Our Imperial Heritage

An Introduction to the Study of the Development of the British Empire.

BY WINIFRED SCARTH.

PRICE SIXPENCE.

Issued by the Society for the Oversea Settlement of British Women, Caxton House (West Block), Tothill Street, London, S.W.1.

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"A great Empire and little minds go ill together."—Burke.

"It is therefore our business carefully to cultivate in our minds, to rear to the most perfect vigour and maturity, every sort of generous and honest feeling that belongs to our nature. To bring the dispositions that are lovely in private life into the service and conduct of the commonwealth."—Burke.

"My first words shall be for our ancestors, . . . for, dwelling always in this country, generation after generation in unchanging and unbroken succession, they have handed it down to us free by their exertions. So they are worthy of our praise; and still more so are our fathers. For they enlarged the ancestral patrimony by the Empire which we hold to-day and delivered it, not without labour, into the hands of our own generation." Thucydides.



FOREWORD.

This pamphlet is written in the hope that it may serve as an introduction to the study of the Empire. It merely sets the door ajar. The subject is so vast that it is impossible to enter in fully, or to do more than touch upon a few of the main aspects of importance. Moreover, each section—geography, exploration, history, political development, the native races, the resources, transport and communications,—requires a whole voluminous leaflet to itself, and these again would only touch the fringe. Yet if it stimulates interest sufficiently to awaken a desire for knowledge to understand the trend of current affairs and thus make the Empire a living reality, it will have served its purpose.

It is impossible in a small compass to enter into the subject of India's place in the Empire or of our past connection with Egypt. All consideration therefore of these two countries has been omitted.

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CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

"To speak now of the True Temper of Empire; it is a thing rare and hard to keep."—Bacon.

The word "economic" conjures up visions of difficult figures. of statistics, money markets, rates of exchange, tariffs, customs, 1 and all the complicated subjects with which the ordinary mind can have little understanding or sympathy. But there is another side to its meaning, more easy to grasp. "Economics," says the dictionary, "is the science relating to the development and regulation of the material resources of a community or nation." Thus as a good housekeeper looks to her stores, sees where she can buy her supplies, finds out when and where they are produced, so each country must make certain that her national cupboard is filled with supplies suited to her needs. She must see whence these supplies can best be procured, very often she can produce them in her own land and if she has anything over and above her wants she can sell her surplus to her relations and friends, her own Dominions and Colonies, or her foreign neighbours. But to do this successfully each nation must endeavour to go on producing to the utmost of her capacity. She must see where improvement in methods of production is needed, and must understand in what way development can best be carried on. This is brought about by migration and the movements of peoples.

Looked at in this way Economics becomes a matter of exploration and of settlement in new lands. It includes questions of the development and production of possible resources locked up in the soil, of transport, of scientific invention and its effects upon new countries, problems of health, of agriculture and of racial difference. It depends upon geographical conditions, upon climate and the various forces of nature that have to be contended with,—mountains, rivers, soil, the results of a primeval past to be used for an unknown future. It bears witness to the fact that in the world of to-day no man and no nation can live unto itself but each is intimately bound up in the welfare of the other.

A glance at the map of the world,² together with a study of the classified list of British possessions,³ will disclose the vast and

¹ For this side of Imperial affairs see The Empire Restored, W. A. S. Hewins, 1927.

² See Appendix 2.

³ See Appendix 1.

scattered character of the British Empire; and the notes added will explain its two-fold character;—i.e. (I) Self-governing Dominions, (2) Non-Self-governing Dependencies or the Colonial Empire (consisting of Crown Colonies, Protectorates and Mandated Territories). Its territories lie on five different continents, separated by vast oceans, yet knit together by common interests and loyalty to one Crown.

"You live here," writes a Burmese, "widely separated, many thousand miles from your small island, but yet you are not divided from it. You are all held together by nerves in the invisible air that make you one. Therefore your government is you, not your master, your teacher, your commander, but yourself. You feel as we do about our family, and our village, that it is ourselves. That is what we notice and wonder at in you. When we see two or three Englishmen alone, governing a great district, you appear to us not individuals but tiny finger-tips of a great living thing whose heart and brain are far away. Yet if the finger-tip be touched the whole responds. And what one of you does, that is the act of the whole."

It follows that in countries so different in situation, their climates, their peoples and their problems must in many ways be equally different. Yet out of this complex situation has been evolved, through the experience of time and the wisdom of statesmen, a certain uniformity of government and unity of interest.

CHAPTER II.

GROWTH OF THE SELF-GOVERNING DOMINIONS.

"Imagination was on the stretch. The reality was assuming proportions vaster than fancy had dreamt."—Froude.

"Then cutting the Line, they saw the face of that heaven which earth hideth from us."—Fuller.

The Voyages, 1498—1598.

The beginnings of the British Empire lie four centuries back in English history, in that great time of discovery and exploration, the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The first-fruits of the Empire lay in the East, in India, the country that for centuries had been the goal of the western nations, owing to her trade in spices. In those days Spain and Portugal were the rivals of England in the Imperial field. As early as the fifteenth century, under the inspiration of their great scientific sailor, Prince Henry the Navigator, the Portuguese, searching for a sea-route to India, gradually, carefully and methodically, felt their way, like blind men, down the coast of Africa into the Sea of Darkness. Their reward came in 1486 when Bartholomew Diaz rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and their aim was achieved when in 1497-99 Vasco da Gama sailed again round the Cape, reached India and returned. Meanwhile Spain had not been idle, and Columbus, sailing west in the hope of reaching India, stumbled upon the continent of America in 1492. With so much exploration and discovery in progress, disputes naturally arose between the two countries as to their rights over the territories discovered. In 1493 these disputes were settled by the Pope, who issued a Bull decreeing all discoveries in the south-eastern oceans to Portugal, and all in the southwestern oceans to Spain. In 1521 the "two nations met angrily on the other side of the globe," when the Spanish explorer, Magellan, sailing west through the straits now bearing his name. reached the Moluccas, and found there the Portuguese, who had already landed from the east.

The Papal Bull left little room for the adventurous spirits of other nations, so long as they were under the jurisdiction of Rome. Nothing daunted, English seamen, whose characteristic it is never to recognize defeat, sought for a passage to India in the north-western and north-eastern quarters of the globe, "We see them like salmon leaping at a fall too high for them, indomitable in their endeavour, still persisting in their defeat." But they sought

¹ The Inward Light, H. Fielding Hall.

¹ The Origins of Empire, Ian Colvin, p. 23.

unsuccessfully. In the reign of Elizabeth, papal domination in England became a thing of the past and with it respect for Papal Bulls. In 1578 Drake, therefore, throwing to the winds all care for former monopolies of Spain and Portugal, burst into the Pacific Ocean and opened, for England, the possibility of a route to India by the south. In 1591 the first English squadron sailed round the Cape of Good Hope.

Thus during the search for routes to India of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the coasts of America and Africa had become known and some of the greater modern highways of the oceans

had been discovered.

Trading Posts and Plantation Colonies, 1598—1763.

From 1599 to 1763 the British Empire consisted of mere fringes of coastline on the North American continent; of trading posts in India and West Africa, and of some islands, both in the East and West Indies. It has been well called an Empire of Outposts. The interior of the continent of America remained unexplored; the interior of West Africa was swampy, fever infested and undeveloped until comparatively recent years, while the interior of India was ruled over by representatives of ancient and not always friendly peoples. . The plantation colonies and trading posts therefore remained on or very near the coast, and were thus easily accessible to the ships of the Mother Country. These plantations produced spices, sugar, tobacco, cotton, rice and dyestuffs, to be shipped home to the United Kingdom. But with this development the question of labour in the plantations became acute; and thus the abuse arose of the buying and selling of natives from West Africa in order to cultivate the plantations. In these days the Colonies had the monopoly of the English market for their raw products and were defended by England from external enemies, while the Mother County in her turn had the monopoly both of the colonial products and of their markets for her manufactures. 1 Thus this Mercantile System was, for the time it lasted, of mutual benefit to England and her Colonies. But as time went on the Empire began to grow.

Expansion, 1763—1869.

Between the years 1763 and 1869 there was a gradual and important inland expansion in the Dominions, and throughout the nineteenth century conditions were changing rapidly. With the revolt of the American Colonies, those who wished to remain loyal moved northwards and established themselves in the provinces of Ontario and New Brunswick. By this means the great

navigable waterway of the river St. Lawrence was tapped. It immediately provided a means of transit into the interior and was the beginning of the opening up of Canada for settlement and trade. In India the East India Company 1 obtained permission to collect revenues in Bengal and thus up the course of the river Ganges the British Empire in India began to develop. The further development of India and Canada proceeded apace in later years with the laying out of railways and roads.²

In South Africa, the Dutch began to spread inland when the Great Trek of the Boers took place. As they moved northwards to find pasturage for their flocks and herds, away from British control, the Boers came into collision with the Bantus, and Great Britain had to assist them against the Kaffirs. The British had perforce to follow where the Boers had trekked, thus expanding inland from Cape Colony, which had hitherto been considered merely a refitting station on the way to India.

In Australia, exploration had begun inland in 1813, its cause and object being, like that of the Boers in South Africa, to find pasturage for the development of sheep farms. Thus, where in India and Canada inland penetration was developed by the making of roads and railways, in South Africa and Australia it depended

largely on the walking capacity of animals.3

As the century advanced other changes took place in the Dominions. Australia largely increased her production of wool. In 1850 half the English supply of wool came from Australia. England's trade in tea from the East Indies in 1870 had risen to 141 million lbs. with the disappearance of the monopoly of the East India Company and the opening of the Suez Canal which brought the trade of the East 1,000 miles nearer home.

Canada developed her splendid waterways and her railway system; the latter was begun in 1836 and rapidly expanded after 1850. These systems of communications opened up her wonderful resources of agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and minerals.

¹ British Commonwealth of Nations, Duncan Hall, p. 14.

^{1 &}quot;Governors and Company of the Merchants of London trading in the East Indies" by Royal Charter given by Queen Elizabeth, dated 31 December 1600. They were founded in order to compete with the Dutch Merchants. Their monopoly of the Indian trade was abolished in 1813.

[&]quot;When the diwani (the right to collect revenue in Bengal) was given to Clive in 1765, the Company began to depend principally upon its land revenue and not on its trade for its profit. The power that collected the revenue virtually owned the province, and the Company no longer existed on sufferance to carry on trade from fortified posts as heretofore. From that time it became a territorial power which rapidly extended its rule up the Ganges plain towards the western hills and also penetrated inland from Bombay towards Madras." Economic Development of the Overseas Empire,—L.C.A. Knowles, p. 13.

²Ibid, p. 13.

³ Ibid, p. 13.

