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The Volunteer Review

AND MILITARY AND NAVAL GAZETTE.

A Journal Devoted to the Interests of the Military and Naval Forces of the Dominion of Canada

VOL. V.

OTTAWA, CANADA, MONDAY, APRIL 17, 1871.

No. 16.

VOLUNTEER CAVALRY.—No. VI.

THE LESSONS OF THE DECADE.

BY A VOLUNTEER CAVALRYMAN.

(From the United States Army and Navy Journal.)

LOGISTICS—FOOD—FORAGE.

In the matter of food, nourishing enough to support the soldier, and light enough to enable him to carry several days' allowance there is much room for improvement in our service. The United States ration is plentiful, sometimes too liberal, but it fails in portability. Pork and hard tack, a pound and three-quarters a day, constitute our field ration, with a due proportion of coffee and sugar. It is very bulky and contains much waste matter. The best of it is the coffee and sugar. The allowance of these is sufficient, with a very little experience in their use; and a man can carry ten or twelve days of coffee rations without difficulty. But the practice in the Southern army, of issuing flour instead of bread, made their rations much more portable. As it is, eight days' rations of pork and hard tack is a very bulky mass, inconvenient to carry. Once or twice, when starting on raids, we had to load ourselves with that amount of food, to our great discomfort. Flour and other soft food makes much better rations than hard square biscuits, as regards portability.

In this respect as in the saving of ammunition, we may again take a lesson from the Prussian wars of this decade. They have introduced into warfare a new element in the ammunition business. So in logistics they have invented a sausage. Not an ordinary sausage, but one composed of pease meal and meat, chopped up together, and containing in itself all the constituents of a full ration. These sausages are the requisite size and weight to make a meal; and their nutritive qualities are wonderful in proportion to their weight. If not perfection, they are yet a move in the right direction. One great advantage of them is that they are easily made, and that by their means a great deal of food otherwise wasted may be utilized; for they absorb fat and lean, meal and flour. In fact, almost anything may be put into a sausage. A single chopping machine following an army corps, would be able to keep up a full supply of these rations; and for long expeditions the sausages are much better to pack and carry than hard tack and pork.

The quality of the meat, whether it be

beef, mutton, or pork, or whatever else, is a matter of indifference; as also whether pease meal, bean meal, corn meal, or flour, be the vehicle in which it is diffused. The economy seems to be in the prevention of all waste, the juices of the meat being absorbed by the flour. The sausage may be roasted, fried, or cut open and the contents poured into water, making a thick soup or porridge. In the summer time the meat must be salted or dried to enable it to keep. In the winter no such precaution is necessary.

This sausage has enabled the Prussian army to release from the duties of guarding communications many a man whose services were valuable at the front; and we cordially recommend it to our cavalry of the future, if our word may chance to be adjudged as of any value. Not that we desire to urge a mere wooden imitation of the German system. Imitation implies inferiority. But we submit that the combining of the two parts of the ration together is a good one, and tends to prevent waste and economise weight.

In regard to the carrying of rations, the experience of a single campaign is sufficient to decide one thing—that the haversack, as used in the United States Army, while very good perhaps for infantry, is a poor thing for cavalry. It is not nearly strong enough to stand the jolting of a trotting horse, and the shoulder-strap is continually giving way. Moreover, whatever the theory of the inventor and the War Department may be subject, practically you cannot get a cavalry soldier to wear it over his shoulder. He will tie it to his horse, where it dangles bumping and crashing, till the hand gives way, and down comes the load.

But our ready-witted men soon learned to provide themselves in a better manner. They used to take the white inside bag of the haversack, and make it into a trio of long narrow bags, one for coffee, one for sugar, one for salt. The pork they wrapped up in a piece of old shelter tent, and strapped to the saddle-bow. The haversack, with the hard tack inside, was rolled up and strapped on the cantle above the grain bag, and the nose bag was utilized in the same manner. But, with the best management, the hard square biscuits were very ugly things to carry, and it is for that reason that flour or meal is so far preferable. But the coffee ration is the best part of the whole. No one who has not been through the hardships of real campaigning can hardly appreciate the comfort of a cup of coffee to a weary soldier after a hard day's tramp. Coffee and a quiet pipe have done more to comfort our men on long raids than any-

thing else; and if nothing else in the way of provisions is carried on wheels, a single waggon laden with coffee and sugar will be found to amply repay for the trouble of its guarding. Men can forage for anything except that.

In the matter of forage there is one thing to be said. In the United States cavalry there is no provision made by which the men can carry three days' grain. They did carry it repeatedly, but they had to provide the means themselves, and in a way far superior to the old fashioned forage bags of European cavalry.

The most invaluable piece of old shelter tent came into play here; and a long, narrow bag was sewed up, which just held thirty pounds of grain, and then resembled an immense sausage. This was strapped across the cantle of the saddle, exactly as the old valise the centre strap being drawn tight enough to clear the bag from the horse's back. By this method we carried three days' grain with comfort to man and horse, the load lightening every day, and the narrowness of the bag rendering it easily compressible into a tight, compact mass. Such a bag as this, made of stout canvas, would wear for years; and if a strip of leather or canvas were fastened down one side longitudinally, with intervals between it and the bag to pass the straps of the cantles through all danger of the load's slipping to one side or the other would be avoided.

CARE OF HORSES.

With regard to the question of forage there is one thing to be said. In campaigning in a country where Indian corn is the staple horse feed, it is poor economy to send out car loads of oats for cavalry horses. When a raid comes, the animals have to live off the country; and the change of food is apt to "heat the blood," vulgarly speaking. In the winter time, when there is much mud, it predisposes the horses to "scratches," or "grease heel," and when once that breaks out on a winter raid, the horse has to be abandoned.

The immense number of animals that were perforce left behind from this cause on Sheridan's last raid, in March, 1865, almost exceeds belief. The author himself started from Winchester on an excellent horse, with a second pretty fair animal, led in the pack train; but both broke down dead lame on the second day after passing Waynesboro, owing to the mud. While on the macadamized pike, up the valley, they went gallantly; but the mud brought the feet of both of them into such a fearful condition that they had to be left. And three-fourths of the lameness in these cases were due to the

change of feed from oats to corn, the latter being far more carbonaceous than the former, and therefore heating and predisposing to disease.

Cavalry horses are liable to several ailments, the principal of these, in summer, are sore backs, and a disease known among cavalrymen as "the thumps."

The latter appears to be a species of heart disease, induced by long marching in hot weather. The sides palpitate suddenly at intervals, as if some one were giving thumps to the animal (hence the name), often in perfect condition, and a splendid horse; and then all of a sudden he will drop dead on the road, without a moment's warning. For "the thump" I know of no remedy but rest; and that cannot be given on a raid, the poor beast generally dies.

Still, an officer observing a horse in his troop afflicted with this disorder may often save his life by ordering his rider to dismount and lead him for a day.

Bleeding from the mouth is often useful in this complaint. The same operation which is hurtful to a human being is often of benefit to a horse, whose blood runs so much more rapidly than ours does, and half of whose disorders arise from overheating of the blood.

If "the thumps" be a difficult thing to avoid, the same cannot be said of sore backs.

With the McLellan saddle there is very little excuse for these. This saddle, if the requisite care is taken in its use, is one of the best in the world, after the Mexican and Texan. If the blankets are kept smooth, and the load on the saddle carefully adjusted, so as not to chafe, there need be no sore backs with this saddle. Should one commence, however, there is nothing in the world to cure it like plenty of warm water and castile soap. "Cleanliness is next to godliness" in wounds.

I have found that a piece of coarse gunny bagging, laid under the blankets, will generally effect a cure in sore backs, even while marching. The remedy is well known among the old regular cavalry on the plains, and I have been surprised at its efficacy. The reason would seem to be that it keeps the harsh woollen fibres of the blanket from aggravating the old sore, and allows it to heal.

With regard to the cure of scratches or grease-heel, it is a difficult, almost impossible task, if the disease breaks out when on a long raid in wet muddy roads. If lying in camp, and with any means of securing a dry stable, it is a different matter.

In this, as in sore backs, castile soap and warm water are the golden remedy; and if the animal is standing in a dry place, it is well to bandage the pastern, between the times of washing, with a rag greased on the inside. It keeps out dust and dirt and preserves the scab soft and pliable, while the new skin forms.

But if its cure on a march in muddy weather is difficult, its prevention is not so. "Scratches" in horses are a form of disease similar to chilblains and chaps on the human frame. They are prevented by warmth, dryness, and oiling or greasing the skin.

When a long march in the mud has been executed, if the horses are left standing out all night, whether their legs are clean or not, they will get cold. If you feel a horse's legs towards morning, they will generally be found cold. A long continuance of cold wet feet and legs always induces the scratches. When a man goes out and gets wet, he comes in and changes his clothes, and puts on dry stockings, if he can. His horse can

procure the same comforts with perfect ease, if his master knows enough to give them to him. A slip of old blanket made into a bandage, and carefully and closely rolled around the legs, beginning at the pastern, will save every horse's heels from scratches. Four such strips, warmed and dried at the fire, will put such comfort into the animal as to enable him to go through a mud raid unharmed. They weigh little or nothing, and are easily carried. With these, and a strong horse cover, weighing about ten pounds, a horse can go through a winter campaign without danger. The extra weight is paid for in warmth and consequent strength to the animal.

The heels and pasterns should be often hand-rubbed after cleaning, and a little grease rubbed in every now and then. Such a plan will save the whole force from scratches, if the use of bandages is combined therewith.

We have touched but lightly on the most general troubles with cavalry horses. The animal in a state of worse disease belongs to the province of the veterinary surgeon, a being very much needed in our cavalry of the future. But sore backs and scratches are so common, and so easily avoided, that we have mentioned them. The latter may be always prevented by careful cleaning and dry night quarters. If a general officer quarters his men for the night in mud holes, he has only himself to blame for his horses' falling lame.

If our cavalry of the future is recruited from among men owning and riding their own horses, there will be little trouble on the score of uncleanness. Every man who knows anything about horses care is aware that a good cleaning is almost as good as a meal to a horse, and that no horse kept in confinement will grow fat on nothing but food, unless he has therewith a liberal supply of currycomb and brush.

But if recruited as in the last war, the horses will have to be looked after most carefully by the officers, or the men will neglect them. Stable duty is perhaps the most necessary, as it is the most disagreeable part of a cavalry officers' duty. And the manner of saddling demands equal care. Careless saddling is the fruitful cause of sore backs. A wrinkle in a blanket, a strap getting under it will start a sore hard to heal.

(To be continued.)

THE FRENCH INDEMNITY AND THE ENGLISH MONEY MARKET.

