

CAPITAL
— and —
LABOR



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CAPITAL AND LABOR

Containing the Views

— OF —

Eminent Men of the United States and Canada

— ON —

The Labor Question, Social Reform and
Other Economic Subjects,
Illustrated.



Edited by WILLIAM KEYS

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PREFACE



I N laying this work before the Public, we do not intend to make any invidious distinction between Capital and Labor, but rather to show how their interests are identical, and that a spirit of mutual dependence should mingle with the cordial relations that ought to exist among all the members that comprise both parties.

The strength and power of Capital, when properly utilized and distributed, with a generous regard for the comfort and welfare of those who labor to produce it, may be considered as a mighty means of developing and advancing the progress and interest of whole communities.

Although it cannot be denied that many great Capitalists in their inordinate desire to acquire wealth, completely ignore those whose muscles and sinews are placed at their disposal, yet we have many noble examples of employers of labor who realize that their employees are human beings, and are entitled to the same consideration that they receive themselves.

The scope of the present work is to give the history and details of the great commercial enterprises of our vast Dominion ; to give a brief sketch of the leading men whose ability and business capacity have raised them to eminence in their different positions ; and an expression of opinion by eminent men on economic subjects.

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CAPITAL AND LABOR

THAT ALONE WHICH IS PRODUCED BY LABOR IS CAPITAL. MONEY IS MERELY THE MEDIUM OF EXCHANGE.

CAPITAL is the result of labor which has been accumulated and which serves as an aid to production. All products, which, instead of being consumed immediately, aid in the production of subjects of consumption, are capital. Cotton and wool are products to the farmer; they become the capital of the spinner and weaver, who transform them into muslins and cloths; cloths become capital for the tailor, who makes them into garments.

The capital of society is composed of all the products, implements, materials, and knowledge which aid production.

Gold and silver are at present the legalized representatives of value, and consequently these alone are the medium of exchange of all other values. It follows, therefore, that to possess gold is to possess the means of procuring capital, without which it is impossible to produce; to be without it is to be compelled, in order to live, to become dependent upon those who possess it. Those who possess gold and silver are at present the only capitalists, truly speaking, for all those who require capital are compelled to apply to them. It is this fact which has given rise to the belief that capital is nothing but the result of saving. Let us consider as capital, not merely gold and silver, but all that which aids and assists production, and we shall see that savings, gold and silver, far from being capital, are in themselves sterile and unproductive.

How can man increase the extent of his knowledge—agricultural, industrial, artistic, or scientific—other than by working? Can he create, perfect, invent unlimited implements and machinery which aid him in production, in any other way than by labor? He cannot cultivate and improve the land without labor, nor can he construct roads and canals, build railroads and steamships without work. Capital is formed and increased by labor, and by labor alone.

When man performs labor he has two distinct ends in view; first, to satisfy his daily wants; second to create and augment capital. The less labor required for the first, the greater is the amount remaining for the second. The more industry develops, the less is the labor required to satisfy the daily wants of man, and the more time has

he to apply himself to the formation of capital. In this way every new discovery, all which facilitates labor, amounts to an increase of the capital of society.

But it is not sufficient to increase the means of production merely; it is necessary to increase the means or facilities of consumption at the same time. Of what benefit can it be if elevators are overstocked with grain and storehouses are filled to repletion with merchandise, if those who are in want of them do not earn sufficient to purchase them? It is not capital which is scarce at the present day, it is the means of obtaining the articles manufactured, so that they may be consumed.

The more we save the more we impose privation upon ourselves, and the less there is produced; production being stopped, the formation of capital is arrested instead of being increased. On the contrary, the more each one produces and consumes, the greater is the increase of capital; since, besides the products which we consume daily, the more we labor the more we cultivate and improve the land, the more we prepare new materials and perfect the instruments of labor, the more houses we construct, the more ships we build, and the more we facilitate intercommunication, the faster do we increase capital.

Alas! saving, instead of increasing capital, decreases production, and consequently increases the want of employment and privation; and yet it is at the present time a sad necessity. While no one is certain of the morrow, while the rich are in constant fear of bankruptcy, the poor of enforced idleness and hunger, all are compelled to save to prepare for future contingencies.

Since without gold and silver it is impossible to secure the capital necessary to production, the possessors of these metals will not consent to lend them for a given time to those who want them, except upon the condition of having their share of the products without contributing to the production. Such is interest; this parasite which enables so many idlers to live at the expense of those who labor.

Interest is just in principle as in rent; but rent and interest must be understood and practiced very differently from what they are at present. The instruments of labor—tools, machinery, etc.—wear out and must be replaced. It is natural that the labor should pay a sum equal to this *use* or *usure*, or rather this *usure* should be paid by the consumer, in adding it to the cost of production. But is it so in the loaning of money? From ten to fifteen years' interest replaces or returns the capital loaned, and yet the capital is still due, so that the capitalist is paid for the use of a capital which is for him never consumed and never deteriorates. Dr. Price once made a calculation in which he showed clearly that one English penny, or two cents, loaned at compound interest at the birth of Christ up to the year 1772 would have produced a solid mass of gold equal in size to 150,000,000 of globes of the size of the earth. This calculation in itself is quite sufficient to prove the absurdity of interest.

Interest on money is no more justifiable than is rent on land. The capital of society has been formed by the combined efforts of all past generations, and it is as unjust to pay to a favored few an interest upon capital which has been formed by all, as to pay to a favored few rent for land which was made by no one. It has been said—"If the Creator of the land presents His bill, we will pay Him His rent;" and we may say with equal truth—Let the past generations, who have formed the capital of the world, demand their interest, and we will pay them rent for the use of land. Interest on money and profits in commerce are the causes of the opulence and idleness of the few, and of the misery and degradation of the masses. At the same time rent, interest, and profit, are the necessary consequences of the monopolization of capital by the privileged few. They will disappear only with the disappearance of the fiction of the right of individual property, which implies the right to the abuse, as well as the use, of one's things, which abuse is the source of all the miseries of society.

Possession is the right to use. With it man may enjoy; but the moment that he ceases to use a thing or render it productive, he ceases to have the right; the thing should return to the public domain until another possessor comes to render the thing productive.

If land and capital belonged only to society, and the labourer, without depending upon employer, capitalist or proprietor, could enjoy the full fruits of his labour, and be at liberty to produce and consume according to his tastes and aptitudes, receiving always for his labor something which possessed an equal amount of labor, paying for the use of these things only their actual cost into the public treasury, interested in the increase of the capital of society, as all would enjoy and use it, free from the harassing cares of the morrow, disengaged from selfish and sordid thoughts, which are suggested by badly organized social surroundings, enabled henceforth to educate and develop himself, the laborer would cease entirely to be the brutalized and ignorant being which he now frequently is. He would feel himself, and really be, a unit of the body, intelligence and heart of society.

Labor does not create the material on which it operates; it modifies it. It is not, therefore, for the product, but for the labor expended upon the product, to which the laborer has a right. If for property, possession simply were substituted, there would be neither monopolists, speculators, nor wage-slaves. All would become functionaries of society, rewarded for their labor to the extent of having all they produced by their labor, having no right to sell either the materials, the tools, machinery, or instruments of labor with which they would be furnished by society. In speaking of tools and machinery, or instruments of labor, it is not intended to apply to such tools as are of individual use, and which each laborer, at his pleasure, might hold as personal property.

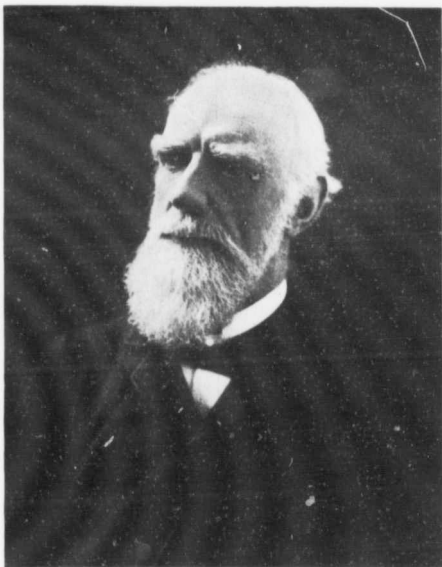
In agricultural products, the labor of man and nature is combined. If the agriculturist be permitted to appropriate to himself the total products of the land, he enjoys not only the results of his own labor, but also the labor of nature; which is not equitable. All lands are not equally good and fertile. If the farmer is left free to dispose of products, would it be just? Would equity of conditions exist between the farming of rich and fertile plains and those of arid sands; between the cultivation of elevated lands, where the air is pure and healthy, and that of swamps and marshes infected with malaria, and fevers, and impurities? In fact, between lands equally fertile and healthy, would there be equity between the farmer who had an abundant harvest and he whose crop had been destroyed by hail, drought, inundation, or other disaster? Land is, therefore, but an "instrument of labor" to those whose function it is to cultivate it. The farmer should be rewarded for his labor, and, the crops being gathered, the products should be garnered into storehouses, thence to be delivered to the consumer; as exchange and distribution naturally follow production. Function is not less necessary an industry. Many products are of more value than others, not because they demand more labor than others, but because of the superior quality or of the greater value of the raw material upon which the labor is expended. When the laborers are left to dispose of their products, which embody both the raw material and their labor, privilege for the few becomes instituted from that moment. Nearly all human labor demands the employment of a collective force. The making of a silk hat, for instance, is divided into five or six branches, each branch being performed by a different person. Evidently each person is entitled to a part of the price which is paid for the hat when finished. If a watch passes through twenty hands in order to be completed, which of the twenty should be paid? Evidently an equitable portion should go to all, for if all participate in the labor, all should participate in the distribution, each one for the quality of labor which he or she has performed.

In a word, every man should be an industrial functionary in one or the other of the six industries, or some branch thereof, which go to make up the activities of man as they express themselves in society, and have the right to the use of the tools, instruments, and materials necessary to that function; but having the power to dispose as he pleases only at the value of his personal labor.



LORD STRATHCONA & MOUNT ROYAL

PEOPLE of all races throughout the civilized world look down the roll of ages that have gone from the beginning of time with pride, poet, the philanthropist and the philosopher is spoken of with love and admiration. Great men from time to time have endeared themselves in some way to their fellow-



honor and veneration for the illustrious men whose names adorn the pages of the history of their country. The daring man is glorified for his deeds of heroism on the battlefield. The statesman, the countrymen so that their memory will be blessed for all time. But there is not one man in the history of civilized nations who has so engrafted himself on the minds of the people or whose name has found its

way to the hearts of the whole nation irrespective of origin, creed, or condition in life like that of Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal. He is held in the highest esteem by all classes of Canadians, and he enjoys a world-wide reputation for everything that is good, noble and generous. Through a long, glorious, active and enterprising life he has always been actuated by the highest motives, and no other man in Canadian history has done more to promote the advancement of the country, to develop its resources and to alleviate the distresses or advance the well-being of his fellowmen.

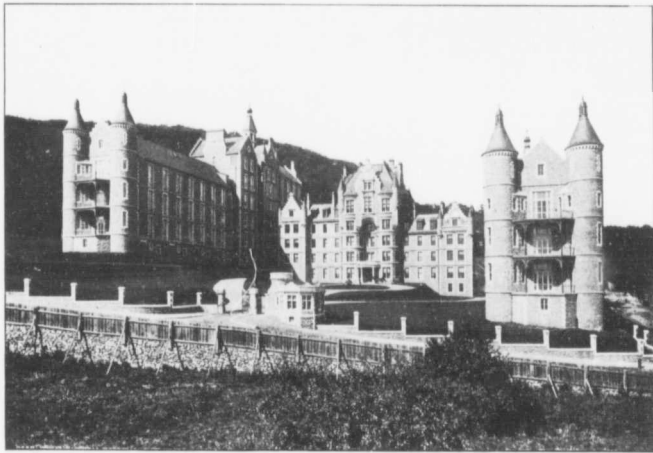
Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal The Right Hon. Sir Donald Alexander Smith, 1st Lord High Commissioner for Canada, is the son of the late Alexander Smith, of Archieston, Morayshire, Scotland, where he was born in 1820, and came to Canada at an early age. He entered the service of the Hudson Bay Company when very young, with which he is still connected without interruption. He was promoted step by step through various positions, and became Commissioner, Director, and was the last resident Governor of that vast corporation as a governing body.

The early period of his connection with the Company was dangerous and surrounded by difficulties, the facilities for transportation limited, and many privations had to be undergone. His tenacity and determination surmounted all obstacles, and he will always be recognized as the pioneer of the west. He was the principal promoter for the colonization of Manitoba and the North West Territories, and in 1870 he was appointed an Executive Councillor for those comparatively unknown districts. He was also appointed a special commis-

sioner to enquire into and deal with the first Riel Rebellion in the Red River Settlement in 1869-70, and was graciously thanked and highly complimented by the Governor-General-in-Council for the great services he rendered to the country on that occasion. He represented Winnipeg and St. Johns in the Manitoba Legislature from 1870 to 1871. He was elected member for Winnipeg to the House of Commons in 1871-72, 1874 and 1878, and he was returned to represent Montreal West in 1887 and 1891, his opponent on each occasion losing his deposit. In the early part of 1896, during the Bowell administration, he, with the Hon. Messrs. Dickey and Desjardins, served as a delegate to the Manitoba Government in reference to the School question. In April of the same year he was appointed High Commissioner for Canada in England. He was at that time sworn of the Queen's Privy Council for Canada. He was a Commissioner to the Pacific Cable Conference held in London November, 1890. His Lordship, prior to the Pacific scandal in 1873, was a supporter of the Conservative party, but on that occasion he went with the Liberals, and on the return of Sir John A. Macdonald to power in 1878, he merely supported the administration on its fiscal and railway policy. When the Dominion Government transferred the Canadian Pacific Railway to a syndicate, His Lordship, with other prominent capitalists, took it over, and it is scarcely necessary to mention how his administrative ability and business experience has conduced to the success of that great enterprise, of which he is one of the largest shareholders. His many years of patient toil in connection with that vast undertaking for the future development of the country were supremely

rewarded when he drove home the last spike of the railway at Craigallachia, B.C., on Nov. 7th, 1885. In acknowledgement of his services therewith Her Majesty was pleased to create Mr. Smith, in 1886, a Knight Commander of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George; ten years later he was advanced to a Knight Grand Cross in the same Order (being privately invested by

dent in 1887, which position he still occupies. He was appointed Governor of the Frazer Institute in the early days, and also of McGill University, of which institution he was elected Chancellor in 1889. Lord Strathcona is connected with so many institutions of science, art, learning, social, benevolent, etc., that it would require a small volume to go into details of them all. We will be content with



ROYAL VICTORIA HOSPITAL

Her Majesty at Windsor Castle), and in 1867, on the occasion of the sixtieth anniversary of Her reign, the Queen raised him to the Peerage as Baron Strathcona and Mount Royal, of Glencoe, in the County of Argyle, and of Montreal, in the Province of Quebec and Dominion of Canada. He is one of the largest shareholders in the Bank of Montreal, and became Vice-President of that institution in 1882, and was elected Presi-

mentioning a few of them: The Montreal Natural History Society, St. John's Ambulance Association (local branch), the Sailors' Institute, a trustee of the 'Trafalgar Institute, and a director of the Highland Society, a member of the Council of the Royal Collegiate Institute, the British Association for the Advance of Science; he is founder of the Dominion Sanitarium Association, the Christopher Columbus Club, the Canadian League

and the Players' Club, and he is Honorary President of the Canadian Bankers' Association. His Lordship is a great admirer and generous patron of art, so much so that, with Lord Mount Stephen, he endowed a Canadian Scholarship in the Royal College of Music, London, and supplemented it with a second scholarship on his own responsibility. For Breton's painting, "The First Communion," he

hold word" among the masses, by whom he is universally beloved.

On the occasion of Her Majesty's Jubilee in 1887, His Lordship, with Lord Mount Stephen, gave one million dollars for the building and endowment of the Royal Victoria Hospital (an illustration of which appears on the preceding page), supplemented nine years later with a further donation of \$800,000.



ROYAL VICTORIA COLLEGE

paid forty-five thousand dollars. There are also to be found in his collection, which has been pronounced the largest in Canada, examples of Gainsborough, Reynolds, Turner, Titian, Raphael, Alma Tadema, Constant, Constable, Rosa Bonheur, Romney, Millais, and others. His unostentatious private charities for the relief of the distressed of every race and creed have rendered his name a "house-

hold word" among the masses, by whom he is universally beloved. His immense wealth has enabled him to donate vast sums for the advancement of science and art, and his munificent gifts for the extension of McGill University will perpetuate his name for all time. To Canada's foremost seat of learning he has given in all, on different occasions, the sum of \$406,462, made up in the following items: Current expenses, \$8,000; Boodle Library, \$200; T. D.

King Shakespeare Collection, \$1,000 (books); French Department, \$200; Endowment of Pension Fund (Arts), \$50,000; Donalds Endowment, for higher education of women, \$120,000; Endowment of Pension Fund (Applied Science), \$50,000; Leancoil Endowment (Med.), \$50,000; Campbell Memorial, \$1,500; Chair of Pathology, \$50,000; Chair of Pathology (Department of Hygiene), \$50,000; Chair of Botany, \$1,200; Botanic Garden, \$362; Sessional Lecturers, \$23,500. The Trafalgar Institute was the recipient of \$30,000, and through His Lordship, in 1896, the Royal Victoria College, Montreal, for the higher education of women, was built and endowed at the enormous cost of over one million dollars. (A cut of this beautiful building is shown on the preceding page). The princely gift of the Strathcona Horse to the Empire for service in the South African War cost him over six hundred thousand dollars, and later His Lordship, together with Lord Mount Stephen, contributed to the King Edward Hospital Fund a sum sufficiently large to secure an annuity of forty thousand dollars. The magnificent Highland estate of Glencoe was purchased by him in 1895 for a private

residence. The honorary degree of LL.D. was conferred on him by the University of Cambridge in 1887, and he was the recipient of a similar honor from Yale College, an American seat of learning, in 1892. He was appointed Lieutenant-Colonel of the Victoria Rifles, Montreal, in 1898. In religion His Lordship is a Presbyterian. He married when a young man Isabella, daughter of the late Richard Hardisty. His many magnificent residences are located: 17 Victoria Street, London, England; Locknell Castle, Glencoe, Scotland; 1157 Dorchester Street, Montreal, Canada; Norway House, Pictou, Nova Scotia; Silver Heights, Winnipeg; St. James Club, Montreal; Rideau Club, Ottawa, and the Athenæum Club, London.

Words cannot be found to express the feelings sufficiently strong of Canadian workmen towards Lord Strathcona for his noble actions in every detail, his gentleness of character, his manly and human consideration for the feelings of his fellowmen in every walk of life and of the strong faculty possessed by him of making everyone with whom he comes in contact feel that they are the better for having met him.



RATE OF PAY FOR WORK

BY LOUIS F. POST, EDITOR OF *The Public*, CHICAGO, ILL.



RECENT effort to arbitrate labor controversies over questions of wages had a comical outcome. The steam engineers at the Chicago stockyards, who were the parties on the labor side of the controversy, had agreed to submit the matter to the arbitration of three clergymen—two Protestant ministers and a Catholic priest. After spending something like 48 hours upon the case, this clerical board of arbitration reported that 30 cents an hour would be fair play for the stockyards engineers. The award was hardly satisfactory to the workmen, though they accepted it with grim good humor. But the end was not yet. The engineers had agreed to pay half the expenses of the arbitration, and when they were confronted with the arbitrators' bills for services the amount staggered them. In comparison with what the same arbitrators had considered fair pay for engineers, their estimates of fair pay for themselves seemed superbly liberal. For they charged \$1,000 apiece, or about \$21 an hour. After due consideration the engineers' organization decided that, inasmuch as the preachers had thought 30 cents an hour good wages for men working as engineers, they ought themselves to be satisfied with that amount for acting as arbitrators; especially as it is easier to make such a decision as they had made than to run a power plant.

Accordingly a motion was carried to pay the arbitrators \$14.40, which is at the rate of 30 cents an hour; and an order for half the amount, \$7.20, was drawn on the treasurer in favor of each arbitrator. This done, the engineers tore up their arbitration agreement and went on strike.

The laugh surely seems to be upon the preachers. Yet it is easier to laugh at them than to show that they were wrong. What they had been called upon to decide was not the essential worth of a day's work at running the engine of a power plant, but the worth of such work according to the usual standards. They were compelled, therefore, to govern themselves, in arriving at a decision, by prevailing customs relative to wages, and by the cost of customary living for engineers. They could not have awarded the engineers a scale of wages at the rate of \$21 an hour, nor even a tenth of that amount. Had they done so they would indeed have been laughed at, with a loud and irreverent guffaw, and by no one more derisively than by engineers themselves.

The same rule applies to the pay of the arbitrators. It is not what their service was worth in itself, it is not what they actually earned or could earn, it is not what it would cost them to live if they lived as engineers live, it is not what a board of mechanics would have done the work for—none of these things determine the proper rate of pay for such work when

done by professional or business men. What does determine it is what such men engaged in such service are accustomed to receive. Precisely as in the case of the engineers, it is the usual standard and not the essential worth that determines rates of pay; and, measured by that standard, \$21 an hour would not be very excessive—not excessive enough, certainly, to excite anything like the derisive laughter among business and professional men that the same rate if proposed for power plant engineers would excite among the class commonly called “workingmen.”

There is a lesson in this episode for all good people who would settle rates of wages arbitrarily. By no possibility can wages according to earnings be adjusted by means of arbitration, or of any other arbitrary process. All that can be done in any of these ways is to decide approximately upon customary wages. Nothing can be done but what the courts do in law suits for services rendered without agreement as to price. They allow one class of workingman a dollar a day and another five hundred; not at all with reference to any difference in their usefulness, but altogether with reference to differences in the standards of pay in different vocations.

But what is it that makes these standards?

They are made by competition. Nothing else can make them.

Whether they are fairly made, depends wholly upon the degree of freedom in which all the competitive forces operate. If these forces operate with absolute freedom, the usual standards of pay for work will tend all the time to coincide with the usefulness of the work. In that case it would be the most useful workers, and not the kind we now regard as most

respectable, who would command the highest pay.

In those circumstances it might very well be—we express no opinion—that the usual standard for preachers turned labor arbitrators would be 30 cents an hour, while the standard for power plant engineers was \$21. That might then be without exciting special wonder or derisive laughter; but if such were the result, we could be sure that the engineers were, by that much, generally regarded as the more useful workers.

When competitive forces are obstructed, however, so obstructed that they operate in one-sided ways, the standards of pay for work got to be lopsided. In consequence we see useless workers well paid and useful ones getting but a pittance.

According to some theories regarding pay for work, all workers out to be paid alike, hour for hour. This would be the logical outcome, too, if the arbitration principle were applied universally. Such plausibility in justice as that theory has, it derives from an untenable interpretation of the doctrine that “labor produces all wealth.” Now, it is true that labor produces all wealth. Nothing ever has or ever can be produced except as it is produced by labor. But the meaning of the term “labor,” when used in this way, is “laborers.” For it is not true that the whole body of labor produces every particle of wealth. Some laborers produce some wealth, other laborers produce other wealth, and so on. Consequently, while wealth, considered as the whole product of exertion, may be said to have been produced by labor considered as the whole body of laborers, it is fallacious to conclude that any particular share or portion is produced by all.

This distinction becomes important

when we are dealing with the subject of wages. For that subject relates to the distribution instead of the production of wealth; and in distribution each laborer is entitled, in fairness, to the equivalent of his own contribution. It will not do to say that there is so much interdependence throughout the industrial field that no one can be said to have contributed more than another. The obtrusive fact cannot be ignored that some workers do contribute more than others.

That the work of others contributes somewhat, or is necessary to the general result, makes no difference. He who is more skilled, more attentive, more faithful, more learned in his calling, contributes more to the general production of wealth in an hour than does he who lacks those qualities, even though his less effective work may also be needed. The only fair rate of pay, therefore, is to each in proportion to his own contribution to the result. Any other rate, if with intention, has to do with pauperism or theft rather than with honest industry.

But how can that rate be measured? Not by arbitration certainly. Not by boards of preachers who award power plant engineers only one-seventieth of what they ask for themselves. It can be determined in no other way than by abolishing every monopoly and thereby unshackling all the forces of competition. Out of the conflict of unrestricted competition in trade, comes equity in distribution.

This is a hard saying to many people who do not understand that free competition and monopoly are antithetical. But monopolists confirm it. "Unrestricted competition," testifies the liberally paid president of the Lehigh Valley railway monopoly, one of the constituents of the great anthracite coal road trust, "would be one of the worst evils to which the country could be exposed." This has been the theory of the privileged classes since they began to subject their brethren to slavery. And in their view of what is evil for a country, it is a sound theory. It is the favorite philosophy of special privilege and the sacred creed of the monopolist.



Extracts from the Encyclical of His Holiness Leo XIII
 ═══════ on the Condition of the Workingmen ═══════



HIS Holiness Leo XIII, the theologian, the philanthropist, the philosopher, the father of oppressed and suffering humanity, on the 16th of May, 1891, sent out to the world a pronouncement or Encyclical Letter on the condition of the working classes from which the following extracts are quoted :

The authorities of a country should so contrive that not only the public but the private welfare of its people should be the natural and spontaneous outcome of the system and executive action of the Government.

It is a matter not only of national prudence but is the bounden duty of the governing class.

What makes a nation prosper ?

Morality, the family tie held in honor, the practice of religion, Justice, public offices held by moderate men and equitably divided amongst the people, the pursuit of Industry and Commerce, a flourishing condition of Agriculture and of other like interests.

The more these conditions prevail, the more will the lives and the happiness of the people be increased.

Whereas by all these means the State can benefit the other classes, in like manner it can greatly improve the lot of the

working class, and this with the full force of its right, without fear of reproach from any section, because in the very nature of its office, the State exists for the good of all. It is evident that the more the State accomplishes in this direction, the less will the workingmen be forced into other channels to remedy their condition.

But here is another consideration that goes deeper into the subject.

The State exists for the benefit of its members, one and all, great and small. The poor, by natural right, are citizens of the State just as much as the rich, and in fact, in the cities, they form the majority.

How unreasonable it would be to look after one class of citizens and to neglect another.

It is very evident, therefore, that it is the duty of the commonwealth to take the means necessary to safe-guard the salvation and the interests of the working-classes. If the commonwealth neglects this duty, it violates the law of Justice : to render to each one what is due to him. St. Thomas very wisely says : " As the part and the whole are in some manner the same " thing, in like manner that which belongs " to the whole is also to a certain extent " the property of the part."

Therefore among the most important of the numerous duties of a Government, desirous for the public weal, the duty

paramount to all others, is to have an equal solicitude for all classes of its citizens by rigorously observing the laws of Justice in relation to each distinct class.

In a well organized community there must exist a certain amount of the good things of the world "the use of which is required for the exercise of virtue." (St. Thomas.)

The labour of the workingman, in the field and in the factory, is the necessary and fruitful source of all this wealth.

Nay, more, labour is so fruitful and so powerful that we can affirm without fear of error, that it is the sole source from which proceeds the wealth of nations.

Equity demands that the State should study the requirements of the labouring classes, and that it should take such action that they receive a fair portion of the good things they procure for society at large, that they be properly housed and clothed and that they may be able to live with less trouble and privation.

Whence it follows that the State should favour everything which, near or far, appears likely to better their condition.

This solicitude, very far from causing any class an injury, will, on the contrary, be to the advantage of all, because it is of sovereign importance to the Nation that the men who are, for their country, the very producers of everything that is indispensable, should not be continually wrestling with the horrors of misery.

The rights of all should be religiously respected. However in the protection of private rights, the State must in a special manner look after the weak and the needy. The rich man surrounded with his wealth requires less State protection, but the poor man not having riches to shield him from injustice, looks for protection to the State.

Let the State therefore declare itself specially appointed to be the providence of the workingman.

The workingman who receives sufficient wages to easily provide for his own and his family's wants, will, if he be wise, follow the counsel which nature itself gives him: he will endeavour to be economical, and by his savings, he will manage to put aside a little money, so that he may one day be the owner of his own little homestead.

We have come to the conclusion that the labour question can only be solved by establishing, as a fundamental principle, that private property must be respected.

It is consequently necessary that the law should favour the idea of property ownership, and should awaken and develop it, as much as possible, among the masses of the people. This result once obtained would be the source of the greatest advantages, and first of all, of a more equitable division of wealth.

Violent political changes have divided the people into two classes, between which an immense abyss now exists.

On one side wealth all-powerful, a faction which being the absolute mistress of both manufacturing and commercial enterprises, diverts wealth from its natural channels and absorbs itself, all the sources thereof; a faction moreover which holds in its hand more than one of the springs of the Government of the country.

On the other side, Weakness and Poverty: a multitude sore to the very soul, always ready to start disorder.

Well then let the industry and activity of the people be stimulated, by the prospect of owning their share of the land, and, little by little, we shall see the abyss filled

up, which divides opulence and want, and the two classes will be brought near together.

Besides, the land belonging to each family will produce everything in greater abundance. For man is so constituted that the thought of working on his own property will redouble his ardour and application.

He will very soon put his whole heart into the land he has cultivated himself and which will provide for him and his family not only the absolute necessities of life, but a certain competency.

The happy effects will become manifest to all, which the increased activity of the workers will produce on the fruitfulness of the soil and on the wealth of the nation.

A third advantage will be to stop emigration: nobody would consent to leave his native land and go to a strange country, except in order to better his condition.

But there is one indispensable condition to the realization of all these advantages: it is that private property be not exhausted by an excess of taxation. It is not from human laws, but from nature itself that the right of individual ownership of land takes its origin: the law cannot therefore abolish it, all it can do is to regulate its uses in conformity with the general well-being.

Consequently when the law, under the name of taxation, places too many burdens on private property, it acts against Humanity and Justice.

The law should safeguard the physical or bodily condition of the workmen by snatching them from the hands of those speculators, who, making no difference between a man and a machine, abuse beyond all measure the bodily strength of their employers, in order to satisfy their own insatiable greed for money.

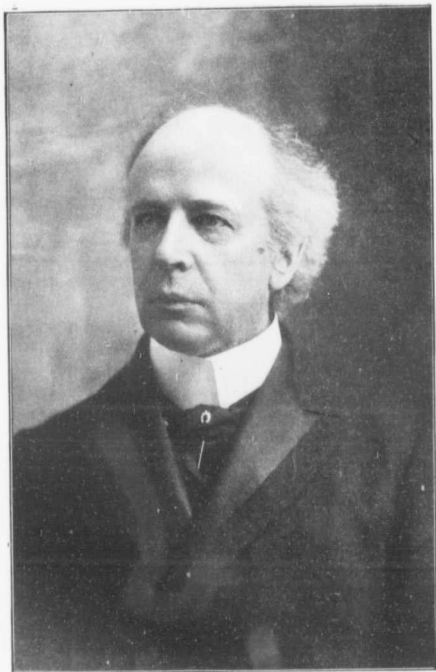
To exact an amount of work, which, while deadening the faculties of the soul, crushes the body and consumes and exhausts a man's strength, is a line of conducts that cannot be tolerated either by Justice or Humanity.

A man's activity, like his nature, is limited within bounds which he cannot exceed. It increases, doubtless, by exercise and habit, but only on condition of getting an occasional reprieve and intervals of rest.

Thus the number of hours of a day's work should not exceed the measure of a man's strength, and the intervals of rest should be proportionate to the nature of the work, to the health of the workman, and regulated according to the circumstances of time and place.

LEO XIII.





RIGHT HON. SIR WILFRED LAURIER, G.C.M.G.

"If there is anything to which I have devoted my political life, it is to try to promote unity, harmony and amity between the diverse elements of this Country. My friends can desert me, they can remove their confidence, they can withdraw the trust they have placed in my hands, but never shall I deviate from that line of policy. Whatever may be the consequence, whether loss of prestige, loss of popularity or loss of power, I feel that I am in the right, and I know that a time will come when every man will render me full justice on that score." Sir Wilfred Laurier, House of Commons, March 13th, 1900.

Right Hon. Sir Wilfred Laurier, G.C.M.G.



POLITICAL life in the aggregate is doubtless better than the opinion with the average citizen holds concerning it, and the great majority of those who are actively concerned in political affairs are, after all is said and done, honest, public spirited citizens, who earnestly desire to do their duty as such, to the best of their ability.

But it is also indisputable that there are those who are moved by different considerations, who are themselves corrupt, and who contaminate the political atmosphere, so that one of the most difficult positions in which any one can find himself is to take his place in the heat of political strife and maintain it for any considerable time, without taking on some of the dust and smoke of the battle, or the mire stirred up by the feet of the contending parties. Even among those who would prefer to lose an election than win it by corrupt means, it is sometimes the case, that through no fault of their own "the smell of the fire" has passed for a time on their garments, until many good but mistaken people have come to regard politics as the unclean thing, to be avoided by all, who would consider themselves good citizens, or who had any regard for their own good name and reputation.

To say that such a view of the subject is wrong and most pernicious in its results, in that it would leave the conduct of public affairs in the hands of unscrupulous and dishonest persons, is a proposition which would seem to be so selfevident that it should require no argument to sustain it, and yet one which is questioned by these good people, who see no further than the surface of the question, and cannot be persuaded that the smoke and the dust and the mire, are not the whole of it.

Fortunately there have always been those who, while they have taken their place in the hottest of the fight, have nevertheless come out of it untarnished, and have stood out as living examples of the great truth, that the fire has no real power over them, provided they themselves are right, are straightforward and honest, standing for great principles, and refusing to be turned aside by any mere prospect of personal or party gain.

Of all those who in Canada have in this manner rendered the highest service which anyone can render to his Country, no name stands higher than that of Sir Wilfred Laurier; no one has done more than he has to put Principle in the place of Policy, Patriotism in the place of Partysism, and to-day after 32 years of continuous active public life, first in the Legislature of his native Province, and since 1874 in the Parliament of Canada, he stands out as a

man on whom the fire has had no power, as one who by the force of his life his work and his personality, has purified and lifted up the political life of his country to a higher plane, and placed it there so solidly that the one who shall attempt to cast it down again, will earn for himself the name of traitor to the best and highest interests of his country.

To those who know Sir Wilfred Laurier this achievement will cause no surprise. It is only what was to be expected. It is the natural outcome of his character, a part of himself, and not a mere matter of policy.

As an object lesson the life of Sir Wilfred Laurier is of the highest value to his fellow countrymen, whether they may agree or disagree with his political opinions. It is a record of the deliberate choice of a high purpose and fidelity to it, of persistent struggle against difficulties, of earnest endeavour to fit himself for the work he had set himself to do, and of success such as comes to but few, as the reward of his efforts.

His childhood and early years were passed at St. Lin, in the County of L'Assomption, where he was born the 20th November, 1841. He thus began life like so many others who have made their mark in Canada, as a country boy. He went to the Common School of his native Parish, and took his course at L'Assomption College in his native County.

Even in childhood he displayed those admirable qualities of courtesy, of kindly consideration, and natural refinement of feeling, which are so marked in his character, so much so, that he was commonly referred to by the people of his native village, as "the little gentleman".

But these qualities showed only one side of his character. With them went a high, almost a stern devotion to principle and to duty, a determination to do the right because it was right, and whether the result appeared to promise success or failure, played no part in influencing his decision.

Perhaps no finer illustration of this trait can be found than in the words which preface this article. Words which, spoken in his place in the House of Commons, went out to the people of Canada as a message from a man who meant what he said, which were accepted by the people in the same spirit, and the influence of which, in promoting that harmony he so earnestly desired, can never be fully estimated.

As a record of determined effort to overcome the difficulties which beset his earlier years, his life is an inspiration, and the success which has crowned his efforts, an encouragement to all whose experience is similar.

During his early life he never enjoyed the blessing of perfect health, and even at the age of twenty-five, his condition was such, that few expected him to survive. But through it all he never wavered. Fully realizing his physical weakness, he resolutely avoided everything which would further tend to impair his health, and on the other hand cultivated everything which would improve it, with the result that he has continued to bear the heavy burdens which his exalted position has placed upon him, while others, physically strong, have long since fallen. With this he persistently followed his purpose of preparing himself for his life work, doing his work thoroughly, fitting himself for his

chosen profession, and gathering the broad culture, the immense and exact information which he possesses on all subjects, and which so eminently fit him for the high and difficult position in which he is now placed.

If any evidence of his industry and thoroughness were required, it would not be necessary to go beyond his masterly control of the English tongue, in which to-day, no English speaking orator, surpasses him.

While never neglecting the interests of his political party, he has constantly regarded it only as the means, under the recognized order of things, by which he could best serve his country. Party has always been to him, not the end, but the means to an end, the instrument by which he could translate into action these principles which he holds, are at the foundation of all sound progress, and real greatness in any country.

If this lesson has been learned by the young men of Canada, and if they in their own place and party, consistently apply it to their own lives, and insist upon it as the true "National Policy" for Canadian political life, we may hope to see the end of these scandals, which have been a blot on the name of Canada, and there will be room for hope that the professional politician, the parasite of political and party life, will be forever eliminated from it.

It would be folly to pretend that Sir Wilfred Laurier has never made mistakes, to do so would be to proclaim him more than mortal, but it must be admitted that he has made remarkably few mistakes, in dealing with the vast and complicated problems, for which he has had to find the solution.

In this also there is a lesson of the highest importance for the young men of Canada. No man can fill a great place either in public or in private life, if he has not taken infinite pains to prepare himself for it. It is still true that, "It is good for a young man to bear the yoke in his youth." This Sir Wilfred Laurier did. While others endowed with physical strength far beyond that which he possessed, and an intellect which might have placed them in the front rank, wasted their substance and their lives, he guarded and strengthened his physical powers by every possible means, and at the same time enriched his mind by the study of those great principles, which have made Britain stand out among the nations as the great, the unique exponent of constitutional freedom, and the great example of its successful practical application to the life of the people.

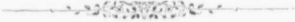
Coming thus to the questions with which he has had to deal, his mind stored with principles and precedent, gathered from the study of the constitutional history and the experience of past ages, it is no accident which has given him that power and facility for dealing with them, which he has displayed. His hand is that of the trained workman who does nothing by hazard, but everything according to the rules, which he thoroughly understands.

