to their farms not only the initial capital, but the rupees, often 500 or 600, standing to their credit in the treasure-chest. The interest in the regiment remains unbroken. Many pensioners travelled hundreds of miles to be with their old corps at Delhi, some bringing grandsons, with the ambition one day to be allowed to wear the Emperor's uniform.

Leave and furlough are entirely in the hands of the colonel. In some regiments men join for three years certain, in others there is no fixed time. Let a man take his discharge if he likes. There are plenty willing to take his place. Leave and furlough are upon a liberal scale. A well-conducted man is often allowed six months' furlough, and perhaps may be permitted to take his horse with him. He will return to the minute. A fixed proportion are entitled to live in the married lines, and if the regiment is to march, a man may ask permission to take his wife by train to the new station. His horse will be led by the syce or grass-cutter, whom, as well as the pony carrying forage and baggage, he shares with a comrade.

In point of mobility a regiment of Indian cavalry leaves nothing to be desired. It is complete in itself, ready to move away at any time, the only necessity being a telegram along the line of route to have forage available at the halting-places. The physical condition seldom leaves much to be desired. There is scarcely any crime and practically no drunkenness. A court-martial is almost an historical event. The



regimental strength is 625, all with horses. But on mobilisation one squadron is for reserve. This reduces the fighting line to 500 sabres. Far better that it should be 1,000. Man for man, officer for officer, leader for leader, the Indian Cavalry has no superior, and it is capable of much expansion at comparatively small cost under a liberal system of long furlough. Occasionally an inspecting officer, new to the Indian service, will forget that the horses belong to the men, and not to the Government, or may be shocked that one turban tail may be longer than the other, or the front ornament differ between squadrons. These are little matters dependent on race, sect, and caste, and customs stronger than law, with which the British Government in India never interferes. The essence is a regiment which can think, and act, and fight. That is the case with the Indian Cavalry. May its numbers increase. Albeit in such case the Government must take more forethought in the matter of remounts. A horse which used to cost 200 rupees cannot now be had for 400, and the central authorities take the best in the Countrybred, the Arab, and the Australian Waler market. This is hard upon colonels of Indian Cavalry. But still, so far as officers, troopers, or horses go, Colonel Middleton's 3rd Bengal Cavalry, or Colonel Drummond's Central India Horse, will be hard to beat by any cavalry, and there are other corps like unto them.—*Army and Navy Gazette*.

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## VOLUNTEERS IN INDIA.

THERE was not a large gathering of Indian Volunteers at the Durbar Military Camp—176 mounted under Colonel Grey, and 684 infantry under Colonel Goodwin, V.D. The distance and the expense were impediments; but both horse and foot were good

representatives of the force. Much has been written about it of late. Unfortunately, the adverse events attending the visit of the representatives of the Volunteers of India for the Coronation prevented much being seen of them in London. There was also confusion as to their whereabouts, and many invitations from their comrades at home never reached those for whom they were intended. At first the Volunteers were to be at the Indian Camp at Hampton Court. This being a natural and proper arrangement was cancelled by cable, and the men told to make their own arrangements. Representations led to the first order being renewed. Telegrams in that sense went to Port Said. But it was then too late, and the Volunteers scattered themselves over the Metropolis.

The first thought must be in considering the handful of whites set in the midst of 300,000,000 of Asiatics, *surely every physically capable European, man and boy, must be a Volunteer.* The total number of European men, women, and children throughout all India is estimated at 200,000, or one to 1,500 Natives; but 76,000 of the 200,000 belong to the European Army—one British soldier to about 3,000 of the population. If, as would certainly be the case in the event of war with a formidable external foe, a large proportion of the Army was on the frontier, the absolute necessity of every white man being trained to and practised in the use of arms becomes clear; it should be insisted upon in return for the privilege of residence and sharing in the great opportunities afforded by the British Sovereignty. This is the law in Netherlands India, irrespective of nationality. There are always many sources of fanatical outbreak even on the calmest surface. The recollections of the Mutiny and of recent events in other parts of Asia should be fresh still in the memory, and lead to the omission of no possible precaution. Europeans are scattered in very small numbers over the whole country, and no man can say

when the need may not arise in some district or another. No doubt improved communications may bring more speedy help than was possible fifty years ago. But the need may be immediate, for European interests are now scattered far more than formerly. Lord Roberts, with his forty years' experience, was anxious when Commander-in-Chief, to prepare camps of refuge for women and children in case of need. He was frustrated by the advocates of the ostrich policy.

Happily an Inspector-General of Volunteers in India has lately been appointed in the person of General Hill. His report for 1901-2 has been recently issued. It shows not only complete grasp of the matter in all its bearings, but just that sympathy with, and appreciation of, the efforts of Volunteer corps, which does so much to encourage and lead them on to efficiency. It is, however, melancholy to read his statement :

"The percentage of Europeans who are Volunteers varies very much in different localities. In Calcutta, there is probably a larger percentage of Europeans who are not Volunteers than in any other place in India."

Again, the Inspector-General instances the Poona Volunteer Rifles with "no Europeans in the ranks," and says :

"With the exception of the residents in Bombay, Poona, and Karachi, Europeans in the Bombay Presidency cannot join any Volunteer corps for the want of any suitable organisation."