In South Africa the discovery of gold and diamonds led to expansion at a time when the opening of the Suez Canal had threat-

ened her prosperity.1

Meanwhile in the United Kingdom the discovery of steam power and the invention of machinery in the nineteenth century brought about the vast Industrial Revolution which was to be the means of linking the Empire into one whole. Scientific inventions created an increased capacity for manufacturing, and therefore an increased demand for wool, cotton, and other similar raw materials produced by the Colonies. New markets were needed for the goods manufactured, and the invention of steam vastly increased inland and overseas transport facilities. Moreover, a new demand arose from a more prosperous population for articles of food, where before only the accessories of food, such as spices, had been required to vary the monotony of a cheaper diet.

Thus it was a period of opening up for the countries of Canada and South Africa, of Australia and New Zealand, and of India; while the United Kingdom was herself developing immeasurably and becoming ready to meet the demands of the Colonies and to welcome the resources they were ready to supply. The effects of the Industrial Revolution had permeated the Mother Country and the Empire. It was a time of increasing possibilities owing to increasing scientific discoveries of every description.

Moreover greater ease of transport and communications brought by the invention of railways and steamships, made the Dominions easy of access to foreign countries, who, also, saw the

opportunities opened up by colonisation.

Three factors, therefore, turned Great Britain's attention to her overseas dominions after 1870: (1) the need for raw materials which the Colonies could supply; (2) the need for new markets for her manufactures; (3) the fear of foreign aggression.

The Suez Canal was opened in 1869.

CHAPTER III.

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE BRITISH COMMON-WEALTH OF NATIONS.

"The continents of the world no longer contain isolated races severed from each other by the barriers of nature, mutual ignorance or the artifices of man, but vast masses, moving into ever-deepening intimacies, imitations, mutually influenced and influencing."—J. A. Cramb.

Early Policy.

The four great self-governing Dominions—Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa—have attained to their present position, politically, by a very gradual process. Slowly over a period of 150 years, their Governments and the Home Government have felt their way towards a solution of the problems of the Imperial family life. At certain periods the parent has feared, sometimes she has even wished for, separation. On the other hand, the daughter nations have steadfastly endeavoured to show their keen desire for co-operation. At the same time they have found it necessary to educate the Mother Country to realise that independence to manage their own affairs must be included in the principle of co-operation. The result to-day proves how completely possible it is for the two seemingly opposite principles to be brought into workable harmony.

From the time of the foundation of the American Colonies to the final rupture with them, 1603—1776, England looked upon these Colonies as a piece of herself planted overseas. But as they gradually grew in stature they resented the attitude adopted of interfering, as they considered, with their private affairs. They had become citizens of new cities and new countries, while England remained blind to their new condition. The result was the American War of Independence. From this experience England

learnt a lesson.

The breaking away of the American Colonies led, however, to a long period of depression at home in regard to the overseas possessions. In the middle of the nineteenth century, the general feeling was one of practical indifference, growing, as time went on, into actual pessimism. It is curious and interesting that this time of indifference in Great Britain coincided with the period of inland expansion in the Colonies themselves.

Self-Government.

There were, however, notable exceptions to the general indifference in England. In 1830 a group of men, under the leader-

or beginning of 1870 over 500 cradles were at work."

(Diamonds and Gold in South Africa, Henry Mitchell, 1888, pp. 1 and 4).

[&]quot;The first gold was discovered at the end of the year 1867, and in successive years in various districts." (Gold-seeking in South Africa, Theo. Kassner, 1902).

No great development, however, took place until later in the eighties in the diamond mines and the gold fields, owing to lack of railway facilities and transport.

ship of Edward Gibbon Wakefield, began to try to rouse the country to a true understanding of the value of the Colonies. The work of these Colonial Reformers lay between 1840 and 1855, and they did much, both in England and the Colonies, towards altering the views of the government. Wakefield himself, although his theory of colonization proved not entirely practical in the working out, helped largely towards the solution of the Imperial problems of the day. Born in 1796, he was "destined to be a prophet without honour. As a factor in the making of the history of Empire . . . he was to rank among the greatest and most original forces. As a builder of English fortunes overseas he remains in the theoretic sphere what Cecil John Rhodes was to become in the practical."1 To-day when the question of the migration of women is coming increasingly to the fore, it is interesting to read his urgent insistence upon the need for basing colonization on the family. "In his view the participation of the woman must begin with the first thought of emigration in the man and must be bound up in all the arrangements made both in the old country and the new. The measure of the woman's content in the colony must be the gauge of the colony's success. They were and are the main religious force of a new nationality."2

The chief result in the Dominions of the work of these Reformers was to give birth to the idea of Responsible Government. In Canada, the Durham Report brought about self-government in 1840. Canada's example was followed by New Zealand in 1852:

and New South Wales in 1856.

The result in England of this growing national consciousness overseas was to make people believe that the end would be separation. Some even hoped for this. "It is a great pity that, give as much as you will, you can't please the colonists with anything short of absolute independence, so it is not easy to say how you are to accomplish what we are, I suppose, all looking to, the eventual parting company on good terms." This appears to have been the prevailing idea of the period. The Cape was regarded merely as a military fort on the way to India. Australia as a useful dumping ground for convicts. "Canada," says Wakefield, "we are by all accounts only peopling and enriching for the Americans to possess ere long." In 1830 he wrote, "Is it worth while to study the subject? Shall we ever overcome the general indifference? Is there any prospect of action?" "My fancy pictures," he continues, "a sort and amount of colonization that would amply repay its cost by providing happily for our redundant

people... and by supplying us largely with food and raw materials;" but "who proposes any plan... who is seriously looking to important results?" Ignorance and indifference alone prevailed. In those days, the voice of Empire was a still small voice. Such were the conditions nearly 100 years ago. But great changes were in store.

It has been seen how the Colonies attained to self-government. The next step in their political growth was Federation, when the hitherto separate provinces in each Dominion, with their separate governments, were knit together in one, with a Governor-General sent out as the King's representative at its head. This federation began in Canada in 1867 when the Dominion of Canada was established. Australia did not attain to this status until 1st January, 1901; South Africa not until 1910. New Zealand annexed as a Crown Colony in 1840, became a Dominion in 1907.

Colonial Conferences.

With this rapid growth of the Dominions some means had to be devised to keep the different parts of the British Empire in closer political touch with the centre.

In 1887, Queen Victoria's Jubilee was the occasion for the gathering of representatives from all the Dominions, and the opportunity was seized for these representatives to meet the members of the British Government in conference to discuss matters of common interest. This meeting—"a casual thing... unaware of any settled future" 2—was the first Colonial Conference. By a gradual process it has developed into the modern Imperial Conference, meeting every four years. In 1894, a second meeting of the same nature was held in Ottawa. In 1897 and 1902, again, the Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria and the Coronation of King Edward VII, respectively, afforded opportunities for the Prime Ministers of the Dominions to meet in Conference with the Prime Minister of Great Britain and the Cabinet.

The next Colonial Conference was held in 1907 and marked an important step forward. Definite recognition was given that the self-governing *Colonies* were now self-governing *Dominions*, arrived at the standing when they could themselves deal face to face with His Majesty's Government. In the seven years 1907—14 the idea of the co-operation of the Dominion Governments with the Home Government in all matters of Imperial interest grew rapidly. In 1911, the Imperial Conference again met and its debates "opened up a vision of international co-operation on a gigantic scale, which

¹ The Soldier Colonists, Capt. W. H. Warman, 1918, p. 31.

² Ibid. p. 38.

³ Quoted in Short History of British Colonial Policy, Prof. Hugh E. Egerton, p. 362.

¹ Art of Colonization, Edward Gibbon Wakefield, p. 7.

² The British Commonwealth of Nations, Duncan Hall, p. 97.

would make possible a much richer and fuller life for the communities it represented." It discussed questions of interimperial trade, of transport, of tariff, of inter-imperial communication, of commercial intelligence and legislation. From this it will be seen how complex and varied were the subjects it had to consider. Yet even so they seem simple when compared with the questions of the following ten years, when war had drawn the people of the British Empire closer together, and when peace was to raise vast problems eventually leading to still more definite Imperial unity. ²

Owing to the war, the Conference of 1915 did not meet, but in 1917 the Imperial War Cabinet met the British Cabinet to discuss questions immediately connected with the war. At the same time the Imperial War Conference met to discuss other Imperial matters. It is interesting to note that at the War Cabinet the "Dominions members occupied the same status of absolute equality as that of the members of the British War Cabinet and that each nation had its full voice and share in determining both military and foreign policy—especially with regard to the terms of peace; and that each nation preserved unimpaired. . . its self-government and the responsibility of its members to their own electorate." 3 At the Imperial Conference of 1917 it was recognised that the Dominions and India had a voice in foreign policy and foreign relations. In 1918, the Imperial War Cabinet and the Imperial War Conference met again and in 1919 representatives of the self-governing Dominions took part in the peace negotiations in London and in the Peace Conference in Paris. The result of this was that the new status of the Dominions, of absolute equality with Great Britain in all matters concerning the British Empire, was forced upon the notice of the world at large. The other European nations realised that the Dominions had become separate Powers. Yet though separate, they were able to speak with one voice as the British Empire. Moreover, the Treaty of Peace was signed by the Dominion Ministers on behalf of the Dominion Governments; and by the advice of those Governments the King ratified the Treaty in the same way that he ratified it on the advice of the Government of Great Britain.

In the same way the Dominions have become members of the League of Nations standing on the same footing as other nations. They have therefore knowledge of, and concern in all international affairs and in all foreign policy. Thus, although the Government

of Great Britain bears, in the words of Mr. Baldwin, "the major responsibility in matters of foreign affairs and defence," yet for example, "Canada's share of responsibility is growing. But this diversity of function, in administrative matters, is largely a question of convenience, and can be altered quickly or slowly according to the changing circumstances."

The Imperial Conference of 1926 consolidated the position already secured through the development of the foregoing circumstances. It recognised that "equality of status was the root principle governing inter-Imperial relations so far as concerned Great Britain and the Dominions." This it did in the now famous formula—"Great Britain and the Dominions are autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate to one another in any respect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations."

The second important step taken by the Imperial Conference lay in defining the position of the Governor-General in the Dominions. Hitherto the Governor-General had been the representative of the Government in Great Britain, the channel of all formal official communications of that Government. In future he was to be the representative of the Crown, and all communications were to be dealt with direct from H.M. Government in Great Britain to H.M. Government in the Dominions.

"The old fight for breadth of vision is won; if the war has wrought naught else, it has at least taught the nation the wisdom of Mr. Chamberlain's exhortation to 'think imperially."

The political position, therefore of the British Empire in 1927 is very different from that held in 1870. Then Canada, South Africa, New Zealand and Australia, were Colonies very much dependent upon the Mother Country, but with a budding sense of responsibility. Now they are full-grown nations of the British Empire and of the world.

"This coming into being of the new British nations by a process of peaceful evolution in the bosom of the British Empire is one of the most remarkable and important phenomena in all history. . . . But the fact that it has taken place by peaceful evolution does not detract from its essential importance, and from its bearing on the future development of the world." ⁴

To-day the Dominions bear witness to the extraordinary fact that an apparent contradiction in terms is after all a possible

¹ The British Commonwealth of Nations, Duncan Hall, p. 137.