Two qualities which he possesses in an eminent degree, are courage and fairness. He has not hesitated to deal with difficult questions, even when personal feelings might well have urged him to withhold his hand, and possible danger to party or personal popularity, might have counselled caution. His fairness no one can venture to question. He can strike, and does strike hard, but never "below the belt," and always for what he believes is the cause of justice and right.

Such are a few salient points of a life which has filled a large place, not in Canada only, but throughout the Empire, a life which has left its impress on the thought, the lives and the hearts of the people, to an extent which is seldom found, which has brought about an era of goodwill and mutual good understanding throughout the Dominion, which at one

time would scarcely have been deemed possible, which has set an example of devotion to duty and principle, which cannot fail of lasting effect on the lives of his fellow-countrymen, and a life which political friends and opponents alike earnestly hope may long be spared to serve his country.

JOHN S. BUCHAN.





RIGHT HONOURABLE SIR RICHARD JOHN CARTWRIGHT, G.C.M.G., P.C.

"One of the very few examples in this country of a man of means making Statecraft his profession, and devoting himself for thirty years entirely to politics — giving his time and means to a cause from which he cannot hope in case of success for anything more than an opportunity to serve his country."— *Globe*.

Right Hon. Sir Richard John Cartwright, G.C.M.G., P.C.



THE Right Honourable Sir Richard John Cartwright, G.C.M.G., P.C., Minister of Trade and Commerce, has been one of the strongest men in Parliamentary life in Canada for more than a quarter of a century. He was born in Kingston on the 14th of December, 1835, and was the son of the late Rev. R. D. Cartwright, Chaplain to the Forces in that old Canadian city. He was educated at Trinity College, Dublin. He was elected in the old Parliament of Canada for Lennox and Addington in 1863, and continued to sit for that constituency until 1867. From Confederation down to 1878 he represented Lennox in the House of Commons, but in that year he was defeated. He was returned for Centre Huron at a bye-election, and in 1883 he was elected for South Huron. From 1887 up to the present he has represented South Oxford. In the early days of his public career he gave an independent support to Sir John A. Macdonald. Since the period of "Pacific Scandal" he has thrown all his powerful influence with the Liberal party, which was a convincing proof of the honesty of purpose and the high political considerations by which he was actuated. Through a long and honourable career, a clean and manly politician, he has proved himself worthy of the highest esteem and admiration of his fellow countrymen.

During the Mackenzie regime he was Minister of Finance from 1873 to 1878, and upon the resignation of that Cabinet be-

came Chief Financial Critic, and one of the leaders of the Opposition in Parliament from 1879 to 1896, and became such a keen debator, and his power of oratory was so great that he was classed as the superior of all public men of his time. In seconding the vote of thanks tendered to the volunteers in 1885 for the services they rendered to their county during the North West rebellion, his speech on that occasion was looked upon as a masterpiece of eloquence, seldom, if ever, surpassed in the Canadian House of Commons. In 1896 when the Liberal party was returned to power, he then became Minister of Trade and Commerce, and consequently he was for several months engaged in forming a new fiscal policy for the Dominion, than whom, no man in Canada was better fitted to perform the task.

In 1899, during the absence of the Premier, it fell to Sir Richard's lot to act Premier and leader in the House of Commons, which he did with such marked ability that it caused wide comment among those familiar with Parliamentary procedure. He represented Canada on the Anglo American Joint High Commission when it sat at Quebec in the summer of 1898 and in Washington during the winter of 1898-9.

Sir Richard Cartwright is a man of such sterling qualities and such an able statesman that he has long held the cherished admiration of his party in Canada and the respect of those politically opposed to him. To him the party owes a debt of great gratitude, greater to him perhaps to-

day than to any other Liberal. During the many long weary days of adversity when he was in opposition, Sir Richard fought the battle of the Liberal party by night and by day with a courage that never failed and with a disregard of personal sacrifice not surpassed by any other man who has served the party since Confederation.

It has been said of him that he is the noblest type of the courageous and spirited Knight that we have in Canadian public life, and the one among them all upon whom the title sits as though he were born to it. It has been a source of great regret among his host of friends that in these days when he should be enjoying the fruits of his labours he is crippled with rheumatism to such an extent that it becomes a difficulty and a pain for him to

walk about; nevertheless he still retains an active interest in everything that pertains to his department and has done much to build the department up, improving it always wherever possible.

It will not be known and appreciated until after he is gone how much the country owes him. There was a day when he was mostly loved for the enemies he made, but to-day his enemies are so few that life long friends and old time foes vie with each other to do him honour. Sir Richard is a large real estate owner in Kingston and vicinity, and he has been noted for his many liberal donations to charitable and other deserving institutions. Like all great men, Sir Richard Cartwright is kind, genial, courteous and without ostentation and he will ever be remembered as one of Canada's most gifted sons and able statesmen.



Department of Trade and Commerce



THE Department of Trade and Commerce was first constituted by an Act assented to on June 23rd, 1887, but the Act was not to be put into effect until a day was mentioned by the Governor General by proclamation. It was not until December 3rd, 1892, that an Order in Council was passed and a proclamation published bringing the Act mentioned into force. On December 5th, Orders in Council were passed appointing a Minister of Trade and Commerce, a Controller of Customs and a Controller of Inland Revenue. These latter two officials were to be under the control of the Minister of Trade and Commerce.

Upon the recommendation of the Honourable Sir John Thompson, K.C.M.G., then Prime Minister, the Honourable Mackenzie Bowell was appointed to the office of Minister; Mr. N. Clarke Wallace was appointed Controller of Customs, and Mr. J. F. Wood, Controller of Inland Revenue. Mr. Bowell was sworn in on the 7th day of December, 1892, and on the 31st of December, the present Deputy of the Department, Mr. W. G. Parmelee, was appointed, to take effect from January 1st, 1893. Thus was completed the executive organization of the Department which is such an important one, in dealing as it does with all matters of trade and commerce of the Dominion.

Following Sir Mackenzie Bowell as the head of the Department, Hon. W. B.

Ives was appointed December 21st, 1894, and upon the resignation of the Conservative Government in 1896, Sir Richard Cartwright was given the portfolio of Trade and Commerce.

Though the head of the Department has changed from time to time, as the political exigencies required, Mr. Parmelee still retains the Deputyship. He is one of the oldest and best informed officials in the Civil Service. To him is largely due the ever increasing importance of the Department, and his long service was recently rewarded by the Imperial Government in conferring upon him the Imperial Service Order.

In 1897 the branches of the Department under the control of the Commissioners of Customs and Inland Revenue were made independent departments and the Commissioners thereof raised to the dignity of Ministers.

Under the control of the Department of Trade and Commerce were assigned the administration of the appropriations for steamboat subventions and the control and direction of Commercial Agents. The administration of the Chinese Immigration Act was assigned to the Deputy Minister of Trade and Commerce as Chief Controller of Chinese Immigration. It will be thus seen that at the outset the duties assigned to the Department were important and extensive. Since that time to the Department of Trade and Commerce has fallen the duties appertaining to the payment of Ore Bounties, and up to June 30th,

1903, the department expended in this connection over one million dollars.

The last service to be placed under the control of the department was transferred from the Inland Revenue Department in 1901. The service included the administration of matters pertaining to the culling of timber, the Manitoba Grain Inspection Act and the Chief Inspection Act. The latter includes the inspection of flour, meal, and wheat, other grains and hay, beef and pork, pot and pearl ashes, fish and fish oil, butter, cheese and apples, leather and rawhides and binder twine.

In the matter of steamship subsidies a vast amount of work is entailed in correspondence and drawing up contracts for the various lines of steamships necessary, as well as the smaller coast services winding about upon the rugged shores of the Mar-

itime Provinces. Including Canada's contribution to the Pacific steamship service, the various Atlantic steamship services and the smaller services from port to port in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and along the shores of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, etc., the Department expended up to June 30th, 1903, nearly nine hundred thousand dollars.

The Department publishes the usual Annual Departmental Report, and also issues every month a report of exceeding great interest to the exporters of Canada, as well as being of interest to anyone who wishes to be informed upon the progress and development of Canadian trade. Interesting reports from the Commercial Agents are published therein. This report will be sent free upon application to the Department.




 SIR FREDERICK BORDEN, K.C.M.G.
 

THAT Sir Wilfrid Laurier, in the selection of his cabinet, has had the good fortune to have connected with his party many able statesmen who appeared to be specially adapted to administer the departments assigned

to them. But in no case has this fact been more clearly demonstrated than in the Department of Militia and Defence, which is administered by Sir Frederick Borden, a military man of much experience and undoubted ability. Sir Frederick is a Canadian by birth, having been born in Cornwallis, Nova Scotia, on May the 14th, 1847. His genealogy dates back several hundred years. The Borden originally came from the county of Kent, England, where the family had lived for many centuries. The name of Borden, Burden, or Bourden, is found in the records of five and six hundred years ago or more. The stock appears to be Norman, though some claim an Anglo-Saxon origin. Bur-

dens still live at Headcorn, Kent, and the town of Borden, in the same county, is probably their ancient home.

Two brothers, Richard and John Borden or Burden, emigrated to New England about 1634 or 1635. They were Non-conformists, and persecution by the estab-

lished church, under Archbishop Land, is supposed to have been the cause of their exile from England. It is from Richard that the Canadian family springs; and there is no knowledge as to whether John left any descendants or not. In Massachusetts, the Borden thrived, multiplied and became people of standing and importance in the community, and one of that name represented his district in the state assembly or

legislature, and afterwards figured as a member of some state commission. The Borden came to Nova Scotia prior to the Revolutionary war. Sir Frederick's great grandfather, Samuel Borden, of Tiverton, Mass., who was sent to Acadia by the governor of Rhode Island to



survey the lands vacated at the expulsion of the Acadians, took up some of the land which he surveyed, and settled his son Perry Borden upon it, and returned himself to his home in Tiverton. One of the most treasured relics of the family is the title deeds to the land in question, which is dated 1758. Sir Frederick also traces his lineage on the maternal side back to an old United Empire Loyalist family, who migrated to Nova Scotia at the time of the Revolutionary war. He was educated at King's College. After taking his B.A. in 1867, he went to Harvard Medical School, Boston, where he pursued his medical studies, and having the degree of M.D. conferred upon him in 1868. The young doctor immediately commenced the practice of his profession at Canning, Nova Scotia, where he continually practised and built up a large clientele up to the time of his entering the Dominion Cabinet in 1896. He was for many years connected with the Nova Scotia Board of Health, being appointed a member of that body in 1893. Sir Frederick was also somewhat of a financier, having for a number of years been agent at Canning for the Bank of Nova Scotia, and the Halifax Banking Company of Nova Scotia as well. Sir Frederick began early in life to evince a love for politics, and consequently he was elected to represent King's County, Nova Scotia, in 1874. When the National Policy wave swept over the country in 1878, and the Liberal party were badly thinned out, he was one of the few supporters of that party who were returned at that election. At the following general election in 1882, he was defeated, but he regained the seat in 1887, and was elected at every successive general election ever since. Upon the advent of the Liberal

party to power in 1896, he became Minister of Militia, which was a convincing proof of the wisdom of Sir Wilfrid Laurier in the choice of his cabinet. At the age of sixteen he joined the militia, and has continued to be an active member of the force up to the present time. He was appointed assistant-surgeon of the 68th King's County Battalion in 1869, and Surgeon-Major in 1883, and Hon.-Surgeon Lieut.-Colonel by promotion in 1893. Being a practical and experienced man, upon assuming the administration of the Department of Militia, his first step was to surround himself with a staff of efficient and capable officials sufficiently strong to go into work of an ordinary or emergent character, which might at any time devolve upon the Department, so that it may be seen from the outset that Sir Frederick, in a business-like and up-to-date manner, went into the work of improving the militia and raising it up to the modern standard of organization and equipment in order to make it an effective and mobile force. Recommendations had been offered and suggestions made from time to time for many years by the Major-General commanding for increasing the efficiency of the force, but although some progress had been made in a small way, the lack of a thorough practical knowledge on the part of the preceding ministers of militia, the desired results had not materialized. However, when Sir Frederick became head of the Department, the hand of the trained soldier began to show itself; that, and the growth of the Imperial sentiment, soon brought about a change in the situation. A great source of weakness in connection with the force was the practice which allowed officers to hold command irrespective of age or length of service. Here Sir Fred-

erick soon found a remedy in a radical measure of instituting both an old age and service limit, and strictly enforcing it. The new regulations were the cause of retiring about sixty commanding officers, and although, as was to be expected, the rule was regarded by some as arbitrary, some good men having been brushed aside, yet, upon the whole, its operation has been most beneficial. Another important regulation enforced insists upon officers being possessed of a certificate of qualification, and staff officers are required to undergo a course in equitation. The next part of the militia organization to receive the attention of Sir Frederick was the Royal Military College, which had been suffering from a decrease in some of the applications for admission, which was the cause of a great deal of growling and criticism on the part of the public. This state of affairs was largely due to the stagnation in promotions which had existed for some time, consequently the question of increasing the efficiency of a military educational institution was attended to, with the result that many graduates have been turned out whose service in the Imperial Army has reflected great credit upon the Alma Mater and upon the Dominion.

The training skill and knowledge in military affairs of Sir Frederick Borden were fully demonstrated in the organization, recruiting and dispatching of the various contingents to South Africa for service in the Transvaal war. The work entailed during that war, in which Canadians played so prominent a part, is more fully explained in the article, "Depart-

ment of Militia." Suffice it to say that the first contingent, the Royal Canadians, sailed from Quebec on October 30th, and landed in Cape Town on November 30th. On January 26th, Col. Herchmer's force, second contingent, embarked on the *Pomeronian* at Halifax. The remainder of the contingent left Halifax on February 20th, on the *Milwaukee*. Then followed the third, fourth, fifth and sixth contingents Canadian Mounted Rifles, Strathcona's Horse and South African Constabulary. Sir Frederick represented Canada (in so far as questions of defence were concerned) at the Colonial Conference in London during the summer of 1902. This was a conference of Colonial Premiers with the Secretary of State for the Colonies, but the Secretary of State for War and a representative of the Admiralty (Lord Selborne) were also present, and a number of Colonial Ministers besides; Sir Wm. Mulock, Hon. Mr. Paterson, Hon. Mr. Fielding, Sir John Forrest, of Australia, &c. He was created a K.C.M.G. during this visit to England, was knighted by the King personally on his yacht off Osborne, Isle of Wight, and had some private conversation with His Majesty on that occasion.

Lieut. H. L. Borden, son of the Minister of Militia, was killed in action at Rutvlei, Transvaal, July 16th, 1900. He had been mentioned several times in dispatches for gallant and intrepid conduct in the field.

BLOOD TELLS!

DIRECT LEGISLATION.

What it means—Its results in Switzerland.

By J. R. WEIKERT.

DIRECT legislation is simply an extension of the right of petition. At present a citizen may petition his rulers for whatever he may want and they have to receive his humble petition without punishing him for his presumption; what they may choose to do with the petition is left for them to decide; they may grant it or throw it into the waste basket. One hundred thousand voters petitioned for an equal taxation law in Michigan, but sixteen senators were able to protect "vested rights" of corporations, and the petition was denied. Six thousand legal voters of the city of Detroit petitioned for a charter amendment, the council ordered a vote according to law, but "vested rights" prevailed on the courts to issue a "mandamus" forbidding the vote on the proposition. These two instances will show the value of the present "right of petition." Under direct legislation it is understood that when a certain number or per cent. of the legal voters of a district (town, city, or state, according as the matter petitioned for concerns them) have signed a petition and filed the same with the proper officials, it becomes mandatory for these officials to submit the matter petitioned for to the voters of the affected district at the next ensuing election in manner similar to the present way of voting on constitutional amendments,

issuing of bonds, etc. Laws thus enacted by the people direct would occupy the same ground as the constitution itself; no legislative body could alter or amend them; no executive officer veto them; no court declare them unconstitutional. They could be altered, amended, or annulled only by the court of last appeal—the sovereign people. This court could not be bribed, and mistakes made by it would be rectified as soon as discovered.

The various problems of local, state and national concern can not be solved in job lots. The people most concerned will, under direct legislation, deal with each one separately; they will do it most intelligently and effectively. As long as these problems are to be dealt with by irresponsible agents we will have the lobbyist, the corruptionist, the political boss, and all the tools of corporate interests and vested rights in special privileges. As long as political parties and promises of party candidates must be depended on to decide these issues the people will be powerless. And as long as the people are powerless to enact its will into law, is dependent on these short-lived autocrats over whom it has no control whatever, present conditions, if not worse ones, must prevail. *The history of the world abundantly proves that law is but a written expression of the interest of the lawgiver.*

CORRECT PRINCIPLES.

Experience demonstrates that a form of government where all power is placed in the hands of irresponsible agents, who are not to be controlled in its use, but who are prone to obey the dictates of self-interest, to be a bad one.

If a machine or a system is correct in principle its efficacy will be increased by development through use. The pressure of steam on a movable piston-head in a cylinder moves the piston on the same principle to-day as when first invented, yet what a difference between the machines of to-day and those of a hundred years ago.

The development of the initiative and referendum system in Switzerland and its remarkable effect on the Swiss people is another instance. But the representative system in actual use in the United States for more than a hundred years shows no development whatever. It is neither more economical nor more beneficial and responsive to the people to-day than when first applied, and there is more than a suspicion that it has actually deteriorated. The only development attained has been in party management. Political parties have become vast and intricate machines for the purpose of obtaining control of the government—not to benefit the people, but to distribute the spoils and serve the wealth owners. The dominant one rules the people, and is in its turn ruled by a majority faction obedient to the dictates of the bosses. Even when the people obtain control of a party and, perhaps, thereby of government, its object is only too apt to be frustrated, its will defied by one or the other of the co-ordinate branches of government beyond its control. Such occurrences have become only too common in all parts of the system, from the sixteen

senators of the extra session of the Michigan legislature to the income tax decision of the United States Supreme Court—the wealth owners' interests are protected against the interests of the people.

Karl Burkli said: "Experience has taught the ruling classes the great advantage they derive from political forms favorable to themselves, and they will, surely, do all they can to prevent the adoption of a form of government abolishing their privileges as rulers. Socialism, even of the most radical kind, has no dangers for them as long as the political fulcrum is missing on the social lever. *Social reform is condemned to remain in a state of theory until the right means are found to put it into practice*; and these means can be no other than, above all, to bring about a governmental reform of such a nature that the laws shall henceforth be made by the voice of all the citizens and no longer in accordance to the wishes of a privileged few."

A popular form of government, a democracy, must be as good as the people; it can not be otherwise; but a government by unchecked representatives is only as good as the politicians who govern; or does the past history of legislatures, whether city councils or Congress, show in them any divine gift or superior wisdom? Thomas Jefferson said: "Sometimes it is said that man can not be trusted with the government of himself. Can he then be trusted with the government of others? Or have we found angels in the forms of kings to govern him? Let history answer."

Sir Wm. Blackstone, the great commentator on English law, said: "In a democracy, where the right of making laws resides in the people at large, public virtue or goodness of intention is more

likely to be found than in any other form of government." Direct legislation, by means of the initiative and referendum, is the only feasible step towards pure democracy; and it is the only means of reforming the otherwise utterly bankrupt representative system; it is the only means at hand of procuring the exercise of an intelligent, free and honest ballot, and it is upon these qualities of the ballot, after all, that representative government is based; for when citizens are too ignorant to exercise an intelligent ballot, or too corrupt to exercise an honest ballot, representative government itself is impossible. It is for this reason, if for no other, that supporters of the representative form of government should seek the adoption of this reform. It is nothing new in principle. It is not a stranger in this country, where the "town meeting" system has been in vogue ever since the advent of the "Pilgrim Fathers." It is a reform which makes that system applicable to the government not only of towns, but to municipality, state, and nation as well.

GOVERNMENT BY THE PEOPLE AS APPLIED
IN SWITZERLAND.

Government by the people direct by means of the initiative and referendum, has been on trial in Switzerland for about fifty years. Arising from the town meeting plan, it has spread from town to town, from city to city, from canton to canton, until, twenty-five years ago, it was adopted by the national government. It has been a blessing wherever introduced, and in no instance have the people ever surrendered it again, but have used it successfully in solving every problem of importance in town, city, canton, and nation.

It is known that, singly and collectively, the governments in Switzerland are

to-day the most popular, economic, simple and honest on the earth; that previous to the adoption of this system all those cantons that were governed, as we are to-day, by irresponsible agents or representatives, were suffering from similar confusion of laws, clashing of authorities, public extravagance and corruption, partisan prejudice and personal campaigns, from which this country is suffering under to-day; and it is a known, and by the class of wealth owners well-recognized fact, that, the people ruling, Switzerland is singularly free from trusts, syndicates and corporations.

Like most people attending strictly to their own business, but little is generally said and thought of the Swiss by others except that they form an insignificant nationality. It is known that two-thirds of the small country is uninhabitable, consisting of black rocks and icefields, and the prevailing impression in this country, therefore, is that the Swiss are peverty-struck, ignorant, and not to be compared with the "enlightened" citizens of the United States. This was true until the inauguration of the system of direct legislation. The Swiss were too poor to make a living at home, however much they loved their home, and were compelled to emigrate; they were found in all countries; every petty tyrant had his "Swiss Guard." But since the introduction of direct legislation a tremendous change has taken place. For several decades now all emigration from Switzerland has not only ceased, but quite to the contrary now the Germans, French, Italians and Slavonians are flocking into Switzerland because of its better economic conditions. The three million Swiss consume more commodities to-day than the fifteen millions of Italians, although the natural productiveness of the two countries cannot be compared. There

is no country, no nation on the globe that can compare in quality and number of educational institutes with those of Switzerland, according to the percentage of inhabitants. It has the best and the costliest highways in the world, and not a tollgate in its boundaries. The highways, as well as the telephone, telegraph, mail and express are owned by the people. Sixteen dollars a year for telephone service was found to be too high and they reduced it. And all this only as a consequence of a government by the people, for the people, through direct legislation. As showing the educatory feature of this system it is proper here to state that the proposition to buy the Central Railroad, the most important one of the Swiss railroads, was defeated in the referendum vote of 1891 by a majority of 156,971. But five years later, on October 4th, 1896, another national referendum vote decided by 221,222 against 171,671 votes to buy up the five principal railroad lines, including the Central, for 964,384,769 francs. A few months later, on the 28th February, 1897, the nationalization of the banking business was rejected by a referendum vote of 194,465 against 244,219, or by a majority of 49,754 out of a total of 438,684. But the friends of the proposition, claiming that the education brought about by the discussion of the proposition has altered not only the faults of the bill but also changed the views of a greater number of electors than required, have again begun the circulation of another initiative list.

This is the way the Swiss people educate themselves in practical politics by means of the initiative and referendum; it also shows the conservative feature of the system. The people are slow to adopt new ideas, prone to move in the accustomed beaten track, but are open to con-

viction where their interests are concerned.

The railroad fares in Switzerland are to-day the cheapest in the world on the highest priced roads. The farmer markets his produce, the manufacturer or merchant moves his commodities at cost of service rendered. This explains the present welfare of the Swiss. They have emancipated themselves from political slavery and are now gradually bettering their economic condition. Their taxes are direct and what they want them to be and are applied for the purposes they want them applied to. They have not one cent for a hiring soldiery, but pay more, per capita, for educational and industrial institutions than any other nation. They do not waste their money and energy in conquering other people, but apply it at home for their own benefit. Much more could be said of them that would cause Americans to blush with shame; but as that is not the purpose of this treatise, a short description of how the Swiss apply the system of direct legislation will suffice.

Switzerland is a federation of twenty-two cantons or states and what is said of one will apply to all. For example; the canton of Zurich has 350,000 inhabitants, of whom 80,000 are voters. This legislature consists of but one house, having 100 members. It prints no records, rarely listens to set speeches, knows nothing of bribery or lobbyists, holds two or three short sessions annually, at which it passes on an average—less than four laws per year. Every member must have an absolute majority, good ones are generally re-elected, some have served for more than twenty years. Every law is worded so simple and plain that everybody understands it. Every law or measure adopted by them has to go to the referendum. All the various local legislative bodies in

the canton comply to the same rules, and each town or municipality decides all questions relating to its own affairs exclusively. Five per cent. are required to apply the initiative; this means that in measures affecting the whole canton four thousand voters have to sign the initiative list or petition before the measure is submitted to the referendum of all the voters at the ballot box. The referendum is obligatory; this means that every law or measure whether adopted by the legislature or initiated by list, has to be approved by a majority of the people at the ballot box before its enactment. Voting is obligatory on every citizen, and neglect without sufficient reason punishable by fine. Elections are held Sundays, and blank ballots and information served on every citizen several days previously. As the people direct control everything, lobbying, corruption and violent partisanship have disappeared as being useless. But little interest is developed for candidates for office, and all interest centers on the principles or measures themselves. Law making is localized, not centralized; each city or county (*commune*) asserts its right to self-government—home rule being a corollary to direct legislation—hence each lawgiving body makes only such laws as are within its proper scope; in the twenty years from 1869 to 1889, inclusive, there were but sixty-eight laws passed by the legislature, fifty being accepted and eighteen rejected by the people at the polls. The people, and the

people only, have the veto power, and they have it on all enactments.

There is a majority of the people behind every law in Switzerland. Who knows what is the case in this country? There no danger exists from violent agitators, as the exact position of the people to every measure is well known by everybody; here the din, noise and uproar of—often paid—agitators, seems to be the only criterion of a movement.

There, trades unions ask no favor of any political party, make no bargain with any office seeker, as they have their own organization to make proper use of the initiative and dare not ask improper or unjust measures for fear of the referendum; here, professional politicians, so-called labor leaders—often mere agents of political parties—carry dissension into the unions and cast disgrace on them in the eyes of other people.

There, partisanship always signifies principles; here, mostly prejudice, spoils, or the choice between evils.

There, pure democracy rules—justly, wisely, progressively; here, the people, asserting its sovereignty, is tricked, cajoled, betrayed by its representatives; until popular government has become a jest and the idea of a true democracy provokes a sneer.

It is high time to reconstruct the legislative mechanism now in use in our towns, cities, and State. Improve it, reform it, simplify it by direct legislation.

Department of Militia and Defence.



IN some very important respects the military arrangements of the Dominion of Canada differ from those which prevail in the other self-governing colonies. Before the confederation of Canada and the amalgamation of it with the North-Western Provinces and British Columbia, the Imperial Government bore the burden of providing both for defence and for the maintenance of order. The principal Canadian towns were garrisoned by Imperial troops. As many as 25,000 Imperial troops were maintained in British North America.

The first rising of Louis Riel was put down by English riflemen. English artillerymen manned the guns of Quebec. At a time when communication with Vancouver had to be carried on round Cape Horn, the English War Office shared with the Admiralty the responsibility of defending the country.

The organization of the Militia of Canada, as at present constituted, dates back to Confederation. Although theoretically consisting of only two branches—the Active Militia and the Reserve—the system is more easily understood if the force is considered as consisting of three divisions—the permanently embodied troops or “regulars,” the organized corps of Volunteer Militia, and the unorganized reserve.

When Sir George Cartier introduced the Act in Parliament for establishing a Militia, he told the House that the chief

difficulty consisted in drilling up quickly and cheaply a system which, in other countries, has been of slow and costly growth. Everything had to be done; not only soldiers had to be found, but officers, arms, and clothing. The proposal was, however, received with the utmost enthusiasm. Two years later two Batteries were established—one at Quebec, and one at Kingston—for the purpose of training soldiers in the European arts of war. At first officers of the Royal troops were in command, but now the places are efficiently filled by Canadians.

The Department, is fortunately for the country, at present administered by the Hon. Sir Frederick Borden, K.C.M.G., a military man of considerable experience and ability.

The Militia Act provides that the King may, for the purpose of providing for the care and protection of forts, magazines, warlike stores, and such like service, and for the purpose of securing the establishment of schools for military instruction, raise and maintain, in addition to the ordinary Active Militia force, one troop of Cavalry, three batteries of Artillery, and not more than five companies of Infantry, the whole strength of which several corps shall not exceed one thousand men, the officers being appointed during pleasure, and the men enlisted for periods of three years' continuous service.

The permanently embodied force at present consists of the Royal Canadian Dragoons, two troops; the Royal Regi-

ment of Canadian Artillery, three batteries; and the Royal Canadian Regiment of Infantry, four companies. These corps, in addition to performing garrison and other duties, serve as practical schools of military instruction, by affording officers, non-commissioned officers, and men of the ordinary Militia, opportunities of joining for courses of study and training.

The Active Militia are subject to the "King's Regulations and Orders for the Army," the Army Act, passed by the Parliament of the United Kingdom, and all other laws applicable to His Majesty's troops in Canada, and not inconsistent with the Militia Act; except that no man shall be subject to any corporal punishment save death or imprisonment for any contravention of such laws.

Since Confederation, the Active Militia of Canada have been called upon for service on the following occasions:— [1] Anticipated Fenian Raid, when 6,000 men were under arms for ten days, April, 1870; [2] Manitoba Contingent, under Col. Wolseley, May, 1870, 750 men, afterwards increased to 1,000; [3] Fenian Raid, May and June, 1870, 13,489 men with 18 guns, were under arms for about ten days; [4] Fenian Raid in Manitoba, October, 1871, 942 men for a few days; [5] In anticipation of disturbance at the interment of M. Guibord in R. C. Cemetery at Montreal, November, 1875, about 1,100 men for a few days; [6] Anticipated Riot at St. John, N. B., 12th July, 1876, 45 men for one day; [7] Grand Trunk Railway Disturbance, December, 1876, 240 men for two or three days; [8] Quebec Riot between ship laborers, June, 1878, 1,300 men for two or three days; [9] Montreal, to maintain peace on 12th July, 1878, 3,000 men for one week; [10] Montreal Riots on Ottawa and Occidental Railway,

August, 1878, 239 men for four days; [11] Anticipated Riots, St. Andrew's, N. B., January, 1879, 45 men for two or three days; [12] Quebec Riots, ship laborers, August, 1877, 800 men, three days; [13] Anticipated Riots, Long Point, Norfolk County, Ont., prize fight, January, 1880, 71 men, one day; [14] Port Dover, County Norfolk, one day; [15] Riot at Lingan Mines, Cape Breton, Nova Scotia miners, March, 1883, 100 men, two and a half months; [16] Anticipated Election Riot at Rat Portage, September, 1883, 49 men, one day; [17] Pontiac and Pacific Railway, near Aylmer, anticipated disturbance between farmers and laborers, July, 1884, 45 men, one day; [18] Disturbance at Tamworth, Ont., railway laborers, October, 1884, 45 men, one day; [19] Anticipated Riot at Winnipeg, November, 1884, 247 men, one day; [20] North-West Rebellion, on actual service, March 1885, 5,400 men, about three months; besides these 1,140 men were held in readiness under canvas, and 942 in barracks at Toronto, Kingston, Prescott and Quebec; [21] Visit to Skeena River, B.C. (from Victoria), anticipated Indian troubles, July 1888, "C" Battery Canadian Artillery, 41 days; [22] Strike of Italian laborers at Hereford Railway, September, 1888, detachment of 58th Battalion and one troop of Cavalry, seven days; [23] Anticipated Riot between Red River Valley and Canadian Pacific Railway Companies, October, 1888, Mounted Infantry School Corps, seven days; [24] Anticipated Riot, consequent on strike at lumber mills, Hull, P. Q., September, 1891, four Companies, two days; [25] Suppression of Smuggling in the Lower St. Lawrence River, July, 1892, detachment of "B" Battery Canadian Artillery, twenty days on revenue cutter "Constance;" [26] Similar errand, same

place, August, 1892, sergeant and four men "B" Battery, until October, 1892; [27] Anticipated Riot of sailors and fishermen at Souris, P.E.I., August, 1893, P.E. I. Battery Garrison Artillery, for a few hours; [28] November, 1895, anticipated riots in Lowe Township, Ottawa County, in connection with the collection of taxes, detachment of Princess Louise Dragoon Guards, Ottawa Field Battery, Governor-General's Foot Guards, 43rd Rifles: [29] London, 8th July, 1899, 10 officers and 155 N. C. officers and men, 13 days; [30] Welland Canal, 25th April, 1900, 1 corporal and 3 men at Welland, the following places viz: Bert Robinson, Allanburg Lock No. 25, G. T. Railway tunnel at lock 19, and also tunnel under lock No. 16 level, and proper daily reliefs, 32 days; [31] Stevenson, B.C., 24th July, 21 officers, 164 N. C. officers and men, 7 days; [32] Magog, Que., 31st July, 1900, 113 all ranks, 4 days; Galt, Ont., 7th September, 1900, 2 officers, 28 N. C. officers and men, part of 1 day; [33] Valleyfield, Que., 25th Oct., 1900, 54 officers, 416 N. C. officers and men, 6 days; [34] Toronto, Street Railway strike, 23rd June 1902, 1362 all ranks, part of 1 day; [35] Montreal, Longshoremen strike, 28th April to 11th May 1903.

The City of Montreal is the headquarters of more Militia Regiments than any other city in the Dominion. It is garrisoned by No. 1 Troop Duke of Connaught's Royal Canadian Hussars, Montreal Field Battery of Artillery, Montreal Brigade Garrison Artillery, 1st Battalion Prince of Wales' Regiment, 3rd Battalion Victoria Rifles, 5th Royal Scots of Canada, 6th Fusiliers, 65th Battalion Mount Royal Rifles, and 85th Battalion of Infantry.

THE NORTH-WEST MOUNTED POLICE FORCE

The Force consists of:—One commissioner, one assistant commissioner, 11 superintendents, 32 inspectors, 100 sergeants, 70 corporals. Total strength, 1,000 men and 850 horses; the latter all raised on Western Ranches, and purchased in the North-West Territories.

PAV.—Constables' pay, 50 cents to 75 cents per diem; corporals, 85 cents per diem; sergeants, \$1 to \$1.50 per diem, with free clothing, quarters and rations. Clerks, artisans and teamsters, receive extra working pay.

Constables engaged for five years, and men of good behavior allowed to re-engage.

All ranks are drilled—both Mounted and Dismounted.

Rank and file injured on duty, or after fifteen years' service, if unfit for further duty, are eligible for pensions. Commissioned ranks receive no pension, but are under the Superannuation Act.

The Mounted Police do all their own teaming, carpentering, painting, smithy and wheelwright work, tinsmithing, etc.

The principal duties performed are patrolling the country, the vicinity of Indian Reserves, and the whole Boundary Line between Ridgeville, east of Emerson, Manitoba, and the Rocky Mountains in particular.

The Boundary patrol extends for 850 miles, police outposts being about forty miles apart; along this boundary they collect Customs dues, grant "Let passes," etc., etc., and enforce a cattle quarantine over the whole distance.

The Police have also charge of the Quarantine at Gretna, Estevan, Wood Mountain, Coutts and Macleod, looking after all cattle received, and delivering them safely to their owners on expiration

of the ninety days' detention required by the Quarantine regulations.

The Mounted Police look after Dominion timber, issue permits and collect dues thereon in Southern Manitoba. Collect all statistics of settlement, cattle, crops, etc., and generally perform all police duties in the Territories, such as serving summonses, arresting criminals, taking charge of gaols, prisoners, arresting and escorting lunatics to asylums, and act as fire guardians for the prevention of prairie fires.

In addition to the foregoing, they patrol the Athabasca River and country North of the Territories, in order to keep liquor out of the unceded Territory, and perform duty in British Columbia and Keewatin when required.

The work of organizing, equipping and dispatching the various contingents to South Africa during the Boer War made the Department a scene of energy and activity.

The first Canadian Contingent for South Africa consisted of a battalion of infantry for which transport was provided by the Allan Line steamship *Sardinian*.

On October 30, the date fixed for the embarkation, the battalion was inspected by the Major General Commanding at 11.30, and afterwards reviewed by His Excellency the Governor General, who was accompanied by the Right Honorable the Premier, the Honorable the Minister of Militia, and several other Ministers.

It then marched to the docks amid great enthusiasm, embarked on the S.S. *Sardinian* in a most creditable manner, and sailed at 3.30 p.m., the send off being one which the citizens of Quebec as well as the departing troops will long remember with feelings of pride.

The second Canadian Contingent consisted of two battalions of Mounted Rifles,

and a Brigade Division of Field Artillery, for which transport was provided by the Allan Line steamships.

The purchasing of the horses, and the fitting out of three transports for the conveyance of horses in addition to troops, made the work of organizing the 2nd Contingent much greater than that of the first. The transports chartered were the *Montezuma*, *Laurentian* and *Pomeranian*. It was expected, and arrangements were being made that the two first named would sail January 18, and the *Pomeranian*, two days later, all from Halifax.

The carrying out of these arrangements could not, however, be effected, owing to rejection of the *Montezuma* by a medical board, in consequence of there being seven cases of typhoid fever among the crew when she arrived at Halifax. The S.S. *Milwaukee* was chartered to take her place. This vessel was at sea at the time, bound for New Orleans. She proceeded to Halifax as soon as possible, where she arrived February 4, at 6.20 p.m.

On January 20th, the troops allotted to the *Laurentian* embarked. At 10.45 on the morning of that day, 'D' and 'E' batteries were inspected by the Major General Commanding. They were subsequently reviewed and addressed by His Honor the Lieutenant Governor of Nova Scotia, and by the Honorable the Minister of Militia and Defence.

The next corps to be organized in Canada for service in South Africa, Lord Strathcona's Horse, was recruited, horsed, armed, equipped, clothed, conveyed to South Africa, and paid until the date of arrival there, at the sole expense of Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, and the members thereof were also, from the date of arrival in South Africa, paid from Lord Strathcona's privy purse the dif-

ference between Imperial cavalry pay and the higher rates paid by Canada to the North-West Mounted Police Force.

No corps left Canada, and it is doubtful whether there was any in the field in South Africa, so thoroughly clothed and equipped as that placed at the service of the Empire by Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal. It was a privilege and a pleasure to the officers of the Departments of Militia and Defence and of the North-West Mounted Police to assist in the organization of such a regiment.

The regiment consisted of a regimental staff and three squadrons, in accordance with the Army Establishment for a Cavalry Regiment, 1898.

The regimental staff and detail of a squadron were the same as the Canadian Mounted Rifles with the exception that there were six drivers per squadron instead of four, and twelve draught horses per squadron instead of eight.