The Indemnity which France has to pay to Germany is so large that it is taken completely out of the range of ordinary transactions. No equal sum probably has ever been in the hands of any Government to use as it liked. During a war no doubt greater sums have been often borrowed. But then the destination of these sums was fixed. The Government borrowed them for the war, and on the war it had to spend them. But now the careful financiers of Berlin will draw an unprecedented sum from the money markets of the world. The indemnity will affect us in two ways—first, by causing an export of bullion; and next by causing an export of capital. And we must carefully keep these two operations distinct. The first effect of so large an international monetary transaction is necessarily to cause a great movement of bullion, which is the international cash. And any such movement necessarily causes a great demand on the English market. Speaking broadly, of late years there have only been two great stores of bullion in the world—that in the

Bank of France, and that in the Bank of England. Now, though we have not seen any account of the Bank of France since September, yet we cannot be much wrong in assuming that the store of bullion has been much diminished, and that it will not of itself be enough for the indemnity demanded. Consequently recourse must be had to this country, and we shall have to part with our bullion whether we like it or not. No doubt it is optional with Englishmen to subscribe to the forthcoming French Loan. But our bullion will go, and that to a material extent, whether we subscribe or not. The loan will be taken by great capitalists, and they have so great a command of securities that they can and will borrow in and take from this market an amount of bullion quite enough to raise the rate of interest. The only store of bullion practically available is that represented by the banking reserve of the Bank of England. In practice the way to obtain bullion is by the sale of securities, or in some other way, to obtain a large credit in the banking department of

THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

to draw a cheque on that credit, to obtain notes for it, and then obtain bullion for those notes at the Issue Department. But if £4,000,000 or £5,000,000 were at once abstracted demands, the Bank would raise its rate very considerably, and the general market would follow it. We may therefore be sure that the first effect of the indemnity will be a great bullion movement, which will cause a momentary rise in the value of money in Lombard street. How far, then, will that rise be permanent? To answer this fully we must know what the Prussian Government is going to do with the money, and that is exactly what we do not know. If the bullion so obtained be placed in the German banks, and they are free to use it, it will gradually flow back again. The rate of interest at Berlin will be much lower than elsewhere, and the Berlin capitalists will seek foreign investment for their money. As the rate of interest has been suddenly raised in England, these capitalists will probably choose English investments, and so we shall soon get our own bullion back again. But we do not feel sure that the Prussian Government will thus act. Frederick the Great used to like to keep a large store of the precious metals against a day of difficulty. The First Napoleon liked it also, and all great soldiers have a certain dislike to credit, which may fail when you most want it, and a strong partiality for gold and silver, which are sure to buy what you want in bad times as well as in good. Remembering how essentially military is the Berlin Government, and how little enamoured it is likely to be of abstract economical principles, we much suspect that a large sum in bullion may, by some means or other, be retained. It may be locked up in the Treasury, as in the United States, or the banks with which it is lodged may be fettered in some way, and obliged to keep some of it, and, in either case, our own bullion will not quickly return to us, and the augmented value of money will continue here longer than it otherwise would. But any rise in the rate of interest produced by an efflux of bullion is in its nature temporary. It tends to right itself. The rise in the rate of interest brings bullion here from foreign countries, as of late years we have abundantly seen. Even, therefore, if

THE PRUSSIAN GOVERNMENT.

lock up or retain at Berlin much of the bullion they obtain from us, the rise in money produced by its abstraction will not be permanent; for we shall soon get elsewhere

other bullion to take its place. The effect, therefore, of the indemnity upon our bullion, and through it upon the money market, will be sharp, but its effect upon our loanable capital, and in consequence upon the money market, will be mild but lasting. By "loanable capital" we mean the aggregate sums standing to the credit of various persons in the ledgers of bill-brokers and bankers. If these persons choose to subscribe to the indemnity loan, a certain sum will be transferred from their credit to that of the agents for the loan in London. If this sum were at once to be removed from the London money market, it would undoubtedly be very great. Money is a very delicate article; a very little excess in the supply diminishes the value very much, and a small increase in the demand also augments it very much. A great deal of floating money is held at interest, and therefore must be used somehow or other. When bills or similar securities are few, the holders of such money compete for it very anxiously. On the other hand, when the stock of money is scanty, persons who must discount their bills to pay their own acceptances press for it very greedily. The money market is, therefore, one of the most sensitive markets; a little change either in supply or demand, produces an effect which would at first seem most unlikely. If, therefore, even a moderate part of the indemnity loan were subscribed in London, and taken off as a whole to Germany, the effect would be great. The total sum of the effect would be this—the immediate demand for a considerable sum in bullion will cause an important, though temporary, rise in the money here; and besides there will be a permanent tendency in the rate of interest to rise, for Germany will be steadily calling in by instalments the sum which England will owe her for the indemnity, but which for a time she will permit to remain here. And as this constant payment to Germany will be a regular diminution of our means, it will for some time to come tend steadily to augment the value of money.—*Economist*.

OBITUARY.

THE LAST OF AN OLD YOUNG MAN—BRIGHAM YOUNG GONE TO THAT BOURNE.

Brigham Young is no more. On yesterday night the wires brought us the sad intelligence that B. Young of Salt Lake City had passed to that bourne from which no married man returns, at this season of the year. He leaves a wife and one child. Brigham was born in Ohio, or somewhere along there in the year 1800. His parents had never been married more than once, but in that early day the people didn't know much about polygamy. Almost the first public act in life of the subject of this notice was a wedding, and he has been keeping such public acts up pretty well until yesterday, when grim death, that fellow destroyer got out an injunction on him, and put an end to

HIS PROTRACTED HONEY-MOONS.

He leaves two wives and three children. After Mr. Young had married eight or nine times, he collected his wives together and went to Nauvoo, Illinois, where it didn't make any difference to the neighbors how many wives a man had if he traded at the stores and paid up once in a while. The Young family, which was getting to be a high old family, remained at Nauvoo until some of the other Mormons were killed off by hanging, for horse stealing, and some such innocent pastimes, when Brigham

married a lot more, and concluded to set up house-keeping. But for a man with his

ASSORTMENT OF MARRIAGE CERTIFICATES.

and with his increasing juvenile responsibilities, Illinois looked too small, and so he packed up his wives and other household utensils and took the first train for out West. The first train was an ox train. The deceased leaves seventeen wives and three times that number of children. Arriving at Salt Lake, Mr. Young saw there was room for building up a colony and raising a family, which the narrow contracted prairies of Illinois did not give. So he set about marrying and building synagogues and irrigating the arid lands of the plains, and causing "the wilderness to"—but everybody knows that quotation about the wilderness

BLOSSOMING LIKE THE ROSE,

so it is unnecessary to incorporate it with this short notice. Mr. Young continued to thrive, and at the time of his death was estimated to be worth at least thirty wives and sixty-five children. His residence in Salt Lake City has been marred by no discord, no disunions, no nothing but wives. He has always held himself in readiness to marry any one that came along, his motto being never turn any woman away from his door unmarried. He was kind to a fault, and his sad death entails bitter anguish upon sixty-five wives, and in the neighborhood of two hundred children. And the poet says, and truly, too,

Mother, is the battle over?
You bet! Keno.

THE DYING COMMANDER.

It is a mark of a noble nature to be mindful of the comfort and convenience of others even in the smallest concerns of life. "Even a child is known by his doings." You may judge much of a boy's future character by the way he deports himself on the play-ground. One who is always choosing the best places for himself, jostling aside the poor and weak, sharing his good things with nobody, teasing and vexing those he can safely affront, has no nobility of soul, no generosity of character. A sordid, selfish manhood is the best you can expect of him.

I am confident that Sir Ralph Abercrombie was not such a school boy.—When he was mortally wounded on the battle-field, as his men were bearing him on a litter to his ship, a soldier's blanket was folded up and placed under his head, which much relieved his pain. He asked whose it was they placed there.

"Only a soldier's blanket," they answered.

"Whose blanket is it?" he inquired half raising himself.

"Only one of the men's."

"I wish to know the name of the man whose blanket this is" insisted the dying commander.

"It is Duncan Roy's of the Forty-second Sir Ralph."

"Then see that Duncan Roy gets his blanket this very night," says the noble leader.

The comfort of one of his humblest soldiers was not too trifling to be thought of even in the agonies of death.

Children should remember this beautiful example of Sir Ralph when they are tempted to be careless of the happiness of others, even in little things.

The British cadets' sea-going training ship *Bristol* is ordered for a cruise to the North America and West India station.

THE DUKE D'AUMALE.

The whirligig of affairs in France in its latest revolution, says the *New York Post*, has brought uppermost as the possible president of the new French republic the Duc d'Aumale, who thus acquires at the present moment a greater interest in the eyes of the world than at any former period of his life.

The Duc d'Aumale is, perhaps the ablest of all the sons of Louis Phillippe. He was born in 1822, and at the age of seventeen entered the French army, in which service he continued until the downfall of the Orleans family in 1848.

His military career was passed altogether in Algeria, where according to the historians, poets and painters of the period, he won abundant laurels. His greatest achievement in arms was the capture of the camp of Ab-del-Kader, known as the battle of *Il Smala* in May 1843 which has been perpetuated by Horace Vernet on the largest canvass of modern art—a work that astonishes every visitor to Versailles. Ab-del Kader, when a prisoner in the hands of the French, was brought before this wonderful picture and on being asked his opinion of it, drily remarked that if he had been on the spot it would never have been painted.

The Duc d'Aumale was governor of Algeria at the time of the revolution of 1848, and maintained the supremacy of the French in the province until the arrival of his successor, General Cavaignac, when he went to England, where he has ever since lived, chiefly as the guest of the nation at Claremont.

His retirement has been thoughtful and studious beyond that of most men born in the purple who have come to misfortune—a retirement filled with literary occupations and prolific of essays on military operations and political philosophy, or memoirs of captive monarchs and fallen princes, and of pamphlets on the disturbed situation of Europe.

The Duke married in 1854 a daughter of Leopold, then King of the Two Sicilies, a lady but a few months younger than himself, and their one child is a boy born at Twickenham in 1854. Two years the senior of the Duke de Montpensier who killed Henri de Bourbon in the freshly remembered Spanish duel, has far more stability of character than that inflammable prince and is regarded as intellectually superior to his older brothers, the Duc de Nemours and the Prince de Joinville.

His nephew the Comte de Paris, the direct heir to the throne in the Orleans line, as sixteen years younger than the Duc d'Aumale in the event of the re-establishment of a monarchy in France, this Prince will probably come to the throne. That he is also a man of sagacity and culture, his letter addressed to the editors of the *Evening Post* on the future of France, and published in this journal several months ago, gave ample evidence.

Torpedoes have done nothing during the late war but destroy their friends. In that, however they have proved themselves pretty efficient and pay no regard to the armistice. Besides the many explosions during the war, another has just taken place at Kiel, where we believe two persons were killed; and now eight persons, including a staff major of engineers, have been instantaneously killed at Montchenin by the explosion of a torpedo inadvertently fired by a soldier who was about to drive a bolt in the same spot on the line of rails in which the torpedo had been placed for the purpose of blowing up the line at a junction.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE STATE OF THE MILITIA FOR 1870.

[CONTINUED.]

The Honorable Sir George E. Cartier, Bart., Minister of Militia &c., &c.

ACTIVE MILITIA.

Return showing the nominal strength of the Active Militia of the Dominion of Canada, on 31st December, 1870.*

RESUME BY ARMS.

27 Troops of Cavalry: consisting of 1 Regiment, 5 Squadrons, 10 Independent Troops, and 5 Companies Mounted Infantry. Nominal strength	1,666
10 Field Batteries of Artillery. (with 42 guns and 441 horses.) Nominal strength	750
70 Batteries Garrison Artillery: consisting of 7 Brigades, 1 Provisional Brigade, and 19 Independent Batteries. Nominal strength	4,108
4 Companies of Engineers. Nominal strength	232
623 Companies of Infantry and Rifles: consisting of 17 Battalions, 8 Provisional Companies. Nominal strength	36,729
3 Marine companies. Nominal strength	174
	43,657
16 Companies Riflemen: being 2 Battalions organized for special service in the North West. Nominal strength	862
	44,519

Resume by Provinces, &c.

	Corps.	Quota.	Nom. Strength.
Ontario.....	335	18,070	19,734
Quebec.....	239	14,382	14,064
New Brunswick..	87	3,264	3,315
Nova Scotia.....	75	4,281	4,422
G. T. Railway.....	36	2,122
	742	40,000	43,657
North-west Corps	16	862
	758	40,000	44,519

The above return shows the nominal strength of the Active Militia on 31st December, 1870 (officers, non-commissioned officers and men,) being an increase of 978 officers and men over the strength of the Active Militia in 1869, and this increase has been caused by the formation of the two battalions of Riflemen for duty in the Province of Manitoba, amounting to 862 (officers and men,) and the enrolment of 115 additional men in various corps throughout the Dominion.

This return includes the Grand Trunk Railway Brigade, which has an actual strength of 2122, but who, of course, are not available for frontier service. As the whole force shown in the above return is not instantly available for service, in the event of a sudden invasion of the country, many of the men being absent from their homes and respective company divisions at times (especially during the winter months, engaged lumbering in the woods, &c.,) I recently called for a return from each District of the number of officers and men actually available on an emergency, which has been duly furnished by officers commanding Militia Districts, and from which it appears that, on the 31st December, 1870, there were 2469 officers, and 33,662 non-commissioned officers and men (exclusive of the officers and

* Here follows a table giving a detailed statement of the different arms of the Force, out of which we omit, as the totals will be found in the returns.

men of the Grand Trunk Brigade) immediately available for service. There is, therefore, no reason to doubt but that at least 30,000 men of the Active Militia could be placed on the frontier in a very short time, supported moreover by cavalry and 32 field guns, exclusive of the batteries in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; and, judging (from past experience) by the eagerness with which the men of Canada spring to arms on the approach of danger, there seems no reason to doubt but that the full strength of the Active Militia would soon afterwards become available by the joining of any men absent at the moment from their respective company divisions; and the force itself, in any serious danger to the country, might be greatly augmented by the formation of additional corps. On the whole, this may be considered satisfactory, as the present strength of the regular army of the United States does not exceed 30,000 men, who are scattered over a continent, and could not easily be concentrated, if at all, in any one place without great loss of time. The Active Militia may be looked upon as holding the same relative position towards the Dominion as that occupied by the United States regular army towards that country.