These statements of fact are an unanswerable indictment of the patriotism, public spirit, and common-sense of the European community, not less than of the want of forethought and preparation on the part of the Government.

A noteworthy exception to this condition of things is found upon the railways. General Hill says :

"The large majority of railway employes have to

belong to the Volunteer corps of their respective railways. It seems only reasonable that a man employed by a railway, or a commercial firm or mill, should be required to assist in defending the property of his employer in time of any disturbance. The Government may have to assist and reinforce some special railway that may be in difficulties, but under ordinary circumstances the railways would have to take care of their own interests and property. The railways in India quite realise this, and practically all railway employes are enrolled as Volunteers."

These railway Volunteers make up over 11,000 men, or more than one-third the total number of Volunteers in all India. They are reported as generally very efficient, and receiving very substantial encouragement from the directors to work on practical lines in the matter of military training. The Inspector-General especially eulogises in this direction the recent work under Colonel Wynne, A.D.C. to the Viceroy, agent of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway, consisting of the defence of a railway junction under Service conditions.

What is true as regards the railways holds good as regards every British bank and insurance institution; every tramway or steamboat company; every factory, mine, mill, or commercial house throughout India, and with still more force as regards all the civil establishments of the Government. But if men employed by railway or commercial firms should fit themselves for defending the property of their employers, the duty becomes trebly paramount in the case of the women and children of their families, and it is sad how much it is neglected. Certainly not one European in ten is a Volunteer. "A considerable number hold aloof from the movement," says the official report; "the total strength is small, and it might reasonably be expected to be very much larger than it is."

The difficulties in the way are twofold. The first is

the want of adequate Government support.<sup>1</sup> Volunteering should not be attended by any expense to individuals so far as military training is concerned. And yet last year we find that the contribution of the State towards the expenses of camps was only 1  $\frac{3}{4}$  lakhs, leaving more than an equal sum (£13,000) to be paid by corps. One-third also of the expenses attendant upon field days had also to be paid by the men, involving in many cases an expenditure of one rupee by each individual, for the privilege of attending a field day or ceremonial parade. There are also difficulties attending ranges and drill-halls. But the main and principal obstacle lies in the mixture of races. It has been truly said :

“A composite corps composed of Europeans and natives is not likely to prove a success either in peace or war. In the case of Volunteers it is very likely to happen that the Europeans resign and the corps becomes a native Volunteer corps. The result is that natives are being armed and trained, while the Europeans are unarmed and untrained.”

The remedy for this is that while affording the loyal native classes, and more particularly “the landed gentry and their sons, and men of local influence and property,” every opportunity to join either native Yeomanry or Volunteers, no European should be able to plead lack of opportunity or want of means to do his obvious duty. But in giving not only extra countenance and support to Volunteering, but also marking displeasure at the failure of an individual to serve, whenever an appointment or favour is in question, the Government should take advantage of the opportunity to do away with one or two vicious practices long since discarded in Great Britain, such as the election

<sup>1</sup> General Sir Edwin Collen, lately Military Member of Council, strongly endorses this view. He writes, in *The Empire Review*, “Money should be more freely spent in promoting the efficiency and development of the Volunteer force in India.”



of officers and the inability of the commanding officer to dismiss an inefficient member. If the Government of India shows itself more in earnest in connection with the Volunteer Force, it is quite certain that private employers will follow their example. Indeed, the London Board of the Kolar Gold Fields gives already a capitation grant of £1 per man as a supplement to the Government grant. Those directors are wise in their generation.

But, even as things are, it is satisfactory to have it on the Inspector General's authority that—

“With the exception of a quite insignificant number, the Mounted Volunteers, the Artillery, the Naval Volunteers and Engineers, and the whole of the Railway Corps, aggregating 15,800, are distinctly good, while of the infantry some are very good, some capable of much improvement, and only a small minority not satisfactory.”—*Army and Navy Gazette*.

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## INDIAN PRINCES AND THE EMPIRE.

THE Native States of India extend over a third of the Empire. Their chiefs rule over seventy millions of peoples. In the four great States of Baroda, Hyderabad, Kashmir, and Mysore there is a British Resident. The others are grouped into nine divisions, in each of which is an Agent to the Governor-General, with a representative in each State. But no ruling chief is interfered with unnecessarily or in matters of detail. The importance of a Chief and of a State is signified to the outer world, by the number of guns, fired as a salute on arrival in, or departure from, a Presidency town or military station. There were eighty chiefs at the Delhi Durbar entitled to artillery salutes—five to twenty-one guns, six to nineteen, twelve to seventeen, fifteen to fifteen, five to thirteen, and

twenty-seven to eleven. Woe betide the author of any mistake! Gun by gun the salute is counted until the complement is complete.

As the salute, so the Guard of Honour at the station, so the Guard at the Chief's camp, and so the escort on going out. A like rule also regulated the number of followers to the Durbar. Twenty-one guns gave a right to 500 followers, other than servants, and so down to 100, in the case of chiefs not entitled to salutes, Titular Chiefs and gentlemen. The number was, however, invariably exceeded, so great was the pressure exercised by every individual, attached in any capacity to the Court of a Native State, to get taken to the Durbar.