² For a summary of the Conferences see Dominions Office and Colonial Office List, 1927, pp. li.—lxxvi. For a list of these Conferences see Appendix 3.

³ The British Commonwealth of Nations, Duncan Hall, p. 171.

¹⁰ur Inheritance, Rt. Hon. Stanley Baldwin, M.P., p. 101.

² Dominions Office and Colonial Office List, 1927, p. lxxiv.

³ The Soldier Colonists, Capt. W. H. Warman.

⁴Rt. Hon. L. S. Amery, M.P., in United Empire, May, 1928.

combination in practice; namely, that complete independence of status, politically, is possible, side by side with complete cooperation in all matters of mutual interest.

In the words of General Smuts, the late Prime Minister of South Africa:

"Yours is the only system that has ever worked in history where a large number of nations have been living in unity. . . . You are going to be an even greater league of nations in the future, and if you are true to your old tradition of self-government and freedom and to this vision of your future and your mission, who knows that you may not exercise far greater and more beneficent influence on the history of mankind than you have ever done before?"

CHAPTER IV.

THE COLONIAL EMPIRE.

"Above all, let men make that profit of being in the wilderness, as they have God always and His service before their eyes."—Bacon.

"We ought to elevate our minds to the greatness of that trust to which the order of providence has called us."—Burke.

It has been seen how it has fallen to the lot of Great Britain to start these younger nations on their careers, to guide them slowly from infancy to full-grown manhood. It has also fallen to her lot, and is now the task of the Empire as a whole, to be the trustees and guardians of many of the child-races of the world.

The importance of the Colonial Empire lies in two main facts: first, that in its territories live the many coloured races, for whose well-being Great Britain is responsible; secondly, that these regions, lying as they do in tropical and semi-tropical areas, contain the raw materials, which are so necessary for the manufacturing industries.

This Colonial Empire covers over two million square miles, and is inhabited by a population of about fifty millions. Its importance has hitherto been overshadowed by the more obvious and rapid growth of the great self-governing Dominions, who are often near and big neighbours to the Crown Colonies and Protectorates. Moreover, these latter are scattered in many parts of the world and their histories have not been such as to attract the public eye in the same way as the other portions of the Empire.

"Year by year developments of great value take place in the Colonies. Harbours are made; railways constructed; crops are saved by scientific discoveries; the diseases of the tropics are gradually being mastered by the progress of medicine. But this development is constant, unobtrusive and unadvertised. . . . The Colonies have been the great field of exploration in modern times, but, while we remember Livingstone and Stanley, Speke and Mungo Parke, we tend to forget the men who make use of their discoveries."

This two-fold division of the Empire into fully-developed nations and colonial dependencies, carries with it a corresponding division of the peoples who are its inhabitants. Broadly speaking, in the first are the peoples who are sprung from the original stock in the Mother Country who now have developed a distinct nationality of their own. To be a Canadian, an Australian, a New Zealander, or a South African, is to be something as entirely

¹ Report on the Agricultural Research and Administration in the Non-Self-Governing Dependencies, Cmd. 2825, 1927, p. 10.

distinctive as to be a Frenchman or Italian, an Englishman, Scotchman or Irishman. In the second are those who are native to the lands in which they dwell,—the coloured races, towards whom the Empire has a particular trust to discharge. The discharge of such a trust involves many difficult and complicated questions of land tenure, of labour policy, of health organisation, of education.

But this broad division cannot stand completely alone, for in most of the Dominions a certain proportion of the population is of foreign or native extraction. Thus Canada has the French-Canadians, a race and type distinct from their British-born neighbours; New Zealand has the Maori; while in South Africa the mixture of races creates many delicate problems. Here the descendants of the early Dutch inhabitants live by no means always in harmony with the descendants of the British; the Asiatic has come in to take up his abode; and the many native races combine to raise problems of a very delicate nature. Australia, although containing a certain aboriginal population, is practically free from these complications owing to her policy of "White Australia."

Again in the non-self-governing Dependencies, where the native population is predominant, white settlers have entered and live in a comparatively small minority in the lands hitherto previ-

ously only occupied by the coloured races.

The millions of coloured peoples for whom the Government and people of Great Britian are responsible are at various stages of development and live in many quarters of the globe. No more than an indication can be given here of the vastness of the area and the variety of the peoples.

South Africa.

In the Union of South Africa the predominant native race is the Bantu—a word meaning 'people'—who are believed to have come from the northern and central parts of Africa and dispersed themselves in different parts of southern Africa. They split up into three main groups who again were divided into innumerable tribes. Hence arose the Zulus, the Bechuanas, the Swazis and many others, all with different characteristics and capabilities. The Bantus were an agricultural race, while their cattle formed their chief wealth. Of the different tribes, the Zulus of Zululand and Natal were in the past the great warriors of the race, of splendid physique and commanding presence. For this reason, to-day, they form the police of Natal, and anyone who has seen it will not easily forget the sight of a uniformed Zulu policeman controlling the traffic in Durban, with as much calm dignity as any London constable, whilst his brothers of the ricksha, in fantastic headdress and very little other clothing, dance round a hopeful customer, all shouting "Me best boy." The Cape of Good Hope contains not one, but many and varied tribes and sections of tribes; the Transvaal attracts native labour from all parts of South Africa; but the Orange Free State, owing to the difficulty of defending its open country, apparently was never much occupied by natives. The people of Swaziland are akin to the Zulus in most of their characteristics, except that it is said that, like those of the Protectorate of Bechuanaland, they show little desire for improvement or to gain a higher standard of life. The people of Basutoland had for their leader, as long ago as the end of the eighteenth century, one of the famous natives of South African history. Moshesh, was described by a French Protestant missionary who saw him:—

"His profile," he says, "was much more aquiline than that of the generality of his subjects; his well-developed forehead, his eyes, . . . full of intelligence and softness, made a deep impression on me. I felt at once I had to do with a superior man, trained to think, to command others and above all himself."

Sir Godfrey Lagden, in summing up his account of the natives of the Union of South Africa, from which the foregoing is taken, says:

"It is no easy matter to make forecast of the future, because it is beyond our powers to realise the intellectual height which the natives as a whole can reach. The mere fact that a few here and there have shown outstanding ability gives no clue. They are now going through the trying ordeal of change in life and thought. How they will emerge from it remains to be seen. It is a potential factor in the situation that they are beginning to feel a race consciousness which if it does not carry them too fast may carry them far. . . . Many artisans are as capable as the best Europeans; some have won high proficiency in the learned professions. They are yearning for sympathy and are leaning hopefully for assistance and guidance upon their European rulers, who are now everywhere studying native problems with the desire to give the coloured people fair and generous treatment." 1

East Africa.

Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland were the scene of Livingstone's wanderings and hardships. The story of the faithfulness of his native followers up to his death and after is touching reading.

In Central Africa the native tribes are many and various, from the agriculturalists and fishermen of Tanganyika and Nyasaland and "the sturdy tribes whose broad, shoulders supported the main part of the transport between Zanzibar and the Great Lakes in the pre-railway days," to the more aristocratic tribes of the Baganda and of Ruanda. In Ruanda the paramount chief is "a fine and distinguished figure. The grandfather of the present King of Baganda was reigning when Speke and Stanley went there in 1862 and 1875 respectively. It was at his request that Stanley wrote his famous letter to the Daily Telegraph asking for missionary help, which was the origin of the Church Missionary Society's work in those parts. The eagerness of the natives for education is akin to the thirst for the New Learning in Europe during the Renaissance and the Baganda can learn anything they are taught." 3

¹ The Native Races of the Empire, edited by Sir Godfrey Lagden, p. 74.

² Ibid, p. 96.

³ Ibid, pp. 112--113.

Tilling of the soil and keeping of cattle is much the same all the world over, in every country where nature and man remain in fairly close contact. In Tanganyika, as in Switzerland, the cattle are driven out to pasture on the mountain meadows; cultivation is done on the steep slopes of the hills by means of banked up terraces, and alpenstocks are used by both the men and women in the high places of Tanganyika and Kenya Colony. Like many of the peasants of Italy, too, the Africans sing at their work, chanting a sort of rhythmical chant or recitative. ¹

In Africa there remain the innumerable tribes of West Africa and of the Sudan, presenting in Sir Frederick Lugard's words "a mosaic of humanity."

East Indies.

But it is not only on the Continent of Africa that our responsibilities towards the native races rest. In the East there is the Malay of whom Sir Frank Swettenham says that his leading characteristic is a disinclination to work, that he is guided by his heart rather than his head and will follow a man anywhere, not because he is told to, but because he likes him, and that he has always dearly loved a picnic! In North Borneo there are the hillmen of the far interior who live by hunting and the natural products of the jungle; the people of the foothills, a peaceable agricultural race; and the vain, treacherous, lazy and piratical people of the coasts, who appear to possess two rather strangely combined accomplishments, that of being skilled sailors at the same time that they are good horsemen. There is the tall, lithe, muscular, coffee-coloured native of Papua, said to be revengeful, superstitious and unattractive, and his neighbour the short, agile, compact, light brown Melanesian, of cheerful temperament, also inhabiting the territory of Papua, where the women do the planting, cultivating and harvesting, and the men go fishing and hunting, leaving the villages to be tended till evening time by the old people and the children.

Australasia.

There are the splendid races inhabiting the Pacific Islands, among them the Fijians, a fine well-built race, taller than the average European, who are agriculturalists and "expert boat builders and handlers of native craft." Many Fijians excel at cricket and golf, whilst at Rugby football many of the natives could put into the field, a team that would hold its own with some of the best clubs at home." During the war "the natives of the

Colony by the exercise of much self-denial, subscribed to the various patriotic funds not less than £50,000. The difficulty was not to raise the money, but to prevent the natives giving away all they had." Again of the natives of the Pacific Islands there are the fine races of the Friendly Islands and of Samoa, whose civilization has reached a very high standard, and those of the Ellice Islands who are of Samoan stock and consequently have the Samoan "traditions of courtesy and refinement." They, too, contributed to the War Funds £11,000.2

Then, to present two contrasts, there are the aborigines of Australia and the Maoris of New Zealand, two races at opposite poles of civilisation, the first being of the lowest, the second of the highest type, of native races. In New Zealand, the Maoris have the power of electing four members to the House of Representatives from among themselves, and to the Legislative Council the Governor-General appoints two Maoris. They are also represented on all Local and Land Boards and Councils where their interests are concerned. During the war, at their own request, a Maori unit was included in the New Zealand contingent. Sent at first to Malta for garrison duty, they never rested until they were moved to the front at Gallipoli.

Canada and the Carribean Sea.