Eight Brigade camps were formed at the annual drill during last season, with great advantage to all assembled, viz.:—Two in Military District No. 1; two in Military District No. 3; one in Military District No. 4; one in Military District No. 5; one in Military District No. 7; and one in Military District No. 8; six of which I was enabled, personally, to visit and inspect.

MILITARY DISTRICT No. 1.

In this District (which forms two Brigade Divisions,) it will be seen, on reference to the Report of Lieut.-Col. J. B. Taylor, Deputy Adjutant General commanding the District, that a brigade, strength as follows:—

- 2406 officers and men,
- 4 field guns, and
- 130 horses,

performed the annual drill in the month of September last, at Sarnia, and two brigade camps were formed, one in each brigade division. The whole of the first brigade, excepting two independent companies, at the camp at Sarnia, and a portion of the second brigade at one near Goderich; the average strength of the companies being 3 officers and 49 non commissioned officers and men, which is an increase of four per cent. over the previous year's musters for drill.

The 1st Brigade of Military District No. 1, consisted of:—

The St. Thomas and London Squadron of Cavalry.

- Mooretown Troop of Mounted Rifles.
- E Battery Field Artillery, with four guns.
- 7th Battalion "London Light Infantry."
- 22nd. "Oxford" Rifles.
- 24th. "Kent" Battalion
- 25th. "Elgin" " } Infantry.
- 26th. "Middlesex" "
- 27th. "Lambton" "

Strength, 2406 officers and men.

The Camp was under the immediate command of Lieut.-Col. Taylor, Deputy Adjutant General, who was assisted, by his Brigade Major, Lt. Col. Moffat, Captain Starr of the Store Department, and Captain Smyth, who acted as Camp Quarter-master.

On the 10th September, having arrived from Goderich in the gunboat *Prince Alfred*. I joined this camp, and remaining therein for six days, took part in the field days that were held, and duly inspected every corps in the Brigade. I found the camp in good order (tents regularly pitched,) but some-

what too near the town, and rather insufficiently supplied with water. In other respects, the position was good. The men all cooked their rations in the usual field camp kitchens. The arrangements for messing were effected by corps independently, and the expenso varied from 19½ to 25 cents per man per day, which included, however, straw for the tents and wood for cooking. The officers messed together by corps, at an average cost of \$1 per day, but they were put to the expenso of building temporary sheds for mess rooms, which would be saved to them if the Department was in a position to supply a few marquees to be used for this purpose. For the instruction of the various corps of this Brigade in target practice, rifle butts had been erected, and, with a few unavoidable exceptions, the whole of the men of this Brigade fired fifteen rounds each at target practice, evidently with good result, as the Deputy Adjutant General Commanding the District reports "that these fifteen rounds (thus fired at the annual drill,) appeared to be of more value in the improvement of the shooting generally throughout each corps, than the whole of the 40 rounds per man previously issued."

During the stay of this Brigade in camp, (unfortunately for too short a time,) every hour was utilized in acquiring military instruction, whilst some companies were going through rifle practice others were performing company and battalion drill, and without harrassing the men too much, as many occasions as possible were taken advantage of for general field days; and it gives me great pleasure to bear testimony to the zeal and readiness displayed by both the officers and men of this Brigade at those field days, to their great intelligence and general aptitude for military exercises, and to the good discipline maintained by all. On every occasion on which the force assembled for Brigade exercise, mere show and parade movements were dispensed with (only service evolutions being practised, and the force was moved as if in the presence of an enemy, advancing a short distance into the country, covered by the usual advance and flank guards, and deploying from time to time, where the ground admitted, into a line of battle, the various arms supporting one another, the artillery and infantry opening fire, and the cavalry making occasional charges. In this manner, at these field days, the Brigade moved, advancing from and retiring to its own camp in regular military order, as it in an enemy's country, changing front and position from time to time, and, in short, performing many of the movements incidental to actual warfare. The manner in which on these occasions, the London Battery of Field Artillery brought its guns across the country, and was handled by Lieut.-Colonel Shanly, reflected great credit on that officer and those under his command, and the rapid yet steady manner in which they fired, as well as that in which they brought up and posted their guns when required to bring the same into action proved the efficiency of this battery. The London and St. Thomas Squadron of Cavalry, and the Mooretown Troop of Mounted Rifles on their part discharged their duty on these occasions with much zeal and intelligence, taking the advanced guard whenever the ground admitted, and when called upon either to skirmish or to charge, doing so with excellent spirit; whilst the intelligent manner in which the Infantry skirmished, fired, or acted in line, was most praiseworthy, and all that is needed to render this brigade very effective is the allowance of a longer period of time for the performance of the annual drill.

On the occasion of one of the field days held by this Brigade, the gunboat *Prince Alfred* co-operated in the movement, with excellent effect, flanking the Brigade as it moved along the river shore, and subsequently for practice engaging the Field Battery with its guns. The weather was fine, and an immense concourse of persons (including very many citizens of the United States,) saw assembled, for the first time perhaps, a Brigade composed entirely of Canadian troops. Although, certain deficiencies in regard of uniform and appointment might be here and there detected in the various corps composing the Brigade, offending perhaps the ideas of a more parade martinet, the size, and stalwart appearance of the men, however, and their hardy look, was most striking, and they were admirably armed. In short, the appearance of this Brigade was a matter of pride to all Canadians present, and evidently one of astonishment to the spectators from the neighboring Republic.

The whole of the officers and men appeared to take great interest in camp life and in their duties, and it was a matter of regret to all that the very limited period of time allowed for the performance of the annual drill, was found altogether too short to admit of instructing the various corps sufficiently,—for hardly had they assembled, formed a camp, and settled down to their work, than the time allowed expired, when, by remaining a few days longer under instruction, a much greater degree of efficiency would be attained. I may here explain that the practice hitherto has been, in consideration of the extra expense incurred for rations, &c., to allow such corps as go into camp for eight days to receive the pay of sixteen days granted by Parliament, (viz., \$8,) but as this arrangement by shortening so much the actual period passed in camp is very objectionable, in a military point of view, and precludes carrying out satisfactorily rifle instruction, target practice, and the necessary evolutions, I would beg to express a hope that such money appropriation may be granted by Parliament as will be sufficient to cover the cost of rations, &c., and thus enable the men to remain the full period of 16 days in camp instead of 8, without incurring the cost of subsistence.

The Staff and commanding officers of corps specially exerted themselves, and my best thanks are due to all the officers and men of the Brigade for the hearty support and co-operation afforded me in carrying out this the first experiment, I believe, on anything like a large scale of forming a Brigade camp of instruction for the Active Militia, without the assistance of the regular troops. My especial thanks are due to Major A. MacKenzie, M.P. for Lambton, Major in the 27th Battalion, (who was on duty with his corps in the camp,) and who has much local knowledge and influence in the neighborhood of Sarnia, for the assistance he so kindly and readily afforded me.

I consider that the plan of forming these Brigade camps of instruction (at the annual drill,) on the immediate frontier, whenever practicable, should be continued; the moral effect caused by assembling troops there is good, and there are many other considerations that render the plan itself desirable, due care being taken to select ground favorable for military manoeuvres. I therefore propose assembling the whole of this Brigade for the performance of the next training gain at Sarnia, but encamping them on a more convenient spot of ground on the Indian Reserve Lands, and further removed from the town of Sarnia.

On the whole the result of this experi-

ment was most satisfactory. Hitherto generally speaking, the annual drill of the Active Militia of Canada had been confined to the practice for a very few days of company or battalion drill, the several arms of the service being instructed separately by corps, and seldom or never brought to act together in large bodies. The short but valuable time allowed for annual drill being thus spent year after year in company and battalion movements, and the manual handling of the arms,—what was learned was merely initiatory steps to real service. The various arms not being brought together were never taught their relative position to each other, or the usual positions they would have to occupy in line of battle in order to support each other. The formation of brigade camps supplies this want, and every man of the brigade at Sarnia returned home with at least an intelligent idea of how troops act and are posted in presence of an enemy, for when properly carried out, field days and sham battles, especially when blank ammunition is used, bear a striking resemblance to the reality.

For rifle practice seven targets were erected for the use of the corps at this camp, and although certain defects in the detail of carrying out the target practice were observed, on this the first occasion of its introduction at the annual drill, such defects may be remedied in future, at all events, the introduction among the rank and file of this important part of military training has been initiated at the annual drill, the necessity for which was clearly exhibited by the fact that very many men were found who had no proper idea of the use of the formidable weapon placed in their hands. It is but due to the loyal and patriotic inhabitants of Sarnia here to mention that, in order to encourage rifle shooting amongst the men, they generously contributed three silver cups as prizes to be contended for. On the conclusion of this brigade, the following camp order was issued:

CAMP, SARINIA, 15th Sept., 1870.

"The Adjutant-General takes the earliest opportunity, after his inspection of the 1st Brigade in Military District No. 1, to express to the officers and men present at the annual training, his appreciation of the zeal, intelligence, and energy exhibited by all ranks in the performance of their duty. He begs especially to thank Lieut.-Col. Taylor, Deputy Adjutant-General, the Staff, and officers commanding battalions and corps, for their exertions, which, if persevered in at the annual trainings will, he feels convinced, make this brigade one of the most efficient in the Dominion of Canada.

"The target practice of the various corps, is now, for the first time, fairly established at the annual training, and being carried out as far as possible according to the principles observed in the regular army, will, the Adjutant-General feels sure, produce the best results.

"The intelligent manner in which the brigade acted during the recent field days was most creditable, and the Adjutant-General congratulates all on the success which has been attained by the performance of the annual training, in this brigade camp.

"By order,
(Signed), J. MOFFAT,
Lieut.-Col., Brigade-Major."

The detailed information connected with the condition and inspection of the corps composing this Brigade will be found in the annual inspection returns of this District.

On the 15th of September, having proceeded thither the previous day in the gun-

boat, *Prince Alfred*, from Sarnia, I inspected a small brigade camp at Goderich consisting of the 32nd and 33rd Battalions, strength as follows:—

32nd Battalion.—351 officers and men.
33rd Battalion.—459 do do.

810 Total.

Who were encamped on the banks of the Maitland River, about two miles from the town of Goderich, under command of Lieut.-Colonel Spruce, Brigade-Major of this Division. The 32nd being under the command of Lieut. Colonel Sproat, M.P., and the 33rd Battalion, under the command of Lieut.-Col. A. M. Ross. This camp was well placed on very suitable ground, the tents pitched with great regularity, and the situation one of the most favorable I have yet seen in this district, for the establishment of a rifle range, and the performance of military manoeuvres. These two battalions are formed almost entirely out of the agricultural population, and consist of tall, strong, well-bodied men in the prime of life. Both officers and men exhibited the greatest zeal and interest in their military exercises. On a minute inspection of the appointments of some of the companies, however, were somewhat deficient, requiring renewal, and steps will be taken to remedy this defect as soon as possible. At drill, these battalions exhibited considerable efficiency, and were handled with intelligence and ability by their commanding officers, who evidently possess the esteem and confidence of those under their command. The weather being remarkably fine, and the ground favorable, these battalions acted together as a small brigade, going through a long field day in a very creditable manner. The various companies skirmishing, reinforcing, supporting and relieving one another in excellent style, all being supplied with blank ammunition. The effect of this field day in so picturesque a locality was very fine, and witnessed with much pleasure by a large number of spectators.

It was much to be regretted that only two battalions belonging to this brigade (viz.: the 2nd Brigade, Military District No. 1,) were brought together, and I propose that the whole of the corps in this brigade division be assembled at Goderich for annual drill and target practice in the same manner as the first brigade at Sarnia, next season, or if found more convenient assembled as a division along with the 1st Brigade.

(To be continued.)

The Crown Prince Victoria of Prussia has generously devoted her entire income of the past and present year to the German soldiers wounded in the late war, and the German women made widows by it.