Some idea will be formed of the infinite difficulty of arranging all the details connected therewith, when the slightest deviation from the most precise etiquette would have given the greatest offence.

The preparations commenced on March 19th, 1902, when the Viceroy addressed a letter to "My Esteemed Friend," each of the Chiefs, stating that "In instructing me to hold this Durbar His Majesty has desired it to be made known that he is anxious to afford to all the Princes and Chiefs of India the opportunity of testifying their loyalty to his Throne and Person, and that attendance thereat will be regarded by His Majesty as equivalent to presence at his Coronation in England."

Some attempt has been made to insinuate that the Ruling Chiefs were much hurt at not receiving from the Viceroy formal visits, which they would have had to return. There is not the slightest foundation for such a statement. Each chief was officially informed, so long ago as August 11th, 1902, that visits from the Viceroy to the Chiefs and from the Chiefs to the Viceroy would be dispensed with. The slightest reflection showed that no other arrangement would have been possible. The camps covered an area of nearly 100 square miles, some being a great distance

off. For the Viceroy to have visited and to have received visits from all Chiefs would have necessitated the prolongation of the Durbar for at least ten days, and have imposed a physical labour and an expenditure quite out of proportion to the pleasure.

### *The Effect of the Durbar.*

There cannot be a doubt that the influence of the Durbar upon the Ruling Chiefs as a whole has been excellent, and probably, indeed, upon every individual Maharajah. Such an opportunity for their seeing each other, for making acquaintance, for being taken out of themselves and the narrow surroundings of their several Courts, has never been afforded before, and the permanent good done cannot be over-estimated. It has also enabled "the governors, lieutenant governors, and heads of administration from all parts of His Majesty's Indian Dominions and the representatives, both European and native, of all the provinces of this great Empire," to quote Lord Curzon's words in the first announcement of the Durbar, in the *Calcutta Gazette*, to see more than would otherwise have been possible, of the younger Chiefs and their attitude towards the British connection.

### *Model Maharajahs.*

There was ample evidence of the success of the extraordinary work regarding the Princes of India during the past twenty years, and the change which has taken place in their political and social life. The main factor in this reform has been perhaps the institution of the Chiefs' colleges at Ajmer, Indore, Lahore, and Rajput. The first-named, established by Lord Mayo, during his popular Viceroyalty, has had the greatest influence upon the Rajput Princes. The young Maharajahs of Bikanir, Alwar, and Jodhpur, with their splendid sporting proclivities, cannot fail to exert

a vast influence upon the future generation of Chiefs, as also the generosity of Jeypore. They are all interesting studies—the Maharajah of Alwar as being one of the finest polo players in the world; the Maharajah of Jodhpur as one of the best all-round sportsmen; and the Maharajah of Bikanir as a perfect type of an English gentleman, whether as administrator, soldier, horseman, shot, or host.

“Major His Highness Maharajah Raj Rajeshwar Shiroenani Sri Sir Ganga Singh Bahadur, K.C.I.E., of Bikanir,” to quote his full titles, is only twenty-two years of age. But if his shoulders are young, his head is old. Every detail of the administration, and the whole method of carrying out the executive work is based upon the best English model, and each department is under the personal supervision of the Maharajah.

Bikanir is not a large State—22,000 square miles, or double the size of Wales, and its soil is mostly arid—indeed a title given to its Chief by the Emperor of Delhi was “King of the Desert.” Its founder, Rao Bikaji, came from Jodhpur in 1439, and from that date to 1818, when a treaty was concluded with the British Government, Bikanir was invaded eight times by the neighbouring State of Jodhpur, and was in a perpetual state of war. There could be no better instance of that which prevailed in nearly every native State prior to the establishment of British sovereignty, and to what would again ensue if that connection is interrupted.

The great difficulty in all native States is financial. The main sources of revenue are from land, customs, and licences. But the expenditure is the trouble, first in restricting it to moderate bounds, and secondly, in employing it for public purposes. The effort of the Indian Government is always to induce the Chiefs only to regard a fixed proportion, of not more than 5 per cent., in the light of civil list. This the Maharajah

of Bikanir adheres to as regards his personal income, and the attempts to induce extravagance, usually made with success, by interested parties in the case of young Princes, have signally failed in his case. His life is that of an English country gentleman. He can ride anything, or shoot anything within range. He has served with great credit in the campaign in China, and the Bikanir Camel Corps, 500 strong, is now in Somaliland. The Maharajah has lately entertained the Duke and Duchess of Connaught and the Grand Duke of Hesse, and given them the best grouse, wild duck, and buck shooting it is possible to obtain. But what His Highness and the Princes like him, especially those who have entered or seek to enter that superb creation of Lord Curzon's, the Imperial Cadet Corps, with its manly system of physical and personal training, under His Highness the veteran Maharajah of Idar, Major Watson and Captain Cameron, most look forward to, is the opportunity to render great and conspicuous service to the British Empire. This feeling is reflected in every class of the community, and in far more marked degree than twenty years ago. All intelligent people now appreciate that England is doing for India, all that one nation can do for another.