Lastly there are the varied and complicated races of the British West Indies, of British Honduras and of British Guiana, and there are the picturesque Red Indians of Canada, who 'on foot were as fleet as an arrow and could travel hundreds of miles through forests in a straight line with unfailing certainty.' They were the makers of the birch-bark canoe,—

"And the forest's life was in it
All its mystery and its magic,
All the lightness of the birch-tree,
All the toughness of the cedar,
All the larch's supple sinews;
And it floated on the river
Like a yellow leaf in Autumn,
Like a yellow water-lily."—Longfellow.

The Red Indians were also in close contact with the Hudson Bay Company, that great Company of "Adventurers of England, Trading into Hudson's Bay," who received their charter from Charles II. in 1670 and who owe their origin and growth to the fur trade.

¹Native Races of the Empire, edited by Sir Godfrey Lagden, pp. 99 and 102.

² Ibid, p. 284.

¹Native Races of the Empire, edited by Sir Godfrey Lagden, p. 284.

² Ibid, p. 290.

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CHAPTER V.

RESEARCH.

"But the bravest are surely those who have the clearest vision of what is before them, glory and danger alike, and yet notwithstanding go out to meet it."—Thucydides.

In tropical regions, man has had much to contend with. The climate, in many instances, has caused disease both to human, animal and plant life. Owing to the marvellous discoveries of science, however, and to the wonderful research work carried out, these difficulties have been overcome to an almost incredible degree. Science has developed the possibilities of agriculture, while in the sphere of tropical medicine a vast amount of preventive work has been done.

Hitherto each area has confronted its own problems in these directions separately. Now the tropical regions are to be considered as a whole in the matter of research. The Colonial Conference, meeting in London in May, 1927, had among other things, the consideration of the following question—"What, in barest outline, is the scope of the field, which the colonies viewed as a single whole estate, offer to the concerted applications of scientific research?"

Thus viewed, scientific research falls into four main departments, the medical and veterinary services, agriculture and forestry.

Medicine.

The subject of tropical medicine in its relation to the building of the Empire was first considered, from a statesmanlike point of view, by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain. During his term of office as Secretary of State for the Colonies two great Schools were founded, the London and the Liverpool Schools of Tropical Medicine. At the same time the Tropical Diseases Research Fund came into being, and since then a Bureau of Hygiene and Tropical Diseases has been established. All this means eventually not only improvement in conditions for the white population, but when the results of the scientific investigations take effect, a vast improvement also for the natives.

There are no geographical boundaries or racial distinctions for science, and what may be of benefit to one tropical dependency may also be of benefit to another. The Central African and the

Malayan, the West Indian and the East Indian may alike share in the results of the knowledge of the men of science. Consequently, to bring into being a central organisation where results of investigations may be pooled for the benefit of the whole, is one of the great works of this age. In helping forward the welfare of the inhabitants, both white and coloured, of the British Empire, it also serves to help forward the welfare of mankind as a whole.

Two illustrations may be taken to show something of the work of medical research in the tropics. In Malay an organised campaign against malaria was started in 1901 by Sir Malcolm Watson,

"at Klang in Selangor, a town of 3,576 inhabitants, contained in an area of 290 acres, of which 22 acres were swamp, and 85 acres were jungle and dense growth. Watson found the place badly infested by mosquitos and full of malaria. He made a careful survey of the breeding places of these insects and discovered that the chief breeding place—the swamp—was situated actually in the middle of the town. The whole population of Klang was demoralised by the fever, and the annual death rate stood at 300 per 1,000 inhabitants. . . . The swamp was drained, and the work of mosquito control was begun. . . . The cases of malaria at the hospital which served both Klang and Port Swettenham fell from 610, in 1901, to 199, 69, 32, and 22 in the following four years. In addition, the general death rate fell to one quarter of its former height. . . . The whole population has learned the value of the campaign against malaria and has become united in supporting that campaign."

The second illustration deals with sleeping sickness. ² During 1907 deaths from sleeping sickness in the Kingdom of Buganda were something under 4,000, and this among the native population only. During 1908, however, the improvement in conditions had become so marked, that the deaths fell to 1,700. Practically the whole population from the area infested by the tsetse fly on the shores of Lake Nyanza had been removed, and at the time the Report was written in 1908 the inhabitants of the islands of the lake were in process of being removed. It was feared this latter removal would prove difficult, but so impressed were the native rulers, with the success of the measures taken for the suppression of sleeping sickness, that they themselves requested the removal of the 21,000 people who remained, thereby showing their complete confidence.

Now, at the present time, there are many medical research stations,—in East and West Africa, in the Middle East and the Far East. There are also medical training schools and it is somewhat startling to read in the Report of the Colonial Conference, May, 1927, the following statement:—"At Suva in Fiji a native medical school provides a three years course of training for native

¹Colonial Office Conference: Summary of Proceedings. Cmd. 2883.

¹ Times leading article, June 16, 1927, "Control of Malaria."

² Colonial Office Report on Uganda, 1907-8.

medical practitioners and a proposal is under consideration to establish a central Medical school as a training centre for the Western Pacific.''

Veterinary Research.

Veterinary research appears at present to be more in its infancy than medical and agricultural research. But its importance to both these branches was emphasised at the Colonial Conference in May, 1927, and in the Tropical Dependencies the report speaks of the "gigantic field" open to this aspect of research. There are many research institutions opened in England for veterinary research but:

"as in agriculture so in animal husbandry we have in the tropics our own peculiar field. Africa provides the greatest field for further veterinary investigation and it may be possible to undertake at Kabete and elsewhere not only research into the urgent problems that face veterinary treatment and administration, but also those projects of long range research into veterinary in its widest aspects." ¹

Agriculture.

In agriculture, also, the importance of scientific research is apparent. To this end the Colonial Conference recommended the establishment of a Colonial Agricultural Research Service, for the purpose of having one central organisation, and the establishment of a chain of agricultural research stations throughout the Empire.

"The welfare and progress of agriculture is nowadays the most vital concern of every Colonial Administration. The prosperity of the people, the trade, and, not least, the revenue of each dependency is mainly dependent upon its agricultural production. Apart from mineral and timber resources, rich though they may be, agriculture may be said to be the main industry of our Colonial Empire. On the efficiency of agriculture therefore depends not only the food supply of the population but indeed all economic and social progress." ²

Forestry.

There is no end, however, to the fascination of the subject of research. Forestry, no less than agriculture, is an important branch, not only from the point of view of conserving forests for the sake of timber, but also for the serious results upon climate and agriculture caused by their undue destruction. Such has been the case in connection with agriculture in Sierra Leone and Jamaica, and again there seems to be some close connection between 'the proper conservation of the forest and the oil-palm industry in Nigeria.'' 3

Another aspect of research is that connected with the effect of insect pests upon plant, animal and human life. A Parasite Zoo has been established at Farnham Royal in Buckinghamshire, and experiments are being made at Kew and elsewhere.

"There is not one inch of the whole continent of Africa (except where houses are built and not always then) which is free from insects.

No less striking than their numbers are the depredations wrought by these ceaselessly destructive little creatures. One-tenth of all the world's crops are raised by man, only to be eaten by insects, and about one-fifth of all the crops of the tropics.

The problem of controlling this tremendous wastage presents itself with special urgency to the British Empire. Nearly half the Empire lies within the tropics, while the Dominions, being mainly agricultural, are in the front line of attack from the insect armies."

¹Cmd. 2884, p. 61.

² Ibid, pp. 43-44.

³ Cmd. 2825, p. 46.

¹The Times of May 21, 1927, article by the Chairman of the Research Committee of the Empire Marketing Board.

CHAPTER VI.

RESOURCES.

"The cry goes up for an easing of the burden on industry. . . . Wemust re-construct our whole economic system on a foundation broad enough and strong enough to carry the superstructure of our national life and of our Imperial Responsibilities. That broader foundation found in the development, in co-operation with the other nations and communities in the British Empire of the unlimited and almost untouched resources of our common heritage."—Rt. Hon. L. S. Amery, M.P.

"Every beast reared and every grain of corn grown, . . . could be multiplied many times in the various districts of the Empire, provided that men existed in sufficient numbers to breed the cattle or cultivate the grain, if markets were open to absorb the produce, and if economical and scientific means of transport to such markets were established."-Dominions Royal Commission Final Report, 1918.

In these days of ease of transport and increasing inventions, materials and supplies undreamt of a hundred years ago have been brought into daily use. So accustomed are we to the things that have become the every day necessities of life, that we seldom think how they came into our country and our home. The war brought us face to face with the fact that the greater part of our supplies come from overseas, both from foreign and imperial sources, and that we are dependent upon our Navy and our Merchant Service for its safe conduct. To-day it is becoming more and more recognised that the Empire needs to develop a hundredfold both the actual and the possible resources in her midst, and that to an increasing extent the United Kingdom can draw upon Empire-grown products.

At the same time, caught by the far-flung vision of the overseas Dominions we are apt to exclude the British Isles in our imperial thoughts, merely because they are the spot from which we take our stand. Yet it is very necessary to remember that Great Britain, even more as partner and co-operator in trade relations than in her position as Mother Country, is one of the vital elements in the Imperial concern. 1

Climate.

One of the chief factors in the production of supplies is climate. The British Empire contains every variety of climate, touching, on the one hand the extreme cold of the arctic regions of Canada, and, on the other, the intense heat of the tropics in Africa, the East and elsewhere; while between these two extremes it holds within its borders large areas of the temperate zones. Consequently, the variety of products is as great as the variety of climate. Speaking broadly, from the colder and temperate regions come the staple food supplies, such as wheat, meat, and dairy produce; while the tropical countries furnish the raw materials for the manufacturing industries of Great Britain.

The main classes into which the resources of the Empire may be divided are three: (1) Food Supply; (2) Raw Materials; (3) Mineral Products.

The most important products are the following:—

Food Supply.	Raw Materials.	Mineral Products.
Grain, of all kinds.	Furs.	Asbestos.
Frozen meat.	Cotton.	Asphalt and bitumen.
Dairy produce.	Wool.	Graphite.
Fruit.	Flax.	Mica.
Sugar.	Tute.	Iron ore.
Tea, coffee, cocoa, wine.	Rubber.	Tin.
Spices.	Wood and timber.	Zinc.
Tobacco and drugs.	Vegetable oils.	Gold and silver.
Root crops.		Copper.
		Petroleum. 1

A careful study of this list reveals objects handled daily, in one form or another, without thought as to their origin, and more often than not with an entire disregard of the raw material hidden in the manufactured articles.

The bread we eat may have been made from wheat grown on the prairies of Canada; the cocoa we drink has probably been grown

public should be encouraged to ask first for the produce of Great Britain. and next for the produce of the Empire Overseas."-Empire Marketing and Empire Team work," E. G. Salmon, in United Empire, August, 1927.

'To the people of the Overseas Empire, the prosecution of an orderly policy of development means first and foremost that the strength and security of Great Britain herself will be guaranteed. They realise that her strength is their strength, her weakness their weakness. They are, they consciously realise, units in a Commonwealth whose security must for many years depend in the first instance upon the prosperity and power of the British Isles. Again Britain is the principal market for Empire products, and a policy which will maintain or increase the purchasing power in that market is one which must appeal to the self-interest of the Dominions."-Sheltered Markets, F. L. McDougall, p. 11.