BREAKFAST.—EPPS'S COCOA.—GRATEFUL AND COMFORTING.—The very agreeable character of this preparation has rendered it a general favorite. The CIVIL SERVICE GAZETTE remarks:—"The singular success which Mr. Epps attained by his homoeopathic preparation of cocoa has never been surpassed by any experimentalist. By a thorough knowledge of the natural laws which govern the operations of digestion and nutrition, and by a careful application of the fine properties of well selected cocoa, Mr. Epps has provided our breakfast tables with a delicately favoured beverage which not only saves us many heavy doctors' bills." Made simply with boiling water or milk. Sold by the Trade only in $\frac{1}{4}$ lb., $\frac{1}{2}$ lb., and 1 lb. tin-lined packets, labelled—JAMES EPPS & Co., Homoeopathic Chemists, London, England.

CORRESPONDENCE.

[The Editor does not hold himself responsible for individual expressions of opinion in communications addressed to the VOLUNTEER REVIEW.]

To the Editor of the VOLUNTEER REVIEW

SIR,—The Adjutant General's Report with the recommendations respecting the Militia contained therein affords me sincere pleasure. It must be evident to every member of the Volunteer force that he has endeavored to promote the best interests thereof, as well as to secure fair play for all ranks.

Having served for many years under the late Duke of Wellington and several of the old Peninsula officers, my experience proves that any officer who discharges his duty to the country and those who served under him always came out with distinction, because his precepts and example inspired sentiments of honor and enforced discipline on all under his immediate control.

The report shows distinctly that it rests with the representatives of the people to make the Canadian militia, as a military force, equal to any other in the world. I look upon the recommendation for aiding the Volunteer force by enforcing the ballot in the rural districts as of great importance. At present, as pointed out in the report, military duty presses very unequally on the population and has all but exhausted the Volunteer element in the agricultural districts.

The remarks on the Five Forks action in 1864, by a cavalryman of the United States army, in your issue of the 10th inst., on the comparative merits of young and old officers and soldiers affords much food for reflection and an example which should not be lost sight of.

Your obedient servant,

AN OLD CAMPAIGNER OF THE ACTIVE FORCE.
Burrill's Rapids, 11th April, 1871.

"OUR MILITARY FUTURE."

To the Editor of the VOLUNTEER REVIEW.

SIR,—The approaching removal of the last of the Imperial troops from Canada seems to excite a good deal of anxiety in the public mind as to the future, and our Government would appear to be inclined to experiment in the direction of a standing army by their enlisting 200 men for service as artillerymen.

There can be no doubt that, leaving the possibility of foreign war out of the question, every country absolutely requires a certain number of troops to ensure the safety and maintenance of the civil power; a number proportioned of course to the population of the country and the character of its people. Taking our circumstances to be the same as those of the United States, (than whom there does not exist a people more indisposed to the maintenance of a standing army) we would require—on their basis of 30,000 men—at least 1000 or 2000, probably the latter number in view of the garrisons

which will be required in the vast territories lately added to the Dominion, and we should bring ourselves to regard this as being absolutely necessary for the safety and prosperity of the country.

The question next arises, how best to get this force combining economy and efficiency? Getting the men in Canada is almost out of the question, as good men could not be induced to serve for anything like the pay given the British Army, high as that is in comparison with that of continental armies.

I would suggest following the plan so successfully adopted by the late East India Company, whose army has added so much lustre to the British name, but with some modifications suitable to this country. Raise all or nearly all the men in England from among the *farming population*, enlisting them for five years at the same rate of pay as in H. M. Service, and giving as an inducement a *free grant* of land, in any part of the Dominion they may choose, on the expiration of their service. The regiments to be officered by Canadians who should be educated at a Military College to be established for the purpose, and subjected to a very rigid examination so that we should have officers whom the men would respect, and who would be a credit to the country—as a beginning half of the Field Officers might be selected from the British Army, and we would then have reliable men to organize the system.

The depots in England might be under the charge of Canadian officers to be stationed there in their regular routine, so that the men on landing in this country would find themselves under control of the same class of officers as they had been accustomed to since their enlistment.

By this means we would effect a military colonization of one of the finest countries in the world by the very best class of men to be had, and at the same time have the best and most economical force we could get.

Hoping that, should my suggestion meet with your approval, you will keep the matter before the eyes of the public.

I am Sir,

Your obedient servant

"CANADA."

April 10th, 1871.

[Our correspondent has not sent name or address; as his suggestions are worth noticing, we have departed from the invariable rule in this case.—Ed. Vol. Rev.]

Forty pounds each is the price offered for artillery horses in England, and there are 2000 wanted. These, said Mr. Edward Tater in a lecture, might be procured, but there would be much difficulty in getting the 2000 wanted for the cavalry. About 30,000 horses had gone from England to France during the war. In the Crimean war £10 was given, since then the price had come down to £33 for three-year olds, and £35 for four-year olds. When the Austrians and Prussians came into the market, and in seven years, from the ports of Hull and Harwich alone, 14,000 mares were sent off.

RATIONS AND MANAGEMENT OF THE MESS.

THE PRACTICE IN THE RUSSIAN ARMY.*

The pay of the enlisted men of the Russian army being very small, the Government must provide for their support completely. The highest pay which any enlisted man can receive amounts yearly to 68 rubles 70 kopeks (about fifty dollars in gold.) the rate of pay of a first sergeant of the Finland sharpshooters of the guards. Generally first sergeants receive 36 rubles; sergeants, 9 rubles 30 kopeks; corporals, 7 rubles 80 kopeks; privates, 5 rubles 25 kopeks (four dollars gold.) With such a low rate of pay, it is quite natural that the Government should furnish subsistence for the men in all respects sufficient. This is done by issues in kind, and by the payment of money. The issue in kind consists of flour and groats drawn from magazines monthly, at the daily rate of 2½ pounds of flour and ¼ pound of groats. The pay of the guards and of the troops of the line differs. For the former the sum necessary for the support of a certain number of men per year is ascertained, and the rate thus obtained forms the basis of the sum paid for one man. The troops of the line receive a fixed sum, varying in amount according to the locality in which the troops are stationed.

The whole empire is divided into three districts in regard to the payment of ration money. The first district comprises the Government of St. Petersburg, Archangel, Pskov, Esthonia, Taurin, and Finland; the second, all the governments of southern and western Russia; the third, all those of eastern Russia.

In the first class each man is allowed 3 1-2 kopeks; in the second, 2 7-9 kopeks; in the third, 2 1-2 kopeks; in Poland, 5-6 kopek daily; the kopek being three-quarters of a cent. This money is paid to each company three times each year, for four months in advance, calculated on the strength of the company, and forming the company subsistence fund. This fund is intended to provide for the daily support of the men; in other words, it is to be used for the purchase of sufficient meat, butter, oil, or vegetables for two meals daily. It is found, however, generally insufficient on account of the high prices of provisions, and other means had to be thought of to increase it. The quantity of flour allowed daily gives three pounds of bread, but, as no man can eat this amount, only enough bread is baked to satisfy the men. The flour thus saved is partly used for the preparation of "quass," a beverage which is used during each meal in Russia. The remainder of the flour is sold. But even this addition to the subsistence fund would hardly suffice, and the men might often have but scanty fare, if no other means were available. The men themselves contribute to the improvement of their mess by the proceeds of work done for citizens, a practice original with Russia, deeply rooted in her social condition. The country is very destitute of laborers, and it is to meet this want that soldiers receive permission at the close of the annual encampments, and, when circumstances seem to demand it, sometimes during the encampments, to assist citizens in their work, especially during harvest time. During the four or six weeks furlough these soldiers earn, as their labor

*So far as this article relates to the Russian ration it is translated from a work published November last, at Berlin, entitled: "Die Heeresmacht Russlands, ihre Neugestaltung und politische Bedeutung" (Russia's military power its reorganization and political importance.) To this is annexed some remarks about the management of our Army rations.

is well paid, a considerable sum of money. But to compensate for the additional duty thrown on their comrades, they have to suffer a deduction of about one-half of their earnings, which is paid into the subsistence fund of their company. Three advantages are obtained by this measure: the mess of the company is improved, the want of labor in the empire is lessened, and the monotonous routine of garrison life is diversified. As things are in Russia, not much can be said against this system, especially considering the long time of service of the soldier, and as the men fare well under it.

This peculiarity of the Russian service necessitates a peculiar administration and order of the mess. The men provide partly by their labor for their own subsistence; they are therefore allowed to manage the mess in a great many respects to their own liking. A strongly developed self-government reigns thus in an otherwise strictly regulated military administration.

Each company is divided, in time of peace, into four squads. For the management of the mess, each squad elects one man, and another man is elected by the whole company, to whom an assistant capable of keeping accounts is given. These men are called the *artel*, and the men themselves *artelshicks*. It is their duty to provide the necessary materials for the mess according to the amount of money received from the captain, either for a week or for a few days. This is no easy task, for on fast days the bill of fare must conform to the national custom and religious observances. After the bill of fare has been determined, the company *artelshick* buys the materials, which are closely inspected in regard to quantity and quality by the orderly sergeant of the day. After having been cooked, they are divided between the four squads, each *artelshick* watching over the interest of his squad.

The mess gives two meals daily, consisting generally of cabbage, or soup, or peas, etc., besides a good quantity of groats. Meat is served once a day, and must weigh when cooked one-half pound.

The rations are well prepared and fully sufficient in quantity; the hale, hearty condition and appearance of the men bearing ample testimony to these facts.

Besides the above-mentioned means to improve the rations, there is attached to each barracks a kitchen garden worked by one man per company, the expenses being paid from the company fund.

The plan of managing the company mess seems to be good, and might perhaps be introduced with some modifications into the United States Army, at least in time of peace. The companies here are small, about the same strength as the Russian; but as our companies generally mess together, six men do not seem to be required. Let the non-commissioned officers of each company elect one of their number, the private one, and the whole company an additional one, this last man to make all purchases, or to draw the rations in kind from the commissary, these three men to form a council of administration under the presidency of the senior officer—not company commander; let this council determine, according to the resources of the company fund, the bill of fare, and hold them responsible for the proper management of the company mess. The commander would, of course, remain as now *ex officio* the trustee of the fund and exercise the necessary control. The elected members to be changed after a specified time and not to be re-elected immediately.

As it is at present, the captain is in reality chief cook, the first sergeant is assistant; and if they do not happen to possess natural

talent for this work, the company do not live as well as they might. Let the men have a share in the management of their own rations, and if they do not fare well, it is their own fault and must stop their growling. Against the introduction of this plan some objections may be raised, but it is believed to be practicable, and its adoption may have very beneficial results, and will certainly remedy some of the but too well founded complaints which the men are powerless in a great many instances to correct. The so-called savings are generally not made in the manner contemplated by the Regulations. At ration day the first sergeant leaves with the commissary a certain quantity of articles to be paid for at the end of the month. Towards the end of the ten days he finds out, for instance, that he left too much coffee, but instead of drawing the quantity necessary to make tolerably good coffee, he uses simply less for each meal; in other words, he makes the amount he drew last, a proceeding which is generally followed with most articles of the ration; and then he boasts at the end of the month of the high figure of his savings, the height of his ambition being to show the most money saved.

The value of the ration is sufficient to give to the men good, substantial board. Nothing should be purchased out of the company fund but provisions and the necessary mess utensils, and company and post commanders should be held responsible that this is strictly observed.

In this connection it may be appropriate to mention the saving of flour as now practised at the different posts. The ration of flour is 18 ounces, giving barely enough bread for the support of a man. But the practice at most of the posts is simply to bake 18 ounces of bread for each man. The rest of the flour is sold, and the proceeds form, after deducting the expenses of the bakery, the post and regimental funds. Both these funds are unnecessary, and only complicate the administration of posts and regiments. Congress has decided that the expense of maintaining regimental bands is too heavy a burden for the national treasury; but as they seem to be indispensable, the powers that be simply order that they must be maintained out of funds gained from an insufficient issue of bread to enlisted men.

It seems also not to be right that men not stationed at the posts where these bands are kept should contribute to their maintenance. If regimental bands are indispensable, and the country at large be too poor to provide for the necessary expenses of their maintenance, make every officer and man give a fixed sum of his pay per month for the fund necessary to maintain them, but do not make the enlisted man alone pay for the privilege of having music at a post by depriving him of a part of his necessary bread.