### *Wide Social Reforms.*

The Maharajah of Bikanir brings one to the Rathore Rajput Princes, of whom he is a conspicuous example. Sir Edward Bradford was long resident amongst them, and is still remembered with affection. But the agent to the Governor-General who has left an indelible mark upon Rajputana, and thus upon all modern Indian society, was Sir Edward Bradford's successor—the late Colonel Walters. In 1887 he induced all the eighteen States to form a Rajputra Sabha or Council, and so contribute to the maintenance of a permanent office and Secretary, for the regulation of certain social



matters, and especially marriage, and the ruinous expenses incurred by the people on the occasion of weddings and funerals. In each State a local council was appointed to carry out the decisions arrived at, and to enforce them by law.

It is well known that Indian children are married by their parents at a very early age. The Sabha therefore declared that boys and girls should not be married before the ages of eighteen and fourteen respectively, and most important of all, that no second marriage should take place during the lifetime of the first wife, unless the latter was afflicted with an incurable disease or had no offspring. It was also further declared that the father who agreed to give his daughter in marriage to a man, knowing that he was already married to another woman, committed the same offence as the party proposing the marriage. Widowers even are forbidden to re-marry under forty-five years of age, if they have a son living.

How far-reaching these reforms were will be readily understood, and it is gratifying to read in the last report of the Rajputra Sabha that of 4,437 Rajput marriages in 1901 only 377 were against rules in respect of these matters, and 213 in respect of age, 49 in respect of expenses, 19 in respect of wedding gifts, and 300 in respect of a superfluous wedding party. The Agent to the Governor-General, who presides at the annual meetings, was indeed not satisfied with contraventions amounting to 25 per cent. But considering the difficulty of removing the customs of centuries, and more especially in the direction of curtailing personal liberty, individual generosity and hospitality, it will be admitted that good work has been done. In some parts even of the United Kingdom, Rajputra Sabha rules would be useful for curtailing funeral expenses. To them the Rajputs have submitted themselves well, and there were only fifty contraventions.—*Sheffield Telegraph*.

## BRITISH TRADE IN INDIA.

EXTRACT FROM ADDRESS TO THE CHAMBER OF  
COMMERCE OF BOMBAY, JANUARY 22ND, 1903.

*The Hon. J. M. Dick, President, in the Chair.*

IN Bombay, and also in Bengal, one finds a state of affairs more nearly approaching the continental system of strong Chambers to which the majority of those who are anybody in commerce or shipping belong, recognised by the Government, nominating a member to the Council of the Governor-General and of the Presidency Governors, and receiving also, like Sir Montague Turner, the Chairman of the Chamber of Calcutta, deserved recognitions of honour from the Sovereign.

*Influence of the Bombay Chamber.*

Under circumstances such as these the influence of the Bombay Chamber, great in India, may make itself felt even beyond India. The detailed tables appended to its reports are interesting. But if I may be allowed to say so, they have one very glaring defect. They (and, indeed, Indian statistics generally) make no distinction between British trade and foreign trade. They define all oversea trade as "foreign trade." Indeed the word "foreign" is used quite indiscriminately, whether British or foreign. Now, imports from, or exports to, Great Britain, or any part of the British Empire form, it is true, oversea trade, but it is in no sense "foreign trade" or trade with foreigners. The question arises, are we justified in maintaining an isolated system which deprives us of all power of commercial negotiation, which enables foreigners to undersell us in our own markets, and makes Great Britain the dumping-ground for the surplus products of the

whole world? At five General Elections my constituents of Sheffield, all, or nearly all, working men, having to earn their daily wages to obtain daily bread, have answered in the negative, and little by little their opinions are gaining ground among the whole electorate of Great Britain. The work of the United Empire Trade League which I represent, has during the past twelve years been quiet and unobtrusive. It has not sought by noisy declamation to force the hands of the Government in order to attain its aims, but none the less is it nearing its goal. A large part of the extra taxation rendered necessary by the South African War, and the days in which we live, has been raised indirectly from the foreigner, £6,000,000 on sugar, £2,000,000 on coal, and £2,500,000<sup>1</sup> on the import of foreign wheat meal and flour, and now following the example of the Government of India we have also countervailing duties on foreign bounties. Now can it be contended that this is a matter entirely within the province of the electorate at home and not one in which the representatives of the city of Bombay are directly interested or concerned? I submit that this is not so.

### *Future Course of British Trade.*

The future course of British trade lies as much or more in the hands of Britons beyond the sea, as in those of the people in England. By their action, by that of Bombay, of Bengal and other parts of India, they will largely be guided. The Imperial Conference meeting last year, attended by the Premiers of all the self-governing Colonies, heard with satisfaction this declaration of the Rt. Hon. Joseph Chamberlain,

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<sup>1</sup> £2,000,000 of this revenue was wantonly surrendered by the Budget of April 23rd, 1903.