^{1 &}quot;There was no doubt whatever that the home market to-day was relatively a much more important thing for manufacturers in this country than it was before the war; . . . we had got to consider the home market a great deal more."—Sir Philip Cunliffe-Lister, in a review of the than it was before the war; . country in the House of Commons, on July 26, 1927.

The first principle upon which the Board went to work was laid down by the Imperial Economic Conference. It was that as the Home Country is not less part of the Empire than the Dominions and Colonies, the home

¹cf. Statistical Abstract for the several British Oversea Dominions and Protectorates for each year from 1909-1923. Cmd. 2738. p. 425.

RESOURCES.

in British West Africa, and the tea in the plantations of Assam in India, or in Ceylon; our sugar comes from the West Indies or British Guiana; and the pepper we use daily may have been grown in the Straits Settlements; the cinnamon that cures our colds has possibly been cultivated in Ceylon, and the cloves we sometimes use to season our puddings are the staple industry of Zanzibar, so much so, that "the scent of the plantations can be detected as one approaches Zanzibar by sea for a distance of some miles." 1 Our soap and candles have been made from the palm-oil, or cocoanutoil or ground-nuts grown in the tropical parts of the British Empire; the wool we knit and wear has probably come from the sheep-farms of Australia, whilst our cotton may have been grown on the tropical lands of the Empire, but more probably has its origin in the cotton fields of America. Lastly, our pencils and the lead for polishing our grates, are made of graphite from Madagascar or Japan, or we may hope from Ceylon or Canada.

It is not possible within the compass of a pamphlet to deal more than very briefly with the large question of Empire products. But it is perhaps interesting to compare the Imperial with the foreign supply in certain directions.

Grain.

In grain and flour there has been an increase in Empire grown varieties as compared with foreign grown, of from 35% to 42% since the war. Canada, Australia and India are the chief exporting countries, and outside the Empire the Argentine exports more than India. Russia, formerly one of the great wheat exporters, is at present no longer a competitor. In the Dominions there are ever increasing possibilities of wheat growing, owing to scientific discoveries in agriculture. It has been found possible to grow wheat in the far north of Canada in regions where some years ago the climate would have been considered too cold. The only limitation to the agricultural possibilities of the Dominion lies, not in the areas to be cultivated, but in the scarcity of population, resulting in scarcity of labour.

Rice, tapioca, and sago, are three other well-known articles, daily handled by the British housewife. From India (mainly Burma) within, and Siam outside the Empire, comes the rice; sago and tapioca from the Straits Settlements, which latter place shares with Java outside the British Empire, the export of tapioca.

Dairy Produce.

In regard to dairy produce much of our imported supplies are from foreign countries, Denmark, Holland and the Argentine. But there has been a decided increase within the British Empire,

Australia and New Zealand being the chief exporters. The imports of cheese from the Empire have risen from 82% to 93%, of butter from 19% to 49%, but imported eggs are only 15%, the rest coming entirely from foreign countries.

Fruit.

The position of fruit imports appears very unsatisfactory and every encouragement should be given to the buying of Empiregrown fruit. In 1920, 79% of the fruit imported was foreigngrown and only 21% Empire grown, although this again was an increase of 8% on previous years. This increase should be greater since the South African and Australian oranges, for instance, arrive when the European market is scarce. Kenya, Nyasaland, and the West Indies offer further possibilities of supply. Of apples, Canada is the greatest producer, Australia is increasing her production, but Tasmania sends more than her great neighbour.

Timber.

The subject of the timber supply is an important one, as thereis danger of a future shortage of the world's supplies. There is a Forestry Department in every British Territory. The Department in India has systematic control of timber felling and organises the re-planting of areas. In Canada, there are large areas of forest, producing magnificent timber, notably the Douglas fir of British Columbia and of the mountainous zone of Alberta. An air patrol has now been organised in Canada to cope with the fearful forest fires, by detecting and locating them. In Africa, the forest region begins in the tropical zones. The Gold Coast and Nigeria in West Africa possess forests of great value, and also Kenya, in East Africa, on the slopes of Mount Kenya. An interesting tale is told of the manner in which the Assistant Conservator of Forests in the Kenya Highlands, Mr. St. Barbe Baker, obtained the help of the natives. Formerly, the natives had cleared large tracts of forest every two or three years, in order to gain more ground for agriculture, being ignorant of the method of manuring and of the rotation of crops. They had earned for themselves the name of Forest Destroyers. Mr. Baker being anxious to mend matters,

"talked it over, again and again, with the old men—the wise chiefs and counsellors of the tribe. They quite agreed that the existing forests ought to be preserved and fresh trees planted, but they could not see how this was to be effected. . . . Mr. Baker soon found a way. He called together about three thousand of them to hold a big dance at his camp, and then talked to them about the harm done to the country,—the diminished rainfall and the scarcity of firewood—by the destruction of the forests. Then he called for volunteers who would help to stop this destruction by planting trees, and fifty men responded to the call. This was the beginning of the Forest Scouts of Kenya—otherwise called 'The Men of the Trees'—a body which is still growing and likely to have the best kind of influence. The

¹ Resources of the Empire, Evans Lewin, p. 184.

Paramount Chief has just joined it, and other chiefs are 'Forest Guides'—the equivalent of Scout Masters. Every member promises to plant ten trees a year and to take care of all trees;—but they are beginning to realize that their obligations by no means stop there. Mr. Baker tells how some of the lads helped to extinguish a fire and others came to the rescue when a settler's car stuck in the mud on the road to Nairobi, refusing the tip offered them on the ground that this would deprive them of the credit of their good deed.'' 1

Cotton.

One of the most important raw materials of the world is cotton. America is the greatest source of supply for the United Kingdom, and next to her, and within the Empire comes India, Uganda, the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, British West Indies, West Africa, Nyasaland, Natal, Northern Rhodesia, Kenya, Swaziland, Malta, Cyprus, Ceylon and the Territory of Papua. Egypt is also a large contributor. The demand for cotton appears to be increasing in the world to-day, while there is great danger of a world shortage of supply. The potential cotton resources of the British Empire, which exist in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Uganda, Nigeria, Australia, (especially in Queensland) and Nyasaland, are therefore of great importance, not only to the Empire, but to the world at large. The Empire Cotton-growing Committee was formed in 1917 to consider the possibilities of development within the Empire.

Wool.

Another very important Imperial industry is the wool trade. The supply within the Empire far exceeds that rising from foreign quarters. Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, the Falkland Islands, India, and Kenya are the chief sources of supply.²

Vegetable Oils.

One other product of great importance to the Empire must be mentioned, namely vegetable oils. These are used for a multitude of purposes, from the manufacture of margarine and cooking fats, to the preparation of feeding stuffs for cattle; from the making of soap and candles, to the manufacture of paint, varnish, oil cloth, and linoleum. There seems to be no end to the uses to which these oils can be put, and "as science and research advance it is certain that many new uses will be found for these products; for this reason the resources of our tropical possessions in vegetable oils are one of the most valuable, if not the most valuable, of our imperial assets."

These vegetable oils are produced from the cocoanuts, palm kernals, ground nuts, linseed, cotton seed, poppy seed, and many other seeds of tropical plants. The oil-crushing industry has increased largely owing to the war, and Hull is now the greatest centre of the industry in Europe.

Minerals.

The mineral resources of the Empire are of no less importance and the Imperial Mineral Resources Bureau received a Royal Charter in 1919 to investigate the existing and potential resources of the Empire. The search for gold in Australia and the far West of Canada, and the discovery of diamonds in South Africa, have furnished some of the most romantic stories of the Empire. Less picturesque but of no less importance are the other mineral deposits found in the Dominions, and the iron and steel industry has great possibilities both in Canada and Australia.

Petroleum.

One of the most interesting mineral developments of late years, is that of petroleum. There has been a very large increase in the use of petroleum during and since the war. In 1913, the world's production was 55,087,000 tons. In 1920, it was 98,236,000 tons.

"One of the features of the recent war was an extraordinary development of the uses of petroleum in munition factories, motor transport services, aviation tanks, and warships of all classes; every phase, in fact, of naval and military operations led to demands for petroleum products in ever-increasing quantities. With the renewal of peace activities these requirements seem likely to be maintained and possibly augmented, since the adoption of fuel oil on a large scale by the Mercantile Marine may well be regarded as certain."

Manufactures and Markets.

To-day the Dominions are developing manufacturing interests of their own. Hitherto the Mother-Country has been the manufacturing centre, the sole partner who required the raw materials supplied by the overseas Empire. In the future, with the development of manufactures in the Dominions themselves, this will not be the case. A new adjustment to new requirements within the Empire will therefore have to be made. In proportion as the self-governing Dominions decrease, the non-self-governing Dependencies will increase in importance as markets for British manufactures.

Owing to the fact that the war brought home to all countries the necessity of relying less upon foreign manufactures, and more upon their own, foreign countries are carrying out their own manu-

¹ The Native Races of the Empire, pp. 107-8. Mention is also made of Mr. St. Barbe Baker's book called The Men of the Trees.

² Statistical Abstract, p. 414. Cmd. 2738.

Resources of the Empire, Evans Lewin, p. 122.

¹Quoted in Resources of the Empire, Evans Lewin, p. 273, from the Imperial Institute Monograph on Petroleum.

facturing to a far larger extent than before the war. Consequently Great Britain, instead of being the leader and having the advantage in foreign markets,—a position she has held for many years owing to many circumstances—is to-day either barely able to hold her own or else is definitely behind other nations in the world's markets. This being the case, it is necessary to take stock of the situation, and see how the development of the Empire can improve it.

"The one great and largely unexplored advantage now possessed by Britain over her competitors is the British Empire. . . . How can Great Britain increase the demand for her manufactured goods within the Empire? It is probable that the prosperity and indeed the very livelihood of the people of this country depend upon a correct solution of this problem. . . . The answer to this can be summed up in two words 'Empire Development.' '' 1

CHAPTER VII.

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS.

"Queen Elizabeth erected a navy royal (continued and increased by her successors) of the best ships Europe ever produced. Indeed much is in the matter, the excellency of our English oak; more in the making, the cunning of our shipwrights; most in the manning, the courage of our seamen; and yet all to God's blessing who so often hath crowned them with success." Fuller.

This Empire development is dependent upon three things men, money, and markets, 1 and fourthly it may be added, upon transport. At the present time the lack of men and women in the self-governing Dominions and the lack of transport in the Dependencies is hampering full development. The great self-governing Dominions require population to develop their marvellous resources. This Great Britain can supply, under a systematic scheme of migration. On the other hand, the overseas Empire, and in the future more particularly the non-self-governing Dependencies, will provide the markets for the manufactures of the Mother Country, for which they in their turn supply the raw material, provided adequate transport is available. Thus the Empire is bound up in a system of interchange of trade to the mutual advantage of the whole. Such is the scheme of commerce all the world over—a never ceasing flow of goods backwards and forwards from one country to another. This necessitates also a vast carrying capacity in the countries conveying the goods, and transport is therefore twin sister to trade in commerce.