The other purposes, forming regimental and post libraries, etc., for which the post and regimental funds are set aside, are very good in intention, but are very rarely carried out for the real benefit of the enlisted men, at least not the regimental libraries. The justice of the whole proceeding by which post and regimental funds are created seems to be doubtful, and the use of the funds creates but little good. Abolish these funds altogether, and divide the real *bona fide* savings made by baking the flour issued into bread, and not actually consumed, between the companies at the post, to be accounted for in the return of their company fund.

Other means might be found to provide for all the purposes for which post and regi-

mental funds are now used: collect the pay due to desertors after all claims of the Government have been satisfied, for instance.

At nearly the majority of posts there is sufficient land available for the purpose of cultivating kitchen gardens, their produce forming a very desirable addition to the company messes, but here again all the expenses are borne by the enlisted men. If officers are stationed at such posts, whose fresh vegetables cannot be procured otherwise, issue to them at the same rate as to enlisted men; that is to say, if the family of the officer consist of six persons, issue to him the same quantity issued to six enlisted men, and when the expenses are to be settled, make the officer bear his share, the share falling upon the enlisted men to be paid out of the company fund.

March 17, 1871.

FOREIGN NAVAL AND MILITARY ITEMS.

It is asserted that in the course of the summer a temporary camp of instruction for 30,000 men will be formed somewhere in the south of England.

In proof of the educational spirit which now possesses the British army, we have the fact that the whole of the schools of instruction are so full this month that the applications of many officers who were anxious to join on the 1st instant could not be entertained.

It is said that the entire system of Italian military defences about to be submitted to the Chamber is based on the supposition that France may be expected, on the first opportunity, to assault Italy. In this belief the mountain passes toward France are to be fortified, the fortifications of Alessandria and Spezia to be increased, and Rome and Civita Vecchia are to be protected.

The *Monarch* has been ordered to Portsmonth to fit with the hydrostatic screw-starting gear, described a few weeks since. We are pleased, says the *Broad Arrow*, also to learn that an order has been given by the Admiralty for the fitting of the *Agincourt* with steering gear upon this principle, and that screw-starting apparatus will be added after that in the *Monarch* has been practically tested.

A letter from Toulon, published in the *Messenger du Midi* of the 5th of March, states that the disarmament of ships is about to be carried out upon such a scale as to leave in commission only the vessels absolutely necessary for the public service. It is even proposed to suppress the permanent naval stations in distant waters, and to adopt the American system, which is regarded as satisfactory, both as respects national influence and the instruction of seamen.

In answer to a question as to the status of the British military attachés at foreign embassies, it was explained in Parliament that the salary of the military attachés at Paris was £500 per annum charged in the estimates for the diplomatic service, and that all extraordinary expenses were allowed. Military attachés at Berlin, Vienna, and St. Petersburg received £500 per annum each, together with £100 a year, for lodging money. It was not a five years' appointment. The present attaché had held the post from October 1, 1858. The military attachés hold the local rank of major-general, that they may have a higher local standing.

THE
VOLUNTEER REVIEW
And Military and Naval Gazette.
VOLUME V.
1871.

THE VOLUNTEER REVIEW enters on the fifth year of its existence. When it was first projected fears were entertained for its ultimate success, as two efforts of a similar kind had been made and failed for want of support; but we are happy to say those fears were groundless, and that the VOLUNTEER REVIEW may now be said to be firmly established, thanks to the support it has met with from the hands of the Volunteer Force of the Dominion. It now circulates largely throughout Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and even the new Province of Manitoba has extended its generous support. Nor is it confined to these Provinces only, but in the Mother Country, and even the United States it has subscribers and supporters. No other journal in the Dominion has so wide and extended a circulation as the VOLUNTEER REVIEW, and therefore it offers unparalleled facilities to general advertisers. Our terms for advertising will be found liberal on application, either personally, or by letter *post paid*.

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AGENTS.

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THE VOLUNTEER REVIEW

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TO CORRESPONDENTS

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Communications intended for insertion should be written on one side of the paper only.

We cannot undertake to return rejected communications. Correspondents must invariably send us confidentially, their name and address.

All letters must be Post-paid, or they will not be taken out of the Post Office.

Adjutants and Officers of Corps throughout the Provinces are particularly requested to favor us regularly with weekly information concerning the movements and doings of their respective Corps, including the fixtures for drill, marching out, rifle practice &c.

We shall feel obliged to such to forward all information of this kind as early as possible, so that we may reach us in time for publication.

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The Volunteer Review, AND MILITARY AND NAVAL GAZETTE.

"Unbribed, unbought, our swords we draw,
To guard the Monarch, fence the law."

OTTAWA, MONDAY, APRIL 17, 1871.

We understand that Lieut.-General Sir Hastings Doyle, Lieutenant Governor of Nova Scotia, will administer the Government of the Dominion during the absence in England of His Excellency Lord Lisgar.

An old and trite proverb says "Curses, like chickens, come home to roost;" to this may be added, "political crimes carry with them their own immediate punishment"—the latter being simply a more refined rendering of the old aphorism. Both are illustrated by the result of the Franco-Prussian war, and the effect it is likely to have on the affairs of Great Britain. The *Pall Mall Gazette*, the *London Times*, *Spectator*, and other journals of the Radical school are exercised in mind as to the final result of that doctrine of neutrality of which they were such active preachers, and appear to be clearly of opinion that taking part with France to prevent the destruction of that essential element in European politics the "balance of power"—so much sneered at by the new school of political philosophers, would be far more profitable, honorable and safe than the cowardly policy of non-intervention.

In the present case the element of dis-

turbance appears to be the fact that Prussia has demanded and exacted from France the sum of £200,000,000 sterling as war indemnity, this sum being equal to one-sixth of the whole capital of that unhappy country. The direct effect of the withdrawal of so much capital from circulation would be an immediate rise of interest in the English money market, a scarcity of capital for investment, and the permanent prostration of France. Any one conversant with financial affairs will easily understand how seriously the industries of the civilized world will be paralysed by this measure; but the mischief does not end there. In Prussia there is no responsible Government, the will of the Kaiser is the law, and it is evident that this large indemnity will be locked up in the Prussian treasury for the purpose of providing what the unification party in Germany have very strenuously desired—a national marine force. It is not many years ago since people laughed at a project seriously entertained in Germany of providing a navy by private subscription. It was actually attempted, and the national aspirations are now in a fair way of being fulfilled.

The full force of the situation can be understood when it is known that Great Britain after an expenditure of £8,000,000 sterling has only thirty-two ironclad ships of war to protect a home coast line of 8,700 miles, with the dependencies of the empire and India. Assuming that Prussia has actually spent £50,000,000 sterling on the war, and with her known economy it has probably not exceeded that figure, £150,000,000 will be still available for the construction of an ironclad navy, or over eighteen times as much as Great Britain has invested or could invest in the operation. It follows that if any movement towards that object is made by Prussia, that England will be precisely in the position of France before the opening of the late contest, with the standing menace of an armed neighbor at her door, at any moment to take advantage, and by no means scrupulous on what grounds. English political philosophers with their humanitarian ideas are thus brought face to face with a contingency which they have labored so hard to create, and it may reasonably be asked how long those people would bear the strain on their resources such a state of affairs would render compulsory? Will there be a question as to the justice of the cause or nice distinctions as to what party struck the first blow? Will the Radical press denounce the British ministry who will have the courage to bring the question already looming in the distance to the arbitrament of the sword? or will they advocate the maintenance of a dignified neutrality, especially when that state of affairs demands a standing army of two hundred thousand men in the British Isles, a reserve of twice that number, and every available vessel of her navy in commission. It is safe to say no matter what the drivellers who have brought about this state of affairs may do, the British people

would at once compel a conflict and leave those fools to reason over the justice of the act.

Louis Napoleon did nothing more in precipitating the late conflict. Prussia had steadily refused to disarm, her attitude compelled a corresponding movement on the part of France, and the strain on its resources could no longer be borne. The peace-at-any-price ministry, with Gladstone and Bright at its head, eagerly seized on the pretext that France had been the aggressor, to keep out of the quarrel, they had obtained power by falsehood and on a false pretext, and in order to keep it had disarmed England and left her naked in the face of the enemies of peace in Europe. As a consequence it became a matter of absolute necessity to put the whole question on false issues, and the astute Prussian Chancellor aided that movement by the exhibition of the secret treaty at the right time. The people of England have therefore to thank Gladstone, Bright, and the Manchester school for immediate loss, and the greatest prospective danger Great Britain ever encountered since she occupied a position amongst the nations of the earth. The magnitude of that danger, its near and remote bearings on our own condition, renders it necessary for the people of Canada to seriously consider the situation, and our present want of power to interfere actively in a movement involving such fearfully momentous issues because we are not represented in the Imperial Parliament supplies an irresistible argument for the revision of Imperial polity pointed out in our last two issues. English statesmanship demonstrates every day more fully the incapacity of English politicians to deal with the great questions affecting the immense dependencies of the British Crown, and as it would not tend to the peace and progress of the world to create a crowd of half-fledged nationalities, whose pretensions would re-enact the scenes of the South American Republics; it follows that the only other alternative will be to create an Imperial Parliament, in which the Colonies should be fairly represented.

When the Reciprocity Treaty was abrogated a howl was raised by certain Canadian journals, notably the *Trade Review*, and some of its Montreal contemporaries about the manifold miseries that were to fall on Canada in consequence of the Yankees shutting us out of their very profitable markets. A good many Canadians, however, understood this trade question far better than either the Yankee protectionists or their Montreal friends, and stoutly maintained that while it was in general a very good thing to have reciprocal trade relations, and it would not be desirable to disturb the treaty, if parties were satisfied; yet on the whole this country would be by far a greater gainer by its abrogation, inasmuch as the then existing treaty had given the people of the United States uncontrolled command

of the carrying trade of Canada, the fisheries and navigation of our internal waters, for which we received no equivalent whatever. Five years have elapsed since the treaty was ended by the United States, and instead of being exporters of the products of that country we have become importers. Instead of being able to shut us out of their markets by high tariffs that very operation has given us complete control thereof, and the opening of the Intercolonial Railway will render us independent of their boading system and transit. In fact it has enabled us to throw down all barriers to commerce, and to challenge them to a contest for the supremacy in their own markets and of the world, in which we are sure to win.

If fairly considered we do not want any reciprocity treaty, as no interest directly languishes for it, and it would afford us no new impetus towards developing our resources; our commercial interests are in the direction of closer trade relations with Great Britain, the West Indian and Australian Colonies, and there is no need to make Yankee monopolists our factors in dealing with the dependencies of Great Britain, South America, or other foreign countries. In order to show clearly how the exclusion of the people of the United States from the former privileges they enjoyed in our fisheries, affects directly our interests, and to illustrate the principles laid down we give the following extract from the Ottawa correspondent of the *New York World*:

"While the entire exportation from the Dominion of Canada of the produce of the fisheries to foreign countries from 1866 to 1870, both inclusive, exhibits an increase of only eleven per cent., our exports of cured fish to the United States during the same period have increased 33 1/2 per cent. Whether producer or consumer pays the heavy imposts placed on British catch, in order that competition with American catch may be so crippled as to secure your own fishermen the full control of the United States market is a question which, in this instance at least, is clearly answered by the facts. Take the case of mackerel, by way of illustration. The average prices at the commencement of reciprocity, ruled, in Halifax, from \$10 to \$12 per barrel, and in Boston from \$14 to \$16. Last year the prices ranged from \$18 to \$20 in Halifax, and from \$23 to \$27 in Boston. There was no scarcity of mackerel in Halifax, because Nova Scotia fishermen actually took 38,679 barrels more in 1870 than in the previous year, in consequence of foreigners having been kept off our inshore fishing places. The Canadian article being mostly class No. 1, a maximum rate might be taken, but I state general averages as between gross and net values of various brands. Canadian producers very nearly doubled their former receipts, besides sending you last year an unusual quantity of mackerel. Judge for yourself who really paid the duties to your government, producer or consumer. The difference between Nova Scotia and Massachusetts prices cannot be altogether owing to the relations of demand and supply, but seems chiefly due to the enhanced cost to the original purchaser and his profits, with duties added thereon, all of which somebody pays. Is it not the fish-eater?"