Secretary of State for the Colonies : " If we chose, that is to say, if those whom we represent chose, the Empire might be self-sustaining. It is so wide, its products are so various, its climates so different, that there is absolutely nothing which is necessary to our existence, hardly anything which is desirable as a luxury which cannot be produced within the borders of the Empire itself. And the second salient fact is that the Empire at the present time, and especially the United Kingdom, which is the great market of the world, derives the greatest part of its necessities from foreign countries, and that it exports the largest part of its available produce also to foreign countries. This trade might be the trade, the inter-Imperial trade of the Empire. It is at the present time a trade largely between the Empire and foreign countries. I confess that to my mind this is not a satisfactory state of things, and everything which can possibly tend to increase the interchange of products between the different parts of the Empire is deserving of cordial encouragement." It can be well understood what was the answer of the Colonies. They unanimously resolved : (1) That the principle of the 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 with a view to promoting the increase of trade within the Empire, it is desirable that those Colonies and Dependencies 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 by (a) further reducing the duties in favour of the United Kingdom, (b) by raising the duties against foreign imports, and (c) by imposing duties on certain foreign imports now on the free list.

*Course of Trade in British India.*

The question I am anxious to put is this: Are the heirs and successors of the founders of British trade in India, with all the influence at their command, with the prestige of a Chamber founded eighty years ago, willing to bear their part in this great Imperial work, for the unity of the Empire and, as Mr. Chamberlain put it, "for the existence of the Empire as such"? Let me briefly direct attention to the course of trade in British India as shown by the admirable Statistical Abstract from 1890 to 1900-1, presented last Session to both Houses of Parliament by command of His Majesty. But again in these tables no distinction is made between British trade and Foreign trade. It is a serious blot. The student has himself to make the analysis. The imports of British merchandise from the United Kingdom and the British Empire in the year 1900-1 exceeded £45,000,000 out of a total import trade of £63,000,000 sterling. This sum gives at least £10,000,000 a year in wages to the British artisan and £10,000,000 to the British Mercantile Marine, which sends 3,000 British ships every year to the ports of Hindustan. And speaking of British shipping, let me take advantage of the opportunity of congratulating the Hon. Mr. J. M. Dick, of Messrs. W. & A. Graham & Co., not only on being President of this Chamber, but also upon the honour recently conferred upon him of nomination to the Council of H.E. the Governor. The whole shipping community is also to be congratulated upon the report just issued by the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Shipping Subsidies, granted by foreign nations, and the recommendation that this unfair competition should be met by a like support to British vessels on the East Coast of Africa, and a restriction of coast trade privileges to the flags who grant it to the Union Jack on their coasts.



Let us turn to the exports. The exports from India to the United Kingdom and the British Empire exceed £26,000,000 a year out of a total of £70,000,000. This sum gives at least £10,000,000 annually to the Indian producers. It may be contended that this position is so satisfactory, so entirely justifies the hopes and anticipations of the earliest merchant settlers in Bombay, and of the directors of the old East India Company, that it would be difficult to improve upon it, and especially when we see that Germany, France, Austria and Russia buy some £12,000,000 worth of Indian products for the £8,000,000 worth of goods which they send to India, and that the United States with all their protectionist prohibitions, are compelled to take £5,000,000 worth of Indian goods in exchange for £1,000,000 worth of American goods. It is, however, quite impossible for anybody to go through the bazaars of India and note the large and increasing quantities of inferior foreign goods, many falsely marked with British names, despite the provisions of the Merchandise Marks Act, without a strong suspicion that these returns are not a little misleading, and that many foreign goods coming in British ships, or in transit through Great Britain, are returned as British, and not as foreign goods.

### *Foreigners in India.*

Nor can one fail to observe the increasing number of foreign firms and foreign travellers doing business in India. The foreigner, save and except Queen Catharine of Braganza, who brought the Island of Bombay from Portugal to the British Crown, has done nothing to promote British Sovereignty in India, is doing nothing to maintain it, and I submit that while we are all glad to see and to meet foreigners under our flag, it is only right that they should be required to contribute something more than British

subjects, for the privilege of selling their goods and growing rich, in markets we have purchased, for ourselves, at so great a sacrifice of blood and treasure, and maintain under the justice of British laws and under the protection of the British Dominion. This, then, is the preference for British trade and British traders over the foreigner, which, on behalf of my constituents and of the United Empire Trade League, I commend to your consideration. It is a benefit which should be mutual. True, the Indian tax-payer derives security on the high seas for his commerce from the British fleet, and throughout the world by the British power, without material contribution thereto. But while I strongly favour taxing those who tax us, and requiring the foreigner to pay for the use of the British markets, and the markets of India and the Empire in proportion as he makes us pay for the use of his markets, I have, with my friends, continually urged either a reduction in or the removal of any duty upon goods, produced within the British Empire and especially upon goods which we ourselves, in the Mother Country, cannot, by the nature of the climate, produce. Therefore, especially should the duty of between 50 and 80 per cent. *ad valorem* upon the £8,000,000 worth of Indian tea so increasingly essential as a necessary of life for our people be reduced or removed, and placed upon foreign goods. The way to bring this about is by placing the British manufacturer and the British artisan in a more favoured fiscal position in the Indian markets than the foreigner. The people at home are not ungrateful. They appreciate and admire the marvellous work done by Englishmen in India and will quickly recognise concessions to their advantage. The Chambers of Commerce of Bombay and Calcutta can easily, if they choose, initiate such a movement. From the whole career of Lord Curzon it is safe to say that any effort in this direction will meet with more than verbal Viceregal sympathy. Here are the Viceroy's

own words: "It has been the constant duty of the Government of India to balance the Imperial and the Indian aspects of our obligations. If we have," and I myself interpolate the words "if we can," "be helpful to the Empire without detriment to the true interest of the country, then I am sure there is no one who will not be willing to endorse, and to share our responsibility."