It would appear impossible to knit together physically and materially, anything so scattered as the countries which form the British Empire. In this respect it is totally unlike the Roman Empire of old, linked together by a network of roads, radiating like the rays of a star from the gates of Rome. The Roman Empire lay mainly in one connected whole on the continents of Europe and Asia, with the exception of an overseas traffic with Egypt and North Africa, but the British Empire is a vast disconnected whole. It consists of huge continents, divided by great oceans, of little islands scattered here and there over the world's surface, of mountainous regions, huge deserts and arid plains, of large inland lakes and navigable and unnavigable rivers. How link one part to another in distances so great and regions so varied? The story of the gradual knitting together of these scat

¹ Sheltered Markets, F. L. McDougall, p. 7.

Sheltered Markets, F. L. McDougall, pp. 7 and 9

tered realms is the story of the rise and development of the Empire. It is, in the first place a story of the sea. It concerns itself primarily with sea-routes and with ships and it centred in the beginning round trade with India and the East.

There were three main routes between India and the West; the southern (and also the modern) sea route between India and Arabia; the middle route from the western coast of India, skirting the Persian Gulf, thence up the Tigris and Euphrates to Baghdad, and from thence converging into two routes, the one by Antioch and Palestine, the other by Damascus to Egypt; the northern route from Mooltan, down the Oxus to the North of the Caspian Sea and finally converging on Constantinople joining the middle route at Baghdad.

In the old days the trade with India and with China through India was carried by caravans along these routes. In the unchanging East this mode of transport remains the same. Still to-day through the Khyber Pass comes the procession of some 500 camels bearing the goods of Persia, through Afghanistan, to India. There are two roads through the Pass, the one for the quick, the other for the slow traffic, and on the two days' in the week when the pass is picketed by our troops the caravans come through. Thus side by side with the hurried modern traffic, the slow procession moves, never hastening, never pausing.

When we turn our eyes towards the trade with the East nearer home, we find Venice was the great European trading port. Southern Europe and Northern Africa, however were dominated by the Arabs, those wonderful sailors and navigators from whom Spain and Portugal learnt so much of their sea-lore, who themselves probably received it from the Chinese during the course of

their trade with China.

Difficulties with the Turks blocked up the old land routes, the world's attention was directed to the sea; new routes had to befound to keep up the commerce with India. Thus began the period of exploration and discovery already referred to, when "the oceans had become the accepted road to wealth." As in later days, invention played its all important part, and to Prince Henry the Navigator, the Portuguese hero, we owe the encouragement of scientific discoveries leading to the use of the compass, to mapmaking and to many other essential nautical and scientific discoveries.

Sailing Ships.

The period of the 17th and 18th centuries was the period of the rise and growth of the East India Company. The large ocean going craft of that period were of two kinds, those owned by the Navy and those owned by the East India Company. By 1681, the latter owned a fleet of 38 ships, ranging from 100 to 775 tons, while

in the seven years after 1682, 16 ships were built of 900—13,000 tons.

"They were slow and stately 'sailors' owned by a corporation which thought not a little of its dignity and unique prerogatives. They were heavily armed and carried out to India cargoes of bullion, lead, tin, cloth and stuffs, while their homeward freights were raw silk, pepper and other costly goods. They were also the only means of transport for troops, and for the officials of the Company itself. It is hard to find a more perfect expression of 18th century English pomp and ceremony, solidity and conservatism, than in these frigate, built, indifferently designed, but massive craft, which kept secure the connection between India and the Mother Country.'' 1

The 18th century saw also the maintenance of a line of communication, begun in 1688, between Spain, the West Indies, and even to the Southern States of America, in the Falmouth Packet Company—the American 'liners' of the day. There were 16 of these West Indian packet ships by the end of the 18th century,

increased to 39 by 1808.

There were also the collier brigs or coasters plying between Type and Thames, a school in which Cook the explorer learnt his. seamanship for their "sailors were unique in handling craft in narrow channels. . . . In the 18th century the luring picture of this enormous fleet of colliers crossing and re-crossing each others' bows, so deftly and quietly, showed that triumph of the seaman's art which is beyond all praise. Sometimes as many as 300 would be seen all turning to windward—surely one of the handsomest sights ever the North sea witnessed." 2

With the 19th century came a new type of vessel and the golden age of the sailing ship. When the East India Company lost its monopoly in China, a demand arose for a fast type of ship to deal with the tea trade with China. American competition also speeded up the craft, and the fast clipper developed in consequence. Two fast clippers were built in Aberdeen, one of which went out to Hong-Kong in 102 days and returned in 103. This urged on keener competition between ships. Then came the Californian gold rush, and later, the Australian gold rush, and this in turn increased

shipping competition.

The progress of the sailing ship continued steadily from the time of the old wooden sailing ships, through the period of the introduction of iron combined with wood, then of the entirely iron-built ship and finally up to the last quarter of a century when steel replaced iron. The years 1860-1890 were the great days of the sailing ship "handled by men and driven by the wind." Gradually they have fallen into the background and have at last almost disappeared from the high seas, in face of the rise of the modern steamship.

¹ The Ship under Sail, E. Keble Chatterton, pp. 89-95.

²Ibid, p. 123.

Steamships.

In these days of pioneer aeroplane flights across the Atlantic. it is interesting to read of the first trial trips of the steamers on the same route. America was the first to do the trip with the aid of steam, with a ship that sounds like a fairy tale, for she had "a set of auxiliary paddles working amidships and so contrived that when the wind was favourable the paddles folded like fans and could be housed on deck." This was in 1819. The voyage from New York to England took her 30 days, during which time she had been under steam for a little over three days. In 1833, Canada followed suit and ran a ship from Nova Scotia to Portsmouth in 17 days, using the engine only to supplement the sails. In 1835, England sent two steamers across the water, the larger, the Great Western, taking 15 days on the voyage to America, about the time now taken by the mail steamers to South Africa. Ninetyfour brave passengers ventured their lives in the other, smaller, ship, the Sirius, and took 17 days on the voyage. 1 Thus was the foundation laid for the present-day regular fast-going steamship service between England and America.

When Mr. Cunard, the founder of the well-known Cunard Line, secured the contract for carrying the mails in 1840, he built four steamers,

"all constructed of wood, and driven by side paddle wheels. They carried a fair spread of sail. . . . For upwards of 80 years this Company has maintained a regular and ever-improving service on the North Atlantic. It has been in every sense of the word a pioneer service, for from these four original vessels down to the Lusitania, Mauretania, and Aquitania there has been a succession of beautiful steamships." ²

The White Star Line, which had hitherto run a line of clippers to Australia, also took up the Atlantic traffic. The first steamship to Australia came in 1852. In 1882 the first refrigerating ship was tried between New Zealand and England, and the important trade in frozen meat and dairy produce began. By 1900 there were 200 steamers engaged in this trade.

Meanwhile, the trade with the Far East was not neglected, and the Peninsular and Oriental Company came into being, sending its first mail steamer as far as Gibraltar in 1837. From 1840, the Company ran passengers and mails from England to Alexandria, "thence there was a journey of nearly 50 miles in a canal boat, followed by a 90 mile drive across the desert in a two-wheeled omnibus, which accommodated six people." In 1842, the Peninsular and Oriental Company became also responsible for the

steamer route east of Suez. In 1869, the Suez Canal was opened and the route to India shortened and simplified.

Thus came about the great change from sail to steam. By 1870, England was taking the lead in the ship-building industry, and by 1890 she was constructing two-thirds of the world's tonnage. Owing to further improvements in marine engineering, progress became more and more rapid and speed was increased enormously.

One of the most important types of ship which England produced was the tramp steamer. These ships were specially constructed to carry coal or oil or wheat, or any other cargo. This meant that goods of large bulk and low value could be carried at little cost and hitherto negligible products began to assume greater importance.

"While the great ocean ferries ply regularly along the well-defined lanes connecting specified ports with the precision of railway trains, other vessels, innumerable, of all sizes and speeds, sailing as well as steam, wander aimlessly about the seven seas, picking up sustenance in the form of freights wherever and whenever they can, ready to go anywhere, with, or for anything. These are the Gipsies of the ocean, forming that grand tramp fleet which is of overwhelming importance, as it constitutes the backbone of the mercantile marine and is responsible for the supremacy of Great Britain as a maritime nation. These vessels transport goods the character of which is as varied as the tramps themselves.

"More often than not the appearance of the craft substantiates its generic name. It recalls the Nomads of our Highways, being ill-kempt and even at times repulsive in its appearance."

With the increase of traffic on the oceans came the necessity for regulating the routes in the Atlantic. Difficulty arose owing to the sailing vessels and fishing vessels crossing the routes taken by the steamers, when they approached the mists 2 off the coasts of Newfoundland, owing to the former having to tack to and fro to catch the most favourable winds. This route also lay across the fields of the fishing fleets that put out from Massachussetts, Nova Scotia and Newfoundland. "To these hardy folk the normal perils of their calling were enhanced by the dangers of a big liner crashing into them at full speed, unseen and unheard in the blanket of mist lying upon the water." To remedy these difficulties an American officer named Maury invented the plan of liners following certain given routes, having an eastward and a westward route and keeping to definite "rules of the road."

A glance at the map will show the main routes followed to-day: west across the Atlantic to America, and through the Panama Canal to New Zealand and Australia; south to the Cape, and up the coast of Africa to Mombasa and Aden, or round the Cape of

¹ Trade, Commerce and Shipping of the Empire, Prof. Kirkaldy, p. 36.

² Ibid, p. 36.

³ Ibid, pp. 42, 43.

¹ Steamship Conquest of the World, F. A. Talbot, p. 203.

² This mist is caused by drifting icebergs which come down from polar regions in the summer.

³ Steamship Conquest of the World, F. A. Talbot, p. 52.

Good Hope to Australia; east through the Mediterranean and the Suez Canal to India, the Far Eastern Ports and again to Australia. Such are some of the sea routes of the British Empire. Along all of them ply our ships carrying to and fro the necessities of life to the people of the British Isles,—food and raw materials. Without this constant flow backwards and forwards we in Great Britain would very quickly starve. It is our very life-blood. The importance of the safe conduct of our mercantile marine was brought home very closely during the submarine warfare in the Great War, when food supplies in this country became alarmingly short. Therefore we owe our very existence to the strength of His Majesty's Navy and the efficiency of the Merchant Service. ¹

"' 'Oh, where are you going to, all you Big Steamers,
With England's own coal, up and down the salt seas?'
"We are going to fetch you your bread and your butter,
Your beef, pork and mutton, eggs, apples and cheese."

"But if anything happened to all you Big Steamers,
And suppose you were wrecked up and down the salt seas?"