Lord Strathcona specially requested that the regiment should be recruited from Manitoba, British Columbia and the North-West Territories. Recruiting was commenced on February 5, 1900.

The duty of supplying the necessary equipment was placed in the hands of the Store Branch.

The men were concentrated in Ottawa, and were accommodated in the Central Canada Exhibition Association Buildings, Lansdowne Park.

Revolvers, clothing and necessaries were issued in Ottawa. The rifles and other supplies were sent on board the steamer at Halifax.

The expenses of the outfit was borne by Lord Strathcona, who expressed his entire satisfaction as to its completeness, &c.

On November 30, 1900, the General Officer Commanding the Militia reported

the receipt of numerous applications from men desirous of joining the South African Constabulary and inquired whether the Imperial Government would accept recruits for that force and provide transportation to South Africa. A communication was accordingly addressed to the Military Secretary to His Excellency the Governor General, with a view to His Excellency being moved to ascertain what were the wishes of the Imperial Government. His Excellency forwarded a despatch on December 4, and on December 20, the Right Honorable the Secretary of State for the Colonies replied that Her Majesty's Government learned with satisfaction that recruits were coming forward in Canada for the South Africa Constabulary, and would have much pleasure in accepting up to 1,000, if so many were available, and that in the event of that number being enrolled, ten captaincies and 15 lieutenantancies in the force would be given to Canadian officers on His Excellency's recommendation.

There were actually enrolled 1,208 men, which entitled His Excellency to nominate 12 captains and 18 lieutenants.

FIELD HOSPITAL COMPANY AND NURSING SISTERS.

As additional mounted troops had been accepted by the Imperial government, it was considered that a Field Hospital Company might also be utilized, and placing such a company in the field would afford an opportunity of putting to the test the newly organized medical service connected with our militia. An offer of a field hospital company was accordingly forwarded on December 14, 1901. It was promptly accepted and the organization of a company under conditions similar to

those under which the 2nd Regiment Canadian Mounted Rifles was being organized was authorized. This company was designated the 10th Canadian Field Hospital Company, A.M.C.

The services of five nursing sisters, which little band was subsequently increased to eight, was also offered and accepted.

On March 18, 1902, an intimation was received from the Right Honorable the Secretary of State for the Colonies that while His Majesty's government did not desire to press for further offers of troops, the patriotic offer of New Zealand of an additional 1,000 men had strengthened the hands of His Majesty's government in their efforts to bring the war to an early conclusion, and if the government of the Dominion should wish to offer additional troops, His Majesty's government would gratefully accept reinforcement of 2,000 men, on the same terms and under the same conditions as the 2nd Regiment Canadian Mounted Rifles, or, if there was difficulty in obtaining mounted men, infantry would be very welcome, owing to the enormous extension of the blockhouse system.

An offer to raise 2,000 mounted men was made on March 25. It was at once accepted, the Right Honorable the Secretary of State for the Colonies conveying the thanks of His Majesty's government for the same on March 29.

The recruiting of this number of men and their organization into four regiments, which were designated the 3rd, 4th, 5th and 6th Regiments Canadian Mounted

Rifles, was immediately proceeded with.

The work of raising the corps referred to in the foregoing paragraphs, clothing and equipping them and paying all expenses in connection therewith was carried on by the department of Militia and Defence on behalf of the Imperial government. The work involved was not in any degree lessened by the fact that the expenditure in connection therewith was to be borne by the Imperial government instead of, as in the case of the 1st and 2nd contingents, by the government of the Dominion. On the contrary, your anxiety that there should be no unnecessary expenditure was shared by all, and the same care which would have been taken to safeguard the treasury if the expense was to be borne by the Dominion, was taken in the interest of the Imperial government. All the work in connection with these contingents was performed by, practically, the regular staff of the department, who have been untiring in the discharge of their respective duties.

The status of these corps, as far as the department of Militia and Defence was concerned, was that of Lord Strathcona's Horse. In organizing the latter regiment the department acted as Lord Strathcona's agent. When the work of organizing was complete and the regiment had embarked the department had nothing further to do with it. The officers were given temporary rank in the army, and Lord Strathcona's Horse thus became a temporary corps in it. On the expiration of its service the men were discharged and settled with as if they belonged to a corps in the Imperial service.


HONORABLE CHARLES FITZPATRICK



HON. Charles Fitzpatrick, K.C., M.P., Minister of Justice and Attorney General of Canada, is the third son of the late John Fitzpatrick, Lumber Merchant, Quebec. He was born in Quebec Dec. 19th, 1853, and was educated at St. Anne's College, at the Quebec Seminary, and at Laval University, where he took the degree of B. A., in 1873. He likewise followed the law course at the last named Institution, winning the Governor General Medal in 1876 and taking the degree of B.C.L. in the same year, when he also began the practice of his profession in his native city. He was appointed Crown Prosecutor for the District in 1879 and again in 1887. Becoming one of the leaders of the Quebec Bar, he was employed as counsel for the U.S. Government in the Eno extradition case, and for the Belgian Government in the Canon Bernard case. In 1885 he was Chief Counsel for Louis Riel, tried for high treason and executed at Regina. He also

defended Madame Boutet in the Murray Bay poisoning case. In October, 1892, he defended the late Hon. Honoré Mercier and Ernest Pacaud in the prosecutions following the fall of the Mercier Administration. Mr. Fitzpatrick also defended the late Hon. Thomas McGreevy, M.P., before the Privileges and Election Committee.



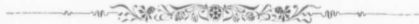
He was created a K.C. in 1893 and was called to the Ontario Bar in 1896. In 1897 he represented the Dominion Government before the Privy Council, England, in the Fisheries case. A Liberal in politics, Mr. Fitzpatrick sat for Quebec county, in the Quebec Assembly, in that interest from the General Election, 1890, to the Dominion General Election, 1896, when he resigned and was returned for the same constituency to the House of

Commons, being re-elected in 1900 by a largely increased majority. On the formation of the Government of Sir Wilfrid Laurier in July, 1896, he was appointed Solicitor General, and on the elevation of the Hon. David Mills to the Bench of the Supreme Court of Canada, in February

1902, he became Minister of Justice and Attorney General in the same administration. He declined the position of Attorney General for the Province of Quebec in 1891. An Irish Catholic, Mr. Fitzpatrick was for some years President of the Irish National League, (Quebec Branch) and was elected a delegate to the Irish National Convention at Dublin in 1896. Mr. Fitzpatrick married, in May 1879, Corinne, daughter of the late Hon. R. E. Caron, who closed his distinguished

public career as Lieutenant-Governor of Quebec.

Mr. Fitzpatrick is an orator of a very high order, a sound reasoner and keen debator. In the higher office he has at once taken a position in the front rank of Ministers, and has proved himself to be a worthy successor to the now long line of distinguished jurists who have held the office of Dominion Attorney General and Minister of Justice.



THE HONORABLE JAMES SUTHERLAND



THE Honorable James Sutherland, M.P. for North Oxford, is a son of the late Alexander Sutherland, a native of Caithness-shire, Scotland, who came to Canada in 1841, and of his wife, Allison, daughter of the

and a large amount of Scotch caution. Mr. Sutherland has always taken a great interest in the development of the County of Oxford and the City of Woodstock, where his home is, and has been actively connected with all the railway and other enterprises which have tended

late John Renton. Born July 17, 1849. Educated at Grammar School, Woodstock, Ont.

In 1869, when only 30 years of age, he started a mercantile business in Woodstock, and afterwards became interested in various manufacturing industries. On the discovery, by Mr. Thomas L. Willson, of calcium carbide as a commercial commodity, he became connected with the inventor in its manufacture, and several large factories have been established in the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec. Mr. Sutherland has been successful in his business undertakings, and his career has been characterized by energy, tact



to their growth and development. In 1876 he was elected to the Town Council, and for three years was Reeve of the Town and a member of the County Council; in 1880 he was Mayor. He has always taken an active part in educational matters, holding the position of Trustee of the Woodstock Grammar School for many years. During his tenure of office the school rose steadily through the various grades of High School and Collegiate Institute until it became widely known as one of the foremost educational centres of the Province. Mr. Sutherland is a Charter Member of the Woodstock Board of Trade and has been a Trustee of the

Woodstock Hospital since its inception. In fraternal circles he has been connected with the Masonic Order and the Independent Order of Oddfellows, being P. G. of Olive Branch Lodge I.O.O.F., and P. M. of Oxford Lodge A. F. & A.M., and Grand Senior Warden of the Grand Lodge of Ontario. He has also been Royal Chief of the Order of Scottish Clans.

In militia matters he has also been prominent; he joined the 32nd Battalion of Oxford Rifles when a boy and still holds the position of Paymaster in that Battalion with the rank of Major.

Mr. Sutherland's Parliamentary career commenced in 1880, when he was elected to represent North Oxford at the bye-election caused by the sudden death of Mr. Thomas Oliver, M.P., and he has remained the representative of that riding ever since, having been successively re-elected at the general elections 1882-87-91-96-1900 and again in 1903 on his appointment as a Minister of the Crown with a portfolio. For many years he was Assistant Whip of the Liberal party in the House of Commons, and, on the death of the late James Trow, M.P., was chosen Chief Liberal Whip. In this position he did his party good service and won the esteem alike of political friends and opponents. In 1893 he was Chairman of the Committee of General Arrangements of the Liberal Conference at Ottawa, that notable and historic gathering of prominent and representative men from all parts of the Dominion which contributed so much to the success of the Liberal party at the next general election. He had charge of the tour which was taken by Sir Wilfrid Laurier and a party of prominent leaders of the then opposition to the Pacific Coast in 1894; this trip was

also very successful in arousing party enthusiasm and increasing the zeal of the various organizations throughout the different sections of the Dominion. Mr. Sutherland has always been found an active supporter of every movement looking to the development of the resources of the Dominion. He has visited almost every part of the country and no one is more familiar with the local conditions or has a clearer grasp of the necessities of each district. On the formation of the Laurier Administration in 1896 he was offered a portfolio but on account of his many business interests declined. From 1896 to 1900 he was Chairman of the Railway Committee of the House of Commons. On the 30th of September, 1899, he was called to the Privy Council as Minister without portfolio. In the absence of the Hon. Mr. Sifton, during the session of 1900, he was Acting Minister of Interior; and was Acting Postmaster-General in 1901 while Sir William Mulock was absent in Australia as Canadian representative at the inauguration of the Austrian Commonwealth. In January, 1902, he was sworn in as Minister of Marine and Fisheries, and while occupying this position took up the improvement of the aids to navigation, especially along Canada's great waterway, the St. Lawrence, and in other parts of the Dominion as well, with a vigor and success which gave great satisfaction to the shipping and mercantile interests of the country. In October of the same year he was transferred from the Department of Marine and Fisheries to that of Public Works. He is unmarried. A Presbyterian. Address, Woodstock, Ont. Is a member of the Toronto and National Clubs, Toronto, The Rideau, Ottawa and St. James, Montreal.



RAYMOND PREFONTAINE



JOSEPH Raymond Fournier Préfontaine, K.C., member of Parliament, has long been known as one of the leading public men of the Montreal district. He has been an active figure in municipal, provincial and federal politics for upwards of a quarter of a century, and wields a forceful influence in the Canadian metropolis and throughout the Province of Quebec, where his whole career has been spent. He comes of a family that made its home in New France in 1680. Mr. Préfontaine was born in Longueuil, Quebec, on the 16th September, 1850, his parents being Toussaint Fournier Préfontaine and Ursule Lamarre. He enjoyed a liberal education, first by private tuition and then at St. Mary's College, Montreal, and finally at McGill University, Montreal, from which he graduated with the degree B. C. L.

He was called to the Bar in 1873, at the age of twenty-three, and entered forthwith upon the practice of Law. His rise in the profession was rapid. It was soon recognized that the young man was possessed of good powers of speech and ability to bring out the strong points of

cases entrusted to his care. In 1893 he was created a K.C. by the Earl of Derby, Governor General of the Dominion. The law firm of which he is head is known as Préfontaine, Archer, Perron & Taschereau.

He interested himself in politics as a very young man, and at the age of twenty-four represented the electoral district of Chambly in the local legislature at Quebec. That seat he retained from 1875 to 1881.

The same constituency he was later called upon to represent in the House of Commons at Ottawa. Mr. Préfontaine was offered the Liberal nomination in Chambly before the bye-election of 1886, and



was returned for the same county at the succeeding general election of 1881 and 1891. These nine years were passed in Opposition, the reins of power at Ottawa being controlled by the Conservative party. But in 1896 he shared the pleasure of his fellow-Liberals in witnessing the triumph of a cause which he had long supported on the left-hand side of the Chamber. The subject of this sketch was elected for the new district of Maisonneuve at the general election of 1896, and in 1900 was returned both in Maisonneuve and in the County of Terrebonne. Of recent years he has not been a frequent participant in the Commons debates but has devoted a very large share of his time to the care of the interests with which he is entrusted. He has watched all legislation affecting the important community in which he resides, the business centre of the Dominion, and is beyond question one of the strongest leaders the Liberal party has in that section of the Dominion. He has held the Presidency of the

Young Liberal Association of Canada.

In municipal life his career has been even more conspicuous. He was Mayor of Hochelaga from 1879 till 1883, when he passed into the City Council of Montreal. He played a leading part in the transactions of that assembly until 1902, when of his own volition he retired from the chief magistrate's chair, in favor of an Englishman, after holding that office since 1898. He has been a member of the Board of School Commissioners of the City of Montreal since 1886.

He is on the directorate of several leading companies, including the Confederation Life Assurance Company. In the Cabinet reconstruction in the autumn of 1902, at the solicitation of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Mr. Préfontaine became Minister of Marine and Fisheries. Mr. Préfontaine married in June 1876, Hermantine, daughter of the late Hon. J. B. Rolland, in his life-time a member of the Canadian Senate. He has three sons, Rolland, Adrien and Ferland, attending school.



SIR WILLIAM MULOCK



SIR William Mulock is the second son of the late Thomas Honan Mulock, of Banagher, Ireland, a member of the Royal College of Surgeons, and his wife, Mary,

market High School and Toronto University, from which institution he graduated in 1863, gold medalist in Modern Languages. In 1894, his Alma Mater conferred upon him the degree of LL.D. He



a daughter of the late John Cawthra, a Yorkshireman, at one time a member of the Legislature of Upper Canada. He was born on the 19th January, 1843, at Bond Head, in the Riding he has represented in the House of Commons for over twenty years. He was educated in New-

market High School and Toronto University, from which institution he graduated in 1863, gold medalist in Modern Languages. In 1894, his Alma Mater conferred upon him the degree of LL.D. He was called to the Ontario Bar in 1868, and was for many years actively engaged in the practice of his profession in Toronto. In addition to an extensive practice, he took on himself the duty of law lecturer and examiner for the Law Society of Upper Canada, and in 1890 was created a Q.C.

The affairs of Toronto University have ever had a warm interest for him. In 1873 he was elected a member of the University Senate and has enjoyed a seat in that body ever since. In the year 1881, he was elected Vice-Chancellor, a position which he held until 1900, when his pre-occupation with public affairs obliged him to relinquish it. He took a leading part in the important movement which resulted in the federation of the several denominational colleges with Toronto University. He founded the William Mulock scholarship in mathematics.

Sir William Mulock entered public life in 1882, being elected in the House of Commons in the Liberal interest by the Riding of North York. He has represented this constituency continuously since that time, being elected by acclamation on his acceptance in 1896 of the portfolio of Postmaster General in the Ministry of Sir Wilfrid Laurier. The Post Office Department has exhibited greater energy and has more important results to show under the guidance of Sir William Mulock than at any former period in its history. Under his administration the postal rates have been reduced to a point lower than in any other country in the world; at his instance, a postal territory has been created comprising the whole British Empire, within which letters may circulate at a rate as low as the domestic rates in Canada and Great Britain; and within large sections of which, including Great Britain, Canadian newspapers may pass at the Canadian domestic rates; and he has achieved what his predecessors pronounced the impossible. When he entered office there was a deficit of \$781,000. With a reduction of 60 per cent. in the Interimperial rate, and of 33½ per cent. in the domestic rate, this deficit has been entirely wiped out. In

1902 there was a surplus of \$5,000, which will be found largely increased at the end of the fiscal year 1903.

In 1898, Sir William Mulock entered upon negotiations which resulted in the holding of an Interimperial Postal Conference at which all parts of the Empire were represented for the consideration of a proposition looking to a reduction of the rates on letters, newspapers, periodicals, etc., within the Empire. At this conference his resolution for the adoption of the penny letter rate within the Empire was accepted. This decision resulted in the establishment, on Christmas Day, 1898, of the penny letter rate between Canada and the Mother Country, and to its subsequent extension, until at the present time it applies universally throughout the Empire, except on letters from Australia.

It was deemed expedient at this conference to press for the reduction of the newspaper rate, but the opportunity for doing so presented itself at the Interimperial Conference held in London, in the summer of 1902. On this occasion Sir William Mulock offered to the conference the following resolution:

"That it is advisable to adopt the principle of cheap postage between the different parts of the British Empire on all newspapers and periodicals published therein, and the Prime Ministers desire to draw the attention of His Majesty's Government to the question of a reduction in the outgoing rate. They consider that each government should be allowed to determine the amount to which it may reduce such rate, and the time for such reduction going into effect."

This resolution was unanimously adopted and the reduction has already gone into effect to a considerable extent in respect of newspapers and periodicals

sent from Canada to other parts of the Empire.

Up to the present time all portions of the Empire have not yet consented to such reduction, but the following have done so:

United Kingdom, Bahamas, Barbados, Bermuda, British Honduras, Ceylon, Cyprus, Gambia, Hong Kong, New Zealand, Sarawak, Transvaal and Zanzibar. Accordingly the Canadian domestic rate on newspapers and periodicals extends to the same matter when transmitted to the various parts of the Empire enumerated.

On the 1st January, 1899, the Canadian domestic rate on letters was reduced from 3 cents per oz. to 2 cents per oz., and as the convention between this country and the United States provides that the domestic rate of each country shall carry letters to all parts of the other country, the reduced rate applies to the United States as well.

While in London in 1898, attending the Interimperial Postal Conference, Sir William Mulock gave his attention to the

Pacific Cable scheme, which at that time had little prospect of being realized. Its position was very like that of the Interimperial Penny Postage proposition, until the latter was taken hold of by Sir William Mulock. It had a few strenuous advocates, who urged its claims to public consideration, but these had not brought the proposition to a practical issue. Taking advantage of the presence of the representatives of the several governments interested, he brought about a meeting of them, and proposals were discussed, which formed the basis of the present arrangements for the management of the scheme. In 1899, he introduced a bill, which was adopted by Parliament, legalizing the propositions agreed upon at the conference. This was the first legislation adopted within the Empire bearing on this important measure.

In June, 1901, Sir William Mulock was present as the delegate from Canada at the opening ceremonies of the first Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia.





Honorable William Stevens Fielding



ON. William Stevens Fielding, the present Minister of Finance, was born in Halifax, Nova Scotia, November 24th, 1848. He was educated in his native city, and after leaving

paper. Many able men contributed to the editorial pages of the paper during that period, such as Joseph Howe, William Annand, and many others. The young man, alert, intelligent and ambitious was not slow in grasping the spirit of the times



school at the age of sixteen, he commenced his career in the business office of the *Morning Chronicle*. About that time the agitation for the confederation of the provinces was becoming hot, and the *Chronicle* had shortly been converted into a daily from a tri-weekly

and going into the work of the paper in a determine manner. The staff in the newspaper office was not so heavy in those days as they are at the present juncture, and there were no special departments and no such organization as there is to-day, and Mr. Fielding being blessed with a consid-

erable amount of brains soon became acquainted with newspaper work of every description. He wrote his first editorial within three years from the time of his entering the office of the *Chronicle*. Young Fielding became a sort of all-round man in connection with newspaper office work. During the course of a day he would attend to the local work, act as proof reader, look after the mailing department and write the daily editorials. He made himself thoroughly acquainted with the political conditions of the province, and no man understood better the temper of the people than he did, that was during the stirring times of the confederation movement, and he was a strong anti-confederationist. When Mr. Fielding did something it was well done, and no doubt to that fact is largely due his success in all his undertakings later on in life. He was twenty years connected with the *Chronicle*, and acted as Nova Scotia correspondent of the *Toronto Globe* for fourteen years. He evinced a keen interest in politics at an early age, and entered the political arena in 1882, when he was returned to the Halifax legislature from Halifax County. Mr. Fielding, owing to his ability, tact and genial disposition was tendered the Premiership in July, 1882, by the Liberal party on the resignation Holmes Thomp-

son Government, which he declined. However, two years later, in July, 1884, on the retirement of Mr. Pipes, Mr. Fielding was requested to form a cabinet by the Lieutenant-Governor. He complied with the request and formed a cabinet which held the confidence of the electorate for many years. He assumed the Provincial Secretaryship, which meant the administration of the financial affairs of the province as well. In 1890, on the formation of the Liberal administration at Ottawa, Sir Wilfred was not slow in recognizing the great ability of Mr. Fielding, and consequently induced him to become Minister of Finance, a position he has filled with credit to himself and honor to the government of which he is a member. In 1897, he introduced a new tariff measure and startled the House of Commons by the granting of preferential trade with Great Britain. He was chosen one of the vice-chairmen of the Ottawa Liberal Convention held in June, 1893, and in November, 1895, he was elected vice-president of the Maritime Province Liberal Association. For several years he was president of the Halifax St. George's Society. Mr. Fielding is a member of the Church of England, and married Hester, daughter of Thomas A. Rankine, of St. John, N. B.

HON. LOUIS PHILIPPE BRODEUR

THAT the province of Quebec has given to our country some of the most noted personages that adorn the pages of the history of Canada, goes without saying.

many years in which the nerve, courage, pluck and patriotism of men were more tested and found of the true calibre than in the troublesome times of 1837-1838.

Among the many ardent and trusted patriots of that time was Toussaint Bro-



When we glance down the roll of generations that have passed, from the time that Paul Chomedy de Maisonneuve landed on our shores and erected an altar on Place Royale at which the first mass was celebrated, there is no period in those

deur, the father of the subject of this sketch, and Pierre Lambert, his grandfather, who, with their compatriots, braved the shock of battle during the whole time of the uprising, to which, no doubt, is largely due the fact that to-day we enjoy

that constitutional government and freedom for which the patriots shed their blood. The elder Brodeur was a native of Belœil, his ancestors came to Canada in the latter part of the 17th century, from La Vendée, a Province in France. Hon. Louis Philippe Brodeur was born at Belœil in 1862, he was sent to the village school at an early age. He entered the College of St. Hyacinthe, then he completed his law course at Laval University, from which institution he graduated LL. B., he was called to the Bar in 1884, he studied law with the late Hon. Honoré Mercier, and also with the Hon. A. Clate. Geoffrion, with whom he remained for several years. Hon. M. Brodeur has written largely for the press and published in 1896 a new paper called "Le Soir," which was the accredited organ of the Liberal Party led by Sir Wilfrid Laurier. He is at present connected with the law firm of Dandurand, Brodeur & Boyer. Mr. Brodeur was elected to the House of Commons at the general elections in 1891 for the county of Rouville, he was re-elected in 1896, and again in 1900. He was appointed Deputy Speaker of the

House of Commons and Chairman of Committees in August, 1896, and was elected Speaker of that body on the 5th day of February, 1901, which position, it is needless to say, he fills with dignity and decorum, his splendid physique and soldierly bearing no doubt adds considerable lustre to the position he so ably fills. Mr. Brodeur commands the respect of every member of the House, irrespective of party.

He is a Liberal in politics, a Canadian above all; he is kind, genial and hospitable in the extreme, treats everybody who has the pleasure of meeting him in a courteous, friendly and gentlemanly way, that makes one feel that they are the better for having met him, and is popular with all classes of the community.

The Hon. Louis Philippe Brodeur, who is still a young man, was certainly born to be a leader of men, and we have no hesitation in saying that the time is not far distant when he will be called upon by his fellow countrymen to serve them in a still more exalted position than he at present occupies.




Hon. Senator L. O. David


PERHAPS there is no man whose name is recorded in the pages of this work who has had a more honorable career than the subject of this sketch. Like all lofty characters and brainy men, he is modest, unassuming and genial, possessed of a kindly and sympathetic nature, a broad mind and a noble soul that at once commands the respect, admiration and esteem of all with whom he comes in contact—a writer, a historian, an author, an orator and philosopher. His great talents have ever been devoted to the cause of his fellow countrymen, and much time and consideration as to the best means to be adopted whereby the condition of the masses might be made easier, and that all who have to work for wages may receive their full and just share of the wealth created by the product of their labor, he has been always willing to extend a helping hand, by his voice, pen and purse, to his less fortunate fellow-citizens, and no man is more widely known and beloved throughout the Province of Quebec than Hon. Laurent Olivier David, who

was born at Sault au Recollet on the 24th of March, 1840. He was educated at the College of Ste. Thérèse and was admitted to the Bar in 1864. He began early to evince a literary taste, and while a student he assisted in founding *Le Colonisateur* newspaper, to which he was a constant contributor. Mr. David began the practice

of his profession by entering into partnership with the late Judge Mousseau, who afterwards became Premier of Quebec. He, in conjunction with Messrs. Mousseau and Desbarats, in 1870, established a weekly newspaper, *L'Opinion Publique*, of which he became its chief editor. Owing to a disagreement with his associates on the Canadian Pacific Railway, he severed his connection with the paper. He, with Mr. Beausoleil,



now Postmaster, Montreal, in 1874 founded *Le Bien Public*, which enjoyed a reign of prosperity up to the time of its advocacy of protection and its crusade against the Catholic clergy for their unwarranted interference in politics at election times, when through the influence of both elements the paper was forced to cease publication. He was afterwards appointed

translator to the House of Commons by the Mackenzie Government, a position he might have retained permanently, but in 1878 on the return of Sir John Macdonald to power he again resumed the practice of his profession, and also published a weekly paper called *La Tribune*. In his early political career Mr. David was a Conservative, but abandoned that party to become a member of L'Union Nationale, an organization of young men opposed to Confederation. He became connected with the Liberal party later on under Dorion, Holton and Laflamme, agreeing with them on all questions of policy, except that of protection, in which he was always a believer. He is a close personal friend of Sir Wilfrid Laurier.

The Senator was very unfortunate in his political contests, being defeated twice for the House of Commons, and also on two occasions for the Legislature. In 1880 he was returned to the Legislature from Montreal East, defeating Attorney General Taillon, but declined re-nomination in 1900, owing to the fact that he could not accept in its entirety the policy of the late Mr. Mercier. It may be here mentioned that no representative of the people performed his parliamentary duties more faithfully, honorably and zealously than Mr. David. He was, as he is to-day, the truest and most untiring friend of the working people that ever occupied a seat in the Quebec Legislature, or any other legislature in the Dominion. He was ever on the alert to have laws amended, or new ones enacted, for the purpose of bettering the condition of the wage earner, and it was felt to be a great loss to the

community at large when Mr. David retired from the Legislature. He is the soul of honor, unlike the average politician, he could always be relied upon to carry out his promises to the letter. The statute books of Quebec Province contains many enactments for the amelioration of the condition of workpeople, which were conceived and pushed through by Mr. David.

He represented the Province in 1885 at the French Canadian National Convention held at Nashua, N. H. He is an ardent French Canadian, and has done much to foster and strengthen the national spirit in the Province of Quebec. He was President of St. Jean-Baptiste Society, 1887-8, and to his many years of untiring energy is largely due the fact that the French Canadian people of Montreal are in possession of that magnificent structure Le Monument National. The Senator is also conspicuous as a literateur; in that connection some of his works include, "Biographies et Portraits," "Les Heros de Chateauguay," "Les Patriotes de 1837-38," "Mes Contemporains," "Les deux Papineau, Le Clergé Canadien sa Mission, son Oeuvre (do)." The author in the last named work strongly condemned the undue intervention of the Catholic clergy in matters of a political nature. The book was afterwards placed under the ban, although approved by many eminent theologians.

Mr. David was appointed to the Senate June 18th, 1903, to which body he will be quite an acquisition, by reason of the fact that he is brainy, broad-minded and radical, a deep thinker, a sound reasoner and logical debater.



BANK OF MONTREAL



YOU may stand on the portico of the Bank of Montreal to-day and look forth upon a scene from which historian or romancer might draw volumes of information as to the present, or weave webs of legendary lore concerning the past to supply even this generation. It is the Place d'Armes the eye rests upon. There stands a statue of Maisonneuve, founder of Montreal. He is in heroic poise and is but the central giant of romantic figures, representing scenes in 1642, when Montreal first began to live. The savage Iroquois are also there vividly represented.

There are the old stone walls of the Seminary of St. Sulpice of the Roman Catholic Church which went cross in hand in the conquest of savage Indian, forest and flood. Alongside this is the magnificent pile of Notre Dame Church—a triumph in itself. This it is that faces the Montreal Bank, grey and uprearing. On either side of the square huge mercantile buildings rise—their architecture vainly seeking to out-do the strong, grey limestone of the church and of the bank. Out-do the bank's architecture? That portico stands boldly forth—has stood for nearly half a century; and yet no building has been erected that can approach in majesty those fine Corinthian columns. They stand like a strong sentinel to guard Canadian credit in architecture as the bank does in finance. Nevertheless the insurance buildings represent immense commercial progress.

Not everyone can read the descriptive carving which the columns of the Bank of Montreal support above. It is a bit of artistic beauty, done in artistic sculptor work, colossal in size. It pictures Canadian industry, navigation, and produce of soil and forest, while the Indian figures so stately and graceful on either side of the shield and motto "concordia salus" might easily be assumed to be the representatives of a savage race and primeval soil tamed by the golden sway of commerce. The figures repay scrutiny, so vividly do they amplify our Canadian success, though they were but vaguely prophetic—it must be owned—when carved over thirty years ago. Flanked on the right and left by the Post-Office building and the Imperial building, with those most massive buildings of the great insurance companies in full view, the grand portico of the Bank of Montreal, its majestic dome, and the staircase which leads to the main entrance all mark it as unequalled. The carved panelling on the wings of the front show that artists were not in a hurry in the days when the work was done, for it is such as stands very close inspection.

To those who have seen the different branches of the Bank of Montreal in the City and elsewhere it is plain that the bank's founders and the directors and managers who have come upon the scene since have encouraged a love for admirable and beautiful surroundings as well as mercantile stability. This feature as an educator stands out in every one of the

branch bank buildings built. Wherever they are, they easily take the lead in design, finish, and convenience.

It is a far cry to 1817, when the Montreal Bank was first organized. It is difficult even to think of the fifties, when Canada was in the stage of prophetic struggle—when the cry “fifty-four-forty or fight” was still ringing in the ears of Canadians, as a sort of prelude to their loss of the territory Britain claimed as hers, and which was held down as far as the Columbia River by the Hudson Bay adventurers. Black as the future looked when they were ordered beyond the 49th parallel of latitude, bad as the Crimean war and Indian mutiny times augured for Canada, there were glimmers of hope. The Bank of Montreal can be recalled by some of the old guard, standing like a strong tower in the scenes of small commercial doings, when our imports were in 1853, all told, about £7,995,359, and our exports, £5,959,325. Small as the figures were, they were all to the men of the province of Canada who were carving out for posterity the Dominion of this day. Our imports to day for Quebec and Ontario are \$158,869,419; our exports \$139,648,681.

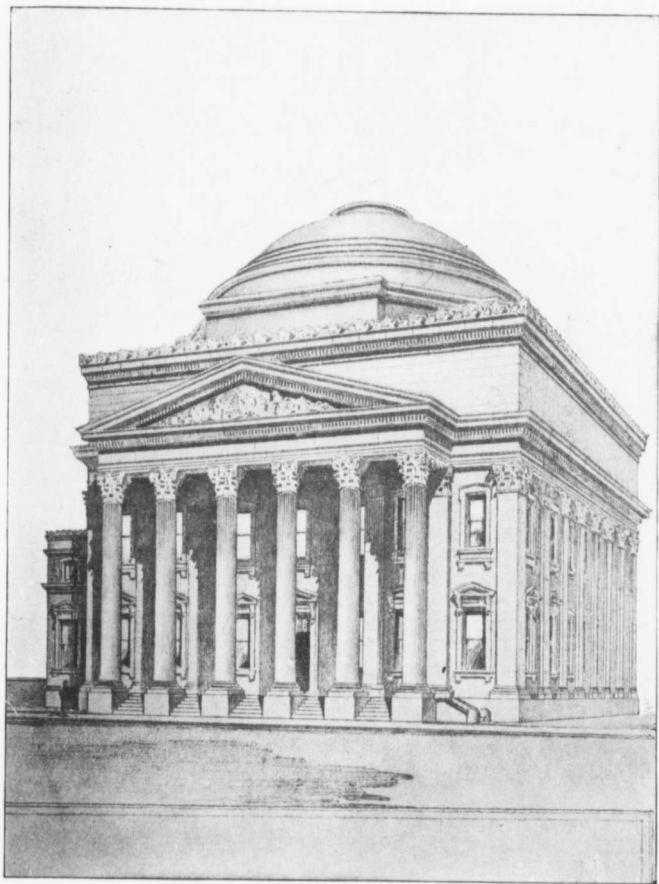
It has been said that fighting was not the only difficulty Wolfe had to encounter in the conquest of Canada, and that the men who saved the country from the United States invasion in 1812-14 were as badly off as Wolfe had been as to the issue of legal tender with which to pay the troops and secure means for the campaign. So loyal were many of Wolfe's soldiers that they became his bankers as well as his warriors, and loaned him their own money for the sinews of war. From 1814 when the paper of the military period was somewhat too liberally held in the country,

to the day the Montreal Bank commenced business in 1817 was not long. The war paper had been dealt in, more or less, by the traders and merchants. It is even said by some writers that it was this position of the army to the trade that was the real reason for the formation of the new bank.

But though banking has its wars and its strifes, war is not banking; and we must recur to the story of the bank's original foundation.

“After the close of the war,” says Kingsford, “and when the redemption of the army bills had been concluded, much inconvenience was felt by the contraction of the currency, and the establishment of a bank was revived. There was no public demand for a charter nor was any circular published and distributed among the commercial community; at least none such is known. On the 23rd of June, 1817, several persons met in Montreal and, under signed articles of agreement, subscribed a joint stock of £25,000 (one million of dollars), which was transferable. In August an office was opened as ‘the Bank of Montreal.’ An act incorporating the association was passed in the session of 1818, and was reserved for the royal pleasure. By an arbitrary, ill-considered proceeding of the colonial office, the act was withheld; under what plea it would be hard to explain satisfactorily. The bank could therefore only continue its operations as a mercantile firm of several partners. The Bank of Montreal was opened for business on Monday, the 3rd of November, 1817, with a paid up capital of \$350,000. The building was situated in St. Paul street, between Saint Nicholas and Saint Francois Xavier streets, and belonged to the Armour estate.”

Whatever may have been unknown in Britain concerning the resources of Canada, they were known, recognized and every legitimate measure to develop them encouraged by the men who founded the Bank of Montreal. It became to the country, in time, at least in one respect what the Bank of England is to the Em-



BANK OF MONTREAL, 1903

pire at this day, a tower of strength. It may be said to have proved as much a part of the integral structure of Canada's Government as the succeeding Governments of the day; and more abiding, as needs must, of course, in the promises and the fulfilment of them. How often the Bank of Montreal has proved that its stability stood in the breach to repel national disaster it would be highly interesting for some historian to relate.

Meantime let us glance at the progress of the corporation from 1817 onward.

The Bank of Montreal's first building for many a year was an object of great pride to Montreal people. It stood where now stands the Montreal Post Office. But it did not by any means occupy all that fine large space. A garden embellished the bank building on either side, and in June of each year boys whose hair is now white clung to the garden railing fence and revelled in the scent of luxuriant lilac trees that in June cast robust flowers about their branches in great profusion. Their perfume pervaded that region. This was in the fifties, long after the bank had secured its place among the monetary institutions of America. That it was to take a further place of strength, how many except the strong, vigorous men of its executive would have dreamed. One feature became strongly marked—the confidence in it of the Government and the people. Whatever the enterprise, be it Northwest fur trader or Hudson Bay adventurer, railway or telegraph, mining, hunting or fisheries exploration or mining prospecting, the bank was either in close touch with or thoroughly acquainted with its operations.

Men see our future through brighter glasses than when the home colonial officials refused the bank charter. It is a

pity they had not had a clearer perception when they framed our boundaries, especially at the eastern and western extremities of our territories.

That there has been many a crisis of provincial and afterwards of national importance the ups and downs of commercial life show. Year after year, however, the bank met its obligations and paid its dividends. Numbering among its directorate gentlemen strong in their commercial knowledge and grasp of Canada's position, with a corps of officials from the general manager down trained in the business of the country, its geography, its resources, and cognizant of the personnel of their largest as well as their smallest clients or customers, its branches in London, New-York, Chicago, presided over by able financial men, its grasp upon commercial life could hardly be otherwise than safe and firm. Much more to the point, however, has been its knowledge of Canada's extent and resources. There have been occasions when this was essential, if not actually necessary. It need hardly be stated that in the first twenty years of the bank's operations its capital had to be increased epoch after epoch in order to meet the business of the mercantile world. Starting with \$350,000 paid up in 1817, it reached \$12,000,000 in 1873, and its rest or reserve some \$6,000,000 more, making in all \$18,000,000. It had had some part in the pushing of the railway service, the telegraph lines, the Atlantic cable service, had seen the ocean lane or channel cut through Lake St. Peter and the Lachine Canal, and our immense canal system grow up to that time. No improvement of value and necessity was suggested that did not gain its support.