### *Countervailing Duties on Sugar.*

Indeed, a great commercial service was rendered by the Government of India three years ago by the policy of combating by countervailing duties the inequitable system of sugar bounties. Not only has this policy brought to the revenues of India not much short of a crore of rupees, levied from the foreigner—37½ lakhs last year, and 24 lakhs this, says the able Financial Secretary, Sir Edward Law, who is always so ready to listen to the views of the Commercial Community. Lord Curzon is quite right when he says that this policy has not been without its effect upon public opinion elsewhere, and played its part in contributing to the practical abolition of these bounties after a quarter of a century of fruitless diplomatic negotiation. The ruined West Indies in the Carribean Sea owe a great debt of gratitude to the East Indies for the only practical help afforded them in their distress. The recent action also as to the Burmese oil wells shows, too, how determined the Viceroy is not to suffer British natural products and British trade to be placed, if he can help it, under the heel of the foreigner. Lord Curzon will pass soon from the chair of Warren Hastings and other great administrators, but unlike them he will move to even higher offices in the Imperial Government. And as here he has shown rare genius, so in the future he will still have opportunity

of exercising all his experience and even of his love for the beautiful art of India, which, as evidenced in his Delhi Exhibition speech, has to give place to the practical and comfortable consignments of Sheffield, London, Birmingham and other sunless spots to the land of the sun.

*Indian Competition with England.*

I would further urge the course I have indicated upon this ground, that it is impossible not to foresee a very early change in the commercial relations between Great Britain and India, and notably in a considerable replacement of British manufactured textiles, forming the major portion of the Imperial trade from Great Britain—£22,000,000 in 1900 out of £37,500,000—by the production of Indian mills. The return of wages from Cawnpore and other manufacturing centres show that with a wage to artificers per mensem, only about half that of the Lancashire factory hand per week, with longer hours of labour, with no restrictions of output by the action of trades union and strikes, with great sobriety and capacity for rapid learning, with coal-fields in India already producing seven million tons a year and fresh deposits in Bikanir, and elsewhere, being brought into working, this competition must increase every year, and to British detriment. The working men in Lancashire and the woollen and worsted districts of Yorkshire do not understand this yet as it is understood here. They have not seen, as I did this morning at Parel, fifty cotton mill chimney-stacks in full smoke. My own constituents are closely concerned also. In the financial statement of 1902 this ominous phrase was used by the Viceroy: "Sir Edward Law and I are very anxious to see a large development of steel and iron-making industries in this country. India

with its great resources ought to be far more self-supporting than she is. One day she will be a great industrial and manufacturing country." This Lord Curzon strongly endorsed on January 20, 1903. "India," he said, "will become much more of a self-providing country than she now is, manufacturing out of her own materials and with her own workmen a great deal she now imports." Read this by the side of the account of the distress at Oldham, in Lancashire recorded in *The Times of India* and draw the obvious conclusion. Therefore I would invite all by timely measures to do what can be done to lighten the blow which is bound to fall, and by giving compensation in one direction to British trade to avert loss in another. Let none be afraid of trespassing out of their province. The writing on the wall is clear. There is a great change coming over the minds of the people of England. There is not the slightest indication of any tariff reduction in any part of the world, for the experience of every nation is that of the progress enjoyed by America under protection. Of course, we have not stood still either under a directly opposite system, but our progress has been less in proportion. We are not maintaining our lead. Our rivals are closing on us. The Empire trade is the trade which pays, which balances purchases by sales, and imports by exports. It is time then that we looked to ourselves and our own interests, thought less about the foreigner, that we checked the enormous growth of foreign manufactured imports coming to our workshop gates, free of all duty, to put our own people out of employment.

### *Commercial Federation of the Empire.*

India, the greatest possession of the British people, can do much to help in the consolidation of the



Empire on a commercial basis. What says the leading journal of India? "Examination shows that all commercial unions reposing on community of material interests tended to the consummation of a political bond, while no political association has in fact endured except those that in due time manifested a capacity to evolve some sort of system of commercial union." And it concluded even amid protestations of so-called Free Trade: "There can be no doubt that the issue now pending between Free Trade and Protection is the leading economic question now before Great Britain." In the time at my disposal I have of course only been able to touch the fringe of the question; detailed examination I leave to you. In thanking the Bombay Chamber generally for great hospitality and courtesy, I would only ask all in considering this matter to bear in mind that we have never had Free Trade or free interchange, save in name. Free markets have been met by Protection and bounties by foreign Governments, more and more difficult to surmount. Remember, too, that the British Empire with its thirteen million square miles of territory, its varied climates and varied soils producing everything known to man or necessary for its 400 millions of people, is united not alone by sentiment, by loyalty, and by blood, but by seas, held far more securely now for Britain, than in the days of Nelson, its coaling stations being in our armed hands. Remember, too, that science, steam and electricity have annihilated distance, have to a great extent conquered the elements, and have destroyed the natural protection of thousands of miles of freightage promised by Cobden, to the deluded agriculturists of England sixty years ago. Is it not better to trade with those who will trade with us, with our kith and kin, rather than with foreigners, who are eager to sell, but who will not buy, who would shut us out, and do shut us out, from their markets?