The correspondent goes on to show that if the Yankees are to fish at all with any success it must be within the three mile limit, and to prove that the duty laid on Canadian fish is of no consequence, as the article must be had at any price, for which he gives the following conclusive reasons:

"Your duties never touch the cost to us of either the production or the disposal. If these duties were repealed to-morrow, the ensuing freedom of commercial intercourse would undoubtedly be a great convenience to us, and might cheapen fish to your population. It would not, however, be any substantive gain to Canadians. Doubtless you would trade more readily, and, perhaps, buy more; but if your own fishermen were prosperous at the same time, our prices and yours would correspondingly decline. It is mere mockery, therefore, to discuss the removal of duties from our fish as an equivalent for admission to our exclusive and lucrative privileges. We command the sources of supply. If your fishermen could participate in them freely, the catch of Canadian fishermen might be neither as certain, as abundant, nor as saleable. The advantage to the producers would be mostly yours. Yet consumers in both countries would obtain fish all the cheaper for the busy competition of domestic industry and foreign enterprise. In your country they would be spared the extra cost of fictitious aid to American fishermen, although deprived of the luxury of discriminating against Canadians."

"High duties on provincial caught fish of any kind are of very slight consequence to us. The only fish we send to our market in appreciable quantities are just those kinds and qualities which your people must have at any price, and that our waters alone can furnish. The best markets for the bulk of Canadian cured fish are in Southern Europe, Great Britain, the British and foreign West Indies, Brazil, &c., &c. These are now our established marts, Prime mackerel, salmon, certain grades of codfish, some halibut and herrings you are obliged to procure from Canada. We are content to trade these with you at reasonable figures. Sometimes your fishermen manage to filch from our waters the best mackerel, choice codfish, herrings, and halibut. Sometimes, too, they obtain their cargoes in barter for salt and other stores. They manage by such means to make up their fares pretty cheaply. The salt they have probably withdrawn from your warehouses subject to a drawback of duty. Last year this allowance amounted to the handsome sum of \$123,474 54. Towns in Massachusetts figure for \$79,124 48 of this amount. The always complaining town of Gloucester absorbs the greatest proportion."

Every word is a proof that Canadians should pause and weigh well the consequences of allowing a foreign power the privileges of a trade capable of such development and exercising such a tremendous influence on our naval and commercial affairs. It furnishes abundant reasons why any treaty admitting Yankee fishermen to our waters should be looked on with suspicion, carefully considered and nothing conceded without full and substantial equivalents, which the United States have not to give. The conclusion is particularly rich, as it shows beyond contradiction the ground of the Yankee fisherman's complaint, and the dishonesty of President Grant's allegations in his last famous message.

It is very fortunate that a tried Canadian statesman is a leading member of the Joint High Commission, and that it has not been left to Englishmen alone to deal with this question. They have already allowed Yankee impudence and clamour to overbear them in treaties made respecting those fisheries on three separate occasions—in 1782, 1818, and in 1854—it is as well they are not likely to be hoodwinked again. The whole article proves that while we can do very well indeed without the markets of the United States they cannot do without access to our markets, and our politicians should govern themselves accordingly. The people of Canada don't believe in *national benevolence*, it is too costly a luxury:

"When," the *World's* correspondent says, "we shut them out from our inshore fishings, where they are as much lawless intruders as if they were veritable Rob Roys in our cattle pastures, these fishermen must either return home empty or buy fish cargoes in Canadian ports or harbors. It's your affair if they take them into the ports of Maine and Massachusetts with or without paying revenue duties. They pay us neither more or less for the article. In this respect especially it makes no odds whatever to us whether your duties be high or low, or that there were none at all. But the heavier they are the more your much protected fishermen piles on the price at his own market. Who pays? He quite forgets to make you any deduction either for the cheapened salt which he has bartered at par in violation of our regulations and your own. He omits to credit the consumer who pays him the duty with the drawback saved by patriotically evading your warehouse laws and treasury regulations. He tells you that the customs charges were designed for his protection, and apply to Canadians for their fish, not to him and his fish. He overlooks the fish eater and pork curer of the Western States, and other interests salted somewhat heavily to protect your great salt producers—they must pay duties on their imported salt and on his salted fish into the bargain. It might be some little comfort to the pork packer in Chicago if he could in his turn salt the fisherman down East on the cost of the barrels of pork included in his fishing supplies. But he cannot. Maine and Massachusetts fishermen don't enjoy protection by halves. They buy their pork when on the fishing voyage in Canada at cheap rates. But I can tell you of something else that he doesn't forget to do. He never forgets to make a grievance of the outrages perpetrated on him by Canadian authorities in interfering with his fishing inside the prohibited limits, and trading his bountied salt and other "truck" for fish, bait, ice, stores, and provisions. According to his complaints United States citizens have been denied their treaty rights, the national flag has been outraged, and insolent Britishers have molested innocent men—"hardy fishermen." He wants more protection. He would have the whole American navy close at hand, and war to the knife, rather than put up with such 'vexatious treatment.' Such are his ideas of protection.

"Whilst trade was free between us and fishing unrestricted, your fishermen caught all the fish they wanted, and sold them at moderate prices. Canada took from you such as your dealers found unsuited to domestic and foreign markets. We know that our fishermen caught less fish than they do when American fishermen are excluded.

They would continue to do so. But while reciprocity removed all obstacles to fishing and trading there was mutual prosperity. Your people and our own enjoyed an abundance of good and cheap fish food. We want our population to enjoy it still. Retaliation by taxing the fish you send to us would be quite easy. We refrain. Rather we take from you all the fish you can spare without driving them away from the mouths of consumers by taxes which we think simply enhance their cost to the customer. In the meantime, your people will continue to buy from us what fish they need, and in exact proportion to the rigour with which your fishermen are excluded from our rich fishing grounds will the dependence of your trade and consumers on the Canadian catch be confirmed. You can settle amongst yourselves out of whose pocket comes the toll which respected Uncle Samuel takes on every mouthful of fish food that goes to feed the active brains, nerves, and sinews of his energetic and intelligent family."

The Yankee fisherman cheats at once the tax gatherer in the United States, encourages smuggling in Canada, and compels the Western farmer to pay duties on his salted fish, while he obtains Canadian pork duty free. The United States is a great country.

The following letter has been addressed to the Prussian Prince Frederick Charles by the Marquis de Biencourt, and exhibits an awful abuse of the laws of war; the conduct described reflects severely on the honor, honesty, gentlemanly or generous feelings of the conquerors, additional point being given to the scandal by the exalted rank of the perpetrators of this outrage.

It has been asserted that German soldiers were little better than savages, and this conduct at least gives countenance to the stories of acts of barbarous brutality charged on them while in occupation of conquered territory,—their possession of Venice and the Quadrilateral was marked by a total disregard of the rights of the populations with whom they came in contact,—and it does not appear that the march of civilisation has effected any change for the better in their conduct. Gladstone's reflections would not be very pleasant if one of those German Reiter princes occupied his country seat a la Frederic Charles.

"CHATEAU D'ASAY LE RIDEAU, Feb. 21, 1871.

"MONSIEUR—Your Royal Highness has been pleased to visit the Chateau d'Asay. In other times I should have been much honoured by this visit; now I am forced to tell your Royal Highness how strange and brutal I consider your proceedings. Do not forget monseigneur, that you are not at the evening of a battle; you occupy the department of Indre et Loire by virtue of the conditions of an armistice, and nothing gives you the right to come to my house to require there to be entertained in spite of me, to eat my bread and to drink my wine. The gentlemen of your staff, the officers of your army and you know nothing of the consideration that well-bred people observe the one toward the other; you are ignorant of the respect which in civilized nations the conqueror owes to the conquered. In seating yourself at my table, in requiring yourself to be entertained at my expense, in

requiring champagne which I had not, you give me the right, which I am profoundly sorry to possess, to speak to you as I do. Seeing the proceedings of their prince I am no longer astonished at the perfectly brutal proceedings of the officers of your army who pollute my dwelling, and who have insisted on being fed in my house, at my expense, since the 4th February. I have the honour to be, monseigneur, with the most profound respect, your Royal Highness' most humble enemy.

"MARQUIS DE BIENCOURT."

"P. S.—I am told that I have equally had the very involuntary honour of feeding at my table his Royal Highness the Crown Prince."

NEWS OF THE WEEK.

SINCE our last issue the situation of affairs in France has not experienced any decided change—the Thiers Government appear to be willing to try the effect of conciliation on the Parisian scoundrels, at the same time they are rapidly concentrating a force about the unfortunate city, which will make resistance impossible. Mont Valeroin had kept up an incessant fire on the Champ Elysees and over the Arc de Triomphe, and doing far more mischief than the Germans. The Communists have thrown up barricades in the old style, but they were carried by Mc Mahon's soldiers, after hard fighting and severe loss. It is a pity this great fighting power could not be enlisted to save the National honor when the Germans were before the city, or could it be that Trochu was a mere *bureaucrat* unable to carry out his own theoretical ideas, or to adapt the materials at hand for the accomplishment of the required purpose. Meantime the Communists are quarreling amongst themselves—one portion refusing to man the works; and it is said that the Thiers Government are masters of the situation but do not care to push matters to extremities. It is probable that the whole will conclude by an amicable arrangement.

Nothing of importance from Great Britain beyond the death of the youngest child of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales.

In Canada the session of the Dominion Parliament was closed by the Governor General on Friday the 14th instant. A good deal of important legislation has been the result of its labors, and Sir G. E. Cartier has the honor of realizing the aspirations of his renowned ancestor (Jacques Cartier) by the annexation of British Columbia; thus preparing the way for the trade of the Eastern Indies, China, and Japan to pass over the route, by which that bold navigator three hundred years ago sought access to those El Dorados of commerce. The Dominion of Canada now extends from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and it will be the fault of our own people if those vast territories, blest by constitutional monarchy, liberal institutions, and intimate connection with the British Empire, does not become the second great commercial state in the civilized world. It is certainly no small boast for the statesmen

and people of British North America to have built up out of a few weak Colonies an empire covering three-fifths of the continent, with a commercial marine standing third on the list of nations, and all within the period of four years. The British North America Act came into force on the 1st July, 1867, by which the Maritime Provinces and Canada, extending from the Atlantic to the head of Lake Superior became confederated. Last year the North-West Territories were annexed, and British Columbia is the last link in the chain between the two oceans, through sixty-eight degrees of longitude.

From Washington there are rumours of a general settlement of all outstanding questions between Great Britain and the United States by the Joint High Commission, even the basis on which the anticipated treaty is to be founded are stated, but no reliance can be placed on those reports. While wishing for a fair, peaceable, and reasonable settlement the people of Canada will not buy it at the price of concessions, which could only be awarded to force. Our fisheries are as much our property as our pastures, and New England fishermen have as much right to the one as the other. The business is very profitable, and our own people can carry it on, and the people of the United States can buy the fish at as dear or cheap a rate as they think fit. Our canals are also our own, experience has satisfied us that we prosper best when not entangled with treaties or other legal observances—the lesson taught being to act independently in every case, and with our free trade policy that course will be the fairest to pursue. Meantime the various parties have been closely watching the progress of affairs, the Democrats eager to obstruct the ratification of the treaty by the Senate, if it should come before that body, and the Republicans wishing to make political capital out of it for the purpose of having General Grant re-elected.

REVIEWS.

We have to acknowledge the receipt of *Blackwood* for February and March, the *Edinburgh* and *Westminster Reviews*, for October, from the Leonard Scott Publishing Company of New York. It gives us sincere pleasure to notice the valuable service that Company has performed to the literature of America, by their enlightened enterprise, and to forward in every way in our power their interests by giving publicity to the very moderate terms by which they have placed the leading journals of the English language within the reach of the masses, as well as by extended notices of the reprints they turn out. In order, however, to do this in a manner which will benefit the enterprising publishers the various publications must reach us within a reasonable time, not in five months after date. Representing as the *Volunteer Review* does, a highly intelligent and reading class, it will be for the interest of those who wish to obtain their patronage

to give us the opportunity of placing before our readers extended notices of the various works they wish to obtain circulation for at the earliest possible date. The February number of *Blackwood* contains the conclusion of the "Narrative of the Red River Expedition," which we shall republish next week, as it contains matter of interest to the Canadian army, although not one word in it can be construed into *faint praise* of the two Battalions of Volunteers that formed the major part of the Expedition. It will be very consolatory to the Canadian people to know that they have paid for *three-fourths* of the cost and furnished *two-thirds* of the force to enable Sir J. G. Wolseley, C.B., G. M.G., to gain a title and *play out Caesar aut nullus*, commentaries and all, as well as boast that himself with a handful of regular soldiers did the *veni, vidi, vici* business at Fort Garry exclusively and alone. During the next few weeks, with the help of Parliamentary blue books, we shall take the trouble of *commenting* on the *commentaries* of the modern imitator of Caesar, and try to make good our promise of plucking out the last of the borrowed plumes, after which we shall have something to say about the military conduct of the expedition.