More stirring times were in store, however, for Canada—and they are coming

yet. How much the Dominion owed to the bank in a purely sentimental degree apart altogether from the loans to the makers of the great Canadian Pacific Railway, chroniclers may form theoretical guesses at in the future. It has never yet been told. There were occasions when Lord Mount Stephen, who is remembered as the ninth president of the bank, must have wooed the dispenser of patience. On one

future wheat granary. On the other hand were the ignorant majority too dense to learn at first from the lessons given them the prophetic pictures drawn by this syndicate of the Canadian Pacific Railway. Every agent that could be used to embarrass and thwart was tried to destroy the enterprise. It was not a traitorous business. It was party politics. Their opponents were in most instances as sin-



BANK OF MONTREAL, 1818

side with him were a small band of gentlemen who had courage and knowledge. The public voice called them the C. P. R. syndicate. They were looking in their mind's eye at an open map, upon which was spread the wheat fields of Northwest Canada—with two broad bands of steel running across it and trains carrying to Canadian seaports of Montreal, Quebec, Halifax and St. John the cereals of the world's

cere as they were ignorant. What the then bank president's feelings were when on one occasion he felt constrained to tell the shareholders of the bank in annual meeting assembled, that not a dollar of the bank's money had been placed in that railway or any other that was not fully secured, it would be difficult to say. That there came a day when he and his colleagues could foregather over a completed

railway, rejoice with the sound of revelry that followed the departure of the first train over the continent—Montreal to Vancouver—has all been told. That the Dominion will never be able to requite the daring of these gentlemen is as sure as that they never will attempt it. It has been said corporations have no souls. Has any one ever discovered the soul of a growing colony?

There must be a minority, however, who thought and believed in the men at the helm, as day by day they read of the situation. They must now rejoice that there really was wealth reaped by the daring C. P. R. syndicate, and that the bank which also stood by them was no loser in the great national venture, so lucrative to its promoters at this day and so great a factor in the progress of the Dominion.

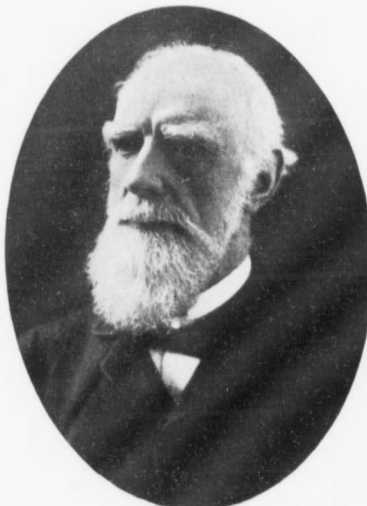
There was perhaps no time during the whole of the bank's history more trying than the last years of the general managership of Mr. R. B. Angus. It was the period of a great crisis in commercial life, during which the powers of the bank were called upon again and again to carry over clients whose fall would have meant disaster in a general sense. The lowest price probably the stock of the bank ever

reached was in that year. It went to 128½. It was well that so keen and so experienced a financier was at the helm of the bank at such a time. It has been at such a juncture that the right man seemed there for the purpose. Each emergency found the man in place, whether as General Manager or as President. The period from 1869 to 1879 was certainly a decade remarkable for

its financial difficulties, and which Mr. Angus happily saw the end of before he retired. It is a question if the awful days of 1857 were any worse.

Looking back to the original founders of the bank one sees in the front line that has come down to us men who have made our commercial community what it is. John Richardson, of Forsyth, Richardson & Co.; George Garden, of Maitland, Garden & Auldjo; George Moffat, of Gerrard, Gillespie & Co.;

Thomas A. Turner, Robert Armour, James Leslie, Horatio Gates, John C. Bush, and Austin Cuvillier are given as the gentlemen who signed the articles of association under which the bank was created. The presidents in their order are given by a chronicler of the bank as follows: John Gray, 1817-1820. Horatio Gates, 1826. Hon. John Molson, 1826-1835. Hon. Peter



LORD STRATHCONA AND MOUNT ROYAL, PRESIDENT
A Biography of his Lordship appears on page 9

McGill, 1835-1860. T. B. Anderson, 1860-1869. E. H. King, 1869-1873. David Torrance, 1873-1875. Lord Mount Stephen, 1876-1881. C. F. Smithers, 1881-1887. Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, 1887-1903. It might almost be said that a biographical sketch of each of these gentlemen would form a history of Canadian finance. The Hon. John Molson, whose interest in the steam navigation and his sons in railway enterprise made their mark; the Hon. Peter McGill, whose name in philanthropy as well as education is perpetuated, were worthy forerunners of illustrious successors.

There were no general managers in early Canadian banking. They were called cashiers then, and it was later that by act of Parliament on Mr. Davidson's suggestion the name of the chief officer of the Bank of Montreal was changed from cashier to general manager. It was Mr. Robert Griffin that was the first cashier. He held office until 1827. Benjamin Holmes succeeded him and was in office for over 20 years, when he was followed by Mr. Alexander Simpson, who had managed the Quebec branch. Mr. Simpson retired in 1855, and it was the fortune of the bank, as already said above, to find in Mr. David Davidson the man for the dark days of 1857. Mr. Davidson's courage was equal to the occasion and his wise council was like the pilot to the smitten ship. He was a remarkable banker. Mr. E. H. King was on the scene, too. He had come with Mr. Davidson from the Bank of British North America. He also knew his business thoroughly, and it was under his presidency and Mr. R. B. Angus as general manager that the bank reached the position taken by it in 1873. Mr. King is regarded as an exceedingly brilliant banker, and his powers are spoken

of with admiration by men who recollect his administration. Mr. C. F. Smithers, also a graduate of the B.N.A. bank, was manager of the New York branch of the Montreal Bank when Mr. Angus retired. He was called to be general manager, and he succeeded so admirably that in two years he was elected president and died in harness in 1887, when Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal (then Sir Donald Smith) was elected in his place. Mr. W. J. Buchanan was appointed general manager and remained in office three years.

It was in 1890 that Mr. E. S. Clouston was appointed general manager. He had been on the staff of the bank for thirty years and knew not only the bank but the country its ramifications covered. He secured for the bank the financial agency for the Dominion Government in Great Britain, the bank having been the Government's Financial Agent in Canada from 1863. It has been Mr. Clouston's task to bring the bank into greater prominence than ever.

Something has been said about the dark days of 1879 and the dissipation of the clouds that many pessimists looked upon as a permanent shading of the Canadian outlook. The light of the western world had not then begun to make clear Canada's future. There were among the financial seers of the time some at least who had as clear a conception of what was before them as men could if walking in a mid-day sun. Mr. E. S. Clouston was the younger—Lord Strathcona the elder of two who had much to do with the events of the banking day then and afterwards. It is worth while to note that each had declared great confidence from time to time in the Northwest. But it came to Mr. Clouston's task in 1903, when president of the Canadian Bankers' Association,

to speak words that indicated prophecy fulfilled and that are a forecast of greater triumphs for Canadian generations yet to come. His words were a contribution well worthy of quoting here, in part, at least:

"Let me, however, briefly refer to some of the evidences of the progress already made. The assets of Canadian banks now total the large sum of \$610,928,000; a year ago they were \$553,900,000; ten years ago they were only \$291,600,000. We have more than doubled the volume of our business in a single decade. That the last twelve months have been profitable to us the fact that surplus earnings (the rest account) have risen from \$36,903,000 to \$41,130,000 bears convincing witness. Note circulation is a measure of the activity of a country's business. Ten years ago a bank circulation of \$34,000,000 was found adequate for the requirements of Canadian trade; a year ago \$56,000,000 sufficed, while to day the margin available on the amount the banks are authorized to circulate must be exceedingly small. Two other items may be cited. The deposits of the public in the banks, which in 1892 were \$161,000,000, are now \$359,800,000, a ratio of increase truly marvellous when contrasted with the number and comparatively slow increase of population. Commercial loans have risen to \$303,500,000 from \$286,000,000 a year ago, and are \$110,000,000 larger than in 1892. At the present time the Canadian people have on deposit in our banks and loan companies no less than \$460,000,000, or about eighty dollars per head of population, a fairly substantial token of thrift and well-being. Our foreign trade amounted to \$414,000,000 as compared with \$377,000,000 the preceding year, and \$230,000,000 ten years before. Agricultural and dairy products must ever constitute the largest part of our export trade, but it is significant of our growing industrial importance that in the year recently ended we sold to other countries manufactures to the extent of \$18,500,000, or about \$2,500,000 more than in the preceding twelve months. If our great natural advantages in the shape of magnificent water powers, situated within easy reach of ocean transportation, are utilized to their fullest capacity, these figures can be increased to an enormous extent, and there is little doubt that the future wealth and greatness of Canada may

be enhanced largely by a judicious development of our manufacturing resources.

No more remarkable incident in Mr. Clouston's career, perhaps, has been added to the bank's home history than the announcement that the shareholders would be asked to increase the bank's capital by two millions of dollars and the "rest" or reserve fund by seventy per cent. of the same. The meeting was held on June 7, 1903. Nearly all the directors were in the board room. The Hon. George Drummond was called to the chair. Mr. E. S. Clouston, the general manager, was with him at the head of the table. Mr. A. T. Paterson, Mr. R. B. Angus and others of the directors, were also in the board room, and Mr. James Aird acted as secretary. The Hon. Mr. Drummond briefly referred to the increased business of the Dominion, the expansion of the circulation and the necessity for increasing the bank's capital, as required by the banking act in order to allow the increase in circulation which the country demanded. Mr. Drummond then moved, seconded by Mr. A. T. Paterson the resolution that placed the capital of the bank at its present figures.

Step by step the bank's growth has been maintained until it stands now the third bank in the world, with its capital increased to \$14,000,000, its "rest" or reserve fund to \$10,000,000, and a balance carried forward of \$373,988 — in all \$24,373,988.

How clearly Mr. Clouston saw the coming of the golden days his own bank statements since have fully shown. It has come to the public over and over again from many sources that the time of Canada's growth is upon her. The demand for railways in the Northwest, the call for the fast line of steamers for the St.



HON. SENATOR DRUMMOND, Vice-President of the Bank, was born in Edinburgh, Scotland, in 1822. He came to Canada in 1854, to assume the management of the Redpath Sugar Refinery. He founded the Canada Sugar Refining Co. in 1879, of which he became President.



E. S. CLOUSTON, the General Manager of the Bank, was born at Moose Factory, North West Territory. He was educated in Montreal and entered the service of the Bank as a junior clerk, March 8th, 1865. Mr. Clouston was promoted from time to time, finally, becoming Assistant General Manager in 1887; Acting General Manager, 1889, and General Manager, 1892. Mr. Clouston is reported to be one of the ablest financiers in Canada.



R. B. ANGUS was born at Bathgrie, Scotland, in 1830, and came to Montreal in 1857, when he became connected with the Bank of Montreal. The many business enterprises and charitable institutions with which he is officially connected would require a whole page of this book to enumerate.



JAMES ROSS, Civil Engineer, was born in Cromasty, Scotland, in 1848. He came to America in 1870. For a number of years he occupied various positions on several Railways in the United States, such as resident engineer, Chief Engineer, General Manager, etc. He finally became a Railway contractor. Mr. Ross built many Railroads in America, and nearly all the Tramways in Canada.

Lawrence route, the plea for quicker and more careful transportation of produce, the extension of banks and increase of their circulation and branches, the attention of the civilized world drawn to our resources, the immense expenditure in iron and steel manufacturing and the better understanding of our mineral resources, all point to fulfillment of the prophetic picture.

Mr. Clouston's fortune is to have directors unsurpassed by any other institution in the Dominion who co-operate with him most loyally. Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal is at the head as president and the others are the Hon. Senator Drummond, Messrs. A. T. Paterson, E. B. Greenshields, Sir W. C. Macdonald, R. B. Angus, James Ross, R. G. Reid and the Hon. Robert Mackay. He has also the advantage of most able and experienced assistants in Mr. A. Macnider, chief inspector; Mr. H. V. Meredith, assistant general manager at Montreal; Mr. A. Lang, manager at London, England; Messrs. R. Y. Hebden and J. M. Greata, agents at New York; Mr. C. Sweeny, superintendent in British Columbia; Mr. J. W. de C. O'Grady, manager at Chicago; and the headquarters staff consisting of Mr. W. S. Clouston, inspector of Branch Returns; Mr. F. W. Taylor, assistant inspector; and Mr. James Aird, secretary.

A GREAT BANKING ROOM

The bank's premises stand apart, as to interior, from anything known in commercial life in Canada—perhaps on the American continent. It is the banking room proper that claims attention. Its rear extends to Craig street, reaching across what was once part of the wall of fortified Montreal. Its rear windows look out on Craig street, which once was the St. Pierre river and ran rapidly past

the wall and banks of the fort. This river is now a street—a perfectly paved way—and the rippling stream is forty feet below the surface doing duty darkly as the city's main sewer. But the visitor wants to hear none of this. It is the interior he is intent upon, as his eye catches the splendor of the banking room. Two polished columns standing upon black marble pedestals on either hand of him show a polish as brilliant as that of a sword blade, but of almost black color, heightened by the white marble flooring. Crossing this threshold with seven or eight paces, he comes to a standstill. Busy, bustling business people pass him by as though they knew all about this long ago. The scores of banking officials go about their work, watchful and keen. Men in neat uniforms or livery are there ready to supply information. The stranger only glances at all this. His eyes and senses are all for the classic picture before him. He has come to see, and wants to take it all in at a glance—an impossible feat; for he is in a long colonnade of polished granite with marble flooring, panels of terra cotta at either wall end, with white walls of marble reaching to the roof and there meeting the ceiling which is spread over all. The ceiling entrances him. It is as though the fairy field of the cloth of gold had been caught up with magical fingers and woven into a picture to baffle description and dazzle the eyes. The ceiling is slightly concave, and the golden cloth has fringed the pretty panels of milky white and deeper cream color with an effect rather pleasing, but not a little bewildering as the eye seeks to trace them. Like spangles from the cloth of gold, ornamental leaves are flecked here and there over the ceiling at proper intervals, and the climax of it all comes when the afternoon sun

shining through the windows on the north-west side sheds a softened glow upon the crowds of busy mortals below. All this he feasts his eyes upon at once. Then he commences to take in the details of this counting room, and sees that it is something like 175 feet from end to end and probably eighty feet wide. On either side at proper distances are arranged twelve columns of Vermont granite polished similarly to those at the portal. At either end are four other and similar columns. Each stands upon its own pedestal of polished black marble. Each is 27 feet high and has at its summit a capital gilt like burnished gold. These thirty-two columns and their capitals support at a height of thirty-one feet, the very neat entablature reaching over six feet higher and its superstructure that reaches to the ceiling under side, 54 feet. The central ceiling panels rise to 56 feet 6 inches. Nine windows in this superstructure let in the forenoon light and nine on the western side the afternoon sun. There are three similar windows at either end. As the light falls from the gilded ceiling panels, the whiteness of the walls and entablature or cornice are wonderfully relieved by the gilded capitals of the thirty-two columns. These are so full of emphasis that they break what would perhaps be somewhat too much of whiteness in the entablature, and thus no dado or color band of any sort seems necessary to relieve the eye. It is stated that it was not the original intention to have the capitals gilded. If this is true, and if accident supplied the artistic trick, then there was method in it, because it is difficult to imagine a more telling picture than the dark pillars silhouetted against the marble walls. The pure lines of the entablature or cornice are really emphasized by the effect of the capitals. Reaching

from the entablature downward in the walls at proper intervals are nine large windows on either side of the hall and three at either end. These have the dimensions of fifteen by nine feet and the form of the glass panes gives them a latticed appearance. Situated as they seem to be about midway between roof and floor their light is well modulated. It falls directly from overhead upon the half hundred of banking clerks behind the marble counter which stretches a dividing line betwixt counting house and client and runs along for something over one hundred and fifty feet—almost the length of the room. It is behind this counter, divided in departments that the mathematics of the banking world are in practice. Facing the main entrance the counter arches outward with a child like and bland expression of welcome upon its polished surface. Behind are the accountants and their assistants—all very busy. This has a very open and unconventional appearance. Running along on either hand all around the outer edge of the broad marble counter, however, is a protection of barred or latticed bronze, with wickets of size to admit hand and note communication from outside the lattice, but barring ingress from that side. This is not so unconventional in appearance. Twelve chambers of this kind extend along on either side from the open central arch of the counter, giving the impression of twenty-four busy departments, each distinct. The lattice-work defences extend in such a manner that each compartment is like a guarded cage in bronze. Above the ornamental fringe of each compartment is placed an electric globe for use, when required. Twenty-four of them alight are very pretty. In rear of all, with the added light of nine windows about waist to shoulder high, and along



SIR WILLIAM C. M. McDONALD is the largest Tobacco Manufacturer in Canada. He is noted for his benefactions to McGill University.

A. T. PATERSON, Director, was born at Twine, Ayrshire, Scotland, in 1832. He came to Canada in 1850. Mr. Paterson is connected with many business concerns, as well as financial and charitable institutions.



R. G. REID was born at Couper Angus, Perthshire, Scotland. He came to America from Australia in 1871, and has done business as a contractor on a very extensive scale.



E. B. GREENSHIELDS was born in Montreal in 1850. He is a Merchant; was educated at McGill University. He entered the firm of S. Greenshields & Son, of which he is now the head; he is also connected with many other institutions.



HON. ROBERT MACKAY was born in Calthness, Scotland, in 1840. He came to Montreal in 1852. Mr. Mackay is connected with a large number of manufacturing and business concerns in Montreal.

the open space between those windows and the latticed apartments just described are desks and departmental paraphernalia which cannot but show how severely cramped the great banking house must have been for room previous to the extension or renovation of the premises. There cannot be a less number than twenty-four or thirty clerks engaged at the counter side. There must be double that number in the rear.

All this the visitor can see as he looks upon a vision of such extraordinary interest. The floor he passes over to reach the counter has three different shades of marble flagging.

The auditors have the central part of the room in rear of the counter which arches outward. To the right as the visitor looks from the main door forward are arranged the paying tellers in three compartments, a note teller in the next, coupons in the next and collections in the next two, and discounts in the last two. To the left are the tellers, two ledgers, two tellers, two more ledgers, a teller and a pay teller's compartment. The inquiry department is next and the extreme wicket is that of the savings department.

As the visitor walks to the right hand, he passes side tables, for the use of the bank's clients, each conveniently placed well furnished with pens, ink, cheque blanks and deposit slips, and when he comes to the end it is the office of the General Manager that is on his right. Orderlies in the bank's black and gold livery are in attendance to make known

his business to the General Manager, Mr. E. S. Clouston. On the left is the way leading to other departments. The visitor has just had a glance at the general manager's offices, and filled with pleasure as he goes he retraces his steps to the eastern end, where on his left hand he finds the offices of Mr. H. V. Meredith, assistant general manager at Montreal—meaning the bank's business in the commercial Metropolis of the Dominion. There also are the bank's orderlies to attend to clients, who one after the other drop in upon the manager—some with anxious faces, others smiling with satisfaction, but all received with courtesy. As at the eastern end, there is here also a passage way where the counter curves around and entrance is had to the rear part of the room. Seats for those who require to wait are placed in convenient places on the south side of the hall, in rear of the space between the columns quite removed from the main thoroughfare.

As the visitor returns to the main entrance, he finds an elevator and a staircase the latter on his right. Descending the staircase, he is led to the vaults and premises of The Royal Trust Co.'y on the western end, and to the clearing house on the eastern end of the building. Other rooms there are—these used for different purposes. Each gives the idea of solidity and strength.

This generation will probably see the centenary of the great bank. What will it be like—how much further the advance in power and capital?

HISTORY IN FIGURES

The following table tells in the terse language of figures the increase of the bank's usefulness, and incidentally the advance of Canadian commerce:

DATE	PAID UP CAPITAL	LOANS	TOTAL ASSETS	DEPOSITS	CIRCULATION	TOTAL LIABILITIES								
1852 April 30	\$ 3,000,000	\$ 6,631,000	\$ 7,937,000	\$ 2,097,000	\$ 2,380,000	\$ 5,586,000								
1853 " "	4,000,000	7,310,000	9,632,000	2,394,000	3,123,000	5,642,000								
1859 " "	5,928,800	9,928,000	12,073,000	2,768,000	2,382,000	5,404,000								
1860 " "	6,000,000	9,661,000	12,414,000	3,131,000	2,257,000	5,674,000								
1873 " "	11,296,830	22,611,000	35,252,000	13,790,000	3,364,000	17,742,000								
1878 " "	11,998,400	28,200,000	36,196,000	13,855,000	3,184,000	17,788,000								
1883 " "	12,000,000	30,970,000	43,475,000	19,355,000	5,360,000	24,803,000								
1888 " "	12,000,000	29,240,000	48,633,000	22,876,000	5,468,000	29,343,000								
1893 " "	12,000,000	31,300,000	51,720,000	27,100,000	5,120,000	32,230,000								
1898 " "	12,000,000	38,800,000	65,960,000	40,620,000	5,560,000	46,210,000								
1899 " "	12,000,000	42,520,000	71,800,000	46,410,000	5,450,000	51,900,000								
1900 " "	12,000,000	53,310,000	79,070,000	52,650,000	6,160,000	58,840,000								
1901 " "	12,000,000	<table border="0" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 5px;">53,574,000</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding-left: 5px;">Canada</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 5px;">29,316,000</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding-left: 5px;">Elsewhere</td></tr> </table>	53,574,000	Canada	29,316,000	Elsewhere	99,850,000	<table border="0" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 5px;">60,030,000</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding-left: 5px;">Canada</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 5px;">12,656,000</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding-left: 5px;">Elsewhere</td></tr> </table>	60,030,000	Canada	12,656,000	Elsewhere	6,480,000	79,290,000
53,574,000														
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1902 " "	12,000,000	<table border="0" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 5px;">55,610,000</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding-left: 5px;">Canada</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 5px;">37,340,000</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding-left: 5px;">Elsewhere</td></tr> </table>	55,610,000	Canada	37,340,000	Elsewhere	114,900,000	<table border="0" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 5px;">67,752,000</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding-left: 5px;">Canada</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 5px;">19,074,000</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding-left: 5px;">Elsewhere</td></tr> </table>	67,752,000	Canada	19,074,000	Elsewhere	7,010,000	93,940,000
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67,752,000														
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1902 Nov. 30	12,000,000	<table border="0" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 5px;">54,630,000</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding-left: 5px;">Canada</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 5px;">43,680,000</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding-left: 5px;">Elsewhere</td></tr> </table>	54,630,000	Canada	43,680,000	Elsewhere	125,180,000	<table border="0" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 5px;">65,869,000</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding-left: 5px;">Canada</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 5px;">26,386,000</td></tr> <tr><td style="padding-left: 5px;">Elsewhere</td></tr> </table>	65,869,000	Canada	26,386,000	Elsewhere	11,060,000*	103,730,000
54,630,000														
Canada														
43,680,000														
Elsewhere														
65,869,000														
Canada														
26,386,000														
Elsewhere														

*The greatest circulation was on 15th November, 1902, when it reached \$11,749,647.



HENRY MORGAN & COMPANY



COMMERCIAL house of long standing and high repute, comes in time to have a personality of its own, and by the weight of a lofty character and spotless fame, to wield an influence in the community,

similar to that exerted by some individual of high integrity and unquestioned repute. In the Old World, the large mercantile firms, retaining their name and style through successive generations, have, for the student of life, an interest peculiarly their own. Sons succeed their fathers as partners in the business, and the aged clerk grown grey in the service, yields his place to his son, whom he has trained to an accurate per-

formance of its duties. Not only the regulations but the traditions of the house are thus preserved. Such houses of business, safe, honorable, and worthy, and represented by a hereditary line of sagacious business men, are not unknown in this comparatively new country. Early

in the history of our largest and oldest cities, firms were founded which live today, although pursuing the course established by those pioneer merchants whose spirit of enterprise seems to have been so strikingly mingled with a wise caution, and the thought which ensures success.

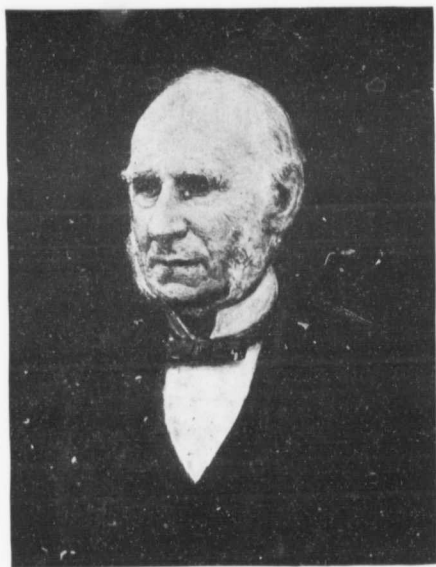
Chief among such mercantile concerns is that of Henry Morgan & Company, which was founded in 1844, under the name and firm of Smith & Morgan. The first building occupied was situated on Notre Dame street, near St. Helen, a cut of which appears on this page. The business which was purely dry goods was conducted in such a cautious and yet enterprising manner that its success was assured from the outset.



SMITH & MORGAN—NOTRE DAME ST., 1844

After seven years, or in 1851, Mr. Smith retired from the business to pursue other functions, when the house assumed the name and style of Henry Morgan & Company.

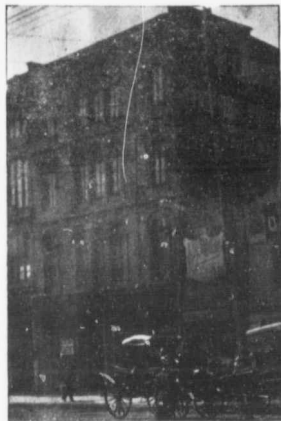
The following year Henry Morgan was joined by his brother James.



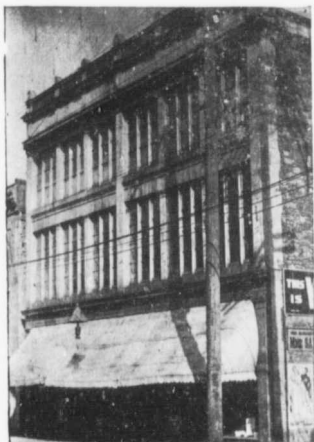
HENRY MORGAN

The business now began to increase so rapidly that in 1855 larger premises became a necessity, and the house was transferred to McGill street, near Notre Dame, an illustration of which is shown at top of this page. It may be stated here that the Morgan's were so filled with that characteristic spirit of enterprise, that the concern became at that time what it remains up to the present, the most extensive establishment of its kind not only in Montreal but in all Canada. The firm became so well known throughout the city and vicinity for its integrity, push and energy, that more space had to be found to supply the constantly increasing demand, and consequently in 1859, another large store was secured on St. Joseph street (now Notre Dame), see lower cut on this page, so conveniently situated that they were connected at the rear so as to form one large establishment fronting on two streets.

The premises of Henry Morgan & Company were considered so extensive at this juncture that any further extension was

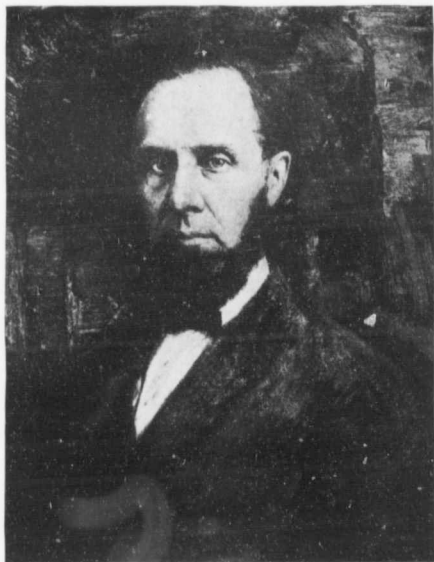


HENRY MORGAN & CO.—MCGILL STREET, 1855



HENRY MORGAN & CO.—NOTRE DAME EXTENSION 1859

considered unnecessary for many years to come. But the merchant princes of the banner dry goods house of Canada pushed ahead with so much skill, energy and determination, that in the short period of eight years, 1867, confederation year, the business was removed to the extensive new building on the corner of St. James street and Victoria Square, see page 77, at that time the finest of its kind in Montreal if not in Canada. It may be presumed that the firm was now considered installed for good. However, the business kept moving onward and upward until 1877, when James, Jr. and Collin Morgan were admitted as members of the firm. With the advent of the young men as partners still more energy and new life was given to the concern. New lines of goods were added time after time, and in 1885 the profit sharing system was adopted to a limited extent, by giving the most



JAMES MORGAN

important employees a share in the profits of the business.

As new lines were being added the institution was gradually assuming the garb of a general store, and consequently an entirely new departure was contemplated and acted upon when Henry Morgan & Company erected their mammoth building on St. Catherine street, which was occupied in 1890, see cut on page 79. Prior to that date little was done in the departmental line, but the house began adding

every individual in the employ of the house, from the charwomen up, receive their share of the profits at fixed periods. The firm of Smith & Morgan began business with a staff of six clerks, which was considered large at that time. The number was increased year after year as the business demanded, until at present there are over seven hundred employes in this colossal establishment, every one of which is happy and content in their respective positions. The Morgan's are the pioneers



HENRY MORGAN & CO.—COR. ST. JAMES ST. AND VICTORIA SQUARE, 1867

line after line to such extent that today there is not an article for the use, comfort and convenience of the public that cannot be found in the huge building.

The attention of the Morgans was given from the time they entered their own building to perfecting the new departmental business in every way possible.

The profit sharing was improved from time to time, so much so that at present the system is in perfect working order;

of the departmental business in Canada, which is a necessity of the age, and has come to stay, and we have no hesitation in saying that it will be more largely extended in the near future. The Morgans have also solved the labor problem as far as they are concerned. In this age of social disorganization and universal industrial disturbances, it would be well for the manufacturing and mercantile community to turn their attention from the old

worn out chaotic system of operating their business. Every right thinking man feels that something should be done to put an end to the disastrous strikes that are becoming more serious every year, and deranging the industries and commerce of the country, but we all look to the government to remedy the evil, when we might do it ourselves by following in the footsteps of Henry Morgan & Company.



Henry Morgan and his brother James, cuts of whom appear on pages 74 and 76,

were born at Saline, Fifeshire, Scotland, where they both received a good, sound business training, which stood well by them in after years. Both gentlemen always believed in good, sound, honest business principles, being honorable in the extreme, they considered that by giving the people the best value to be had for their money was the best method of building up, or what is commonly called advertising their business, a principle which is carried out to the letter up to the present time.





THE MAINTON DEPARTMENT STORE
HENRY MORGAN & COMPANY 1902


THE CANADA JUTE COMPANY (Limited)


PROBABLY one of the most prosperous industries in the City of Montreal, is the Canada Jute Company.

This enterprising concern was incorporated under Royal Charter in 1882. The extensive factory is situated on St. Martin street, and some idea of its length may be gathered from the fact that it is numbered from 17 to 35 while the really handsome offices are situated on William

amount of business done by the company, it may be cited that during the past year the output amounted to over six hundred and fifty thousand, and over five hundred thousand bags were printed. The Company also deal in black canvas, hop-sacking, buckrams, rope, bags, Hassian cloths, paddings, twines webbing, etc. Their goods go into all parts of the Dominion, but chiefly to Quebec, Ontario and the North West. Branch warehouses and offices have



THE CANADA JUTE COMPANY (LIMITED)

street, Mr. H. R. Drummond is president of the company, while the entire business is under the able management and secretaryship of Mr. Francis Braidwood, and we have no doubt that it is through the untiring energy, ability and genial disposition of the manager that the great success of the business is largely due. The Canada Jute Company manufacture jute and cotton bags of every description, quality and size. To give some idea of the

been established in Toronto and Winnipeg.



The business of the company has increased steadily from its commencement, having doubled since 1895, and last year's output amounted to considerably over half a million dollars' worth. Their cottons are purchased almost entirely in the home market, but unfinished jute cloth, twines, etc., amounting to over \$300,000 are imported annually. Their works give employment to about one hundred hands.

tary and Registrar, Hon. Mr. Turgeon. His law course he took at Laval University in Montreal, under Messrs. Abbott and Laflamme, then one of the most famous firms, if not the most famous firm in Montreal. Entered into partnership with Messrs. Taillon & Pagnuelo upon his admission to the Bar, and later formed a partnership with Mr. Préfontaine, which he broke to associate with his father-in-law, the late Mercier, and Mr. Rodolphe Lemieux, now M. P. for Gaspé. Is now the head of the well-known firm Gouin, Lemieux, Brossard & Mercier, the latter a son of the late statesman.

Mr. Gouin married Miss Eliza Mercier in 1888, and enjoyed the friendship of the late Premier to a high degree. It was at the school of such men as Abbott, Laflamme Mercier, Taillon and Préfontaine, that he secured this invaluable knowledge of men which serves him so well to-day. His first appearance in Montreal politics was in 1889, when elected President of the Club National, then the most powerful Liberal organization in Montreal, and probably in the Province of Quebec. That position he held two years. In 1891, he fought the mighty Sir Hector Langevin in Richelieu, where a Minister of Public Works, owing to the Government undertakings at Sorel, must needs be powerful. Sir Hector won by a small majority, and Mr. Gouin came out of the fight stronger than before. From '91 to '97, Mr. Gouin devoted the whole of his attention to law practice, with eminent success, making friends on all sides with a view of re-entering the political field. At the General Provincial Elections in the latter year, he defeated the late Mr. Augé in St. James

Division, by a majority of over 700 votes. His record at the Quebec House is too well-known to be gone over in the narrow space of this biography. He has fought for labor's rights in having a conciliation and arbitration law put upon the Statutes; for provincial autonomy, in claiming for his Province a fair re-adjustment of the Federal Subsidy, as well as in entering an energetic protest against what he believed to be an undue trespassing of the Judicial Committee of the Council upon the laws of the Province; for municipal autonomy, in defending the City of Montreal at the last Session against the claims of the Notre Dame Street (East) proprietors. He has done his best to promote colonization of the new districts of the provinces, and has shown in his endeavour to enlighten himself on that subject a magnificent earnestness. In the Council of Public Instruction, where he has been sitting for two years, he is always listened to with great attention by his colleagues, both lay and clerical.

Mr. Gouin belongs to several fraternal orders, such as the I. O. F., the Catholic O. F., the Artisans Canadiens-Français. His name is well known in the financial and sporting world. He is ably seconded in the fulfilment of his social obligation by Mrs. Gouin, who usually spends the Session at Quebec with him. His weekly dinners to his colleagues were one of the social features of the last Session. His good breeding and tact in everything have made his friends many and his enemies an unknown number. Self-confident, ever at work, he looks to the future with the smile of a good-natured philosopher. Great things are expected of him.

	<h2>GRAND TRUNK RAILWAY SYSTEM</h2>	
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THE Grand Trunk Railway System is pre-eminently the pioneer line of the Dominion of Canada, and one of the earliest pioneers of railway enterprise in the whole American continent, and the world generally; for the oldest systems in the world were but in their early infancy when the charter of the Grand Trunk Railway was granted in 1851; and it is a strong testimony of that indomitable perseverance and untiring energy which has characterized the progress of the road, that within two years, or in 1853, the line from Montreal, Que., to Portland, Me., a distance of 297 miles was opened; the line from Richmond to Levis, Que., 96½ miles, being added the following year. The main line from Montreal to Toronto was opened in 1856, and the Sarnia Division in 1858. The prodigious advance of Chicago, and in a less degree, other western cities, as important centres of inland traffic in the decade 1870-1880, did not fail to impress upon the Directors the importance of acquiring direct connection with the Western Roads centering in those cities, and in consequence, in 1879 the Chicago and Lake Huron line was



CITY OF MONTREAL, FROM GRAND TRUNK VICTORIA JUBILEE BRIDGE

absorbed into the System, thereby making a direct highway from Chicago and the Western States to the Atlantic coast—an investment which has by the enormous traffic developed, amply endorsed the clear foresight and unerring judgement, which prompted and perfected the undertaking. From this time forward various tributary and contiguous lines were gradually acquired till the amalgamation of the Great Western Railway in 1882, and the Northern Railway of Canada and Hamilton and North Western Railway in 1888—formed the "Old Reliable Line"—the universally known "Grand Trunk Railway of Canada," embracing a total mileage of 3,506 miles, exclusive of the Chicago and Grand Trunk Railway; Detroit, Grand Haven and Milwaukee Railway; Toledo, Saginaw and

Muskegon Railway, and the Cincinnati, Saginaw and Mackinaw Railway—which by their consolidation under one management, now form the GRAND TRUNK RAILWAY SYSTEM, with a total mileage of 4,182 miles. The acquisitiveness which actuated, and the indefatigable enterprise which materialized this solidification of rival lines in one harmonious system has thrown a network of steel over every city and town of importance in Ontario and Michigan in the West, and Quebec, Vermont, New Hampshire and the State of Maine in the East, has united the Great Lakes with the Atlantic, running along the St. Lawrence and the shores of Lake Ontario; it taps the enormous trade of Lake Erie at Buffalo and Detroit—of Lake Huron and Georgian Bay at Sarnia, Port Huron, Goderich, Kincardine, Southampton, Wiarton, Owen Sound, Collingwood, Penetang, Meaford and Midland,—and of Lake Michigan at Milwaukee, Chicago, Grand Haven and Muskegon.



GRAND TRUNK GENERAL OFFICES, MONTREAL

The Grand Trunk Railway System embraces in its many ramifications the greatest diversity of natural attractions on the continent of America, and the travellers in its superbly equipped trains over its unrivalled roadbed are treated to a magnificent panorama of ocean, lake and river scenery in all their charms of roaring surf and stupendous cliffs, wooded islands and sheltered bays, deep gorges, circling rapids and thundering falls, peaceful woodlands and snow-capped mountains, smiling vineyards and prosperous towns, dense forests and glassy glades in all their primeval beauty—culminating in nature's grandest creation—NIAGARA FALLS.

Bonaventure Depot, the terminal station of the Grand Trunk Railway System in Montreal, was erected in 1887-1888, and open for business in the latter year. It is most favorably situated in the very heart of the City and is a handsome structure, built of red pressed brick, somewhat in the Italian Renaissance style. The building has a frontage of 240 feet by a depth of 100 feet, and the ground floor contains commodious waiting rooms, public and private dining rooms, customs offices, baggage rooms, and the general conveniences pertaining to a first class modern station.

The Grand Trunk Railway System may justly claim that its connections between the East and the West sides of St. Clair, Niagara and St. Lawrence Rivers are made by four great monuments of engineering triumph, viz. :—the St. Clair Tunnel, the International Bridge, the Niagara Single-Arch Steel Bridge and the Victoria Jubilee Bridge over the St. Lawrence River at Montreal.