*The Means at Hand.*

The weapon is ready to hand. Add  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. to your average Indian tariff of 5 per cent. in respect of foreign goods, as does Canada, as is going to do Australia and South Africa, an advantage, such as a preference of one-third at the Bombay Customs House. I conclude then with the message of Mr. Chamberlain on his great mission in South Africa to each and all, to high and low. "Let Britons keep ever in their hearts that we want to unite the Empire. Much has been done, much remains to be done."

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## FIGHTING PLAGUE AT BOMBAY.

ALTHOUGH there is no real danger either to the European traveller or resident in India from the scourge of plague, it is impossible even for the hurried spectator of great and imposing events not to turn his attention for a brief space to so serious a source of mortality among the three hundred millions of natives. Among them there are many who regard even famine and pestilence as the just and opportune visitation of God to remove a surplus population, and to enable the survivors to obtain a livelihood. No such interpretation is, of course, accepted by the British Government, and what it is possible to do to avert the disease, or to minimise its effects, is done.

*Plague among the Philistines.*

What is the plague? It is a sudden "stroke," as indicated by the Greek origin of the word, which strikes swiftly and surely. How it comes, how it is communicated to the human sufferer, are matters still involved in mystery. The glandular swellings and the high fever supervene with such rapidity that a

weak constitution, unprotected by inoculation, has but a faint chance of survival. Twenty thousand died in a week of January, 1903. Albeit the plague is not new. In the fifth and sixth chapters of the First Book of Samuel there is a clear narrative of how it "smote of the people fifty thousand three score and ten men" among the Philistines eleven hundred years before Christ. "Your mice (*i.e.*, rodent of any kind) that mar the land," mentioned in the fifth verse of the sixth chapter, is proof that three thousand years ago, as now, the source of infection was attributed to rats or mice—to render which, in Arabic or in Hindustanee, but one word is used.

*The Plague Research Laboratory.*

But if there is much connected with the plague which remains a mystery, the averting or lessening of its effects is another of the priceless services rendered to the human race by that greatest Frenchman, M. Pasteur. To have known him and to have seen his work will always remain a privileged memory. That that work goes on with discovery added to discovery, long after his death, we owe it that many tens of thousands of our fellow subjects have been, and are being either saved from plague, or given, if seized by it, over ninety extra chances of recovery out of a hundred. A great student of the Pasteur Institute is Mr. W. M. Haffkine, C.I.E. His work was first to discover a vaccine against cholera. To put it to practical test Professor Haffkine came to India ten years ago. In October, 1896, plague broke out in Bombay, and Mr. Haffkine was sent by the Government of India to investigate its causes, and to discover if possible some means of dealing with the disease. Ever since then he has been ceaselessly at work on the subject, and nothing is more interesting than to visit the old Government House at Parel, the cotton mill covered suburb of

Bombay, which has been converted into a vast Plague Research Laboratory. There Professor Haffkine works, with able assistants, six medical men, three Europeans and three natives, and an extremely able, cultivated, and sympathetic superintendent—Major M. B. Bannerman, M.D., of the Indian Medical Service.

Difficult it undoubtedly is for a layman to convey in an intelligible manner to the lay mind the manifold processes by which Professor Haffkine succeeds in producing a vaccine which, if not wholly successful in rendering the inoculated immune against plague, is certainly successful in vastly reducing their chance of attack, and, if that cannot be, of giving a chance of recovery.

#### *Obtaining the Bacillus and Preparing its Food.*

The first process is the obtaining of the bacillus from the plague-stricken patient. That this is done by the mouth-suction of the surgeon, at the other end of a "pipette" or glass tube, introduced into the swollen gland, is only another instance of the devotion of the medical profession.

For small-pox, hydrophobia, diphtheria, and cholera, the preventive fluid is obtained by the action of the bacillus upon a living animal.

The plague vaccine is obtained differently. The bacillus is grown in a nutrient broth, obtained and purified by many and elaborate devices. They are bewildering in their variety and the infinite care bestowed upon each. The caste or sect prejudices of the people of India are well-known, and the most scrupulous care is always taken by the Government to avoid encroaching upon them in the slightest degree in any movement for the public good. It would no doubt be simpler to make the strong meat essence required for the cultivation of the bacillus from beef. But this, involving bovine destruction, would never do.

Goat flesh has, therefore, to be substituted. It is finely minced, then placed in glass jars, with 40 cubic centimetres of hydrochloric acid for every pound, and left for a week in water at 158° Fahrenheit. The result is complete digestion or dissolution. The fluid is then put into earthenware jars, with one and a half pints of water for every pound of original goat flesh. These jars are then placed for three hours in a temperature of 290° Fahrenheit. Then comes filtering with charcoal, and after the fluid has been strained off through muslin, it is neutralised by the addition of caustic soda, and diluted with two and a half parts of water. Again comes heating for an hour in a temperature of 250° Fahrenheit, refiltering and distribution into flasks. Into each are passed a few drops of cocoanut oil. The necks are stopped with sterilised cotton-wool, and a batch of fifty or sixty flasks sent off for final sterilisation under a pressure of 15 lbs. to the square inch.