Blackwood for March contains two excellent articles in which we are deeply interested, "The British Navy," and a "Retrospect of the War," and our readers shall be treated to extracts from both.

The *Edinburgh* and *Westminster* have been too long before the public to need any comment.

BEAUTY.—The largest collection of beauty ever published in the United States is afforded in the Parlor Album, advertised in another column. This Album embraces the finest specimens of chromo lithographs, steel engravings, and fine wood engravings ever afforded the public. The American Publishing Company of Rutland, Vt., desire an active agent in every town and village to whom they offer liberal terms. Read the advertisement of the PARLOR ALBUM.

REMITTANCES

Received on Subscription up to Saturday the 15th inst.

- MELBOURNE, Que.—L. Thomas, Jr., Esq., \$2.
- RICHMOND, Ont.—Capt. Thos. Good, Jr., \$2.
- BELL'S CORNERS.—Lieut. Col. Bearman, \$4.

(PER ONTARIO AND QUEBEC AGENT.)

- NORTH RIDGE, Ont.—Capt. Billings, \$2.
- MONTREAL.—Lt. Col. D'Orsennes, B. M., \$7;
- Major F. Cole, \$2.

There have been forty-seven steam vessels added to the list owned by the Dominion during last year, at an average value of \$20,000 each, giving an aggregate value of \$940,000. The number of wrecks on the Canadian coasts last year were 231; estimated loss, about \$500,000. Wrecks of lake and inland vessels, 104; estimated loss, \$357,000.

RIFLE MATCH.

Score of a rifle match between ten men of each No. 2 and No. 3 Companies, 8th battalion, on the Beauport Flats, on the 7th April, 1871, five rounds at each.

No. 2 COMPANY.

	200 yds.	400 yds.	600 yds.	T/1
Lieut. Wurtele.....	16	18	13	47
Sergt. Hawkins.....	18	17	10	45
Corpl. W. Scott.....	14	16	11	41
Capt. Morgan.....	17	14	9	40
Sergt. Baxter.....	15	16	9	40
Pte. Taylor.....	16	16	5	37
Ensign Mahoney.....	16	14	6	36
Pte. Magee.....	11	14	5	30
" West.....	14	14	0	28
" Frazer.....	13	9	3	25
Total.....				369

Average 36.90

No. 3 COMPANY.

Lieut. Balfour.....	18	15	12	45
Sgt.-Major Sutherland.....	16	19	7	42
Pte. Brocklesby.....	14	17	9	40
" Payne.....	14	16	7	37
" Frazer.....	14	18	0	32
" Argue.....	14	14	2	30
" Peard.....	11	14	5	30
Adj. Lesueur.....	14	9	0	23
Ensign Gilmour.....	11	10	0	21
Pte. Learmonth.....	12	8	0	20

Total..... 320

Average 32.

Majority of 49 points for No. 2 Company

RIFLE MATCH.—On Good Friday, at the Rideau Range, Capt. Egleson made the unusual score of 69 in 21 shots; 7 shots each range, 200, 500, and 600 yards. This beats Wimbledon with the Snider-Enfield, and is encouraging for Canada at the next Wimbledon meeting.—*Evening Mail*.

RIFLE MATCH.—The members of No. 8 company, 10th Royals, held a match on the Garrison Common, to compete for four good prizes. After a sharp competition, the following were declared winners, each firing fifteen shots:—1st, Sergt. Arnall, 51 points; 2nd, Private Glenfield, 50; 3rd, Col.-Sergt. Girvin, 47; 4th, Private Buchanan, 45.

FRENCH WANT OF DISCIPLINE.—I was at a restaurant yesterday, and saw what could have happened in no other army in the world. They were three officers—two field officers and one captain—seated at a table. In rolled six or seven loutish looking fellows—common soldiers—and sat down close to the officers without saluting or taking the smallest notice of them. One then began to talk over his beer, of his battles, (they belonged to Chanzy's army), in order apparently to annoy the officers at the tables by speaking in the most offensive way of "his colonel," and "cet imbecte d'un general," and this "sacre," &c., of some one else. The officers rose and went away, saluting the *dame de comptoir* by raising their kepis, and passed close to the soldiers, who never rose or saluted, or took the least notice of them. To lead an army of such men to victory would be impossible for Napoleon and all his marshals.—*Times' Correspondence*.

A CLEAR CASE OF CUT OUT.

It is many years since I fell in love
With Jane Jerusha Skeggs,
The handsomest country girl by far
That ever went on logs.

By meadow, creek, and wood, and dell,
So often we did walk,
And the moonlight smiled on her melting lips,
And the night winds learned our talk.

Jane Jerusha was all to me,
For my heart was young and true,
And loved with a double and twisted love,
And a love that was honest, too.

I rained all over the neighbours' farms,
And I robbed the wildwood bowers,
And tore my trousers and scratched my hands,
In search of choicest flowers.

In my joyous love I brought
All these to my Jerusha Jane:
But I wouldn't be so foolish now
If I were a boy again.

A city chap then came along,
All dressed up in fine clothes,
With a shiny hat and shiny vest
And a moustache under his nose.

He talked to her of stinking schools,
(For her father owned a farm,)
And she left me, the country love,
And took the new chaps arm.

And all that night I never slept,
Nor could I eat next day,
For I loved that girl with fervent love
That nought could drive away.

I strove to win her back to me,
But it was all in vain,
The city chap with the hairy lip
Married Jerusha Jane.

And my poor heart was sick and sore,
Until the thought struck me,
That just as good fish still remained
As ever was caught in the sea.

So I went to church one Sunday night,
And saw a dark brown curl,
Peeping from under a gipsy hat,
And I married that very girl.

And many years have passed and gone,
And I think my loss my gain;
And I often bless that hairy chap
That stole Jerusha Jane.

FRANCE.

(From the Edinburgh Review.)

[CONCLUDED.]

Count Bismarck undoubtedly foresaw in 1866 the relative inferiority of Austria to Prussia in military strength, especially when attacked at once on the Elbe and on the Po; and in this respect he showed a degree of penetration shared by few persons in Europe. Did he in 1870 entertain a similar belief as to the relative strength of Prussia, aided by the South German States and of France? That is a question to which it present no answer can be given; but it is not impossible that he may have arrived at a similar conclusion. He knew the strength of the German armies: he probably had information that the French could not place above half that number of troops on the frontier, and that the French reserves under the law of 1868 were not organized. He knew the character of the Emperor, the weakness of his government, and the absence of high military talent in the army. But in addition to this personal and military considerations, there are numerous facts and arguments arising out of the condition of France herself, which might perhaps suggest the same conclusion to a man of more than common powers of discernment. To these, as they appear to us to be displayed by the unexampled and unforeseen events of the last few months, we now return, and they are the more interesting as they raise questions of general application to the interests of society in other countries at the present day.

It has been said, and the fact will hardly

be disputed, that the strong monarchical constitution of Prussia is one great element of her power. Hereditary Kingship is a sacred and as valuable in the eye of the Prussians, as if her princes came of the divine race of Heracleids. In France, hereditary monarchy, by which we mean the indefeasible right of the head of the State to rule by descent, and to transmit his power to his next heir, perished on the scaffold with Louis XVI. Attempts have been made by each succeeding government to revive it. But these have in fact failed. No French sovereign, except Charles X., has taken the crown by succession since the commencement of the Revolution; and the right of succession, though constantly acknowledged by the law, has been so often set aside by revolutions, that no reliance can be placed upon it. 'I cannot forget,' said Napoleon III. to Lord Clarendon on the birth of his son in the Tuileries in 1856, 'that no prince born in this house has succeeded his father on the throne.' In fact, the duration of a dynasty in France is from fifteen to twenty years.

What then, is the true value of hereditary monarchy? Does it conduce to the strength and stability of governments by determining the succession to supreme power, or does it detract from them by the chance of placing that power in incapable hands? The answer of a theoretical reasoner on government might admit of doubt. The answer of practical experience resolves that doubt, and for sufficient reasons. When the succession to the supreme power depends on a popular vote, a legislative preference, or a revolution, the dynastic question is continually paramount to every other consideration in the mind of the ruler. His object is to transmit or perpetuate his power, and to this object the whole policy of his reign is subservient. At any moment the change may occur. At any moment he or his heirs must be prepared to meet it. A king who ascends the throne by even the most legitimate forms of election, as William III. in England or Louis-Philippe in France, must be prepared to deal with large bodies of his own subjects who dispute or detest his authority. The Jacobites conspired against William, the Royalists and Republicans waged a factious opposition against the House of Orleans. Louis Napoleon was elected by a vast majority of the French people, but the minority, consisting of the best, the wisest, and the ablest men in the country, stood aloof from him and his government, and were throughout his reign his irreconcilable enemies. An elective sovereign therefore no longer represents the integrity of his empire. The house is divided against itself. The divisions of party on such a question attack and weaken, not only the administrative functions of the government, but the representative of the State itself. The sovereign therefore regards a portion of his own subjects as his most formidable enemies, and should a crisis of danger occur, which ought to call forth the united action of every citizen, that is the very moment his adversaries or rivals will select to overthrow him. Francis I. after Pavia was not the less King of France in a Spanish prison. Napoleon III. after Sedan is a nameless fugitive in a foreign palace, and the State drifts in total anarchy to the verge of dissolution. The hereditary rights of the Valois were unassailable, those of the Bonapartes are a jest.

Even in the United States of America, where the periodical renewal of the supreme magistracy by election is established by law and peacefully conducted, the presidential election weakens the authority of the State and of the Ruler. It was a presidential

election which caused the civil war. Another election ensued in the heat of the contest; the Americans very wisely kept Mr. Lincoln in his place. Every American President is usually occupied with the desire of procuring his own re-election, or, if his second term of service is nearly over, of procuring the election of one of his adherents. General Grant at this moment is in the former position, and his policy is governed by it. The policy of his opponents is equally governed by the hope of defeating him and taking his place. Hence personal interests largely control and distort public measures. There is now, we are sorry to say, a party in the United States who would not scruple to plunge their country into war with England, if they thought that measure would give them a majority at the next Presidential election. The fault is not so much in the men, as in the vicious institutions which hold out such temptations to faction.

In this country, if by any misfortune the principle of hereditary monarchy were shaken, we have no doubt that the people of England have sufficient experience of freedom and sufficient respect for the law of Parliament to conduct peaceably their own affairs. But the golden bond which holds together the British Empire would be broken. The central force, which makes this nation so great a power in the world, would be dissipated. The symbol, which is recognised alike by the free settlers of Australia and by the dusky natives of Hindostan, would be lost. The outlying realms of British rule would recognise no allegiance to the elected ruler of the English people, who might be good enough for us, but who would be no thing to them. As it is, whatever may be the defects of our political and social institutions, Great Britain may boast that for more than one hundred and eighty years the course of law and the tranquillity of the realm have been unbroken, and that, enjoying as much freedom as any people in the world, she has also enjoyed a degree of internal peace, order, and security to which no other nation can lay claim.

These examples may illustrate the value and the strength of what we mean by the principle of hereditary monarchy; and however seductive the theory of republican election may be to some minds, we defy them to replace it. All other principles of supreme government are contested and contested, and this especially at the most critical moments. Dynastic law and tradition alone place the representative of the supreme power above every accident except that of the extinction of his race. The French Revolution in striking down the monarchy of a thousand years destroyed the tradition, and it has not been restored. They have substituted for it the ideal of 'France'—and no doubt in a country so homogeneous and so patriotic the name is a name of power. But France not represented by any efficient lawful sovereign, or represented by a committee of declamatory lawyers carried to the Hôtel de Ville by a Parisian mob, is in fact as helpless as an idol of wood or stone. Who speaks with authority in her name? Who controls the passions and interests of her provinces with an equal hand? Who protects her? Who defends her? Who can ever direct aright the course of her policy towards the enemy or the passionate self-sacrifice of her sons? Who can make peace? Who can contract in her name? In nothing is the present contest more fearfully unequal, than in the fact that it lies between the most powerful monarchy of Europe, governed with absolute clear sighted authority by its king, and a headless State, torn as much by internal dissensions as by foreign invasion. Prussia, too,

has had her days of humiliation. After Jena, the king retreated to the Niemen and hardly found a refuge from the oppressor within the verge of his own dominions. But where ever he was, there was the Crown, there was the Sovereign, there was the State. Nothing was irrevocably lost as long as the vital principle of the monarchy was preserved. To France, unhappily, by the results of her revolution that resource is denied; and anarchy, save where it is locally controlled by the wisdom and courage of such men as General Trochu and a few more, presents her defenceless to the enemy and unprovided for the future.