ROYAL MUSKOKA HOTEL, LAKE ROSSEAU, MUSKOKA LAKES DISTRICT; REACHED ONLY BY THE GRAND TRUNK RAILWAY SYSTEM

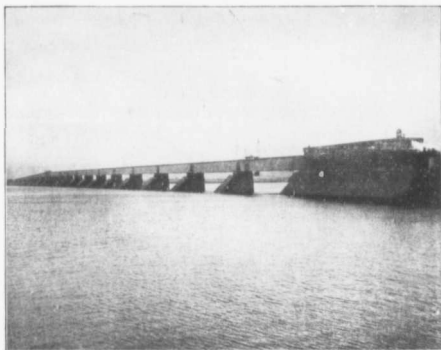
The Great St. Clair Tunnel, under the St. Clair River, connecting Port Huron, Mich., with Sarnia, Ont., dispensed with the tiresome and inconvenient system of ferry transfer between those points, and its construction marks an era in the history of the Grand Trunk Railway, and was no small factor in the consolidation of the Canadian and Western Divisions of the System. When it is considered that the St. Clair River is about 40 feet deep and half-a-mile wide, that it is the sole channel through which Lakes Superior, Huron and Michigan discharge their surplus waters into Lake Erie, the magnitude of the scheme and its successful completion confer a well earned celebrity on its Chief Engineer, Mr. Joseph Hobson, now Chief Engineer of the entire System. The Tunnel proper is 6,026 feet in length, and including the approaches, 11,553 feet, marking it as the longest submarine tunnel in the world. The time of construction was a little over two years, and the cost was about \$2,700,000. The Tunnel was opened for freight traffic on October 27th, and for passenger traffic on December 7th, 1891. Its opening was inaugurated by a banquet, presided over by the President of the Company, Sir Henry W. Tyler, to 270 guests,—a gathering of the representatives of Railway and Commercial enterprises from both Canada and the United States.

At the time of the completion of the Victoria Tubular Bridge in 1860, it was considered the eighth wonder of the world, and was the admiration of not only the promoters and the Railway Company, but of all Canadians and others who looked upon it. Through increase in traffic, and with the onward march of time and improvement, the old bridge had become inefficient to meet the demands of the Grand Trunk Railway System, and the management concluded that it must be replaced with a structure that would meet all needs. Accordingly, a new open-work steel bridge, with double tracks, carriage-ways, and foot-walks for pedestrians, now rests on the piers which held the Old Victoria Bridge for so many years.

With the Victoria Jubilee Bridge at Montreal—may properly be classed the magnificent Suspension Bridge at Niagara Falls. This fine structure has long held the admiration of the world at large, and in the beauties of its design



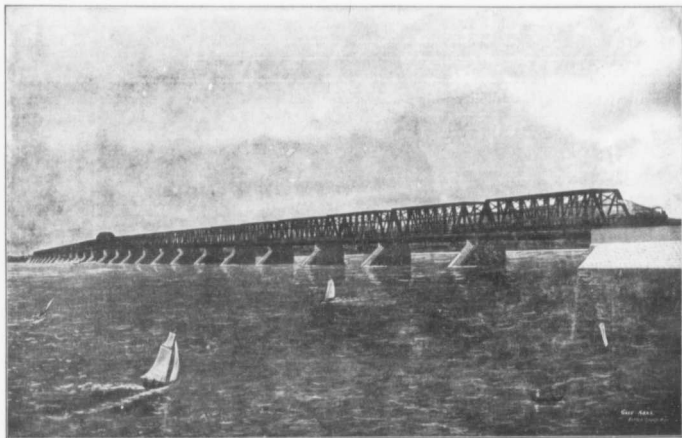
A 43½ LBS. MASKINONGE CAUGHT AT ST. ANNE DE BELLEVUE, P. Q., GRAND TRUNK RAILWAY SYSTEM



OLD VICTORIA TUBULAR BRIDGE, GRAND TRUNK RAILWAY SYSTEM

and proportions, has well illustrated the bridge builder's art. However, yielding to the demands of large and ever increasing international traffic, the Suspension Bridge which so amply fulfilled the requirements of the past, has yielded place to a beautiful single-arch steel bridge, which now gracefully spans the stupendous gorge of Niagara's surging river. The new bridge is a single arch of 550 feet, supplemented by a trussed span at either end of 115 feet in length. With the approaches, the total length of the bridge is 1,100 feet, and the centre of the arch is 226 feet above the water. The bridge has two decks or floors. On the upper floor there are two tracks for railway purposes exclusively, while the lower floor contains wide central carriage-way and foot-paths on each side. As an evidence of the wonderful strength of this light and airy structure, the arch will support on each upper track, at the same time, two locomotives of the heaviest kind, hauling trains

weighing 3,500 pounds to the square foot of bridge surface, and in addition a load of 3,000 pounds per square foot on its lower floors. At the official test made on Thursday, July 29th, 1897, the structure was subjected to the combined weight of 25,000 pounds, and the deflection at the centre of the bridge was but seven-eighths of an inch. While regretting the disappearance of an old landmark in the famous Suspension Bridge, we may rejoice that the enterprising Grand Trunk has replaced it with so beautiful and magnificent a structure.



GRAND TRUNK VICTORIA JUBILEE BRIDGE

The utmost revenue yielding resources of the Grand Trunk in all departments are now being fully developed and the commercial importance and financial prospects of the system have been raised to the pinnacle of success, while the superior equipment of its magnificent trains, perfect dining car service, fast through trains and palace sleeping and parlour cars between all the important centres, its capacious stations and courteous employees, leave nothing to be desired in the way of railroad comfort by even the most fastidious invalid, tourist or traveller.



INTERNATIONAL LIMITED, GRAND TRUNK RAILWAY SYSTEM (ONE OF THE FASTEST LONG DISTANCE TRAINS IN THE WORLD)



IN connection with "Capital and Labor" we illustrate the factories of the THOS. DAVIDSON MANUFACTURING CO. There are about 800 operators employed in this establishment; the employees have two societies, a Mutual Benefit Society, which is in a flourishing condition, and has proved a real benefit to many; it is governed by a board of trustees, elected by the members, and provides for all cases of sickness and want. The other society, The Crescent Co-operative Society, have a building near the factory, where lunches are served to the members, with a reading room and library. This society has proved so successful that the Directors are now contemplating on a considerable addition in the way of an Entertainment Hall, Gymnasium and Baths. The employees take an interest in the welfare of the Company; they afford many valuable suggestions for the improvement of the goods made, and assist in keeping the quality of the product up to the highest standard.

The Works of the Company are divided into departments, with foreman and sub-foreman, in such a way that the responsibility is fixed for each article sent out.



The business was established by the late Thos. Davidson, in 1860, and was incorporated in 1895. The Directors are: James Davidson, T. Chas. Davidson and Edward Goodwill; John Hamilton is the Secretary and James Williams, Superintendent. The works consist of two blocks in St. Cunegonde, about $1\frac{3}{4}$ miles from Montreal Post Office, $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles from Windsor Hotel. All the latest machinery for the manufacture of Enamelled Ware, Stamped and Pressed Tin Ware and Copper Ware, is installed and continually being added to.

The product of the firm is sold from Halifax to Dawson City, and exported to Newfoundland, Australia and New Zealand. It is in the interest of Labor as well as Capital that Canadian made goods be insisted on when purchasing in retail stores, if the quality is satisfactory, and our readers should bear this in mind, as every enquiry of this kind tends to discourage what some store-keepers strive to encourage, viz: the pushing of German or American, &c. goods as better, because imported—this hurts *Canadian* Capital and Labor to the benefit of the German and other foreign Capital and their very poorly paid labor.

THE OGILVIE FLOUR MILLS CO., Ltd.



The Largest Flour Mills in the British Empire
and the Palace Flour Mills of the World



TO be the greatest flour milling concern in the British Empire is certainly a distinction for any industry. To have this industry in Canada is a matter of pride and congratulation to Canada and the Canadians.

This is the centenary year of the Ogilvie Flour Mills Co., and its history during one hundred years has had to do with the growth and prosperity of the wheat producing and flour consuming population of Canada.

Magnificent as its past has been, its magnitude to-day, and its provision for the future are so great that a sketch of this Company will prove of more than passing interest to our readers.

NEARLY ONE HUNDRED ELEVATORS

Ninety elevators scattered over the vast wheat areas of Western Canada receive the great bulk of the finest wheat grown in the world.

The buyers are men who have been identified with the Ogilvie Company for many years. They are thoroughly trained in their duties and know both the requirements of the Company and the quality and character of the grain. The most friendly relations have always existed between the Company and the farmers of the North West. No complaints have ever been made that advantage was taken of local conditions to compel farmers to accept an unreasonably low price for grain. How much the development of the North West is due to this great pioneer Company would be hard to estimate. The production of a crop, no matter how great, is of small moment, unless there are purchasing, receiving, and shipping depots.

This wheat in turn is ground in the different mills of the Company, which aggregate a daily output of 7,500 barrels of flour. It is difficult to realise the immensity of this amount. Great as it is, the management are preparing to add still another great mill, increasing the capacity to the astonishing quantity of over 10,000 barrels daily.

THREE GREAT MILLS

There are now three mills in operation. The Royal Mills at Montreal, the Glenora Mills at Montreal and the Winnipeg Mills.

A visit to any one of these mills is a pleasure and an education. The writer visited the Royal Mills at Montreal and his preconceived ideas of a great flour mill were destroyed.

The first thing suggested is immense capacity, the next, perfect system, and last, absolute cleanliness.

The Royal Mills and the Glenora Mills are both situated on the Lachine Canal where enormous water power privileges belong to the Company, and day and night, except Sunday, without break or cessation the work goes on.

Almost noiseless in its operations the giant power carried and crushed and ground and sifted until the transforming process was completed, and from the choicest wheat in the market the finest flour in the world is made.

The wheat is received in a steady stream from the elevators and the flour is shipped in waiting cars and vessels to the markets of the world. Nothing but a visit to any one of the mills conveys any adequate idea of how Ogilvie's Flour is made.

Even figures convey a very imperfect idea of the magnitude of the work, of the ground area, and the floor area, the millions of bushels of grain bought and the millions of barrels of flour sold. There is an army of employees including the office staff in the head office Montreal, the managers and workmen in the mills and elevators, the experts and the buyers, the carters and men in other capacities, and there is a feeling of intense loyalty to the interests of the Company amongst these employees, most of whom have been identified with the Company for many years.

The great rooms are spotlessly white and clean, not a mark on the floors or walls, and most surprising, not a particle of flour or dust floated in the air. So attractive are the mills as show places that no less than 3,000 ladies have visited the Winnipeg Mills of this Company during the past 18 months.

APPRECIATED BY ROYALTY.

The most distinguished of these visitors was H. R. H. The Duchess of York—now Princess of Wales. So charmed was she with the surroundings that the Ogilvie Flour Mills Co. have been appointed by Royal Warrant, Millers to the Prince of Wales, and bakers in the Royal Household are commanded to use no other flour than the product of this Company's mills.

There is a triple compliment in this appointment to the country, to the Company and to the product. The attention that is naturally directed to Canada by such unique distinctions as this does not affect simply the one line but kindred lines and generally speaking all the agricultural products of Canada. Practically the whole of the Dominion gains by the position occupied by the Ogilvie Flour Mills Co., apart from the great sums of money spent by them in Canada.

The Prince of Wales' three feathers on each bag is a distinguishing mark. Very few consumers are unacquainted with the trade marks and registered design, every bag being sewed with red, white and blue cord.

WELL KNOWN BRANDS.

The two brands sold throughout Canada and the flour importing countries of the world are Ogilvie's Glenora Patent and Ogilvie's Hungarian Patent. All that science and mechanical knowledge combined could do for the perfecting of making has been applied to the manufacture of Ogilvie's Flour and as they have led in the past, so have they the advantage for the future.

The evolution of flour making from the primitive grinding of grain in the East thousands of years ago through all its mechanical and scientific gradations to its present condition as indicated in the Ogilvie Mills, produces these two brands which are the perfection product of the chief of cereals.

While the buyers of the wheat in the West are amongst the most expert in the world, having had a long connection with the Company and while the wheat selected is only the best, yet the most exacting tests are continuously made as the flour passes through its final stages to see that its quality is maintained. Experts are employed for this work alone and a standard of uniform excellence is maintained.

THE COMMERCIAL STANDARD OF CANADA.

Ogilvie's is practically the Standard by which flour is graded in Canada, and we notice the Toronto Globe and other papers base their quotations on Ogilvie's brands.

Consumers whether large or small should understand that it is to their interest to use this flour in preference to inferior qualities, and in getting Ogilvie's they may rest satisfied that they have the best.

It is a deduction simply made from the facts that it would be impossible to produce a better flour than Ogilvie's. The conditions and circumstances are so largely in their favor that it would hardly be reasonable that any other manufacturing concern should claim an equality of product.

The bakers of Canada are the best judges amongst Canadians of the properties of flour and they recognize the advantage of using the very best flour and accept Ogilvie's as giving the greatest satisfaction.

The success of a business can be made or marred according to the good or bad quality of a material used, and when the best can be obtained it shows only reasonable commercial instinct to select the best in preference even to second best.

"OGILVIE'S ROYAL BREAKFAST FOOD" AND "OGILVIE OATS."

At the present time we are deluged with a multitude of breakfast foods, and many of uncertain origin and still more uncertain value. A great many of these are imported so that the item of duty is added to the original cost and consumers in Canada pay fancy figures for them. The basis of a breakfast food is the quality of its constituent parts. This is supplemented by the process it undergoes. Ogilvie's Royal Breakfast Food is produced from the best selected wheat carefully and scientifically prepared to retain its nutriment and present it in a most palatable and digestible form.

Ogilvie's Royal Breakfast Food has all the good qualities claimed for the best of them and the fact that it is Ogilvie's is the best guarantee of its purity, its value and its excellence. Amongst breakfast foods this one has a value on a par with the value of Ogilvie's flour amongst other flours.

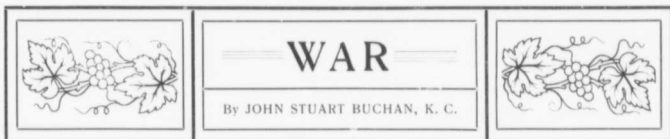
"Ogilvie Oats" is an old-time favorite for the breakfast table and is known throughout Canada. It is simply a preparation in which the best qualities of the grain are preserved and which has stood the test of years.

THE MANAGEMENT AND ITS AIMS

The guiding spirit in this vast concern is the Vice President and Managing Director, Mr. F. W. Thompson, who has been associated with its success for the past twenty years, and who now in the prime of his life is projecting plans for improvement and development that the marvellous growth of the country justifies.

The objective point of Mr. Thompson and those associated with him, to make the Ogilvie Flour Mills Co., not only the largest in the British Empire but one of the largest in the world in likely to be realized at no distant date. The pride with which all classes of Canadians view the progress of this great representative concern should be some return for the untiring energy and commercial genius of the man on whose shoulders rests the success of the industry.





NOT war in the sense of military operations, but the never ending war between classes and masses, labor and capital, master and man; in some ways the worst, the most grinding warfare the world has ever known. A great American General described war as "hell," and few who know anything of the subject will disagree with him as to the correctness of the description, whether applied to military operations or industrial strife.

Industrial, or economic war, is as old as history. Egyptian, Greek and Roman equally despised labor. It was an occupation only fit for slaves, and acting on that belief, their system of slavery absorbed prisoners of war, captives, and unfortunates of all kinds, by whom all labor was performed. On the one hand a special class, pampered and indulged—on the other, slaves who had no rights their owners were bound to respect. Little wonder the slave rebelled, even although scourging and torture were too often the result. Life to many a slave captured in war, better born, perhaps, than the brutal master who owned him, was a continued martyrdom, which was better ended, even though it were by the flames.

So even in those early days, there was this same war between master and man, the one fighting for privilege, the other for his common rights, his liberty, and

even for his life. Nor can it be said that the struggle has been fruitless, since it has forced the question of right against might upon the conscience of the world, since before it slavery and serfdom have gone down, and the rights and dignity of labor are now admitted, even by those who in practice do not respect them.

But the war still continues, and to-day organized capital and organized labor stand facing each other in two hostile camps, wasting their forces either in attacking their opponents, or defending themselves, while those who are dependent upon them are suffering for the necessities of life, and in some cases, great national interests are all but ruined.

Who is responsible for this condition of affairs? Dealing with the question as it stands to-day, the answer must be neither party, for all of it; both parties for some of it. Much of it is doubtless a legacy from the past, the result of circumstances, the effect of lack of understanding by one party of the just rights of the other, while it must also be admitted that there are cases where the employer still goes on the principle of grinding the uttermost farthing out of his employes, and in other cases, the employe uses every effort to give as little service as possible in return for the wages which he receives.

That some are more to blame than others must be the case, and in any attempt to apportion the fault, all the circumstances, the opportunities and the resources of each party must be taken into account, and given their due weight, but even when all this has been done, there will remain a question surrounded by difficulties and prejudices; a question which has almost defied the best thought and wisdom of all ages, but which is to-day clamoring for an answer as never before, and to which, if an answer is not given, there are not wanting signs that forces are gathering to demand an answer, through a struggle which shall be a veritable Armageddon.

Who must find the answer? Both parties. One side alone cannot do so. Both have duties, both have responsibilities, and both must join in solving the question, or it never can be solved.

How can they do so? First of all, by a frank and candid recognition of the fact that capital and labor are not enemies, but allies; that each has its place and each has its rights, and each one is prepared to respect the rights of the other.

But how can this condition be brought about? Nothing more simple than the rule by which every such question and difficulty, can be tried and measured. Nothing more infallible than the results, if the rule is rigorously applied by each party to himself.

This is the old rule, the very essence of justice, before which the inherent selfishness of humanity, which is the root of the difficulty, is scattered like morning mist: "Therefore, all things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them."

But men who have, or think they have, an advantage over others scoff at it, they deride it, they have no use for it. They prefer to heap up enormous fortunes, while their workmen scarce keep body and soul together. In such a case, whose is the fault, and to whom does the blame rightfully belong?

And who has the greater measure of responsibility in the matter? Is it the employer, who has had a wide experience, whose training has fitted him for deciding difficult questions, and who is surrounded by all the comforts and luxuries which money can buy? Or is it the workman, who toils early and late; whose work is perhaps in itself offensive and narrowing; who, despite his incessant toil, can do no better for his family than house them in a crowded tenement on a back street, can barely furnish them with the necessities of life, can give them none of the benefits of education, and sees them forced to work to help out their meagre existence, from the day the law will permit them to enter a factory?

Is there no allowance to be made for the workman in this position, if his judgment is warped, if he grows hopeless, hard and despairing, and does not see the issues fairly; or realize that the employer has also some rights, and possibly his own difficulties, notwithstanding all his advantages? Nay, even if he becomes suspicious, and resents well-meant attempts to better his position? Put yourself in his place. Imagine your children clothed, fed and housed as his are, and with their prospects, and then perhaps you will wonder how he can bear to live. To whom much is given, of him much shall be required; and if the employer has had the advantage

in all these things, there is an obligation on him to take the first step to right the wrong.

If a wrong is being done, it cannot be righted later. If an employer accumulates an enormous fortune, while his employes are obliged to give more than a fair day's work for less than a fair day's wage, that employer cannot remedy the wrong after the fortune has been made, by building churches, or founding homes for broken down workmen. A free library will not make up for the pangs of hunger which his children suffered, nor repair the lack of education which their father's wages were insufficient to give them.

Nor will it help the matter to hide behind a trust. It is a good and wholesome rule of law which makes the officers of a corporation in certain cases personally responsible for offences committed by the corporation, and in the moral sphere, this rule will never fail of its full application to all those who benefit by the unjust gains of a corporation.

But there are usually two sides to a question, and while the employe can see the apparent advantages which the employer enjoys, he may fail to see the disadvantages to which he is exposed, and from which perhaps he suffers. When he sees his employer in a certain year making a very large profit, and feels that he should share in that profit, if a rightful division were made, he must not forget that if his share in the business is to be arrived at in this way, if a bad year takes away all the profits, and leaves a loss; it of necessity binds him to share that loss.

And herein lies the difficulty of arriving at the true proportion, the exact rights of each party. If the employer has to

bear all the risk of loss, then in all fairness he is entitled to take that risk into account, in estimating what is his fair share of profits. The workman should receive a fair day's wage for a fair day's work, and to the average workman, without capital, and without, in too many cases, being trained to habits of thrift and economy, which would lead him to save the surplus of a good year's work for a rainy day, it would be a worse condition if he were obliged to give his whole year's work for nothing, as his contribution to the losses suffered in that year; but it would be a fair contention that when the profits were large, a fair division of a proportion of them should be made between employer and employe, and a part jealously put aside as a rest, to meet the deficiencies of an unprofitable season.

But it must not be forgotten that no hard and fast rule of universal application, can be laid down. No two cases will be exactly alike in all their particulars, and the circumstances of each case must be taken into account, in solving the difficulties which surround it.

There are business men, and corporations as well, in Montreal, who put conscience and common sense and justice into their relations with their employes, and share their profits with them, or raise their wages when they can do so, without an increase being demanded. These employers are not troubled by strikes, they receive a hearty and willing service from their employes, to the great advantage of both, and so far as they are concerned, the labor question is solved. They are a shining example to those who look upon their employes as so many machines, to be run at the top of their speed until worn out, and then cast aside as worthless; and

they furnish the most powerful object lesson, of the wisdom of their own policy; and the folly of those who take the opposite course.

But the question still stands, and demands an answer. It will never be answered by bullets and bayonets. They may put it down for the time, but if there is a wrong unredressed, then it is but putting a weight on the safety valve, which will sooner or later produce an explosion, so terrible in its possible consequences,

that the mind shrinks from it with horror.

This is neither a plea for the working man, nor an apology for the employer; but an attempt, feeble and imperfect though it may be, to direct attention to the tremendous issues which are at stake, and the equally tremendous responsibility which rests on those concerned, to meet the question frankly, fairly and honestly; and each recognizing the full rights of the other, put an end, once for all, to this disastrous war.



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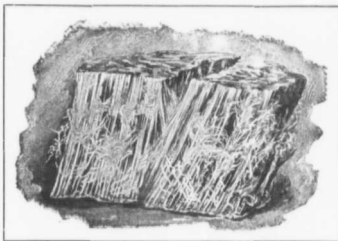
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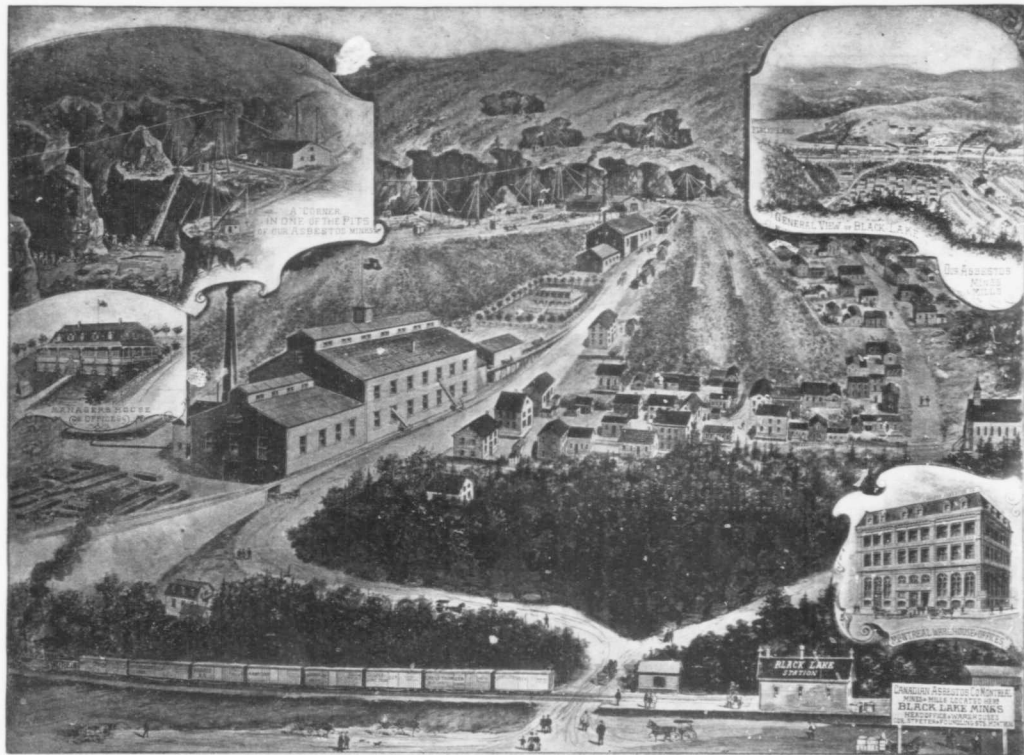
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LABOR LEGISLATION IN QUEBEC

In 1867, when the Province of Quebec started law-making on its own account, it had no legislation for the protection of labor worth speaking of. The progress it has made in this regard in the last fifteen or twenty years compares favorably with the achievements of the most enlightened states. Mr. Louis Guyon, chief inspector of factories, has summed up this progress as follows in his last report :

To convince oneself of the increased operations of the Inspection Bureau one has but to glance at the Act of 1885, which we were called upon to carry out in 1888, under the name of "The Factories Act." Ever since then important amendments have, year by year, been made to this act by which our legislators intended purely and simply to protect operatives in factories. Our sphere of action had been gradually enlarged and extended to the inspection of boilers; the application of hygienic measures closely followed by the introduction of a series of regulations concerning workshops and factories; the promulgation of the law respecting public buildings in 1895, regulations respecting hotels, convents and hospitals, followed in 1902 by the obligation of inspecting all public buildings in the Province of Quebec without exception, including retail stores.

Those regulations were printed in pamphlet form last year and thousands of copies sent to the inspectors to be distributed throughout the province.

A further step towards the welfare of the laboring class has just been taken by the Government in having the age limit for admission to factory labor raised from 12 to 13 years. It has been thought inadvisable to enact a more radical measure for the present, public opinion being hardly ready for such a move. We cannot, however, but hope that the time may soon come when we can place the Province of Quebec on an equal footing with Massachusetts, Ohio, Illinois,

Michigan and other banner states in the great neighboring Republic for the protection of child-labor.

The inspectors' reports, as printed in the last general report of the Colonization and Public Works Department, are proof of the intelligence, activity and good judgment of these officials.

In Mr. Guyon's report are found a number of timely remarks and suggestions on all of those subjects that a workman should be interested in, from the inspection of industrial establishments, the siting of new buildings to the provisions of the safety law, and the age of admission to factory labor, to the duration of work in factories and shops, boiler inspection, and so forth.

Among the subjects more specially dealt with by Inspector Mitchell, I may mention the *sweating system* in the garment-making industry, ventilation, accidents, fire escapes.

Mrs. Provencher, Mrs. King, Dr Stevenson and the Quebec inspector, Mr. Jobin, also made interesting reports, which working people—union people at least—should not fail to read.

Let the Government publications be made use of by the masses at last!

Let the masses know what is being done for them, that there may be in their minds other feelings than one of distrust in their law-makers, and that the good work of social reform may not be hindered by public inertia on the one side and petty party strife on the other!

LOMER GOUIN.



THE HUDSON BAY COMPANY



CHARLES II, in the year 1770, granted to Prince Rupert of Bavaria and seventeen other noblemen and financiers a charter incorporating them as the Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson's Bay, and the trade and commerce of all the seas, straits, bays, rivers and creeks, in whatsoever latitude they shall be, that lie within the entrance of the straits, commonly called Hudson's Straits, together with all the lands and territories upon the countries, coasts and confines of the seas, bays, etc., aforesaid, that are not already actually possessed by, or granted to, any of our subjects, or possessed by the subjects of any other Christian prince or state.

It may be interesting to explain the circumstances which led to such a favor being conferred upon a foreign prince, as they are deeply interwoven with the history of that epoch. He was a son of the Elector Palatine Frederick V and Elizabeth, daughter of James the First of England, and was therefore a nephew of Charles I and Charles II. He was born at Prague 1609. Having previously served against the Imperialists in the Thirty Years War, he entered the Royalist Army in England, and was appointed by his uncle, Charles I, commander of a regiment of calvary. He distinguished himself at Worcester and Edgehill and took

Bristol, but suffered defeat at Marston Moer. Being made general of all the royal forces, he commanded the left wing at Naseby. Owing to his reckless pursuit of Cromwell's army while the main body remained on the field, the day was lost. He was consequently deprived of his command by the King; but he obtained command of the fleet three years later and aided Lord Ormond on the Coast of Ireland. He was blockaded in the harbour of Kinsale by the Parliamentary Squadron under Blake. Forcing his way out he sailed for Portugal, where he was protected by the King of that country. Rupert lived for some time by piracy around the West Indies.

The Restoration in 1660 brought his uncle, Charles II, to the throne, and turned the tide in the adventurer-prince's favor. His services during the Civil War were not forgotten, and the brilliant scheme of the Company of Adventurers was pleasing to the King. The limits prescribed by the charter were vague, and after some discussion, arising from time to time, the Company agreed to accept the terms, as meaning all lands watered by streams flowing into Hudson's Bay. Besides this immense privilege and entire judicial and executive power within these limits, the corporation received also the right to the entire trade and traffic to and from all havens, bays, creeks, rivers, lakes and seas into which they shall find

entrance or passage by water or land out of the territories, limits, or places aforesaid.

Rupert's Land was the name given to the first settlement to the east of James Bay. Some time elapsed before there was any advance into the interior, for we find that in 1749, when an unsuccessful attempt was made in Parliament to deprive the Company of its charter for neglect on the part of the Company; it had only some four or five forts on the coast, with about one hundred and twenty employees. The enterprise was an immense success from the start, notwithstanding, although heavy losses, amounting to £215,514 were inflicted on the Company by the French, who sent military expeditions against the forts, prior to 1700. The conquest of Canada by Great Britain, in 1703, changed the state of affairs. A great number of individual fur traders spread over the country, rivalling one another in the keenness of their trade, and presently encroaching upon the territories of the Hudson Bay Company. These traders were forced to combine, under the name of "The North-West Fur Company of Montreal." A fierce competition at once sprang up between the rival companies, and when it is remembered that their dealings were with savages, it will be readily granted that the strife was marked by features which could not fail to demonstrate the advantages of a monopoly in commercial dealings with uncivilized tribes. The Indians were demoralized utterly by the abundance of intoxicating liquors with which the rival traders sought to attract them to themselves; the supply of furs threatened soon to be exhausted by the indiscriminate slaughter, in season and out of season, of both male and female animals; the worst passions of both white men and Indians were inflamed to a fierce

heat, and destruction of human life and property was the result.

An incident of a later date may serve to illustrate the relations of rival companies under such conditions. In 1811, the fifth Earl of Selkirk, who had devoted special attention to emigration as a means of providing for the surplus population of the Scottish Highlands, obtained from the Hudson's Bay Company a grant of land in the district now known as Assiniboin. His agent, Mr. Miles Macdonell, founded, in 1813, a settlement on the banks of the Red River, the first fort being at Pembina. By 1814 the settlers numbered 200. The North-West Fur-Traders of Manchester did all they could, by force and fraud, to break up this colony, which, by 1816, had taken up its quarters where the City of Winnipeg now stands. The French Indian half-breeds were incited against it, and its mills and houses were burned. The Earl of Selkirk betook himself to the scene, and succeeded in re-organizing the community, to which the name of Kildonan was given. He found himself personally involved in a very net-work of intrigue; but the colony was saved.

Time works wonders, and in 1821 the Hudson's Bay Company and their rivals, now exhausted by a fruitless strife, amalgamated, obtaining a license to hold for twenty-one years the monopoly of trade in the vast regions lying to the west and north-west of the older company's grant.

In 1838, the Hudson's Bay Company acquired the sole rights for itself, obtaining also a new license. This was again for twenty-one years, and on its expiry it was not renewed, and since 1859 the district has been open to all. Since that date the only advantage enjoyed by the Hudson's Bay Company has been contained in its own splendid organization.

The licenses to trade did not affect the original possessions of the Company, and it retained these until 1869, when they were transferred to the British Government for £300,000. In 1870 they were incorporated with the Dominion of Canada.

The Company, which now trades entirely as a private corporation, still retains one-twentieth of the entire grant, together with valuable blocks of land round the various forts. Its history has been unique. A halo of romance will always cling about its name, and no history of our country can fail to give place to a recital of the deeds and far-reaching schemes of this great corporation.

The benefits rendered by the Company in opening up a new country hitherto untrodden by the white man, will ever make the history of its early adventurers, their dangers and triumphs, a subject of keenest interest to the lover of progress, and to all minds interested in the spread and advancement of civilization. Many are the tales that linger of the hardships endured, and the perils encountered in the wild region that bore the name of the adventurer-prince. Some account of the life of that time and locality may not be amiss here.

The posts of the Company, being planted at the confluence or the parting of streams, offered opportunities in long routes of travel for occasional intercourse with the Indians, whose hospitality was freely extended. Their food on these occasions consisted mainly of pemmican, which was usually prepared from buffalo flesh, although it might also be of moose meat, or venison. It was prepared by the squaws, the flesh of the slaughtered animals, after the hide had been carefully removed for domestic use or for trade, being torn into strips, dried in the sun or

by the fire, pounded into crumbs, and then packed in a leathern bag. A quantity of hot fat was turned into the bag and stirred, and then carefully closed from the air. As prepared by the uncleanly savages, this meat was generally far from agreeable.

One of the most difficult and unavailing of the efforts of the white men was to overcome in the Indians their habits of wanton waste and improvidence. Their life was spent between alternatives of gluttonous gorgings of food, when it was abundant, and protracted sufferings to reach, by various stages, the grim reality of starvation. The natives held firmly to the belief that the more game they slaughtered the more rapidly would the animals multiply; so, in a rich hunt, they would leave the plains strewn with carcasses quite beyond their means of transportation. The narrations of the servants of the Company give many instances of the dreadful emergencies to which these miserable savages were reduced, ending, as a last resource, in cannibalism.

Many volumes are extant giving full details of the experiences of the "winterers" in solitary posts. That dismal isolation must have had appalling features yet untold. Yet we find in the annals of the Company that all the exactions of the situation were met patiently and faithfully by all, and that habit made them so tolerable, and then even so attractive that, as men grew old in the service, they found their solace in such seclusion, with the occasional interruptions which came to them in the course of the year. Once in each year a mail was sent by the Company to all its posts. Canoe men and dog teams, and inside branches a voyageur, or native runner, would be the carriers. The Company's London office was the

receiving depot of all letters, papers, or parcels passing between its servants and their friends at home. All took care to be well supplied, at their posts, with materials for correspondence. The few books which could be carried to the outposts were carefully interchanged. A file of the London "Times," a year old when it fell into the possession of a lucky exile, would serve for a year's perusal.

Twice a year occurred the exciting scenes which attended the arrival and departure of brigades of voyageurs, or bands of natives, with the spoils of the hunt or chase. Many have been the stories told of the trading-room. The natives were admitted singly within its precincts. No specie or paper currency was used, the convenient medium of exchange being found in bundles of little sticks held by the clerk. A beaver represented the unit of value, and the tariff of other skins rose or fell by a fixed estimate. The native would open his pack, and, after the careful examination of its contents by the clerks, he would receive an answering number of these sticks. When all the natives had passed singly through this process, another apartment was in the same manner made accessible to them, one by one. Here they found goods and wares in abundance. These, too, had their fixed prices by the tariff. The purchaser had ample time to make his selection, and when his choice was given he paid for the required amount in sticks. The trade being closed, the Indians, laden with their goods, took their way into the wilds. Then the clerks at the posts had their own well-defined task before them, to sort out the peltries which had been gathered in, and arrange them in packages for transfer across the ocean to the London warehouse. This was a process requiring

much skill and practice. Some of the choicest skins needed to be treated with great care, as a very slight blemish would mar their value.

The life led by these brave and hardy pioneers and adventurers was thus full of hardship and privation. A romantic love of peril and daring would, no doubt, account for the presence in that wild region of many a solitary watcher, but the stern necessities of life and his own dismal loneliness must soon have removed all glamor from the situation, and have called into prominence all the latent strength of his nature. After the operations of the Company had extended into the vast country lying to the west of Hudson's Bay, the names given to some of the most distant and dreary of the northern posts on MacKenzie's River, and the Great Slave Lake, seem to have been intended to keep up the spirits of their occupants. Thus we have "Providence," "Reliance," "Resolution," "Enterprise," "Good Hope," and "Confidence."

It has been, perhaps inevitably, too much the way to find the principal interest in the Hudson Bay Company Annals, to lie in the tales they give of romantic adventure, scenes in wild life, events of exploration, and the occupations and scenes pertaining to the hunting and trapping expeditions, and the contrast of savagery with civilization. The excitement and pleasure of such narrations have led attention away too often from the positive benefits to the world that resulted from their explorations. In their earlier years they were accused of warning others away from the inclement and inhospitable shores where their own wealth was gained, but it must not be forgotten that in 1769 an expedition, solely for purposes of exploration, and in the interests of the

country, was formed and sent into the unknown North by the resident Governor of the Company. This expedition was led by Samuel Hearne, and under his leadership was twice repeated, being, on the last occasion, in 1770, attended with some success, as he traced the Coppermine River to its mouth, and was the first European who crossed the Arctic circle.

In 1836, and again in 1838, the Company organized and sent out Arctic expeditions at its own charges. The British Government recognized this service by conferring a baronetcy on the London Governor of the Company, and knighthood on the local Governor, while the two leaders of the expedition received pensions. No advantage in the special object to which the Company restricted its aims accrued to it from any successes gained in these explorations.

In 1837, when the license for exclusive trade with the natives had expired, and the Governor of the London Company asked of the Crown a prospective renewal for twenty-one years further, the Company was able to show a good cause. The appeal was a strong one. They claimed to have preserved peace on the frontiers, to have kept the Russians from trespassing, and to have favored polar and other explorations. They had made efforts for the improvement and civilization of the country.

At the date just mentioned the Company had so strengthened itself on the Pacific coast, that they had existing sixteen establishments on the coast and sixteen in the near interior. They maintained also in that region several migratory and hunting parties, and six armed vessels, one a steamer, in the Pacific. At the same time they were able to report a most satisfactory condition of things in

the Indian Territory. The liquor traffic with the natives had been suppressed, and the whole community was in a tranquil and comparatively prosperous condition. The Company was seen to be supporting and promoting discovery, science, and surveys at great expense.