Then you'd have no coffee or bacon for breakfast,
And you'd have no muffins or toast for your tea."

"For the bread that you eat and the biscuits you nibble,

The sweets that you suck and the joints that you carve,

They are brought to you daily by all us Big Steamers—

And if anyone hinders our coming you'll starve!"

—Kipling.

In 1917, the Dominions Commission made the following statement in its report:—

"The war has abundantly demonstrated that the life of the Empire depends upon its sea communications.

"Producer, manufacturer and merchant alike are concerned with securing cheap, regular and efficient transport for their goods. . . . If therefore it is possible to devise some means of permanent betterment of sea routes within the Empire, a powerful impulse will have been given to Imperial trade while the strength and cohesion of the Empire will be notably increased."

Cables.

The above deals with means of transport, but there is another side to Imperial communications,—'the means whereby information, commercial intelligence instructions and orders are transmitted from place to place.'' In this category lie all the marvel-

lous developments that have taken place since 1850—telegraphs, submarine cables, telephones, wireless, aeroplanes and airships.

The beginning of these developments dates back to 1851 when. for the first time, the London and Paris Stock Exchanges were able by cable to compare prices on the same day during business hours. This communication with France was followed by another line of cable between Scotland and Ireland,—in 1853. The next advance was the effort to establish telegraphic communication with America, when the Atlantic Telegraph Company was registered in 1856. The zeal with which this enterprise was undertaken was amazing. Failure to succeed never daunted these pioneers. but again and again over a period of ten years, effort after effort was made to lay a cable between England and America. First two ships would start, one from America, one from England, paying out a length of cable, from the shore end as they want. After 380 miles the cable broke. Next the two together went into mid-ocean, spliced the cable and went away from each other, but after so many miles the cable broke, again and yet again. At last a successful attempt was made, but owing to the wrong current being used the insolation was ruined and no signals were got through. In 1865, another effort was made, this time by one ship alone, paying out the cable, but after 1,200 miles had been laid again it broke. Finally, a completely successful cable was laid between England and America in 1865. From this beginning the submarine cables of the world have been increased until they have a length exceeding 200,000 nautical miles and most of them have been manufactured on the Thames.

Now

"Would you call a friend from half across the world?

If you'll let us have his name and town and state
You shall see and hear your crackling question hurled
Across the arch of heaven while you wait."—Kipling.

Flying.

To-day there is no standing still in the matter of transport and communications, and the future may see remarkable developments. Flying is just beginning to take its place as a means of Empire transport and communication. It is not improbable that, before very long, airship and aeroplane will carry passengers and possibly goods from England to the Antipodes. "As existing schemes develop, traffic for Iraq will reach Egypt by airship, and proceed thence by aeroplane to Baghdad; for India, to Colombo by airship and thence to various great cities by aeroplane; for Australia, to Perth by airship and onwards to northern and eastern cities by aeroplane."

¹It is as true to-day as when Froude wrote 30 years ago ''Take away her merchant service; take away the navy which guards them; her empire will come to an end; her colonies will fall off like leaves from a withered tree, and Britain will become once more an insignificant island in the North Sea for the future students in Australia and New Zealand universities to discuss the fate of in their debating societies.''

² Some Aspects of the Imperial Communications, Major Wakeley, M.C.

¹ Encyclopedia Britannica, Vol. II, p. 47, 13th edition. Article on "Flying."

Sir Samuel Hoare claims that it "is one of the most effective instruments for stopping the waste of time that is now weakening the vitality and retarding the development of Empire intercourse.' He also says "Let us take warning from the events of a little more than a century ago, when, upon the eve of the great railway development, a well-known author in the Edinburgh Review wrote: 'What can be more palpably absurd and ridiculous than the prospect held out of locomotives travelling twice as fast as stage coaches,' and demanded that 'Parliament shall in all railways, where sanctioned, limit the speed to 8 or 9 miles an hour.' and when the use of steamships was officially discouraged 'as calculated to strike a fatal blow at the naval supremacy of the Empire.''' "There is," he continues, "no technical or operational reason why the journey to Canada should not be reduced to 21/2 days, the journey to India to 5 days, to Cape Town to 6 days, to Australia II days, to New Zealand 13 days.'' "The long distance routes," he proposes, "should be formed on a mosaic plan, each Dominion, together with the mother country, inserting their particular stone in the design." The route proposed extends from Cairo to Karachi and via Baghdad to India, thus following very much the old middle caravan route. Thence Sir Samuel Hoare would like to see the Government of India extending it from Bombay to Calcutta, and the Government of Burmah carrying it on to Rangoon; "might it not then be practicable to link with the civil line experimental flights of the Air Force Flying Boats. that it is intended to station in the Far East, and might they not again join up with occasional service flights of the Royal Australian Air Force from Australia? . . . If in the remote future links can be inserted," says the Air Minister, "in some such way as I have suggested, a long chain will have been forged across the Empire's framework.''1 In Africa also the beginnings of what may become a through air service between Egypt and Cape Town have been made.

The improvement that flying should bring about in quickness of transit extends to the advantage which will be gained by a quick dissemination of news. The Empire Press Union, in the Memorandum it brought before the Imperial Conference of 1926, laid stress upon this point:

"The Empire Press Union looks to the development of air communications within the Empire as an important factor of Empire unity, from the point of view of Press communications alone. The interchange of information and ideas through the medium of the Press is at present dependent principally upon the facilities afforded by telegraphic systems. A good deal of 'copy' is sent by mail, largely of a descriptive and commentary nature, and its value in clearly explaining the points of view and amplifying

telegraphed reports can hardly be exaggerated. But this mailed 'copy' is not able to play its full part. The difference in time between the briefer telegraphed report and the full and considered description and comment by mail is too great.

"The Empire Press Union looks to the coming of the air mail as a means of changing this situation to a large extent. . . . Here it is desired to call attention to the Press of the small isolated communities which may come within reach of the air routes. The dropping of mailed 'copy' at charges such newspapers could pay might make all the difference in keeping these pioneer settlements abreast of current events and lessening their isolation."

Thus, if these prepared air routes "prove successful," to quote Sir Samuel Hoare once more, "they may give a physical unity to the Empire that it has never possessed before. . . . With the horrors of the last war in our memories and the limitless terrors of any future war in our minds, let us make the air a highway of peace, and the aeroplane an instrument, not for severing nations and destroying civilized life, but for making closer and more constant the unity of Imperial thought, Imperial intercourse and Imperial ideals." ²

Wireless.

The second great wonder of the age—wireless—is also having its marked effect upon Imperial communications. 'Beam' stations are being established between the Mother Country and the Dominions, and to-day a message of over 300 words can be flashed through Grimsby to Melbourne in the space of a minute, and an answer of the same length from Melbourne to Skegness in the same time. 'From an Imperial point of view,' said the *Times* of 7 April, 1927, 'the political and commercial value of this extraordinary development of wireless . . . is quite incalculable.'

Thus, with the great inventions of the last 150 years there has come a definite shrinkage of the world, and the apparently impossible task of linking together the outer limits of the Empire has been accomplished. By these means, geographically as well as politically, the British Empire has become a world unit.

The following words, written twenty-three years ago, are even more true to-day:—

"These great matters are none too difficult for each to have his or her own opinion thereupon. In fact, it is the bounden duty of everyone to know more, and yet more, of the bearings of this great Empire of which each one of us is a trustee, and of which our children are heirs. From this point of view—trusteeship—we have all to fit ourselves to understand the newspapers, by searching in maps and books, and by conversation at home and abroad. . . It is true of Great Britain, but not true of any other nation under heaven, except America, that 'the man in the street' controls the Empire. We have . . a Government, but . . . they are there as an Executive, not as masters, and their power is based on the sound

¹The Approach towards a system of Imperial Air Communications. Memorandum by the Secretary of State for Air laid before the Imperial Conference, 1926.

¹Cmd, 2769, pp. 258-263.

² Approach towards a System of Imperial Air Communications, pp. x, xi.

understanding, although limited by the ignorance of the men (and now of the women) in the streets of our cities, and the lanes of our counties. We, therefore, and not they, have charge of the Empire. That has been given into our ward and custody, and so supreme a trust calls for response from all who enjoy by birth, the right to call themselves Britons. We must not live below our privileges, or fall short, or allow our children to fall short, of a great position. Survey, with Walt Whitman, the whole world,—'the shaded part where the sleepers are sleeping, and the sunlit part on the other side.' Let distant Colonies be as near to us as the English ground on which we tread. View our steamships in clusters in port, or ploughing steadily on voyages through plenteous waters, linking together the lands of coal, of iron, and of gold, the fields of cotton, rice and sugar; the stretches of pastoral plains and expanses of corn . . . Our Empire being thus broad with the breadth of the universe, its many-sided life must be spread out before our mental vision;—its memorable past, its splendid history, its steadying traditions, and also, not less, its unfolding possibilities, its new paths, its growing forcefulness. Do not live then a cramped island-life, but come out into the freer air. Take ship and cross the oceans in mind and fancy. On board no longer hug the shores, watching for the ancient landmarks and the familiar headlands and the comfortable coasting lights. We are an oceanic race, and must set our course to the open sea, and steer by the stars."

Looking backwards over the history of the Empire, we can see how, from small beginnings, it has expanded and developed into the Empire we see to-day. Thus we have received our heritage. What of the future?

Each nation has its contribution to make to the betterment of the world, 'not in terms of acquisitiveness or mere rule and dominance, but in terms of service; the making the best of your country and people in order to make the best and greatest contribution by the way of service to the whole family of nations.'2 The British Empire and the British race, scattered to the uttermost parts of the earth, have received the heaviest responsibility. Let us pass on to the generations to come, in no unworthy spirit but in faith and hope, the trust it is our privilege to hold. Let us keep true to the vision of the highest ideals of the race, for, in the words of the prophet of old,

"Where there is no vision the people perish."

APPENDIX I.

CLASSIFIED LIST OF BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

I. The Self-Governing Dominions.

The term "Dominions" for describing all the self-governing portions of the Empire is not strictly accurate. There are only 2 Dominions—i.e. Canada, and New Zealand, the others being the Union of South Africa, the Commonwealth of Australia and the Irish Free State; Newfoundland and Southern Rhodesia having no special designation.

II. The Colonial Empire

consists of:-

r. Colonies and Protectorates "not possessing responsible Government, in which the administration is carried on by public officers under the control of the Secretary of State for the Colonies."

A Crown Colony is British Territory.

A Protectorate is not British Territory, but is under British influence.

2. Mandated Territories—"The Great War of 1914—18 resulted in

2. Mandated Territories—"The Great War of 1914—18 resulted in extensive territories, formerly belonging to Germany and Turkey being placed under British Administration under Mandates from the League of Nations."²

III. India.

As already stated, India has not been included in this pamphlet. She is in a transition stage of political growth, and her position is altogether different from any other portion of the Empire.