### *The Banquet of the Bacilli.*

Then, the soup for the *bacilli pestis* being ready, and, by the repeated processes indicated, secured against the presence of any germ or foreign body, it is sown with them, a thin layer of oil being still visible on the surface. The flasks are kept in the dark, and if the growth sown has been pure, a crop of stalactites—resembling silk threads hanging from the surface—is seen in the clear bouillon on placing a light behind it.

If these results are attained, bacilli are next invited to feast upon the brew for six weeks in the Banqueting Hall, which, for over a hundred years was used by the Governors of Bombay. They occupy over 1,200 flasks, containing 2,500 pints, or over two tons, of fluid. The temperature of the hall is kept at 80° Fahrenheit, and every second day each flask is shaken to break up



the stalactites, or the formation of any growth which might block the injection needle.

Next comes a double test for purity, the results of each examination being carefully registered. If both examiners pass a flask fit for use, the fluid is submitted to a final sterilisation in a temperature of  $140^{\circ}$ , and afterwards passed through a trough of cold water, and 5 per cent. of carbolic acid added.

### *The Vaccine Ready.*

The vaccine is then ready for distribution. For this purpose it is conveyed by a syphon apparatus, sterilised under three atmospheres, the tube placed in the mouth of the distribution bottle being also sterilised in a Bunsen flame, and the bottle itself sterilised for three hours in a temperature of  $300^{\circ}$  Fahrenheit, and then plugged with cotton-wool, while the india-rubber stoppers are also sterilised by a three hours' soaking in solution of tormaline, and placed in the decanters with forceps.

It will thus be seen that no possible precaution is omitted to prevent the faintest danger of contamination by any operator's fingers.

After ten days, two bottles are taken from each batch for examination.

A drop from each is placed in a test tube containing sterile broth. If after four days there is no sign of growth, the batch of bottles is passed for issue, a label containing full directions to the operator being pasted over the cork to prevent its being opened by the curious.

Each bottle contains six ordinary doses of from 25 to 30 cubic centimetres, according to age and constitution. It is usually injected on the left upper arm. A swelling quickly appears, and there is a rise in temperature, accompanied by slight pain. The fever

becomes considerable in from ten to fifteen hours, but then begins to subside, while the pain lasts three or four days.

### *Results of Inoculation.*

In proof, however, that no permanently ill-effects are to be feared from the inoculation, the Viceroy and all his staff have been operated upon, as well as that enlightened Prince, His Highness the Aga Khan, the head of the Khoja community, all the leading Parsees, and most of the Imperial officers directly in touch with the people. The satisfactory results are proved by many statistics. One instance only is sufficient. A village of 1,000 people was visited by a severe attack of plague. Half were inoculated. Six weeks later an independent investigation of the result was made. The people said "About fifty uninoculated had been attacked, and they are all dead; while only a few inoculated have been ill, and they have all recovered." This was not quite borne out by actual figures. But among seventy-one inoculated in twenty-eight houses, there were only eight attacks, with three deaths, whereas sixty-four not inoculated in the same houses had twenty-seven cases with twenty-six deaths.

Mishaps in the inoculation process have been strikingly few. But there has lately been a very serious one in the Punjab—just at the time, moreover, when the inhabitants of that province were all coming in freely for inoculation. There were nineteen inoculations in a village, and a like number of rapid deaths from tetanus. The people took the disaster in a very philosophic manner, and gladly accepted the services of the unfortunate operator in soothing the last hours of the dying. The whole matter is now being inquired into by a Commission, presided over by the Chief Justice of Bombay. The fear of the Laboratory authorities at Parel is that some foreign substance must have got into the bottle of vaccine between the

time of its leaving the Laboratory and the use by the operator. At any rate, it will be seen that it would be difficult to take more precautions than are taken by Professor Haffkine, Major Bannerman, Dr. Gibson, and their assistants to obtain as pure a fluid as is possible.

*Rat Fleas and Human Beings.*

I said that much still remains a mystery as regards the plague. As in the days of the Philistines, there is no doubt that rats or mice carry the infection. But how they communicate it to the human being is still in the realms of conjecture. The latest theory is that fleas pass from them on to the bare feet and legs of the natives, and Mr. Charles Rothschild, a devoted naturalist, is directing his researches to the discovery of what truth there may be in this surmise, and what kind of fleas partial to the rat have a liking also for the human subject.—*Sheffield Telegraph*.

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NOTE (see p. 23).

The Marquess of Lansdowne, K.G., Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, made the subjoined important declaration in the House of Lords on the 5th of May, 1903: "The noble lord asked me for a statement of our policy with regard to the Persian Gulf. I think I can give him one in a few simple words. It seems to me that our policy should be directed in the first place to protect and promote British trade in those waters. In the next place I do not think that he suggests, or that we should suggest, that those efforts should be directed towards the exclusion of the legitimate trade of other Powers. In the third place—I say it without hesitation—we should regard the establishment of a naval base or of a fortified port in the Persian Gulf by any other Power as a very grave menace to British interests, and we should certainly resist it with all the means at our disposal."

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