Much interest attaches to the events and negotiations that in 1870 culminated in the incorporation of the possessions of the Company with the Dominion of Canada. Novel and important elements conduced to that result. The country was rapidly colonizing, and becoming, consequently, less and less valuable as a reserve for fur-bearing animals. Disputes and difficulties had arisen from time to time regarding boundary lines. In 1867 an Act, designated the "Rupert's Land Act," made it competent for the Company to surrender, and for the Queen to accept, all the lands, privileges, rights, etc., granted to the Company by its charter.

The terms secured by the Company were certainly of a most generous character, and testified to the importance of the position held in national estimation by this venerable corporation. The Company was still in its corporate capacity to be allowed to carry on its trade, and was to be paid for its franchise the sum of £300,000 by the Canadian Government. It was to retain the fee of all its posts and stations, with a reservation of an additional block of land at each of them, together with one-twentieth section of a "fertile belt," to be afterwards decided. All titles of land that had been heretofore given by the Company were to be confirmed. The reserved lands thus covenanted to the Company made up an area of 45,160 acres. No better testimony could be rendered to the value of the Company's operations than that offered by the generosity of these terms.

Nor must we forget, in considering the various benefits that have sprung from the granting of that charter by Charles II. to the "Company of Adventurers," to reflect upon the many books, forming, indeed, an important part of the literature of travel, to which its existence has given birth. Many of them have been written by amateurs from the old world who, from a love of adventure or of hunting, made transient visits to the great Canadian forests. Noblemen and gentlemen are conspicuous on the lists of such authorship, and their narrations lack neither in romance or marvel. But far more comprehensive and communicative of authentic and interesting information is a successive series of works, beginning with the early enterprises of the Hudson Bay Company, and written mainly by those who have been for long periods in its service, and who have, with graphic power, given to us their experiences. These cover the details of daily life and duty at the Company's posts, long tramps on snow-shoes and with dog-sledges over the snow-buried and nearly interminable wilds, and tortuous courses by lake, river, cascade and portage, in the summer season. They told of the ways and doings of the

Indians. These historians of the Hudson Bay Company were bright, intelligent and observant. Those who began as the apprentices of the Company were usually young Scotch peasants from the Orkneys. They were required to pass a close examination, mental, moral and physical. They were sent, on arrival in America, to the furthest posts, and were expected to devote their lives, with promotion in prospect, to the Company's service. For the most part, such books as we refer to were written with vivacity, and are full of interest, portions testifying to the fairness of the Company's treatment of the Indians, and to the wise and kindly character of its dealings with them.

Occasional travellers visiting the outposts of the Company, have ever been unanimous in praise of the courtesy and hospitality they received.

The Directors of the Company at the present time are as follows:—Governor, Right Hon. Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal; Deputy-Governor, the Earl of Lichfield; Committee, Sanford Fleming, C.M.G.; Russell Stephenson, Esq.; W. Vaughan Morgan, Esq.; Thomas Skinner, Esq.; and John Coles, Esq.



Ald. CHRISTOPHER BENFIELD CARTER, K.C.

CHRISTOPHER Benfield Carter was born in Montreal on November 30th, 1844. His father, the late Dr. Carter, was also born in Montreal, and his mother, Amelia J. Coward, was a native of Tiverton, Devonshire, England. Mr. Carter's ancestors came from Yorkshire, England.

Young Carter, at an early age, was sent to the High School, and was subsequently placed in the Commercial Academy at Sorel. After spending some time at the latter institution he was sent to McGill University, where he was a classmate in the Law Faculty with the late Hon. C. A. Geoffron and the present Hon. Judge Robidoux, from whom he graduated B. C. L. in 1866. Mr. Carter then entered the law office of his uncle, the late William H. Kerr, Q. C., and was called to the Bar of the Province of Quebec on the 6th of August of the same year, and immediately formed a partnership with the late Mr. Kerr, which was continued until 1888, when the death of the latter gentleman severed their connection.

Mr. Carter rose steadily in the practice of his profession and in the estimation of the Judiciary and his Colleagues of the Bar, so that in 1889 he was created Q. C. for the Dominion of Canada, and Q. C. for the Province of Quebec in 1899.

Mr. Carter was for several years a member of the Council of the Bar of Montreal. He was elected Treasurer in 1895, and in 1897 was elected Batonnier by acclamation and re-elected the

following year. The same year, May 1898, he was elected Batonnier General by acclamation for the Province of Quebec. On retiring from office in 1899 Mr. Carter was presented with an address by the Bar of Montreal. He was also Treasurer of the Canadian Bar Association.

On the 28th January, 1898, the Bar of Montreal tendered to the Hon. Mr. Justice Jette, upon his appointment as Lieutenant Governor of the Province, an address followed by a reception.

It devolved upon Mr. Cartre, as Batonnier, to present the address.

Mr. Justice Jette, in replying and speaking of Mr. Carter, said:—

"You have, Mr. Batonnier, in assuring me of the esteem of all my confreres at the Bar, graciously united the remembrance of both my professional and judicial careers. I thank you sincerely for this expression of feeling all the more because you were one of those whom I learned to esteem among many, by reason of those foremost qualities of the lawyer, viz.: Uprightness and dignity of character.

"Trained up by one of the most illustrious of our profession, one whose knowledge and talent assigned to him all the great cases, you, like him, have followed the straight path, or to borrow a more significant expression from the language of our old Masters, the path of righteousness.

"The Bar, therefore, did but recognize your merit in conferring upon you the highest dignity of the order, that of Batonnier, while it honored itself by a choice thus made in conformity with its noblest traditions."

Mr. Carter has always devoted himself to the practice of his profession, and represents a number of commercial institutions as their legal adviser. He has been engaged in a number of the most important cases which have come before the Courts of the Province.

He is a member of the Church of England, is unmarried, and a member of St. James's Club.





JAMES COCHRANE



THERE is probably no more interesting sketch in this work than that of James Cochrane, who began life as a poor boy and has risen to the exalted position of Mayor of the Metropolitan City of the Do-

minion, has many encouraging lessons to young men whose only inheritance is willing hands and good sound common sense to guide them through life. Mr. Cochrane is a self-reliant man, independent of character, modest in the extreme, and unlike the majority was not carried away by being elevated to the highest position in the gift of his fellow citizens. Rich and poor are treated alike by his worship, and whether it be workingman, merchant, or manufacturer who may have to see him on business, they all receive the same kindly consideration at his hands. A native of Kincairdine, Perthshire, Scotland, where he was born in 1850, and came to this country at an early age with his parents, settling in Montreal. He received his primary education at the old British and Canadian School in the

vicinity of Dufferin Square, which was completed at the Montreal Collegiate Institute, conducted by the late Mr. Charles Nichols, L.R.C.P. He first entered the employ of the Montreal Telegraph Company, and by close attention to his duty, energy and determination rose step by

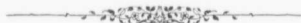
step until he became night manager and chief operator, which position he held for a number of years, when he conceived the idea of traveling to further improve his efficiency, holding similar positions to the one relinquished, in Whitehall, N. Y., Malone, N. Y., Boston, Mass., and other American cities, as well as many important places in Canada, including Sidney, C. B. After having obtained considerable experience



in telegraph operating he decided to make a change, and consequently engaged with the late John J. Macdonald in the construction of the Intercolonial Railway. He also engaged in similar occupations with other contractors and worked on what is known as the famous Contract Fifteen, under Mr. M. J. Haney. In this capacity his keen intellect and uncommon abilities had abundant food for

exercise. He was cautious, energetic and reliable in all his dealings, and no doubt his experience at this particular time was largely due to his great success later on in life. He always displayed that whole-souled general disposition which made friends and left an enviable record behind him everywhere. Between Nepigon and Dog Lake, on the North Shore of Lake Superior he constructed the first line of telegraph through the woods for John Ross, the manager of construction for the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. While in that section of the country and about the same time he rendered an important service to the country by conveying during the North-West Rebellion, all the troops across the Gaps, and for that important service he received the thanks of the government. Notwithstanding his many years of prosperity in the West, Mr. Cochrane at length returned to Montreal and began business extensively in the contracting line. It is needless to dwell on his success, which is largely due to his knowledge and ability of handling men and material to the greatest advantage. Mr. Cochrane was always interested in the welfare of the working class, having joined the Knights of Labor in its early days in Montreal, and was chosen delegate to the Trades and Labor Council, of

which he became vice-president, and was several times elected Master Workman of Warren Assembly. On the occasion of the starting of the Canadian Workmen in 1887, a labor paper, he took a lively interest in it, becoming one of its directors, so that it may be seen from a glance that there is nothing of an assumed or pretentious character on the part of the Mayor in his sympathy for his less fortunate fellow citizens. He is a Liberal in politics and is one of the most ardent friends of the party in the Province of Quebec, and from his many and generous conduct on all occasions he has won for himself numerous friends and admirers, which was very forcibly demonstrated when he was elected to represent St. Lawrence Division in the Quebec Legislature. And again on the occasion of the election for Mayor and Alderman in February 1st, 1902, he was nominated by his friends for the mayoralty, his candidacy was not considered seriously by the upper crust, but the people rallied around him and returned him by over eight hundred majority over his opponent. He is a Governor of the Montreal General and Notre-Dame Hospitals and of the Protestant Insane Asylum. He was married November 24, 1892, to Catherina Mainfield, daughter of the late P. Mainfield, of Montreal.



The Montreal City & District Savings Bank

THE Bank was founded in 1846. The first Managing Directors were: Messrs. William Workman, Alfred LaRocque, Joseph Bourret, L. H. Holton, Sir Francis Hincks, Damase Masson, Henry Mulholland, Pierre Beaubien, Henry Judah, Joseph Grenier, John E. Mills, Nelson Davis, John Tully, Jacob DeWitt and L. T. Drummond.

In 1871 a change was made for the purpose of giving greater security to depositors, and it was decided to form a Joint Stock Company. The accumulated profits of the bank at the time was \$180,000, which now constitutes the Poor Fund, the interest of which is annually distributed amongst the charitable institutions of the city.

This is the only Bank incorporated under the Savings Act doing business in the City of Montreal. Its chief object is to receive and to safely invest the savings, however moderate, of the working and industrial classes.

Its charter is so framed as to afford all

possible protection to depositors, and having no bills in circulation, depositors have the first claim on the funds of the Bank.

The subscribed capital is \$2,000,000; paid up capital \$600,000, and the reserve fund is also \$600,000.

The number of depositors is 58,121, the amount of deposits \$13,119,646.86 and the total assets \$14,797,512.77.

The Directors are: Hon. Sir Wm. Hingston, Senator, President; R. Bellemare, Vice-President; Hon. James O'Brien, Senator, Hon. Justice Ouimet, Michael Burke, Hon. Robert Mackay, Senator, H. M. Molson, Chas. P. Hébert, and Richard Bolton. The Manager, A. P. Lesperance, whose tact and business ability eminently fit him for the

management of such an important institution.

The Head Office is at 175 St. James St., and the Branch Offices are at 1532 St. Catherine St., E; 2312 Notre Dame St. W; 656 Notre Dame St., E; 946 St. Denis, cor. of Rachel and cor. of Centre and Conde St.






STRIKES : The Right and the Wrong.




WITH AN APPENDIX ON BOARDS OF CONCILIATION.

By F. D. HUNTINGTON, S.D.T., LL.D., Bishop of Central New York.



AGREEMENT in a few general principles will simplify the discussion of the particular subject. These principles are supposed to be acknowledged as having the sanction of the science of morals, the Constitution and genius of the Republic, and the Christian religion.



1. In any contract or business relation between the wage-laborer and the wage-payer, the two parties meet on terms of complete equality in respect to the law, to natural common rights, to the claims of respect and courtesy, to all the obligations of fair and patient consideration.

2. This excludes, on the part of the wage-laborer, jealousy, suspicion, eye-service or sham work, under the influence of class-feeling or resentment. It excludes, on the part of the wage-payer, contempt, national or sectional or personal prejudice, all taking advantage from a sense of superior power or social standing, or from any traditional sentiment due to past social distinctions.

3 No transaction is righteous where the necessities, the weakness, the dependence of the laborer are, directly or indirectly, made to reduce the price of his service below an equitable mark, or to delay payment. Moreover, magnanimity,

a real and not an adventitious good-breeding, will make generous allowance, in mixed affairs or passionate excitements, for those who may be deprived of discipline, knowledge and high examples.

4. In cases of difference, however exasperating, a wise forecast will keep both parties in mind that every such struggle has effects far beyond the immediate issue, and that, in the present and prospective state of public feeling, any settlement brought about by sheer coercion is to be deprecated as leaving behind irritation instead of mutual good will, and the discontent of an unhealed wound instead of mutual confidence.

Obviously these propositions, mostly self-evident, are as applicable to corporations, or the officers and members of corporations, as to the individual capitalist or employer. At the beginning is a simple, ordinary bargain. It differs from most bargains in that it contemplates a continuous transaction subject to contingencies. The commodity that the laborer has to sell is his labor, with such skill and experience as may go with it.

A strike is a concerted suspension of work by wage-workers of either sex in the employ of wage-payers for an alleged non-fulfilment of a contract, or as a protest at the alleged imposition of new demands, or for the sake of obtaining some benefit

declared to be deserved on account of new conditions in the line of industry pursued, or in the cost of living, or for the correction of personal offences against wage-workers, especially females, committed by the managers or their subordinates.

Taking into account the disturbances inevitably created by such a summary step, the damage to related branches of business, the risk of loss, temporary at least, to one or both of the parties, the uncertainty of the result, and the probable provocation of ill-temper and consequent alienation, the strike must be regarded as an evil—a measure to be resorted to only in the last extremity, when all other modes of remedy or satisfaction have first been tried.

The primary preventive of strikes is definiteness, and particularly in the original agreement or contract between the employer and the employed. The specifications, without being exhaustive or very numerous, could easily be made to meet ordinary cases of difference and forestall a rupture. Whatever the expense in time or trouble, it would be far less than the damage of a break. It would be shared on both sides. It would, in a great number of instances, prevent the rising of dissatisfaction in the minds of the workmen,—dissatisfaction which, being fomented by sympathy and a brooding sense of injury, leads on to open agitation.

Inasmuch as disagreements may arise which cannot be decided by the terms of the contract, expediency requires, in the second place, a board of conciliation,* which would, of course, be also a board of arbitration. The contract should include a promise by both parties to abide

by the award of the board. Both parties are, of course, equally bound, whether either party is composed of one person, or ten, or a thousand.

No strike can be justified on the ground of reduced wages where it can be proved by the board of arbitration, or otherwise, that the market value of the product of the industry is insufficient to sustain wages at the regular rate. The employer must show his books, the workman what it costs him to live.

Justice demands that, except in extreme necessity, the act which on either side dissolves the contract or suspends the work should not be sudden. The suddenness is a needless element in the injury. Unless there is a patent or actual outrage, notice ought to be given and an opportunity afforded for an amicable adjustment. Either party may apprehend that the other will take advantage of the notice to secure itself and damage the antagonist. This is one of the unavoidable liabilities in society and human affairs. We must abide by the operation of the supreme laws and take consequences, subjecting policy to absolute right. On mere "business principles" either party may cheat, over-reach, or outwit the other. There are, however, other "principles." God lives on; His judgment comes. But, meantime, obligations are mutual and they are equal. If a railway may discharge its hands without warning by the "blue envelope," the hands may discharge the railway in like manner. After reciprocal relations have become common relations, with a reciprocal interplay of fraternal feeling, then both have come under a higher and gracious law, which can be so administered as to bar nine difficulties out of ten. This has

*Appendix A.

been distinctly illustrated in a recent contrast. The gentlemanly officer on one great railroad dealt so reasonably with the combined complainants in his employ as to avert disaster and keep their confidence. On another, a testy official contrived to get the censure of the better part of the community far and wide, and to make his name hated all along a line of five hundred miles. Whether the grievance is a change of old conditions or a refusal to grant new ones, impartial arbitration is assuredly a safe resort. It is practicable. It leaves both parties in a pacific mood, whereas a hard conquest of weaker by the stronger leaves the weaker embittered and hostile; it promotes a reconciliation that is permanent; it is inexpensive; it ought to be recognized and established. The party that refuses it makes a *prima facie* confession of the weakness of its cause. In New Orleans, not long ago, the workmen employed in handling cotton made a formal demand on the cotton-press proprietors for an increase of wages of two cents a bale for compressing and one cent a bale for receiving. The cotton-press employers were slow to act and intimated a refusal, which meant the tying up of the commerce of the port by a strike of both white and black labor. The matter was referred to a committee, and the demand of the laborers was fully conceded. The industry proceeds without interruption.

Serious and needless losses are suffered among workmen and their families by haste, indiscretion and assumption in exciting and ordering strikes where they are not warranted by sufficient cause. If organizations are needed to prevent this mischief, organization becomes an imperative duty. No rash indignation, no

appeals to pride or class spirit, no false loyalty to an irresponsible society, will excuse a wanton waste of time and family comfort. Workingmen lose by it not only what they cannot afford to lose in their own welfare; they lose the respect and sympathy of the wiser part of the community standing ready to befriend them. Experience will satisfy them that a rash and causeless strike is a wicked cruelty—cruelty that must some time be checked by the lessons of suffering and by common sense.

That any number of men in this country have a right to combine, organize and act together for the lawful promotion of their convictions or their common interests ought by this time to be beyond dispute. There is something absurd in setting about proving what nothing but imprudence could deny. If a number of men may combine to raise or keep up the price of oil, wheat or sugar, then there may be a union to raise or keep up the price of labor. An organization of workmen for that purpose is far less likely to do mischief than are the manufacturers or trafficking monopolists who overtax the many for the aggrandizement of the few. It will be likely to have in it manlier men, better characters, a more disinterested public spirit. We have said "lawful promotion." That means that all violence, all interference with personal liberty, all compulsion, all obstruction of other men's lawful action, is forbidden. Yet, while law must be obeyed, it remains true that law itself may be unequal. Money worshippers, who are used to denying that the common gifts of God* to the people belong to the people, are gradually educated to a

*Appendix B.

partial and unjust legislation. Politicians, who have no scruples in damaging and obstructing one another's parties by all sorts of devices, are shocked when they hear, and sometimes when they only suspect, that labor men are doing the same thing. The game is bad for both of them. It takes time to convince unwilling minds, but time is on the side of the Almighty and Everlasting Father of all that live.

The law in some States forbids a strike where a cessation of labor would endanger life or liberty, or violently obstruct men's lawful pursuits. Such a law needs to be very definitely and precisely expressed, or it will be abused by a one-sided interpretation. Corporations, individuals, parties, are constantly obstructing one another's business. It is incidental to a competency system. The Knights of Labor have been charged with arbitrary dictation for restraining their members from taking employment below the established rates. It is forgotten that any instance of such work below the scale lowers the value of every workman's labor, reducing wages to a minimum, and defeating the very object for which the combination exists, membership in which, however, is voluntary. The railway, the factory, the tailors, the mining companies, fix their prices and contend against competition. The Knights fix their scale of wages and contend against competition. Public opinion will evidently demand of the Legislature a law prohibiting the outrageous violence of a squad of "detectives."

It appears plain that any concerted action or speech of operatives, needlessly and maliciously adverse to the character or true and legitimate interests of the employer employing them, is a valid rea-

son for a discharge of such operatives, subject to the terms of the contract. No such reason can be found in a combination of the operatives, or any number of them, for general purposes or the furthering of general objects favorable to their class or calling. Membership in an association representing a social theory, or a plan of mutual support, without any hostile purpose toward any particular institution or enterprise, is no more a justification for discharging workmen than is membership of the officers of a railroad in a political club a justification for an abandonment by the workmen of their work.

If it should appear, therefore, that a great corporation is known to discharge any of its hands for belonging to a political labor organization, and for acting in it according to its lawful rules, and being embarrassed by the consequences retains others so long as they can be made use of to train or initiate raw hands to take their places and no longer, it must expect for a policy so despotic, so vindictive and so mean, the silent, if not spoken, condemnation of a right-minded community.

It has been said in behalf of a rigorous policy toward railroad operatives in a strike that they owe uninterrupted service, whatever their grievances, to the traveling public. In a sense such operatives, like men in most callings, are bound to regard the public convenience; but to urge this as a defence of severity in the company and its management is either superficial or sophistical. It is the railroad that is directly and comprehensively responsible to the public; the responsibility of the workmen is to the company.

By its charter, its immunities, its advertisements, its time-table, its connection with legislatures (the legislature of some

States are generally believed to be controlled by railroads), the company is bound, at whatever cost, to provide a continuous and safe transportation for passengers and freight. Labor is its agent for fulfilling the contract. The laborers fulfil their duty by rendering a stipulated and faithful service to their employers. The inconveniences of a strike enter into the company's risks. The burden must rest where it belongs, and wherever the profits accrue.

It sounds well to say that labor cannot live without capital. In point of fact, taking capital in its technical scientific sense, there is a conceivable, and not impossible, industrial and social state where labor can live without capital independently and comfortably. It has done so, and may do so again. At any rate, capitalists know very well that without labor their capital would not in most cases have been created, and if created, would speedily disappear.

A system in which men and women of the wage-earning class are subjected to the control and caprice of their paymasters is not one that consistent Americans or intelligent Christians can contemplate with complacency or can encourage. "In our courts," says Professor Walker, "a poor man has little hope of receiving justice when his interests conflict with those of powerful corporations. If it be questioned whether a power so arbitrary, so unequal, so dangerous, can look to Christianity for countenance, the answer need hardly be pronounced." In the General Triennial Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church, held in New York in October, 1889, the bishops unitedly declared, in a passage of their pastoral rebuking these injustices, that "it is a

fallacy to look upon the labor of men, women and children as a commercial commodity to be bought and sold as an inanimate and irresponsible thing." "The manufacturing, the professional, the leading classes are, as a rule, concentrated in cities; their interests have for the most part been in common; they can easily combine; they have the press in their hands; they control the school, the college and the church; they are dominant in the caucus, the political convention, the national legislation." "Is this condition, which is becoming more marked by a sweeping tendency every year, a condition contemplated by the founders or at all consistent with the boasted aims of the Republic? Can it possibly be doubted or denied that it calls upon patriots and statesmen for a very prudent and patient consideration of discontent and disorder?"

We hear it offered as an excuse for a sharp policy on the part of capital that the working class are in no danger of depression, in fact that they rather need to be kept down by the strong hand. Is this true? By a recent report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, "one-third of all the persons engaged in remunerative labor are unemployed at their principal occupation for about one-third of their working time." The average annual wage of the operatives in ninety manufacturing establishments in New England, as shown by a professor of the Massachusetts State Agricultural College, was, in 1888, \$441; of the proprietors, \$4,983. Two hundred and fifty thousand families control seventy-five to eighty per cent. of our national wealth, which seventy-five per cent. pays but twenty-seven per cent. of taxes for the support of the Government, while the

owners of but a quarter of the property pay seventy-three per cent.

There are mines now worked in this country where the workers are brought into a condition of cruel serfdom to the owners. Among other despotic hardships workmen and their families, enticed by the prospect of permanent employment, have bought houses on the lots of the owners under mortgage and made partial payments. Finding their privations increasing, driven well-nigh to starvation, they are yet held fast to the spot. They strike; the strike enrages the owners. One extortionate demand follows another. Respectful committees are refused a hearing. Remonstrances are received with scoffs. A superintendent is appointed who does his inhuman task with the relish of a barbarous headman. The necessaries of life must be purchased at the "company store," selling at an arbitrary profit. Knights of Labor are picked out for special oppression or turned out. Promises made by the company are unscrupulously broken. Excuses are invented for grinding and subduing the restless laborer. Just payments of wages are kept back. Charges above the market price are made on coal. The bitterest antipathy is shown to Roman Catholics. Indignities are added to frauds, and insults to barbarities. Yet luxurious capitalists, with every comfort supplied, want as unknown to them as pity, men and women housed and clothed and fed to abundance by riches that they have never earned, sneer, sometimes not without curses, at "those common working people," their emaciated and pale brothers and sisters in the one family of God. Some of them are professors of the religion of the Carpenter of Galilee, the Saviour of the world, the Lord of our

race, Who never pronounced a malediction on the poor or a blessing on the rich.

Good breeding at least will remember that in almost all cases there are advantages on the side of the employer. The men and women employed are apt to be closely pressed, living near to the edge of destitution. They cannot live long without work; their circumstances are narrow; their prospects are uncertain; their children perhaps are in danger of physical or mental starvation; they cannot pick and choose between situations; they must take what comes. The owners of the corporations can better afford to lose or be hindered than the operatives. A humane person having wealth or making money fast will be moved to generous allowances by contrasting in detail the appointments of his house, the resources of his taste, the safeguards of his family, with the bare surroundings and bleak outlook of most of those whose wages he makes as small as he can.*

On the other hand, the disabilities of ignorance are becoming less and less. Not a few of the "hands" in the shops would be found, on a competitive examination, to have learned in their odd bits of time a knowledge of things desirable to be known quite equal in accuracy and extent to that of their employers, once called their "masters." Indeed, it is this very quickening and spread of intelligence which intensifies the suffering and deepens the tragic problem of the laborer's condition. We are told continually that the toilsmen are as well off as their predecessors in the same grade. They might be as well off but for their brains, books, newspapers, reading and debating clubs,

*Appendix C.

the general store of knowledge and awakening of ideas in civilized nations. They are finding out what they have lost, what they expect to have that they have not, what their fair share is in the fruits of their labor. Factory hands, workers in mines, mechanics, seamstresses, are not to blame for living in the nineteenth century. Their repressed aspirations are born of the very social state which our enterprise, Declaration of Independence and public schools have brought about. You cannot boast of the diffusion of light and scold at men for opening their eyes in the same breath. As with knowledge, so with other traits of true manhood. These are not the exclusive growth of parlors and fashionable club-houses, or a successful brokerage. And along with the brain power comes the peril. According to the last report of the New York Commissioner of Labor Statistics, there have been in this State within five years 9,384 strikes, with 338,900 strikers. They are too many. But these men and women are sane; they have common sense, some of them more than common; they are struggling to live; a majority would not so hazard their living without a cause. Wise, thoughtful, patriotic, large-minded captains and guides of industry will take these things into a calm account. The whole nature is degraded and belittled if we forget that the worst evil among the poor is not their poverty, as the best good among the rich is not their riches. It is high time for the Church to preach, and mankind to believe, that a heavenly order of society is not to be postponed to a future world, but is to be set up here on the earth, in that faith which proclaims: "One is your Master, even Christ, and all ye are brethren."

APPENDIX A.

BOARDS OF CONCILIATION.

It is surprising that we, in this country, have as yet made so little use of boards of conciliation. In England they are found in many of the large trades, and, as a direct result, in many businesses strikes have become a thing of the past, and both the wage-workers and the employers are outspoken in their expressions of thankfulness for the more intelligent relations and better feelings that have ensued. Mr. Henry Crompton, in his little book, "Industrial Conciliation" (Henry S. King & Co., London, 1876), attributes the invention of the modern system of conciliation to Mr. Mundella, M. P., and gives the year 1860 as the date of the first board; it was formed in the hosiery trade. Of course, this statement will be understood to imply that a *system of conciliation* is regarded as something distinct from *arbitration*. Mr. Crompton thus contrasts them:—

"Arbitration is not the same as conciliation, but may be used when conciliation has failed, or where there has been no attempt at conciliation. Arbitration is 'after the fact,' and implies that a cause of difference and a dispute have arisen. By arbitration this may be settled, a compromise effected, and war averted; and that whether the dispute relates to past arrangements, as to what are the terms of an existing contract, the just application of those terms to a new state of things, or whether the difficulty is to agree upon future prices or conditions of labor. Desirable as this obviously is, conciliation aims at something higher,—at doing before the fact that which arbitration accomplishes after. It seeks to prevent and remove the causes

of dispute before they arise, to adjust differences and claims before they become disputes. Arbitration is limited to the larger and more general questions of industry, those of wages or prices, or those concerning the whole trade. A board of conciliation deals with matters that could not be arbitrated upon; promoting the growth of beneficial customs; interfering in the smaller details of industrial life; modifying or removing some of the worst evils incidental to modern industry, such, for example, as the truck system, or the wrongs which workmen suffer at the hands of middlemen and overseers. . . . The very difficulties for which arbitration is a remedy are best got rid of by the simplest kind of conciliation in the earliest stages of the difficulty. There may be arbitration without conciliation, but the converse is not true; at least, there cannot be systematic conciliation without some form of arbitration in the background, to be used as a last resort instead of a strike or lock-out. . . . A conciliation board has standing committees, regular times of meeting, and is in fact a machinery for accommodating the conflicting interests of employers and employed" (pp. 16-18).

Of course, for the information of a board of conciliation, it is necessary that the wage-workers and (unless the board is confined but to one shop in the trade) the employers should be organized, in order that accredited representation from both sides should find place on the board. Organization and combination is, however, the order of the day, and when it is understood to be essential to the highest interests of the wage-payer and the wage-receiver, suspicion and jealousy on this score may be expected to disappear.

Boards of conciliation do not usually reach their conclusions by the somewhat crude method of a show of hands. The triumph of a numerical majority is too much like the supremacy of mere force. Mr. Crompton says:—

"The proceedings of the board are very informal, not like a court, but the masters and men sit round a table, the men interspersed with the masters. Each side has its secretary. The proceedings are without ceremony, and the matter is settled by what the men call a 'long jaw' discussion and explanation of views, in which the men convince the masters as often as the masters the men. Of course this does not mean that every member of the board is always convinced, though it seems that even this is very often the case, but when they are not they are content to compromise. . . . It is in fact conciliation, and is far better than the decision of a court or of an umpire. The 'long jaw' ending in agreement may take a longer time, but is the true practical way out of the difficulty" (pp. 37, 38).

Mr. Mundella, in 1868, after eight years' experience on the board, thus speaks on this point:—

"When we came to make our rules, it was agreed that the chairman should be elected by the meeting, and should have a vote, and a casting vote when necessary. I was chosen chairman in the first instance, and I have been the chairman ever since. I have a casting vote, and twice that casting vote has got us into trouble, and for the last four years it has been resolved that we would not vote at all. Even when a working man was convinced, or a master convinced, he did not like acting against his own order, and in some instances we had secessions in conse-

quence of that; so we said: 'Do not let us vote again, let us try if we can agree; and we did agree'" (pp. 36, 37).

It would be pleasant to go on with this description, to state the frequency of meetings (Mr. Mundella's board met once in three months, but could be called together oftener), the value of committees of inquiry, the duties of referee, and to give illustrations of successful boards and the rules of some of those now in practical operation. But for this there is no space. One single example may be given from one of the few boards of conciliation in this country.

The window-glass makers are organized as Local Assembly 300 of the Knights of Labor, with a perceptory in each factory throughout the country. The employers are organized as the Window Glass Manufacturers' Association. The board, which was formed in 1880, consists of three representatives from either side. The board draws up a scale of prices, which runs from July 1 to July 1. In the spring of 1882, the price of window-glass rose rapidly. The firms were making "big money." The men grew restive and proposed demanding a larger share in the profits, with the threat of a strike to back it up. The companies would have increased their wages twenty per cent. rather than have their men go out. But, at the meeting of the men, a few of the leaders rose and appealed to them to stand by their agreement, pointing out to them that they had proposed the principle of conciliation and were bound to be faithful to it. Justice won the day. The men worked by the scale agreed upon until the end of the year. By that time prices had fallen, and the next year's scale showed but little advance.

But now for the sequel. Two years later, in the spring of 1884, the price of window-glass fell. The profits of the companies became less and less; finally they were working at a loss; then some of the gentlemen-managers met and declared: "We cannot stand this strain; it threatens bankruptcy; the men must take lower wages." But, again, a few men, not the richest of those present, rose and said with intense earnestness: "Gentlemen, you have no right to make any such request. The men had you in their power two years ago; they allowed you to pocket your large profits without even asking a share in them for themselves. You must act as honorably by them as they have by you. Mortgage your houses if necessary, but pay every man his stipulated wages up to the day fixed." And they did.

Now, may we not say that both those sets of men had passed through a moral education in mutual trust, in faithfulness to principle, in loyalty to pledged word?

And is not this the training which the business world needs to-day? Do not any hopes for the future depend upon men gaining it? Whoever you may be who now reads these pages, it can hardly be that you do not share at least in the expectancy of coming economic change. It may be that you long for that change,—pray for it. On the other hand, it may be that you find the present state of things highly agreeable and would gladly see it continue. But you know that it will *not* continue. Perhaps the very consciousness of its uncertainty is driving you to a fiercer struggle, a crueler competition, while you still hold the privileges and opportunities that you feel as an exclusive possession, are slipping from

your grasp. But why not face the future? Better still, why not prepare to meet it, not merely with one's own selfish interests in view, but for humanity, for GOD? It is folly to believe that, in a land where men are politically free, industrial slavery can long remain; that men who are learning their equality at the polls will continue in the relations of the Old Dominion as bosses and hands. In the coming age those who labor, whether with hands or brains, will be fellow-workmen in the ennobling effort to produce all that is needed to supply human wants, to enlarge and widen human lives. Why, then, should not employers and employees meet together and frankly acknowledge that our present conditions are wrong and unjust; why should they not, while striving together to remove that injustice, treat each other with confidence and respect; why should they not, while bearing the privations and hardships of the present (hardships that often press more heavily upon the employer than on his men), learn to understand each other, as they must do in that better state to which they both aspire? Preachers have reiterated with painful monotony the truth that this world is a preparation for Heaven; is there not a more immediate lesson to be learnt, that this age is to be made the training-ground for the next? Boards of conciliation may be the practice-field where the virtues that are to conquer the battles that yet await humanity may be drilled and toughened.

It is not with any implied condemnation of employers, as though they were exclusively responsible for the wrongs of the past or the present, but as recognizing the splendid opportunity that now awaits them, that we quote these last sentences of Mr. Crompton's work:—

"This book has been written with the sole object and hope of helping this great

cause on. Each effort upon the onward march has its effect. It is by our united and associated efforts that our progress is assured, and I have sought only to bring to others the 'lamps of invention, and not the firebrands of contradiction.' To me it seems difficult to point to any set of men in history, certainly to none in modern history, on whom a greater and more important duty rested, than at the present moment devolves upon the English capitalists. They have to solve the industrial problem of the world, to discover the truths on which it must depend, and, putting aside the preconceived notions and prejudices of the past, to urge forward the final industrial and social reorganization towards which we are now moving. There cannot be a nobler or more sacred work for men to do."

APPENDIX B.

"THE COMMON GIFTS OF GOD."

What are these "common gifts?" Are they not the air, the sunshine and the rain? Who would deny that these are the gifts of GOD to all His children, that they are the expression of His impartial love? But what if GOD had given these alone, could *man* have enjoyed them—do they not require a further bounty? To be blessed by the air, the sunshine, the rain, man by his very nature must first have footing on the *earth*. Raise him but a few miles above it and the sun will not warm him, the atmosphere will be too rarified to fill his lungs, the clouds will float *below* him, and not one drop will moisten his parched lips. Nor can man separated from the land enjoy the blessings that GOD has bestowed upon him in sun, air and rain. The ocean may be man's highway; it is not his dwelling-place. No matter how the light may

shine, the winds blow or the showers descend upon the seas, man can garner no sheaves from these restless furrows, weave no garments from that fleecy foam. Unless the land be also one of the common gifts of God to His children, His other gifts become of no possible avail. We have denied the truth. We have treated land *not* as a *common gift* but as *private property*; we have subjected it to the same laws that govern the creations of man's hand and brain. Because an individual may have just ownership in what he has made, we have, in our statutes, declared that he could have just ownership in that which God has made, and made for all, not for a few. This falsehood wrought but little harm in the early days of our sparsely-settled colonies, when the supply of land seemed limitless, and access to it was practically free. To-day, in our highly-organized civilization, with every acre in most of our Eastern States in private hands, with land in great cities reaching a value of \$5,000,000 an acre, with one family in our great metropolis drawing rent from as many lots as would reach the whole length of Broadway, with 93 per cent. of the dwellers in New York mere tenants, the denial of the simple truth concerning the common gifts of God is producing manifold injustice and boundless inequalities that are iniquities as well. Thus the real underlying cause of the industrial war between laborers and capitalists is the narrowing down and restricting of individual effort and healthful competition by a "partial and unjust legislation." Men are shut out from the sources of production which God has so richly provided, and thus a brutal struggle ensues, like that of the Black Hole in Calcutta, for such advantages as the strong can secure

by thrusting the weak to the wall. Strikes become a struggle in the dark, each man dealing his blows blindly at his fellow, because neither sees the real oppressor, the monopoly of God's gifts, that is rapidly crushing both employer and employed in its relentless grasp.

APPENDIX C.

"But, then, good society has its claret and its velvet carpets, its dinner engagements six weeks deep, its opera and its fancy ball-rooms; rides off its *ennui* on thorough-bred horses, lounges at the club, has to keep clear of crinoline-vortices, gets its science done by Faraday, and its religion by the superior clergy, who are to be met in the best houses; how should it have time for belief and emphasis? But good society, floated on gossamer wings of light irony, is of very expensive production, requiring nothing less than a wide and arduous national life condensed in unfragrant deafening factories, cramping itself in mines, sweating at furnaces, grinding, hammering, weaving under more or less oppression of carbonic acid, or else spread over sheep-walks, and scattered in lonely houses and tents on the clayey or chalky corn-lands, where the rainy days look dreary. This wide national life is based entirely on emphasis—the emphasis of want, which urges it into all the activities necessary for the maintenance of good society and light irony; it spends its heavy years often in a chill, uncarpeted fashion, amid family discord unsoftened by long corridors. Under such circumstances there are many among its myriad of souls who have absolutely needed an emphatic belief. Life in this unpleasurable shape demands some solution, even to unspeculative minds." — GEORGE ELIOT, "*Mill on the Floss*." Book 4, Chapter 3.



The
STANDARD SHIRT
COMPANY, LIMITED.
MONTREAL.

Sample Rooms
MONTREAL.
TORONTO.
LONDON, ENGL.