The decline and fall of the French aristocracy, as a political body, dates from a period long anterior to the Revolution of 1789. To find a race of nobles and landed proprietors leading an independent existence on their estates, and playing an independent part in the affairs of their country, we must go back to the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and to the time when a large portion of the best blood in France held the Protestant faith. The civil wars, the proscriptions of Richelieu, the bigotry of Louis XIV., and the corrupt court of his successor established the ascendancy of the Crown, of the Catholic Church, and of Versailles. That important element in society which, in this country, has so often fought the battles of freedom against the encroachments of prerogative, perished in France; or if it retained its own privileges and possessions, these were rendered odious to the people, because they had ceased to be held for the general good. In the reign of Louis XV. the income of the noble consisted chiefly in the revenue he could draw, under various names and pretences, from those who held under him, not in the shape of rent but of charges on every form of rural labour. His agent harassed the tenants with fiscal rapacity, and were constantly at war with the customs that formerly protected the cultivators of the soil. The landed interest was everywhere poor. Nobles, ecclesiastics, ennobled citizens, and purchasers of fiefs were alike overwhelmed with debt. The rate of usury was enormous. Their condition was described by Forbonnais as that of men 'reduced to extreme penury with immense nominal possessions.' Accordingly, wherever sales of land could be made, it was purchased with avidity. In 1760 it was computed that a quarter of the soil of France was held by the peasantry, a quarter by the bourgeoisie, two-tenths by the clergy, and three tenths by the nobles. The subdivision of land was regarded as the best remedy for the deplorable condition of the country, and the creation of a peasant proprietary was already advocated as the panacea of the nation. D'Argenson, for instance, in a work published in 1740, which Voltaire described as the best book. He had read for twenty years, insisted upon the expeditious of 'reconstructing the edifice of society, shaken by bad laws, by the creation of a class of individuals who should be morally and economically independent.' His ideal was that the land belonged to those who cultivated it. We shall see in another page of this inquiry, what are the political and military results of this system. Suffice it here to say that it was loudly demanded at the outset of the Revolution by all classes of the community; that the nobles themselves abandoned their feudal rights as untenable; and that the change of tenures was accomplished. To this hour, this is the result of the Revolution which is most loudly applauded by the French writers of the greatest learning and authority, as for example, by M. Doniol, from whose instructive history of the rural classes of France, we

have borrowed the foregoing facts. It is equally admired by those English writers who seek in the democracy of France the model of the reforms they desire to introduce in this country in the tenure of property and the organization of society. We may therefore, assume that this state of things is regarded as highly beneficial, and so undoubtedly it has proved in the improvement of the condition of the peasantry when liberated from feudal burdens, which have happily no parallel amongst ourselves. But our object at this moment is to point out, as a simple fact, that the change involved the extinction of the social and political influence of the upper classes: for the abuses of the feudal tenures and the vices of an aristocracy, identified by its sources of revenue and its habits of expenditure with the court, had engendered throughout France a fierce hatred of social inequality, which has gone on increasing to this day, though the causes, in which it originated have long disappeared. The services therefore, which may be rendered to a nation by a class of educated proprietors and capitalists, by the performance of the public duties of their station, by the improvement of cultivation and rural administration, and by the local influence of men solicitous for the common interest of those around them, are in a great measure lost to France. There is no 'public spirit,' to use a most emphatic and characteristically English term. Even on the larger estates in the hands of those who are capable of discharging the duties of a resident gentry, the good offices of the wealthy are regarded with suspicion and hostility, as great perhaps as when those duties wore the invidious shape of feudal privileges. The result has been, to a considerable extent, to displace the educated classes from their natural position as the leading servants of the public in local and political affairs. There is a chasm between them and the surrounding peasantry, which is rarely crossed; and the peasantry would certainly refuse to recognize in the gentry the champions or representatives of their own interests.

We think this fact which is due partly to the spirit of the Revolution and partly to causes anterior to that event, explains in some measure the extraordinary deficiency of men capable of leading, governing and guiding the nation at this great crisis. That many such men exist in so intelligent a country as France is certain. But their position is singularly unfortunate, for they have been proscribed for the last twenty years by a Government they refused to serve, and they are equally thrust aside by the people. The dead level of equality has passed over their heads, and as none are conspicuous, none great, the country has no tried or natural chiefs and leaders when it most requires them. We have the astonishing facts before our eyes, that at this moment, with the exception of three or four great reputations surviving the period of Parliamentary government, there is not known to be in France a general, a statesman, or an orator of the first rank. There is not a man on whom the eyes of the whole community rest with the confidence and deference paid elsewhere to high rank, to tried honour, and to genius. Society, and especially the society of the Empire, is barren. Nor is that of the Republic more fertile.

It will no doubt be said that the Revolution of 1789 was singularly prolific of great men. A generation of extraordinary energy burst forth at the call of freedom, and filled the world for fifty years with their exploits and their renown. They sprang alike from every rank and class of society. But

the men whom the Revolution called into action were not its children. They had been born, reared, and educated under the old order of things. We have now before us the descendants of the revolutionary period in its third generation—men educated in its maxims and subjected to its social discipline. These are its true descendants and its legitimate heirs. Has then the influence of the Revolution raised or lowered the character and capacity of Frenchmen? Has it enlarged their sphere of action? Has it strengthened those ties between the upper and lower classes of society, without which national action is paralyzed? Has the growth of democracy, to the exclusion of every other element, given greater union, force, and power to the nation to the State? Down to a very recent period it was believed, and would have been maintained by all French writers, that these results had been attained. But we leave our readers to answer for themselves these questions.

It is a melancholy reflection that but little has been done by modern democracy to dignify and exalt mankind. The area of human happiness has certainly been extended by the diffusion of freedom and knowledge, and we rejoice in that result. But the creative genius and power which enlarge the boundaries of thought and action thrive not upon that plan "on every ant-hill is a mountain and every thistle a forest tree." Democracy, it may be, bears with it the destiny or the doom of civilization; but nowhere as yet has it been favorable to greatness. Even in the United States where it reigns without control, no man since Washington, who was certainly no democrat, can be said to have risen to true eminence even under the pressure of a great crisis. The growth or manifestation of intellectual force bears no proportion at all to the spread of population and wealth. In like manner, France never was at any time so populous, so rich in all material gifts, and apparently so prosperous as in last July; but never in all her varied history was she so destitute of greatness whether in council or arms. The same observation might be addressed to ourselves. Great Britain in 1805 had not half the population, probably not one-fifth of the wealth, and far less material culture, education and freedom than we enjoy at the present day. But we cannot boast that our age is more prolific of great men in statesmanship, war, literature and science, than the first decade of this century; and they are those who think, we trust erroneously, that the relative strength of the nation as compared with that of some foreign States has declined.

The turning point in the history, both of England and in France, lay in the sixteenth century, which gave one to the Protestant, the other to the Catholic cause—the one to free inquiry, free institutions, and the virility of self-government; the other to the Romish creed ingrafted by a Latin form of civilization on a Celtic race. Upon a comparison of Catholic and Protestant nations by the test of social development, the advantage does not rest with the older creed; and even though that creed may have lost much of its ancient authority and intolerance, the soil in which it has flourished long gives signs of exhaustion. Nevertheless, the Church of France, the Church of Bossuet and Fenelon, of Pascal and Arnauld of Port Royal and Saint Maur, fills a glorious and imperishable page in the annals of that and of the human race. The Gallican clergy maintained their rights against the Ultramontane pretensions of Rome. They were the depositories of the learning and the piety of the realm. They upheld with elo-

quence and fidelity the noble principles of Christian morals in presence of a corrupt Court and a pleasure-loving people; and they discharged with no mean results their important function of the educators of the nation. The Revolution swept away all this. It was impossible to attack the Church, says M. de Tocqueville in one of his letters, without touching every fibre of the State. In losing their endowments they lost their independence. The connexion between the clergy and the higher classes of society was broken. They became a stipendiary priesthood, without the advantages of an establishment and without the energy of free denominations. Their numbers are recruited chiefly from the ranks of the peasantry, who seek in holy orders a means of escape from the conscription, or a means of transferring to the rest of the family another parcel of the patrimonial estate. The modern parochial clergy of France are a virtuous and devout class of men. But they are narrow-minded and ignorant to excess. They are the tools of the most bigoted Ultramontane doctrines, even against the judgment of their own prelates. Their influence is confined to women and devotees, and they have almost entirely lost their control over the higher education of the country. The consequence is that the education of the upper classes of men is strangely divorced from a high system of moral and religious principle based on the accountability of man to God, and that in place of it a course of secular instruction, regulated by the Imperial University, and based chiefly on the exact, or natural science, has trained the minds and characters of modern Frenchmen. It is not true that the French are an immoral and irreligious people, as is too commonly supposed by those who take their notions of French life and society from the garbage of French literature, the novels of the day. In the towns and cities, and in the army, there is undoubtedly a great laxity of practice arising from many causes. But we hold very cheap the pretensions of those who thank God they are not as those Sadducees. In the great mass of the rural population there is as much rectitude, chastity and sobriety as in any other country. But they are a people who have lost their guides. A plain standard of faith and duty is not brought home to their doors and hearths. Their conception of duty is based on nothing of filial piety and mutual interest. The sense of love and truth has been painfully weakened among them. They afford a speaking example of what an intelligent people may become when education is severed from religious principles, and when the standard of those principles is lowered or obscured.

We make these remarks with diffidence and regret, for it is a most invidious task to comment on the failings of the neighboring people, when we are conscious how far we ourselves fall short of the highest rule of life. We know how hard it is for education to combat the materialist tendency of the age, the density of population, the pressure of a thousand social ills. But though we fail—as all must fail—to reach the lofty ideal of a Christian people, we are not ashamed to avow our conviction that the greatness of a nation depends in no small degree on the visible standard of faith and duty set upon it. Take away the Bible and the activity of the Christian ministry from the people of this island, and what would they become? Yet that is to some extent the condition in which a large proportion of the people of France find themselves. The defects of such a society are precisely those which might be anticipated in a community

in which the religious sanction of moral law has lost its power. A recent theological writer who has investigated with acuteness the causes of the corruption and decay of the Roman people under the Emperors, sums them up in one expressive phrase—the separation of religion and morality. There was religion in Rome, but it was the religion of paganism; there was morality, but it was the morality of philosophers. The two great elements of social law were disunited. Something of the same kind may perhaps be traced in France, and the condition of the country presents obvious and striking resemblances to that with which we are familiar in the pages of Roman historians and Roman satirists.

LAUNCH OF THE LARGEST VESSEL BUILT ON THE MERSEY.—We find in a Liverpool paper an account of the launching of the largest vessel ever built on the banks of the Mersey indeed with the exception of the "Great Eastern," no longer craft floats in any waters of the world. The new ship is the screw steamer "Egypt," built for the service of the National Steamship Company between Liverpool and New York. All the vessels of the Company's fleet are of great size but this latest addition is more immense than any of the others. The "Egypt" is in length over all 440 feet, on the load line 435 feet, beam 44 feet, depth of hold 36 feet, gross measurement 5,150 tons. This enormous vessel will be propelled by engines of nominally 500 horse power, but capable of working up to 2,500 horse power. They are on the compound principle of high and low pressure, and will be supplied with three each. The boilers will be fired at each end and will carry a pressure of seventy-five pounds per square inch. The engines are expected, from the fine lines and great length of the vessel, to drive her at from twelve to thirteen knots an hour during her voyages in ordinary weather. The great length to which ships have reached since the general adoption of iron for building them, has made the straight stem a necessity on account of the difficulty of turning very long vessels in dock, and the "Egypt" is an instance of the new fashion.

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WM. H. LEE,
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Canada.
Ottawa, April 10th, 1871. 16-3j



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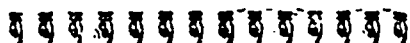
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