"The Indian law code contains two definitions of cardinal importance. One is 'British India,' the other is 'India.' 'British India' means all places and territories within the King's dominions which are governed by him through the Governor-General in Council. 'India' includes British India 'together with any territories of any native princes or chiefs under the Governor-General in Council.' 'British India' is under direct British rule. The portion outside British India which is India is not under direct British rule. It is occupied by native princes or chiefs, whose position as regards the Crown is that of an inferior power to the suzerain or paramount power.' '3

Again, "the Government of British India is the Government of a dependency of the British Crown." But the Government of India Act, 1919, seeks to bring about constitutional changes which are not yet operative, and of which "the most important feature is the partial establishment of responsible government in the provinces." 5

¹ The British Empire, L.E.S. (Pamphlet now out of print.)

²The Call from our own People Overseas, p. 158. Vol. V. of Reports on the World Call.

Dominions Office and Colonial Office List, 1927. p. 814.

² Ibid. p. lxxvii. Part II. Introduction.

³ Peoples and Problems of India, Sir T. W. Holderness (1912, revised 1920). p. 181.

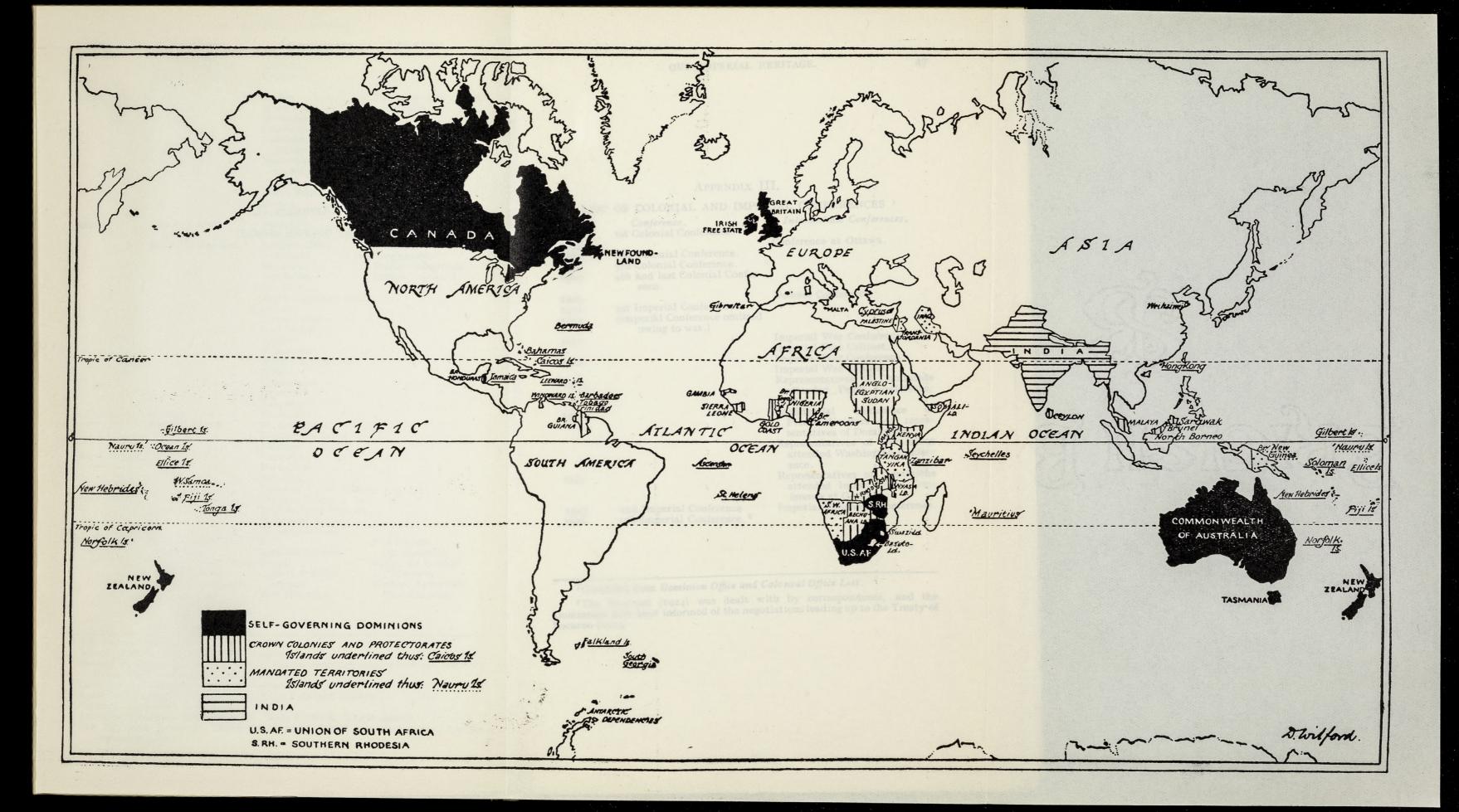
⁴ Ibid. p. 157.

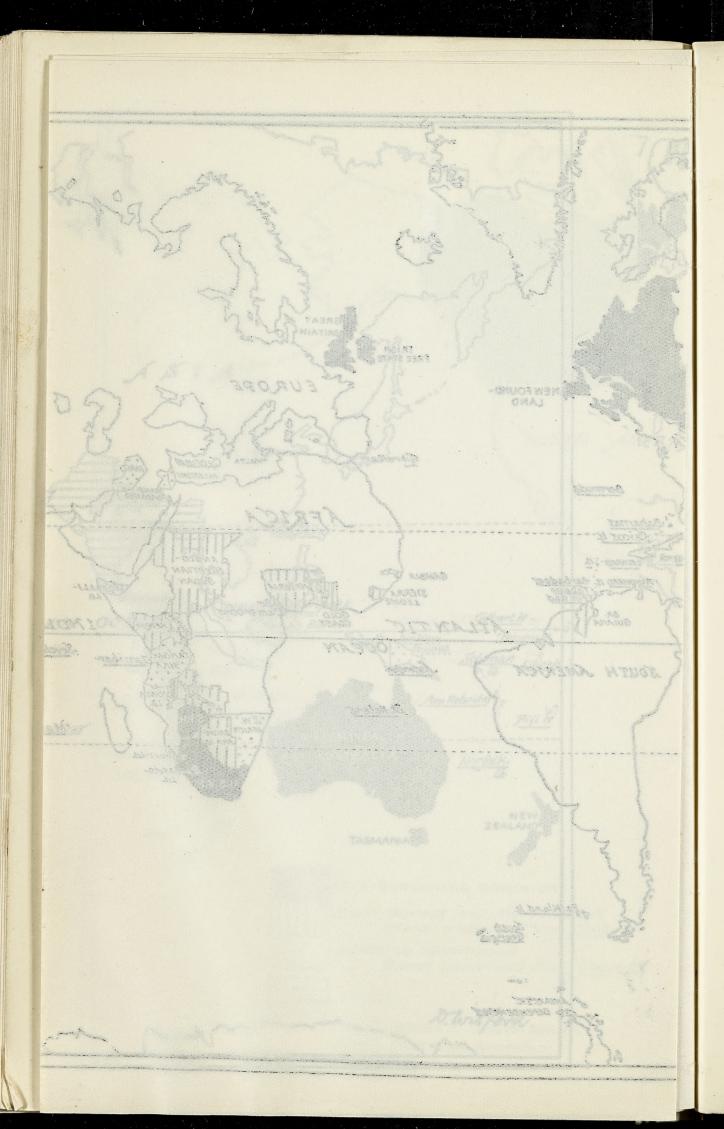
⁵ Ibid. p. 5.

Continent.	Self-Governing	Crown Colonies	Mandated
EUROPE.	Dominions. United Kingdom	and Protectorates. Gibraltar	Territories.
	Irish Free State	Cyprus	
	Malta 4	71	
ASIA		Ceylon	Palestine and Trans
		Hong Kong	jordania
		Weihaiwei	Iraq
		Straits Settlements Federated Malay	
		States	
		Malay States not in-	
		cluded in Federa-	
		tion 2	
		North Borneo	
		Brunei Sarawak	
AFRICA	Union of South	Ascension	South West Africa
	Africa	Basutoland	(to Union of South
	Southern Rhodesia ³	Bechuanaland	Africa)
		Swaziland	Tanganyika
		Mauritius	British Cameroons
		Seychelles	British Togoland
		St. Helena	
		Anglo-Egyptian Suda Gambia	n
		Sierra Leone	
		Gold Coast	
		Nigeria	
		Nyasaland	
		Northern Rhodesia	
		Kenya Somaliland	
		Uganda	
		Zanzibar	
AMERICA	Canada	Bermuda	
	Newfoundland ⁴	British Guiana	
		British Honduras	
WEST INDIES.		Falkland Islands ⁵ Bahamas	
WEST INDIES.		Barbadoes	
		Jamaica	
		Turks or Caicos Island	ds
		Cayman Island	
		Trinidad and Tobago	
		Windward Islands 6	
AUSTRALASIA	Commonweath of	Leeward Islands ⁷ Fiji	New Guinea
	Australia:	Solomon Islands	(to Australia)
	New South Wales	Tonga	Nauru (to British
	Queensland	Gilbert & Ellice	Empire)
	South Australia	Islands	Western Samoa (to
	Tasmania Victoria	New Hebrides	New Zealand)
	Victoria West Australia 8		and the same of th
	New Zealand		

APPENDIX II. MAP OF THE WORLD

<sup>Johore, Kedali, Kelartan, Perlis, Treggaru.
Subject to certain powers in regard to native administration which are reserved to the High Commissioner for South Africa.
Labrador is a dependency of Newfoundland.
Antarctic Regions are dependencies of the Falkland Islands.
Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent.
Antiqua, Dominica, Montserrat, St. Kitts & Nevis, Virgin Island.
The Northern Territory, Papua and Norfolk Island are administered by the Commonwealth.</sup>





APPENDIX III.

LIST OF COLONIAL AND IMPERIAL CONFERENCES 1

Date.	Conference.	Intermediate Conferences.
1887. 1894. 1897. 1902.	2nd Colonial Conference. 3rd Colonial Conference. 4th and last Colonial Conference.	Conference at Ottawa.
1907. 1909. 1911. 1915.	ence. rst Imperial Conference. (Imperial Conference omitted owing to war.)	Defence Conference.
1917.	owing to war.	Imperial War Conference.
1918.		Imperial War Cabinet. Imperial War Conference. Imperial War Cabinet.
1919.		Representatives of Dominions attended Peace Conference, Paris.
1921.		Confidential Conference of Prime Ministers and repre- sentatives of Dominions.
		Representatives of Dominions attended Washington Conference.
1922.		Representatives of Dominions attended International Conference at Geneva.
1923. 1926.	2nd Imperial Conference 3rd Imperial Conference. ²	Imperial Economic Conference.

¹Compiled from Dominion Office and Colonial Office List.

²The Protocol (1924) was dealt with by correspondence, and the Dominions were kept informed of the negotiations leading up to the Treaty of Locarno (1925).

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