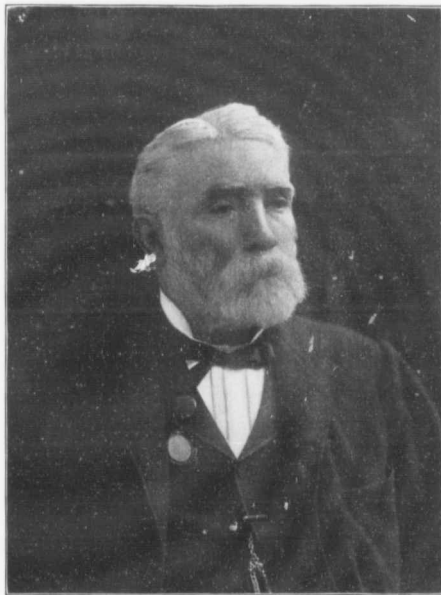
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FRANCIS BERNARD McNAMEE



HERE are so many born in the lap of luxury, who travel through life without the exercise of the slightest energy of brain or muscle,

years of age, possesses the faculty of grasping the drift of affairs without difficulty. He is of medium height, solidly built, and, like Napoleon or Wellington,



that it is a pleasing duty to dilate on the successful endeavours of a man who has struggled through great obstacles in his early career and attained an enviable position later on in life. Francis Bernard McNamee, although possibly seventy-five

always commands his own forces. He is the workingman's strongest friend; a capitalist, in the sense of having earned it, his greatest aspiration is to see the vexed question of capital and labor settled on a basis where all concerned can be

satisfied, and to that end he has given this great problem many hours of deep thought and attention.

Mr. McNamee was born in the town of Cavan, Ireland, in October, 1828. He received his primary education in the old land. His father, George McNamee, a butcher by trade, with his mother, Ellen Rehill, and their family, landed in Montreal in July, 1839. Young Frank was sent to school in the basement of the Church of Notre Dame, for the purpose of procuring a good French education, which was followed by a course in the Seminary Hall for three years.

He started to work at the age of fourteen making roads around Mount Royal. Later he found himself swinging a pick and shovel in the Schoolkill Canal, Pottsville, Pennsylvania, where he remained for three years, after which he returned to Montreal and secured employment from the Government as foreman, building the emigrant sheds at Point St. Charles, 1847. In 1852 Mr. McNamee was engaged by Rignay and Ferris, owners of the Quebec and Richmond Railway, and subsequently sold to the G. T. R. Company, which was organized about the same year, when he entered the employ of the contractors of the Company, Messrs. Jackson, Brassy, Peto and Betts. During the winter of 1852-1853 Mr. McNamee removed a large steam boiler from Quebec to Montreal in twenty-six days with the aid of twenty-eight horses and large sleighs specially built for the purpose under his supervision. This boiler was the first instalment of plant in the G. T. R. Works at Point St. Charles. In 1855 the subject of this sketch was awarded his first contract for the construction of the Quebec water works, and after three years he

returned to Montreal, where he secured the contract for opening Seigneurs Street from St. Joseph Street to the canal.

Mr. McNamee next secured a contract from the G. T. R. for the supplying of ties and fence lumber, from Montreal to Riviere du Loup and Island Pond. In 1867 he built two locks and one section of the Chambly canal; then followed the building of wharves at Montreal and the dredging of the Gatineau River. Next came his masterpiece of work, the immense contract for constructing the inland cut, in connection with the Montreal water works; also about one-third of the wharves of Montreal harbor and fifty miles of colonization roads in Compton County. Many other large contracts followed, such as section three of Lachine canal, the building of the Carillon dam, at that time the largest of its kind in the world, and Mr. McNamee was highly eulogized by the press of the country on the successful completion of such a huge undertaking. About that time he also constructed several sections of the Welland canal; also some heavy dredging operations, including the deepening of six miles of the Lachine canal, the making of a large cut through Ashbridge Bay, Toronto, known as the McNamee Cut, for the purpose of purifying the waters of the harbour.

Mr. McNamee is interested in several business enterprises, including the Montreal Stock Yards Co., the Bell Telephone Co., the Montreal Union Abattoir Co., the Montreal Lighterage Co., Mount Royal Incline Railway, Belaire Race Course, Elizabeth, N. J., Race Course, Northern Insurance Co., City of Montreal Permanent Bonds. He is also connected with several charitable institutions and societies.

A life governor of the General and Notre Dame Hospitals, also a life governor and member of the board of management of the Western Hospital, is connected with the Montreal Foundling Asylum, Society of Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, a member of the Board of Trade, President of St. Patrick's Society for several years, Justice of the Peace for over thirty years, also a member of the Catholic Sailors' Club, of which he has been president for several years.

Mr. McNamee became a member of the Club at its inception, and began to evince a deep interest in its workings about seven years ago. From that time onward the Club showed a steady and marked improvement, until to-day the institution is second to none of its kind on this continent. At the outset, the building or room occupied by the Club was of very small proportions, but when the master hand of Mr. McNamee was placed on the steering gear the institution made

rapid progress, and seven years ago more commodious quarters were secured that were considered large enough for at least twenty years, but the Napoleon of the seamen put forth so much energy that the present spacious building has already become inadequate for the requirements of the Club, so much so that adjoining buildings, together with the one now occupied, have been purchased, where a commodious building will be erected, with a large concert hall and a theatrical stage, equipped and fitted up with the most modern and up-to-date appliances and conveniences for the happiness and comfort of the sailors, and there is no doubt that generations of seamen yet unborn will bless the work of F. B. McNamee and remember him as the father and benefactor of the Catholic Sailors' Club.

Mr. McNamee married, in 1854, Mary Ann Byrne, of Quebec. Six children were born to them, two of which are living.





A Glance into the Future



By L. O. DAVID

THE marvellous progress of industry and commerce, the general increase of wealth, and the intellectual development of the working classes are giving rise to problems the solution of which may well occupy the attention of thinkers, philosophers and statesmen.

The economic conditions of the world are being rapidly transformed. Landed property no longer holds, to the same extent, the place which it formerly held in the creation of wealth. Trade and manufacturing enterprises are now its rivals, and draw in their train armies of active, stirring and intellectual men whose influence is daily increasing. Formerly the great fortunes were in the hands of the owners of the soil, and were the fruit of years, of perhaps centuries of economy and careful management. To-day the great commercial and industrial enterprises and the stock-jobbing on the exchange create wealth as if by enchantment and make millionaires by hundreds and even by thousands.

Under the old order it was the work of generations to amass a fortune of a hundred millions; in our age less than a single life has been sufficient. Formerly the growth of a large city was a matter of centuries. In our own times half a century has sufficed to create a city of two million souls.

If this species of capital creates millionaires, it has also resulted in the formation of an immense class of artisans, of active workmen and contractors, in whom modern education has developed a large measure of intelligence, self-confidence and aspirations towards a higher position in life.

We are only at the beginning of the struggle between capital and labor, and it will require the united wisdom of the world's statesmen to prevent it from covering the earth with ruins.

A revolution is no longer necessary to gain liberty or destroy a despot; for tyranny has become impossible. To-day the struggle is for an improved position, for social equality. On one side is capital, the millionaires, the "trusts"; on the other is labor, with its millions of vigorous arms and its intelligence developed by modern education. There lies the battlefield of the future, for which a tremendous struggle is preparing.

Education is a benefit and a necessity of civilization; but the more it develops the mind and character the more it also develops the appetites, the ambitions, the desire for a better position and a greater measure of the enjoyment of life. The more intellectual the poor man becomes, the more he endeavors to improve his position and remove its social inequalities; the more will he discover that to

become a millionaire, with a thought above mere money getting, he can only do so by strenuous work and constant striving.

When will the day arrive when the enormous masses of workingmen throughout the world will rise up in the face of the capitalists and demand their share of the wealth which they create?

That this day will yet come is as easy to foresee and predict as it was to foresee and predict those revolutions through which, in times past, the people have conquered their liberty. That day will be a day of terror—a "Dies Irae." Who will resist these masses of workingmen, united under one flag and one leader, by the same sentiment?

As it has always been, when the struggle begins, reasonable men in both camps will be brushed aside and violence will have a free field.

But what can be done to avoid these disasters? The united wisdom of thinkers, of philosophers, and of those who are at the head of the State and the Church will not more than suffice to prevent the dangers which threaten society.

They must urge on both parties moderation, the spirit of conciliation, of charity and resignation. They must warn the capitalist, as well as the workingman, against all unreasonable demands. They must remind the capitalist of the miseries which fall upon the pride of the rich and powerful, and equally they must urge upon the workingman the dangers of anarchy.

They must convince both parties that their duty is to make sacrifices, to make concessions at any price, in order that they may avoid the conflict which will cover the earth with ruin.

The mistake of the powerful has always been that they make concessions too

late; they wait until the tempest bursts before they realize their danger.


Capitalists need not expect that the workingmen of the future will consent to suffer, to want for bread, in order that they may be permitted to amass their millions. They must be prepared to adopt a system of participation; to divide their enormous profits with those who have assisted in gaining them.

Already, in some cases, great industrial leaders have put in practice this humane system. They have formed, with their employees, vast associations, where each has a part in the profits proportionate to his contribution to the capital, and to his part of the work. This system has produced the most salutary results, and it will become more and more useful and necessary in creating harmony between labor and capital.


Not only will it remove all feelings of jealousy and bitterness, all discontent and rancour, but the capitalists themselves, who have adopted this system, are the most highly satisfied with it. The interest of each to promote the common interest constitutes one of the strongest elements in bringing about prosperity.

To this system let us add the principle of arbitration as a means of settling the differences which arise between patrons and their workmen, and there will be room for hope that the great struggle between capital and labor will be delayed, if not altogether prevented.

Of all the problems of the future, this is the one which should, in the highest degree, engage the attention and the best powers of mind of churchmen and statesmen, and of all good citizens of every country.



The St. Lawrence Sugar Refining Company, Limited



THIS enterprising Company commenced business with the inauguration of the national policy in 1879 in the premises of the Decastro Syrup Company, whom they succeeded in their works in King Street. The most modern machinery at the time was placed in the establishment for the manufacture of sugar. The factory was only of limited dimensions, but the very superior article turned out and placed on the market by the new refinery was always readily absorbed by the wholesale trade, and so excellent a reputation was established from the outset and kept up that the demand was so great that the moderate space at the disposal of the Company was taxed to its utmost.

In 1887 the refinery in King Street was destroyed by fire, and within a year a new and very extensive sugar house, equipped with all the most modern and up to date appliances for the refining of sugar, was ready for operation. The site selected for the new refinery was at Maisonneuve, and the reason for the choice of this locality was the great facilities it offered by its close proximity to the river and the immense wharf accommodation, enabling the Company to discharge their cargoes of raw sugar in front of their extensive store houses. Ever since that time the Company, with an increased capital as well as a very much enlarged capacity has done all the business they could handle. The unprecedented success met with by the St. Lawrence Sugar Refining Company is no doubt largely

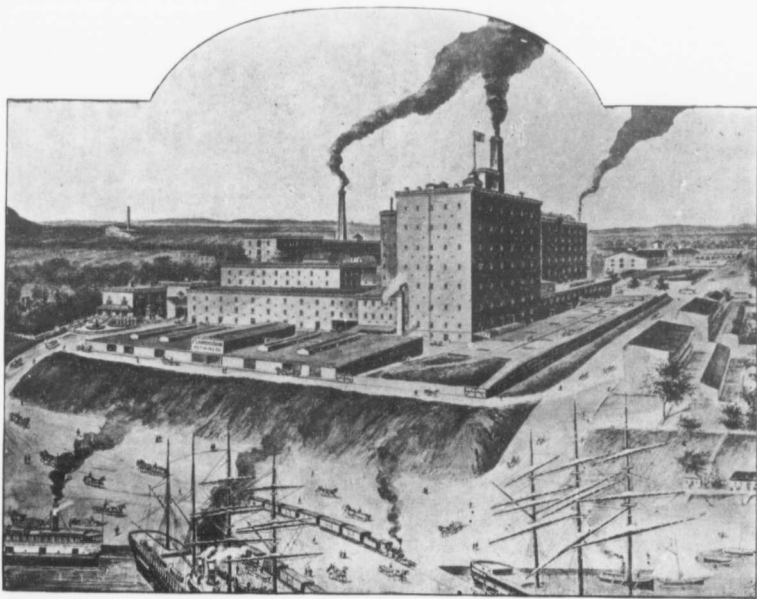
due to the careful and thorough business training displayed by the managing directors.

In connection with this sketch will be seen a cut of the genial and very much esteemed President of the Company, Mr. A. Baumgarten, Ph. D., who has been engaged in the manufacture of sugar in Germany and the United States before coming to Canada, so that it may be seen at a glance that from so varied an experience he is possessed of a good sound, practical and thorough knowledge of every detail concerning the business, in fact, Mr. Baumgarten is justly considered one of the leading men in his line.

The Vice-President, Mr. Theodore Labatt, a cut of whom does not appear in connection with this article, by reason of the fact that a portrait could not be secured because all avenues for so doing were blocked to the writer, like the President, is possessed of a modesty that prevented us from obtaining the slightest data whatever for a personal sketch, so that we must be content with saying that Mr. Labatt, without the slightest doubt, is a first class salesman, a financier of a very high order and possessed of a disposition and training that eminently fits him for the important position he occupies. It is, therefore, no matter of surprise that under the watchful care and management of these two gentlemen the St. Lawrence Sugar Refining Company has succeeded in sustaining the very high reputation of their product and reliable administration of their business dealings.



A. BAUMGARTEN, Ph. D.



THE ST. LAWRENCE SUGAR REFINING COMPANY, LIMITED.



JOSEPH WARD



ONE of the most active and enterprising members of the Montreal export and import trade in agricultural products is Mr. Joseph Ward, who was born at Richelieu village, forty-eight years ago. He received his first education at Chambly and afterwards completed his studies at the Montreal Business College. He speaks both languages with equal fluency.

At the age of sixteen, Mr. Ward commenced the struggle of life; in the year 1870 he became an employee of Messrs. David Robertson and A. G. McBean, produce dealers. Of late years he was also special partner of the old established seed house of The Wm. Evans Seed Co., where he remained until the winding up of its affairs, necessitated by the death of Mr. Evans. In 1879, when still a young man only 25 years of age, he founded the firm of Joseph Ward & Co., of which he is still sole proprietor, and which is justly considered the leading commercial house of Montreal in the importation and exportation of agricultural produce. Mr. Ward is the founder and one of the principal partners of the Canadian Dairy Supply Co., Ward & Taylor, De Laval Manufacturing Co., and also the Montreal Cold

Storage and Freezing Co. Each of the four establishments we have mentioned contribute together, each in its own sphere, to promote agricultural interests in Canada.

The firm of Ward & Taylor, under the able management of Mr. C. R. Taylor, formerly in the employ of Mr. Ward and now his partner, deal largely in grains and fodders to the local trade and for export, thus being a useful intermediary between producer and consumer.



Mr. Ward is the principal partner of the Canadian Dairy Supply Co., doing business all over Canada and being at the head of that trade. The two thirds of modern butter and cheese factories in Canada have been equipped by this firm, which has

been the first to introduce cream separators into this country. The Canadian Dairy Supply Co., under the energetic management of Mr. John S. Clunie, formerly employed by Mr. Ward, and now his partner, supplies, at easy and long terms, the best appliances in the world for butter factories and is constantly on the watch to introduce any improvement that may be useful to the dairy industry.

Messrs. Ward and Clunie are also directors and two of the founders of the

De Laval Manufacturing Co., employing a complete staff of expert mechanists manufacturing cream separators in Canada, thus reducing the productive price and enabling butter makers to have their tools and implements renewed or repaired with more dispatch and less expense.

He was one of the first to invest capital in the cold storage business and was one of the founders of the Montreal Cold Storage and Freezing Co. This concern has been the starting point of numerous cold storage establishments in Canada, and through his spirit of enterprise Montreal has become one of the greatest centres of dairy produce in America. Before we had cold storage warehouses, the annual exports of butter and cheese from the Port of Montreal were less than 900,000 packages,

while there were more than 1,750,000 from New York. Now their number is above 2,000,000 from Montreal, while it has gone down to less than 500,000 in New York. Cold storage establishments have entirely transformed and more than doubled the export trade of butter and cheese. A considerable part of these exports are American butter and cheese, sent to England by way of Montreal.

All these organizations make a united whole, helping our farmers to keep up with the times and to improve agriculture.

There are few men in any branch of our trade who have equally contributed with Mr. Ward in the material progress of our city, and the agricultural and dairy interests of the Dominion.



		WILLIAM McNALLY		
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IN years gone by, men with small means had opportunities of starting in business and acquiring a comfortable competence, but in this age of huge combinations of capital and corporations of great magnitude it may be easily understood how difficult it is, and what an unusual amount of energy and business enterprise a man must be possessed of to hold his own in the race for wealth, much less than to have acquired a considerable fortune and a position of influence in the mercantile community at an early age like that of Mr. Wm. McNally. Born in Montreal, June 22nd, 1855; son of the late Bernard McNally, of Monaghan, and Ann Childrose of Limerick, Ireland. His father was for over thirty years superintendent of the Allan Line. He was educated at the Christian Brothers' School, and at the age of fifteen he commenced his business career in the employ of James Robertson & Company. After a short time with that concern he spent about two years with Carvill, Barr & Co., Hardware Merchants, when owing to his activity and business energy, he was induced to enter into an engagement as a commercial traveller with the firm of Copeland & McLaren, which connection, however, lasted only two years, owing to

the great business depression in the early seventies, after which he founded the present firm of Wm. McNally & Co. in 1876. Mr. McNally married, in 1880, Miss Annie, daughter of the late Owen McGarvey, of Montreal. Four children has blessed their union, two sons and two daughters.

The oldest son is now travelling for the firm of Wm. McNally & Co.

Mr. McNally is President of the Montreal Sewer Pipe Association, ex-Vice-President of the Dominion Commercial Travellers' Association, ex-Councillor of the Board of Trade, Director Mount Royal Fire Insurance Co., Director People's Mutual Building Society, life member Montreal Amateur Athletic Association and the Mechanics' Institute,



Vice-President St. George Snow Shoe Club, and member of the Shamrock Athletic Association and the Thistle and St. Lawrence Curling Clubs. Mr. McNally is so highly esteemed by all classes of the community that, in 1900, when his name was mentioned as a possible candidate for the Mayoralty, it was received with so much enthusiasm and popularity on all sides that he would certainly have been elected by acclamation, but owing to business interests and a quiet and retiring disposition, he does not particularly relish the turmoil of political life, and is more content with the quieter spheres of action in which his influence can be felt.



WALTER PAUL



THE subject of this sketch furnishes in his career a powerful proof of the fact that in the Dominion of Canada a man equipped with a sound judgment, tenacity and upright principles, must of necessity achieve success. Mr. Paul has worked for all he has won, content to advance step by step and his acquirements have not been beyond his deserts.

A self-reliant and independent man, he is entirely self-made and his life story testifies to his possession of exceptional abilities, along with all the qualities that go to make a useful and public-spirited citizen.

Mr. Walter Paul was born in Stirling-shire, Scotland, 1838, son of the late John Paul, who was a farmer of the village of Killearn, Scotland. Mr. Paul learned the grocery business in Glasgow. He left his native land for Quebec, where he landed in 1863, and remained for three years. Reaching Montreal in 1866, he obtained a position in the store of Alexander McGibbon, and after eight years service with that large establishment Mr. Paul went into business on his own account at the corner of Metcalfe and St. Catherine

Streets, and has done a prosperous and ever increasing business in that locality up to the present time. It may be said of the business conducted by Walter Paul, that from a comparatively small beginning, through his integrity, pluck, energy and straightforward, manly and honest dealings, it has grown to be one of the largest and most reliable houses in the grocery trade in Montreal.



While Mr. Paul attended closely to his business, yet his nature and disposition is such that he considered it his duty to help his fellow-man, and consequently he devoted a great deal of time to temperance work and religious institutions. He is a Director of the Y.M.C.A., Vice-President of the Dominion Alliance, a Director of the Presbyterian College and also the Ottawa Ladies' College, member of the Montreal Presbytery & General Assembly; he

is also connected with Sunday School work, a member of the Caledonian Society and a J. P. Mr. Paul was twice married, first to Miss Bell, daughter of the late James Bell, of Quebec, in 1869, and next to Margaret, daughter of the late Alexander Henderson, formerly of Quebec, he has a family of eight children, six sons and two daughters.

CAPITAL AND LABOR

By BISHOP JOHN L. SPALDING, PEORIA, ILL.



THE people of America have many things to be thankful for. The material resources of our country are so great that as yet neither we nor the world at large have been able to measure their extent.

Hidden storehouses of wealth are continually revealed to us. We are energetic, industrious, brave and untiring. We are convinced of the supremacy of mind over matter, and we make ceaseless and increasing efforts to educate the spiritual faculties of the whole people. We are averse to war and believe that disputes should be settled by discussion and arbitration. We are opposed to standing armies, believing that the national wealth and intelligence should be devoted to the improvement and culture of the citizens, and not to conquest and destruction. We have no powerful neighbor to repel or overthrow. Our comparative exemption from war has made possible the rapid development of our country.

The love of peace, which is a characteristic of the American people, manifests itself also in religious good will and toleration. As dynastic wars are for us out of question, so are religious wars. The spirit of forbearance and helpfulness manifests itself in our customs and habits as in our legislation. In no other country

is it so generally diffused. Nowhere else is opportunity for woman as for man so universal; nowhere is there such faith in the national destiny; nowhere has the fusion of peoples differing in many and important respects been brought about so rapidly or so satisfactorily; nowhere are the multitudes so eager to learn or so quick to avail themselves of new discoveries and inventions.

The millions from foreign lands who have founded homes here are making other millions in the old world thankful that America exists. We are indeed a source of hope and confidence to all, in whatever part of the earth, who love justice and liberty, who believe in a higher and more blessed social and religious future for mankind. Already we are the possessors of greater wealth than any other nation possesses or has ever possessed; and though a few men whose names stare us in the face from the pages of the newspapers, have fortunes that seem almost fabulous, there is diffused among the masses of the people a well-being and comfort such as exists in no other land. This may be perceived in the housing of the people, in their clothing, in the wholesomeness of their food, and above all, in the spirit of courage and helpfulness which pervades our whole life.

There is no gulf between the rich and the poor, but a graduation of generally distributed possessions.

EVILS NOT TO BE IGNORED.

Nevertheless it is obvious that when there is question of American life, a merely optimistic view is a shallow and a false view. There are great and widespread evils among us, as also tendencies which, if allowed to take their course, will lead to worse evil. There is a universal political corruption. There is the diminished sense of the sacredness of property. There is the loosening of the marriage tie and the sinking influence of the home. There is a weakening of the power to apprehend spiritual truth and a consequent lowering of the standards of value, a falling away from the vital principles of religion, even while we profess to believe in religion. There is, indeed, enough and more than enough to keep all who cherish exalted ideas of the worth of human life and who love America, lowly minded and wretched.

One of the most certain signs of decadence is a failure of the will, and one might think that we are threatened with this. Our ability to react against abuses is growing feebler. The social organism is so vast and so complex that it seems hopeless to attempt to interfere, and so we permit things to take their course, abdicating the freedom of will in the presence of an idol which we call destiny. The more public opinion is shaped by the ideals of evolution as the supreme law of life the less capable we become of bringing reason and conscience to bear upon human affairs, or recognizing God's presence in the world, and holding to truth and love as something higher and mightier than a universe of matter.

The course of things is, indeed, but partially subject to human control. Human progress nevertheless depends chiefly on human intelligence and energy, which, if they cannot create, can shape and guide.

The one means of promoting the welfare of man is labor—effort. It alone can develop his mind, can form his character, can protect him from the blind forces of nature and provide him for what is necessary for his comfort and dignity. The end of labor is the strengthening and enrichment of life, and the best measure on man, individually and collectively.

The end is not abundance of riches, but noble life, healthful, pure, intelligent, brave and loving. No wealth can enrich the brutal and the base; no possessions can purchase joy or peace for the slaves of appetite. Where right human life is led—a life of faith, hope and love, of thought and self-control, of industry and self-denial—to live with as few material and animal wants as possible ennobles man.

SUM OF PRACTICAL WISDOM.

To learn to live with as little as possible and to waste nothing that is needful is the sum of practical wisdom. Socrates was happy in thinking how many things the world is full of which he did not need. Simple pleasures are the best. Expensive luxuries harm those who indulge in them, and bring misery to many.

The highest ambition springs not from the desire to rise in the world, but from the will to lead an honest, helpful life, whatever one's circumstances. One may be a wise, good and happy man, or a foolish, wicked and miserable man, whether rich or poor. We must have food, shelter and clothing that we may live; but we

should live not to be fed and housed, but to grow in knowledge and virtue, in helpfulness and holiness.

For the most fortunate men life is full of difficulties and troubles; for the poorest it may be filled with light, peace and blessedness.

To be a man is to think as well as to work, and the more intelligence there is in the work the better shall it be for the workers.

Reason as well as religion impels those who work with the head and those who work with the hands to cooperation, not to conflict. The interests of both are best served when they are friends. If labor is not directed by ability it is sterile.

The notion that those who work with the hands are the sole producers of wealth is a fallacy which should deceive no one. The vast increase of wealth in the modern world of industry and commerce is the result to a far greater degree of ability than of labor. It has been produced chiefly by the comparatively few men of exceptional gifts, who have invented machines, organized enterprises, opened markets, and thus given work and sustenance to millions who but for them would never have been born.

Capital itself, which makes our great undertakings feasible, is largely stored ability—ability embodied and made permanently fruitful in the means of production and distribution. Columbus did not sail his ships, but had it not been for his genius they would not have sailed at all; and had the mutinous crew thrown him overboard, they would have drifted to death and the new world had not been discovered.

The natural sources of wealth had existed in America for countless ages, but the savages who dwelt here lived in poverty

and wretchedness because they lacked men of ability to lead them to the conquest of the riches of whose existence they were ignorant.

Capital is like an exquisite musical instrument—valueless if there is no one who knows the secret of its uses, and the men of ability who know how to use capital wisely are as rare as excellent musicians. Laborers may be compared with soldiers, who conquer only when they are disciplined, equipped and commanded by men of ability.

ABILITY AND LABOR AS PRODUCERS.

If has been calculated that two-thirds of the wealth produced in the 19th century were due to ability, and but one-third to the work of those who toil with their hands. This applies to spiritual not less than to material wealth. The great advances of mankind, in whatever sphere, have been made through the genius and under the leadership of a few highly endowed individuals—the prophets of better things—the subduers of the foes of man, the pioneers of progress.

Laud and labor are the primary sources of wealth, but its production in the modern world is due chiefly to ability, working with capital, which it more than any other agency has created. Nothing is more wonderful than the hand, but its almost miraculous power is due to the fact that it is the instrument of the brain.

In former times the men of ability were drawn to devote themselves to war or government or philosophic speculation, but now more than ever before they throw themselves into industry and commerce, making the pursuit of riches their life-aim. This is the career which seems to promise the most immediate and the most substantial results; and the really able men are so

few and the work to be done is so immeasurable and so complex that the demand for those exceptional individuals is greater than the supply.

Every great enterprise, every great business concern, needs for its success what they alone can give. Hence they command salaries which seems to be exorbitant; hence they grow rich, become capitalists and form combinations of capital which appear to many to be a menace to the freedom and welfare of the whole people.

Competition, which begins as a struggle for existence, finally becomes a desire to crush and dominate a warfare which, if less bloody, is not less horrible or cruel than that which is carried on with shot and shell. As in battle, the generals, however humane they be, think only of victory, and are heedless of the suffering and the loss of life; so in the struggle for industrial and commercial supremacy, the men of ability, the leaders and capitalists, are wholly bent on the attainment of their ends, and easily lose sight of the principles of justice and humanity.

HENCE THE TRADES UNIONS.

It is this that makes the organization of workman into labor and trades unions inevitable and indispensable. The consciousness that if they do not protect and defend themselves they will be ground by the wheels of a vast machine or reduced to a condition little better than that of slaves, compels them to unite lest they be deprived of the common rights of man.

In ancient times laborers were slaves; it is not long ago since multitudes of them in our own country were slaves; and however the fact be disguised the natural tendency of greed, of the love and pursuit of material things as the chief good of life,

is to deaden the sense of justice and humanity, to make the strong, the men of ability, feel that they have the right to do whatever they are able to do. They are not necessarily unjust or cruel, but they become the victims of a false belief and the agents of a system which is as pitiless as a law of nature.

One of the chief forces by which this tendency is held in check is the religious principle and feeling that men are the children of God, and have inalienable rights; that work should enable the worker to lead a life not unworthy of a rational being; that riches which are procured at the cost of human misery and degradation are accursed; that what constitutes the proper value of individuals and of nations is spiritual and not material; that there is eternal wrath in store for all who trample upon moral and intellectual good that they may add to their possessions.

These truths are accepted by the public opinion of the civilized world, and hence there is a general sympathy with laborers in their efforts to obtain justice and to improve their condition. All who observe and reflect recognize the fact that their lot is hard, that they bear an undue share of the burdens of life, that they are often forced to do work which is destructive of health and happiness, and that they are exposed to greater vicissitudes of fortune than others.

All this, however, would accomplish little for their improvement if they themselves remained indifferent, if they did not discuss and come to a fully consciousness of their grievances, if they did not by strikes and other lawful means make strenuous efforts to increase their wages or to prevent them from falling, if they did not agitate for fewer hours of work and what-

ever else may give them leisure and opportunity to cultivate their spiritual natures and thus to make themselves capable of enjoying life in a rational and Christian way.

Economic laws, which are immutable, make it impossible that wages should rise beyond a given point, or that wealth should be so distributed as to make all men rich. The multitude are poor and can never be rich.

It is indeed fortunate that it is impossible that the masses of mankind should ever be able to lead an idle and luxurious life. It is a law of human nature that man should work and abstain, if it is to be well with him; that to do nothing and enjoy much is impossible.

RESTS ON BASIS OF MORALITY.

Political economy, like government, rests on a basis of morality. Moral character alone can give a man self-respect, courage, hope, cheerfulness and power of endurance. Hence the laborers, and all who identify themselves with their cause, should have a care first of all that they be true men—provident, self-restrained, kindly, sober, frugal and helpful; and that this may be possible, also religious.

The foe of labor is not capital, but ignorance and vice. In the whole English-speaking world, at least, its worst enemy is drink. More than a combination of all employers, the saloon has power to impoverish and degrade workingmen. In

their own ranks the traitors are those who preach irreligion and anarchy.

The influence of Christianity has been and is the chief power which has brought the world to recognize the rights of the enslaved, the poor, the weak, of all who are heavy-laden and over-burdened. It arouses and it alone can sustain enthusiasm for humanity. If this faith could die out, what would remain but the law of the survival of the fittest, that is, of the strongest, the most unscrupulous, the most reckless of the sufferings and sorrows of their fellow men? These are the men who prosper among the savages, in barbarous states, and in periods of anarchy.

But it is not conceivable that the civilized world should turn from the principles which Christ proclaimed, whose development and diffusion must in the end substitute for universal competition—the war of all upon all—the cooperation of all with all, not merely or chiefly for the winning of the bread that nourishes the body, but above all for the spread of the higher life of truth and love, or purity and goodness.

In America, assuredly, we have good reason to take a hopeful view of the future. No foreign power can offer hindrance to our progress in the fulfilment of our God-given rights, which are not only to secure equal rights, liberties and opportunities to all the people, but so to educate and inspire all the inhabitants of this great continent that they may all work together to shape here a nobler manhood and womanhood than the world has ever seen.

Hon. Henry George Carroll, K.C., M.P.

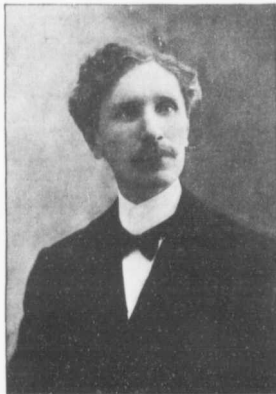
HONORABLE Henry George Carroll is Solicitor General of Canada and member of Parliament for the electoral district of Kamouraska, Province of Quebec. Besides being a lawyer of note in his province and devoting for years a considerable share

of his time to politics, the subject of the present sketch is a man of literary tastes and acquirements. It is safe to say that he has not an enemy in the House, though his convictions have been firmly expressed on all the important issues that have engaged the attention of the Federal Legislature since 1891. He was born at Kamouraska, P. Q., the 31st of January, 1866. He was favoured by a liberal education, first at the College of Ste. Anne de la Pocatière and later at Laval University, from which latter he graduated in 1899 with the degree of LL. B. He was called to the Bar of his native Province in the same year and has since been engaged in the active practice of law. In 1891 he was called upon by the electors of the County of Kamouraska to represent them in the Dominion Parliament. He showed

himself not unworthy of the trust, and has gained re-election at the succeeding general elections of 1896 and 1900. The first five years of his career in Parliament were spent in opposition. Since then he has shared in the success of the liberal party. The county for which he sits is one in which the two political parties appear to be pretty

evenly matched. That is to say the majorities are small. Mr. Carroll's majorities in his three elections have been respectively 95, 11 and 181. His opponent in 1900 was the late Mr. Linière Taschereau, K.C. When in February of 1902 Honorable Mr. Fitzpatrick was promoted from Solicitor Generalship to the Portfolio of Justice, it was Mr. Carroll whom the Prime Minister selected for the vacancy.

He was returned by acclamation. He is a Roman Catholic, and married in June of 1891, Amazélie, daughter of Mr. L. Boulanger, of Ste Agathe de Lotbinière. Has been made K.C., 27th June, 1902, and Doctor of Laws (LL.D.,) of Laval University, Quebec, 24th June, 1902. Was Crown Attorney for Kamouraska district from 1897 to 1902.



Hon. ADELARD TURGEON

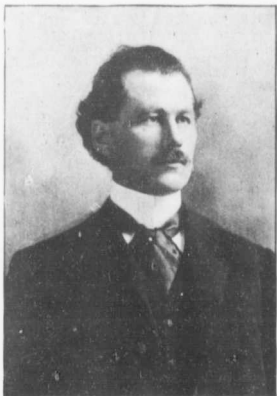
PERHAPS no triumphs can be truer than those won in the beaten path of every day duty, nor any laurels more illustrious than the worthy fame which crowns the man whose life's efforts have been consistently, ably and steadfastly put

forth within the arena chosen by him in early manhood as that for which inclination and duty alike marked him out. It would not be easy to find a career which more pointedly illustrates this truth than that of Hon. Adelar Turgeon, Minister of Agriculture for the Province of Quebec. Son of Demase and Christine Turgeon, who was born on December 19, 1863, at Beaumont, Que.

At an early age he was sent to Levis College, where he remained for a few years, after which he entered Laval University, from which institution he graduated with honor in both letters and law. Mr. Turgeon was called to the Bar in 1887, and made a marked impression from the outset, so much so that the judiciary and members of the legal profession expressed the opinion that in the near future he would be found on the front rank. He immediately took up the practice of his profession in Levis and Quebec, and was for many years associated with Hon. H. G. Carroll, Solicitor General for Canada. Mr. Turgeon, who is a liberal

in politics, began to evince a lively interest in public affairs at an early age, and was elected to the legislature for the county of Bellechasse in 1890. The talented young man soon rose above the ordinary level as an orator of superior ability, and both on the platform and in the house the flow of eloquence from his magic tongue made him a power in the ranks of the liberal party. The giant intellect of Mr. Turgeon

was soon recognized, and he was given a seat in the Marchand Cabinet as Commissioner of Colonization and Mines. When the Parent administration came into office he was given the portfolio of Provincial Secretary, and shortly after became Minister of Agriculture, which position he fills with dignity and statesman-like ability. In religion Mr. Turgeon is a Roman Catholic, and married in 1887, Eugénie, daughter of Etienne Samson. It is needless to say that Mr. Turgeon has been returned by his constituents at every subsequent election since 1890. He is a member of L'Instruction Publique of France, Doctor of Letters, Laval University, Quebec, Director Quebec and Lake Huron Railway, Quebec and New Brunswick Railway, The Imperial Life Insurance Co., The Great West Life Insurance Co., A member of St. James Club, Montreal, and The Garrison Club, Quebec.



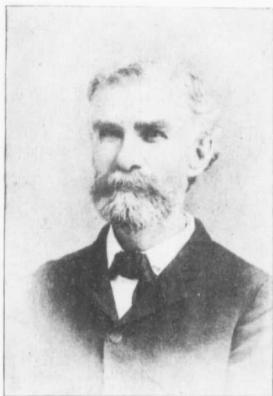


R. James Harper was born in Edinburgh, Scotland, and was well up in what an Edinburgh schoolmaster could teach ere he went under the Montreal tuition of the late principal Hicks. It was the practice of journalism by the late David Kinnear, the late Hon. E. G. Penny, and their associates that attracted the young compositor's attention and admiration when he served his apprenticeship on the *Montreal Herald* during the zenith of the fame of these gentlemen. It was in 1858 that the apprenticeship commenced, and journalism was the school into which Mr. Harper graduated. He did his first editorial work with the late Hon. Thomas White a year or two after he and Mr. Richard White took the *Gazette* in charge. Since that time he has filled the position of editor and correspondent for many newspapers, having been city editor in succession on the *Gazette*, *Star* and *Witness*, correspondent of the *New York Herald* and of the *Toronto Globe*, editor and publisher of the *Cornwall Standard*, and for many years on the editorial staff of the *Montreal Witness*. It was on going to Cornwall that Mr. Harper was given a public banquet by Mayor Beaugrand and citizens of Montreal.

In trades union circles, Mr. Harper was one of the pioneers of the Montreal Typographical Union, and took an active part

in the work of the International Typographical Union, having been elected to represent Boston on one occasion. The following year he represented Montreal in Boston, and was chosen First Vice-President of the International Typographical Union in that year by an overwhelming vote.

In public affairs Mr. Harper's work as honorary secretary of the City Improvement Association, and as honorary secretary of the Equal Rights Association of Quebec Province, are remembered by



those in the work with him. He is a member of the Montreal Board of Trade, has been president of the Typographical Union of Montreal, president of the Press Association Province of Quebec, of which he is now secretary, president of the Montreal Caledonian Society, and is now vice-president of the Veteran Volunteers Association of Montreal, having served on the frontier in 1866 and 1870. Mr.

Harper was correspondent for the *Gazette* on the Vice Regal tours of Their Excellencies Lord and Lady Dufferin, represented the *Star* on the Royal tour and reception of Lord Lorne and the Princess Louise, and was correspondent of the *Witness* on the Royal Train across Canada with the Duke and Duchess of Cornwall and York in 1901. His life has been that of an active working journalist, and besides the experience he has had in Canada, he had eight years upon Boston, New York and Chicago newspapers.

Profit Sharing by Jules Helbronner.



WHETHER it may be called a strike or a lock out, whether it may be provoked by the workman or by the employer, cessation of work is always a calamity, a cause of ruin both for employers and employed.

Some of these conflicts have such an importance that they may endanger the prosperity of a city.

For instance, what would have happened if the strike of the longshoremen and of the carters of Montreal had continued for several weeks?

The general trade of the country would have been compelled to find, outside of Montreal, the necessary means of transportation, and this would have caused ruinous expense and still more ruinous delay.

The question of salary is the chief cause of these conflicts; that of relations between employer and employee is but secondary. Unionism has taken its origin in the necessity for the working class to unite in order to obtain a reasonable salary, outside of the general law of supply and demand.

The merciless application of the economic theory of supply and demand, and the state of poverty in which it has kept the laboring class, have been exposed in a work which has made a great sensation, on account of the position, rank, competence and impartiality of the author.

In his essay upon "The Situation of the Working Classes in England" (edi-

tion of 1884), the Count of Paris says:

"With the present system and under the law of supply and demand, salaries almost constantly follow the price of necessities of life, in such a way that a workingman is always in such a position that he can only make a bare living, competition having a tendency to bring salaries to a minimum on which it is impossible to sustain life."

It is against this law of supply and demand, called an iron law, that the Trades' Unions of England and the Unions of workmen on the Continent of Europe had struggled during the whole of the XIXth century.

We all know what was the result of that long and terrible conflict. Still, while in many places a real war was going on, there were a number of industrial establishments where peace was never interrupted and which showed a better record of prosperity than their competitors.

Such peace, such prosperity in said establishments had its source in the adoption of the "profit sharing" system, according to which workers have their part in the profits of the employers.

This benevolent principle was applied for the first time in France in the year 1842. It was a house painter by the name of E. J. Leclair, who was the most zealous promoter of it; even we may consider him as the real founder of the system, the few experiments made before him having been of no avail.

He not only made his own fortune, but also that of all those who, during the last sixty years, worked in his shops.

Unfortunately profit sharing, although introduced in all industrial countries, makes only slow progress. It scares the employers who fear the intervention of the workers in the management of their business, and is wrongly appreciated by the workingmen, who fear that it may become an impediment to an increase of salary. But experience has shown that those fears are imaginary. The first condition of profit sharing precisely consists in paying them the highest wages of the labor market; as to their interfering in the management of the business, this is optional, and depends entirely upon the mode of sharing which may be adopted.

As it is not possible to explain in a short article like this the principles of profit sharing, I beg to refer persons who are desirous of obtaining more ample information, to the following works:

Profit Sharing Between Capital and Labor, by M. Sedley Taylor.

Methods of Individual Remunerations, by Mr. David Schloss.

Profit Sharing, by Dr. V. Böhmert.

Profit Sharing, by Mr. Carrol Wright.

Profit Sharing Between Employer and Employee, a Study on the Evolution of the Wage System.

The list of authors who have written on this subject is very long, but it is not necessary to consult them all to know what results profit sharing are able to produce.

First of all, it is necessary to put aside all pretensions to any philanthropic ideas.

Leclair, the founder of that system,

always denied being governed by any philanthropic ideas; his theory was that profit sharing, apart from other advantages, was a source of profit to the manufacturer who adopted it.

He confirmed his theory with striking examples. In 1869 he convened a meeting of his hands and explained to them how he came to see that, by applying the principles of profit sharing, he could secure his own ends and benefit his workmen. He said:

"Can an artisan in our trade (painting), by his activity, good will and a more intelligent use of his time, produce in the same space of time (one day) an increase of work equal to one hour—that is to say 12 cents, which is the actual rate per hour?

"Can he besides save 5 cents per day by avoiding waste in material and by taking care of his tools?

"If one artisan can realize for the contractor 17 cents per day for 300 working days, this will equal \$51, and supposing the firm employs an average of 300 hands, an annual saving of \$15,500 is thus obtained.

"It is by this saving that on one hand our mutual benevolent society increases every year its capital, and can pay pensions to the aged workingmen, and on the other hand can distribute profits to those who help to produce them."

As another example I will cite the case of the Parisian lithographer, who said that from the day on which he gave 33 per cent. of his profits to his hands, no more lithographic stones were broken in his establishment. These stones were worth 24 francs. One day he overheard one of his workmen say to another: "Break no more stones, it costs us 8 francs."

One of the principal manufacturers, who has been one of the first to adopt profit sharing, gave the following testimony in the course of a parliamentary enquiry:

"When I wished to establish profit sharing in our firm I met many obstacles against which I had to struggle, amongst others my eldest brother left me. He opened a factory and took his two children with him. He did not adopt profit sharing. Well, he did not succeed, and I helped him out of his difficulty by admitting him again to our profit sharing association. I also introduced profit sharing in his factory, which, without it, has met with nothing but losses, and which now is making money."

The name of that manufacturer is Mr. Laroche-Joubert. He is one of the most important men of industry in France, and well known in Canada. In 1898 he declared that there had not been a single strike among his employees for sixty years.

Profit sharing is applicable and has been applied to all industries, to agriculture, banks, insurance, commerce and large transportation concerns.

It is even applied to trades which, at first sight, do not seem to be susceptible to benefit by it; this is the case, for instance, with the longshoremen.

Russia gives us the proof of this with its *arteles* of carriers and carters; and it would be useful to the shippers and dockers of Montreal to study the working of the associations for their own good and for the welfare of the country. But the question may be put, whether profit sharing, if possible in the Old World, may be practicable in America? To answer this question, it will be sufficient to mention the opinion of Mr. Carroll Wright:

"From the data gathered from all sources, we derived these cardinal principles of industrial partnership:

"Participation by workmen in profits, in addition to wages, is a true harmonizer of the interests of capital and labor. It does, in fact, identify the interest of the employee with the interest of the employer. It converts the industrial association of employer and employees into a moral organism, in which all the various latent, services and desires of the component individuals are fused into a community of purposes and endeavors.

"The extra services called out, and the manner in which they are called out, constitute an invaluable educational discipline. They develop the whole group of individual virtues, diligence, fidelity, caretaking, economy, continuity of effort, willingness to learn, and the spirit of co-operation."





ALDERMAN LAPORTE



MARKED success in any business evidences the possession of ready tact and energy, as well as of that degree of mental superiority that enables a man in this age of excessive competition to achieve

and energy have made it chief in the Dominion. But amongst those, who, in every city form the influential and successful class, there must ever be some individuals destined to shine in public positions to guard the interests of their fellow citizens.



for himself place and distinction. That Montreal counts among her citizens a goodly number whose triumph has proved their possession of no ordinary qualifications needs no assertion. The present importance of our metropolitan city speaks the worth of the men whose ability

There is no more striking personality in the brilliant ranks of Montreal's self-made men than Alderman Laporte, whose ancestors were among the earliest settlers from France. He was born November 7, 1850, at Lachine, County of Jacques Cartier, Que. His father, Jean Baptiste

Laporte, with his mother, Marie Berthanne dit Jobinville, removed to Sault aux Recollets one year after the birth of young Hornidas. He received his education at the village school, and came to Montreal at the age of sixteen and worked in a nail factory, but young Laporte evinced at the very outset of his career a spirit of ambition that carried him to the enviable position he occupies to-day. After four years spent as a nail maker he relinquished his position in the factory, where he was earning twelve dollars per week, and took a place as clerk in a retail grocery store at the nominal wages of ten dollars per month, for the purpose of becoming posted in the business. The issue proved the wisdom of this move, for being naturally adapted for the grocery business, he at the end of one year started on his own account. The business became so prosperous in his hands, that ten years later, 1881, he sold out and started a wholesale grocery and provision business, which increased with such rapidity, that seven years later he called in as partner Mr. J. B. A. Martin and Mr. J. O. Boucher.

On January first, 1895, two other partners were added to the firm, Messrs. L. A. Delorme and Joseph Ethier, both of whom had been with the firm from the beginning as accountant and chief salesman respectively, and Mr. J. A. Martin all of whom constitute the firm of Laporte, Martin & Co.

The Montreal City Council became so demoralized and reckless some years ago, that the citizens became convinced that reform was badly needed in that body, and Mr. Laporte was pointed at as the man capable of accomplishing so important an

undertaking, consequently in 1896, he was induced by a large and influential deputation to allow himself to be put in nomination for alderman for the Centre Ward, and was elected by acclamation.

Alderman Laporte immediately went to work with that tact and energy that marked the success of his business, with the result that he became chairman of the Finance Committee and leader of the City Council in 1899, and the result is that there has been a gradual change in civic affairs and a cleaning out of doubtful aldermen. That the city is already on a good sound financial footing, it is needless to say that it is to the ability, energy and sound judgment of Ald. Laporte that the rescuing of the city from the hands of grasping professional aldermen and financial ruin is largely due. Ald. Laporte is connected with numerous financial and commercial concerns, amongst whom may be mentioned the Dominion Wholesale Grocers' Guild, of which he is president, which office he has held for several years; he is a director of the Banque Provinciale and the National Life Assurance Company; he is ex-president of the Alliance Nationale and ex-president of the Chambre de Commerce; he is a member of the Board of Trade, and was a member of the council of that body, a life governor of the General Hospital, a member of St. Vincent de Paul Society, and vice-president of St. Jean Baptiste Society. He married January, 1874, Onesime Mirza Gervais. Fourteen children were born to them, two of which are living, a daughter, Maria, and son Joseph. Ald. Laporte is brainy, unostentatious and genial, and there is no doubt that greater honors are yet in store for him.

The Hon. Amedee Robitaille, K.C.

ONE of the best known public men of the Province of Quebec is the Honourable Amédée Robitaille, K. C., L. L. D., M. P. P., Member of the Executive Council for the Province of Quebec, a citizen of the City of Quebec. He was born in that city on

January 1st, 1853, and was the son of Doctor Olivier Robitaille and Zoé Denéchaud. Both parents were of Canadian birth, but his father's ancestor's came originally from L'Anche and his mother's from St. Sarien en Bourges, in Normandy, in 1622.

Mr. Robitaille first attended the private school of Mr. P. Lafrance, afterwards City Treasurer of Quebec; later, he took a course at the Quebec Seminary, and in 1874, after an extensive trip in Europe, entered Laval University, and graduated from the Law Department in 1877, receiving the Licentiate's degree. The same year he became acquainted with Mr. Côme Morrisette, K. C., and they formed the legal firm of Morrisette & Robitaille, which continued until 1880. When this partnership was dissolved, Mr. Robitaille became associated with Mr. Victor Livernois, until 1882,

when the firm of Robitaille, de St. Georges & Roy came into existence. Mr. de St. Georges died in 1894, and the firm since has been Robitaille & Roy, Advocates, with a bureau at 51 Rue des Jardins in Quebec. Mr. Robitaille has built up a large commercial practice by his shrewd judgment and sound business ability as

well as by his legal attainments. In 1899 he was created King's Counsel. He has been Director of the Quebec & Lake St. John Railway Company, and is also Counsel for the Quebec Permanent Building Society, one of the important financial Corporations of the Province. He has taken an active interest in the development of the industries of Quebec, and is now a Director and President of the Peribonka Pulp Company of Roberval,



Quebec, with a plant on River Peribonka, near Lake St. John. This new Company was organized in 1900, and started their pulp mill in September of that year, turning out 11 tons of dry pulp per day. The increasing business of the Company will soon warrant the further extension of its plant, and a second mill is to be completed on the La Chute Blanche, which gives the company a daily Capacity

of 33 tons of dry wood pulp. The company is capitalized at \$100,000, and possesses 200 square miles of the best pulp-timber limits. The bulk of their finished output is shipped to Europe.

Mr. Robitaille has also taken an active interest in politics and public affairs. He sat in Quebec City Council for four years as Member for St. John's Ward, and was Chairman of the Fire Committee. In that capacity he devoted much energy to improving the fire service of the City, and secured the erection of several additional fire stations. He has been identified with the Liberal party of Quebec since 1882, and has been very active in promoting the interests of that party. In the general elections of 1896 for the House of Commons, and of 1897 for the Legislative Assembly, he was general organizer for the Liberal Party in Quebec, and acted in the same capacity in the Federal Elections of 1900. In May, 1897, he was the Liberal candidate for the Legislative Assembly in Quebec-Centre, and was elected over his opponent, Mr. Victor Chateaufort, by a majority of 315. In 1900 he was elected by acclamation for Quebec-Centre, and was sworn as Provincial-Secretary in the Quebec Government on June 30th, 1902; re-elected by acclamation on July 11th, 1902. Provincial-Secretary's Department is one of the most important, and is administered with great ability. Beyond the official or adminis-

trative circles, it is quite impossible to realize the enormous amount of work performed in this Department. The Department of Public Instruction is attached to the Provincial Secretary's Office. The Minister has also under his control the organization and direction of the night schools for illiterate adults, where courses are followed by upwards of 3,600 pupils; the superintendence of insane asylums, and industrial and reformatory schools; the grants of Charters to Joint Stocks, commercial and industrial companies; the control of municipal and judicial statistics; the preservation of the archives; registration of appointments, commissions, letters patent for grant of lands belonging to the Crown; licenses, certificates, and generally of all documents emanating from the executive power of the several ministerial Departments; the publication of the Official Gazette; the Provincial Board of Health; the Vaccin Institution, and the Provincial School of Navigation, etc., etc. This list, although very incomplete, will suffice to show the importance of this office. This immense mechanism functions with perfect regularity under the efficient control of the Honourable Mr. Robitaille.

The Hon. Mr. Robitaille was married in 1878 to Miss Josephine Peachy, of Quebec, and has a family of six children. In religion, he is a Roman Catholic.



Hon. JOHN JOSEPH CURRAN



THE Irish race, probably, more than any other, have for centuries been forced to seek homes in all parts of the civilized world, owing to oppression and misgovernment in their native land.

But it mattered not to what part of the earth they were driven, either they or their descendants were soon found in the front rank, holding the most important positions in the gift of the people. The United States of America has been favored with more than her share of the sons of the green isle. There they have distinguished themselves by their courage, learning, executive ability and business enterprise.

It was quite natural that Canada being in such close proximity to the great republic, should be favored with a fair share of the sons and daughters of that gifted race, whose descendants we find holding the highest positions in the country. Charles Curran (the father of the subject of this sketch) who was a native of Newry, County Down, Ireland, and his mother Sarah Kennedy, who hailed from historic Wexford, arrived in Montreal in the early part of the last

century, where the talented son, John Joseph, was born on the 22nd of February, 1842, and after spending a short time in the elementary schools, and subsequently three years at St. Mary's (Jesuits) College of his native city, a classical course was followed at St. Joseph's College, Ottawa, under the direction of the late Rev. Director Tabaret, founder of Ottawa University.

He entered the Law faculty of McGill University in 1859 and graduated as B.C.L. in May, 1862, and a year later was admitted to the Bar of the province of Quebec, where, owing to his eloquence and power of oratory, he soon became prominent as a civil and criminal lawyer of more than ordinary ability. In 1876 he was made a Q.C. by the Lieutenant-Governor of the Province of Quebec, and a similar honor was conferred upon



him by the Marquis of Lorne, Governor General of Canada in 1882.

During all those years Mr. Curran was most zealous in promoting the interests of his fellow-countrymen. He joined the St. Patrick's Society in 1860, became its assistant-recording secretary, and filled successively every office in the association, until he finally became president. His

talents were at the disposal of every good work in connection with Irish Canadian affairs. In 1870, under the leadership of the late Hon. Senator Murphy, he was one of the most active workers in the Irish Home Rule cause. At that time the first Irish Home Rule Association in America was founded. In ante-Confederation days Mr. Curran cast his political fortunes with the party led by Macdonald and Cartier. He lent all the force of his eloquence to the cause of the union of the B.N.A. provinces, having become a staunch friend of the Hon. D'Arcy McGee.

In 1874 he first tried his political luck in a vain attempt to defeat the Hon. Lucius Seth Huntingdon, in the County of Shefford. In 1882 Mr. M. P. Ryan, who had represented Montreal Centre with distinction for many years, retired. Mr. Curran was chosen as the standard bearer of Sir John A. Macdonald's party. He carried the constituency by over a thousand

majority, and in a short time took prominent rank in the House of Commons.

During the thirteen or fourteen years that he served his constituents it would require a small sized book to enumerate enactments and other services rendered to the people by the member for Montreal Centre.

Manhattan University, of New York, conferred upon him the degree of L.L.D., and a similar honor was given him by the University of Ottawa. When Sir John Thompson formed his Government he selected Mr. Curran as his Solicitor-General, an office he also held under Sir McKenzie Bowell's administration, until the 17th of October, 1895, when he accepted his present office of Puisne Justice of the Superior Court of the Province of Quebec in succession to Sir Francis Johnson. His last important speech in public life was on behalf of the Catholic minority in Manitoba on the school question.



Industrial Arbitration

By A. W. FLUX, M.A., Professor of Political Economy, McGill University.



AT a time when arbitration is freely proposed as a kind of cure-all for industrial disputes, it may be worth while to recall some points, of which there is danger of losing sight, relative to the applicability and efficacy of this remedy.

It has been clearly pointed, over and over again, that differences between employers and employed, as to the terms of service of the latter, may be roughly divided into two contrasted classes. On the one hand we have great questions of the general relations of these two industrial groups to one another, in the settlement of which their relative strengths must be a deciding factor. Each may think that the other side can be induced to concede certain advantages without equivalent concession in return, provided the conviction can be fostered that this concession is inevitable. The question of which side is strong enough to impose its demands on the other can hardly be answered till a trial of strength has taken place. A parallel may be found in the political world. Nations do not accept a proposal to submit to an arbitrator the question of whether they are to retain political independence or to be absorbed by a powerful neighbour. Even though they be unable to maintain an effective resistance, they commonly try to avert loss of independence by fighting. They

may succeed in showing that the task of subjugating them is too serious to be worth while pressing to completion.

In the industrial world, then, it may be granted that there are some great questions of policy which either employers or employed must decline to submit to the decision of any arbitrator or board of arbitrators. These questions may be few, and they may become yet fewer as time passes and brings changes in its path. Just to the extent to which such questions exist, arbitration cannot be a universal remedy for industrial disputes.

On the other hand, in relation to questions of minor importance, such as the interpretation to be placed on the terms of an agreement between employers and employed, its application to some circumstance not fully foreseen when it was made, and the like, a reference to a body or individual acting in a judicial capacity may well prove a thoroughly satisfactory mode of settlement.

The line of division between these two classes of disputes is not very clearly defined, it changes from time to time, and it changes with the development of confidence, or the opposite, in the tribunal to which reference might be made. An arbitrator may win the confidence of both sides to a dispute, and they may be inclined to accept his judgment on matters of considerable importance rather than risk an expensive contest. There are not

a few instances in which individuals have been able, in this way, to render very great services to the cause of industrial peace. On the other hand, the conviction may grow that the reference of claims to arbitration means necessarily the concession of part of the claim. An exaggerated claim partly satisfied may really secure all that was essential to the claimant. A resistance to the general application of the policy of "splitting the difference" may readily be understood. Opposition to arbitration is not rarely based on the belief that unquestioned acquiescence serves as an invitation to the other side to make claims when no genuine grievance exists.

But, in addition to such aspects of the problem as have been mentioned, and are fairly familiar, there cannot be left aside the grave question of the enforcement of the decision of an industrial arbitration court. It is not enough to have a decision rendered, if it cannot be made effective. We are, in such a case, no further advanced towards settlement as the result of the appeal to arbitration. Let us, then, ask ourselves how the decision of a court of arbitration, whether composed of one person or of many, may be enforced.

If neither employers nor employed are organized into unions or associations of a permanent character, each person repudiating the obligation to act up to the court's decision, would need to be proceeded against individually. Dissatisfied workmen could not be restrained from seeking a living in another industry or locality, and employers could not be compelled to keep up, much less to extend, their establishments under conditions unsatisfactory to themselves. Employers may be able to require of their men formal

obedience to the decision of the court as a condition of being employed at all, and be correspondingly required to yield a formal obedience on their own part. But how is the trouble to be handled if the men will not work under the conditions of the award, or the employers will not open their works on those terms? Will the dispute have been advanced toward settlement by an arbitration which had such a result? And such a result is not at all impossible, but rather the opposite. If the employers are able to accept the award, and can supply themselves with enough workmen, on its terms, to carry on their operations, adequate protection by the civil power is all that is needed to enable work to be continued. The dissatisfied must accept the consequences of wanting what they cannot secure.

But if the employers are able to secure sufficient workmen on terms more favorable to themselves than the award of the court, what is the duty of the civil power? That must depend on the constitution of the arbitration court, and its relation to the civil authorities; but it can hardly be contested that there would be reason for doubting the wisdom of conferring on a court, capable of rendering such a decision, the power to refuse protection from violence to, or to go further and impose penalties on, employers and workmen willing to associate themselves on terms mutually satisfactory.

If there exist associations of employers or of employed, or of both, the enforcement of the decree of an arbitration court may be effected through their agency. Individual employers, who refuse to submit to the terms of the decree, may find their works deserted, while those of their rivals are in full operation. The association of employers might refuse aid or

sympathy. But a strong firm, if able to find enough workmen who were willing to accept its terms, might ignore the disapproval of fellow employers. If assured of protection from violence, mere exclusion from the association of the trade would not be an insuperable obstacle to continuing in business. How far real pressure would be felt, must depend on the degree in which the (presumably) more attractive terms of employment offered by other firms, or the industry drained such a firm of its best work-people.

Were the award of an arbitration court enforceable by legal process, the condition of carrying on business would be submission to the award, and failure to live up to its stipulations would subject the delinquent to penalties. The proprietor of a business establishment has given hostages and fortune, and can hardly continue his operations if deprived of the protection of the civil authorities, and in defiance of attempts on the part of those authorities to enforce penalties legally imposed. It need hardly be added that legal accountability could hardly be imposed on employers, unless the employed were also made subject to some similar regulation at the same time. The practicability and desirability of the latter must therefore be established before the imposition on employers of legal penalties, for breach of an arbitration court's award, could be contemplated.

When we turn to the means available for compelling a minority of work-people, discontented with the result of an arbitration, to abide by the decision arrived at, it is soon clear that considerable pressure can be brought to bear.

If determined to enforce such an award, a labor union might refuse all as-

sistance to members engaged in disputes, in which disinclination to accept the award was the point involved. Not merely might out-of-work pay be stopped, but recalcitrant members might be ejected from the union, and inconvenience to employers minimized by the union officers lending their aid to replace the individuals concerned by other efficient workmen. Such action implies that the persons to be coerced are not a very influential section of the union membership. The officials need to be confident of the support of the union as a whole before they could venture to enforce disciplinary measures against any considerable group. These officials must possess no little strength of character to initiate strenuous action in any case where there is no strong feeling among the membership to support them. Awards which the official, who has studied the pros and cons of the question, known to be fair or even generous to the class he represents, can easily appear to embody scant justice when viewed from the standpoint of the very partially informed, ordinary member of the union. The question to be decided on is whether the officials will dare to use the machinery of the union to enforce the acceptance of the award, or will be deterred by fear of losing their offices. In the former case, they may be ejected from office, and succeeded by others who are not conscious of being bound to force a rather unpopular line of conduct on the union. In either case, whether the actual officials dare not act, or whether they be succeeded by others who will not act, the arbitrator's award has failed to settle the case. Only when the public opinion of the work people concerned is distinctly in favor of honorably accepting the consequences of an arbitration, even though

they appear unattractive, can it be said that the machinery of a labor union offers a means of securing the carrying out of the terms of such awards.

It need hardly be said that, assuming a willingness on the part of organized labor to accept an arbitration award, an organization of employers can materially assist in bringing stray malcontents to book. Such individuals might be black-listed, so that, ejected from one establishment, they could not find entrance to any other in the same trade. Under these circumstances, if deprived of union assistance, it is difficult to see what remains but submission or a migration to some other trade or locality.

Should discontent affect a sufficient number of employees in one or more establishments to make it seem desirable that those establishments should make special terms with their own men, the support of organizations of employers and employed may prevent such an abandonment of the generality of application of the arbitration terms. On the one hand, pecuniary aid may reduce the loss resulting from a suspension of full activity; on the other hand, as already considered, the securing of a competent staff may be hastened by the co-operation of the organization of work people.

It may be objected to a statement made above, that a change of officials in a union does not rid the organization of responsibility for the carrying out of a contract into which it has entered. That is true, and modifies the force of the point raised. But the heartiness with which union officials lend their aid to the punishment of offenders may vary considerably in degree, and the renewal of a struggle which had been supposed to be settled by arbitration is ensured at the

earliest possible moment, if it cannot be entered on at once in the case supposed.

A further possibility presents itself, namely, that members who are opposed to the settlement effected through the organization of the union, may simply free themselves from the obligation to observe the agreed-on terms by ceasing to be members. The punishment of ejection from the union, contemplated above, may, in fact, be held to be a negligible punishment. The strength of the union affects the degree of disadvantage associated with ejection from it or resignation of membership. The financial obligations and standing of the union are an important element in this. An organization which has undertaken to provide benefits in sickness, in old age, in case of accident or loss of employment, and at death, and is well equipped with funds for these purposes, will hold its members by a stronger bond than an organization which simply proposes to provide dispute benefit in case of strike, and which relies for the means to conduct any serious strike, on contributions from others than its own members.

A union of this last type will not have a strong hold on its members, and it is not hard to conceive of a considerable number of them abandoning an organization which was hampered with a contract to carry out a disagreeable arbitration award, and even forming a fresh organization of similar character with no such obligation restraining its freedom of action.

A union, then, whose hold upon its members is not of great strength, can only secure for its officers support in carrying out arrangements which the public opinion of its membership for the moment approves. Not greatly different is the case of a union to which members

are bound by strong financial interests. The officers cannot enforce any line of action in the face of the dissenting public opinion of the membership, and yet continue to hold office and direct the policy of the union. Even a formal agreement, regularly entered into on behalf of the organization, will generally leave some loophole for escape. The earliest possible date for denouncing it would be selected if no other mode of avoiding the obligation it created should present itself.

The use, then, of whatever powers are possessed by a labor organization, to enforce the observance of an arbitration award, is dependent on favorable public opinion among those concerned. When, and in so far as, public opinion reaches the point of regarding the settlement of industrial disputes by arbitration, and its correlative, the faithful observance of the decision of the arbitrator, as the natural and necessary course, the general use of arbitration in a very wide class of disputes will be adopted. So long as public opinion hesitates to enforce decisions which are opposed to the claims and desires of the mass of the employed, confidence in the universal efficacy of arbitration cannot be felt by the great general public. In addition, there is the source of trouble already mentioned, that persistent claims before an arbitration court, even though not well founded, are apt, in practice, to result in securing a part of what is claimed. The opposing interests cannot be expected to develop confidence in a system which goes no further than

to moderate the amount of concessions demanded, while it operates to encourage the presentation of demands for concessions.

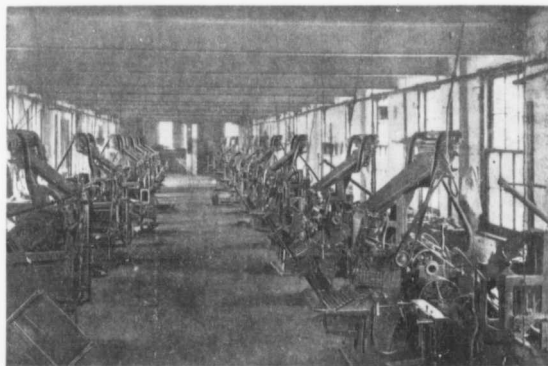
It would be a great gain to industrial stability, and consequently to industrial progress, if the peaceful settlement of industrial disputes became habitual. But the development of the spirit which seeks to negotiate, and shrinks from appeals to force, promises more than the imposition of a tribunal on disputants, who are unwilling to submit to its decrees. In view of the fact that organized bodies of men are more conveniently treated than a mass of poorly informed workmen, agreed only in being discontented, the spread of organization offers facilities for the development of peaceful methods of settling disputes between employers and employed, even though it seem rather to tend to recourse to other methods than that of peaceful negotiation. Strong unions, under well-informed and intelligent leadership, may well do much towards promoting industrial peace. Perhaps not the least service open to them in this connection is the cultivation of a spirit of readiness to abide loyally by agreements made by leaders on behalf of large bodies of workmen, even, and especially, in cases where such agreements contemplate submission to the award of an arbitration tribunal, which may find it necessary to deny the validity of some claims made by, or on behalf of, the workmen. A court whose decision is ignored by the losing party will not easily command confidence.

The Linotype Company in 1903.



IN the year of Our Lord, 1903, the the Linotype Company, Montreal, is building and selling twice as many Linotypes as in any previous year of its existence, and the factory is being further increased, so as to turn out one machine extra over the regular output every week. It is confi-

to remove the general offices to 158 St. Antoine Street, one door west of the building at present utilized for that purpose, into an ancient structure dating back to the eighteenth century. As far as possible all its old-time antiquated appearance will be preserved, and all persons interested in the manufacture of type line casting machines will be always wel-



TWENTY TWO LINOTYPES

The Assembly Floor of the Linotype Company, Montreal, during the erection of twenty-two machines, the largest single order ever placed in Canada.

dently expected that this increase in the producing capacity of the Company will be realized not later than the third quarter of the year. In order that more room may be obtained for this extension in the Company's business, it has been decided

to be removed. The accompanying illustration of the assembly floor shows probably the largest single shipment of Linotype machines ever made, being no less than twenty-two duplex machines.

Fair Play for the Toiler

By JAMES HARPER.



FAIR play is a jewel!" No saying is more common. No jewel is more uncommon. Its brilliance, beauty and popularity are equalled only by its rarity, especially in the give and take of work-day life between man and man. The fortunate possessor of the rare jewel finds it so precious that he wants to keep it for himself always. Let him have it, even though all the world should do without it, and he is content. Yet, every one else wants fair play. How few realize it their duty to give it. Not to quote the golden rule at all, how would the parable of the wicked, unforgiving servant suit this class?—he whom his lord forgave his debt, but who, on his part, took his under-servant by the throat that he might make them pay the uttermost farthing. Then the other servants, horrified at such heartlessness, struck and complained, and their lord repented of having given the wicked servant the splendid chance of being generous and forgiving, if not fair to his underservants, and delivered him to the tormentors. There was a man for you in that far back period who took the jewel of fair play from his master, hid it in his heart, and played the devil with his fellow servant. How many from that day to this have done the same? How many have been so punished by their lord? These might

easily be counted. The unjust servant in these modern days who took his fellow servants by the throat and made them pay even to the uttermost farthing, could not be counted for multitude. The severe over lord and task master who patted such a fellow on the back—given that he was squeezing shekels out of the fellow servants for him and his, were the rulers of that time. They have been ever since.

Even before that day there were the fine spun, highly intellectual, cultured Egyptians, who made the Israelites first their companions and afterwards their slaves—who, worse still, compelled them not only to make the bricks but to provide the straw. Where the fair play jewel was kept in these days is not written down. That there were labor strikes in these days is written down, though that is not the name they called them. It would appear strange now-a-days to call Moses an organizer or walking delegate when he smote the Egyptian who contended with the Israelite. It is in no irreverent sense the comparison is used here. His was divine command. Is not the inspiration of that man at this day, whose soul revolts at unfair treatment, to be regarded as sprung from a God-given impulse? Perhaps Moses should not be so classed. Perhaps the hejira of the Israelites should not be called a labor strike. Yet, though it was a great deal more, a divine and national

movement, was it not in great part a labor protest, organized, conceived with every honest purpose, that a manly man might feel in his heart to rise against tyranny and oppression, and when too weak to resist, flee from it? Was the spirit that resisted any whit dissimilar from that which, since that day has animated the revolt, rebellion, protest, or even wail of the stricken slave that has felt man's inhumanity to man every day, every hour, every minute since—and probably for centuries before—for was not Jacob cheated in his labor bargain?—was fair play the jewel that Laban gave him?

There is no man in this day who can assert that the hiding away of this jewel of fair play is not responsible for much of the evil that has befallen the human race. That it is responsible for the quarrel between employer and employed, is as certain as that these troubles are before us to deal with, full-fledged, robust, up-to-date, walking delegates and all.

If fair play is a jewel so rare, in what degree of lustre shall we place the jewel British fair play? It has been highly praised, is worshipped as only akin to the meteor flag that floats over the realm of the free men who sing "Briton's Never Shall be Slaves," with an emphasis that means something. That is the spirit for free men. God give it a place in every British heart—may he give it to every man of them—to let it find expression in every word and act of his life. Then shall we have in reality a free, happy and powerful nation; for there is no power like that of free thought and speech. But has that spirit formed expression always? Where was it when Magna Charta was enacted? Was it not only after a term of oppression and kingly arrogance it came forth? Was that a great strike, a great

national protest, or both united into a rebellion of the people? It matters not what the name might be. The outcome was that it gave to England, grown out of the spirit and enterprise of free men, the brightest jewel the King's crown could contain, "Fair Play" for the commoners of England.

Whether we call it the jewel of fair play—whether we consider the spirit of the men who earned it in the same light as Bannockburn or the covenant, the chartists or the corn laws, the repeal of the Irish union, or any of the scores of other national questions that the Magna Charta was akin to as regards freedom, if not the fore runner or beacon light of, matters little. Fair play was the jewel they strove for. Nothing less would satisfy them—and in the end they succeeded in whole or in part. How well the successors of the pilgrim fathers won out in revolt, the eighty millions of American people across our southern border testify.

It must be admitted that it is the same spirit of freedom—the love of fair play from man to man, that has evolved the trades union of to-day.

The creature of God was never created a slave. It was the rascal mind of man, led by the evil genius of arrogance and greed, that led free men captive and chained them to the chariot wheels that they might toil for the victors. It was early that the uncharitable doctrine of the "survival of the fittest" came in with Cain's club; and it is no whit more charitable than that other great refuge of the arrogance, greed and oppression of this day—"supply and demand" as the governing principle between man and man.

John Stuart Mill may be quoted, and is, as the oracle of trade, commerce and

industry. Nearly always it is but the excuse. Him, who cast out those that sold doves and merchandise in the temple, had no reference to supply and demand when he declared that the laborer is worthy of his hire. It is easy to defy any one to point to a single instance of the supply and demand theory from his divine lips. His parable of the laborer in the vineyard paid to every man a penny. There was every argument in his life and doctrine against the greed of gain which supply and demand engenders. It simply means that one class should take advantage of the other when they have opportunity—no "fair play" jewel that. Ever since the days of the slave and the hind in England, there have been always a few free men who coveted "fair play" and were willing to do or dare for it. Perhaps no where else was the great gulf wider between "master and man" than in England, if we except that other chasm that separates the soldier from the officer in the British army, and the sailor from the officer in the navy. It is a disgrace to the customs of Britain, that the heroes who won her battles are considered so mean that they must not come upon the same hotel piazza or sit in the same class of seats in a public hall with their officers. How much of that distasteful feeling of pride and arrogance led tyrannical and wealthy men to attempt degradation of their fellow men, who happened to be traders or workmen for them, could not be reckoned. The outcome of it, however, drove splendid British men from their homes century after century. There were times in England when men begged, for work they could only get by taking wages that would hardly let them live, and that certainly would not help their families to thrive. What cared the

wealthy for the misery they endured?

It needs not that the gradual decline of the power of that master who once dictated his terms from his shooting lodge in the Highlands, his yacht in the Mediterranean, or his German spa, shall be traced to the present day. Sufficient is it that we have reached a period during the past fifty years, such as the pioneers of trades unionism only dreamed of, but did not live to enjoy. One sows and another reaps. This doctrine the trades unionist has not always accepted, especially when his impolicy insists upon each man who went on strike being restored to his former place. Seldom should this be urged. It should never be insisted upon. It is a fact that this generation is reaping benefits from the struggles of that which preceded it, which only the surviving trades unionists of to-day can fully appreciate, and point out to eyes reluctant or unwilling to see.

The world has grown better in thirty years or more of the spread of Christian influence; but the workers in the ranks of organized labor, knows that to their organization and adherence to the tenets of their trades unions, is due the amelioration of their position. They are free men with the same right to combine as the wealthiest of capitalistic syndicates. They have at the same time the same responsibilities, the same liability to the law, and the same opportunities for the display of that priceless jewel "fair play" to every one who may be interested in seeking it from them. How well the doctrine of give and take would suit in labor and capital disputes. What splendid opportunities exist day after day for sensible men to expose the weakness of prejudice and covetousness and hold aloft the banner of fair play to every son

of Adam. With capital organized—with labor marshalled to defend its position, the world of manufacturers and trades stand to-day. If each forbears—if one recognizes the rights of the other and treats each fairly, the peace and stability of commercial and the weal of social life are assured.

Then there are the great unorganized masses of clerks and workers without any particular designation. The editors, reporters, writers, teachers, bookkeepers, drapers' clerks, servants and workers in small establishments where the very thought of organization is out of the question—never considered. Many there are ground down by the force of circumstances and a mean employer until they become what old Chuffey was to Jonas Chuzzlewit, merely automatic in their drudgery. Let an illustration suffice in comparison between organization and the want of it. In one establishment where over one hundred hands are employed, there is one section organized. They are tradesmen. Their independence and position as free men is assured and their pay at the minimum over two dollars per day. The rules of the union protect them from a course of arrogant treatment which indeed was the common cause of their combination at the first. With the unorganized part of this same establishment, the difference is that there are no rules—that arrogance and impudence are too common, and must be resented where individuals are strong enough to resent it, or must be borne by the weaker with such grace as the circumstances compel. The minimum of pay is probably not much more than one dollar per day. The maximum not more than triple that. How long will that section of the workers remain unorganized? Is it in the heart of

a man to submit to a course of wrong, which his fellow man has escaped from, by asserting his rights as an organized whole, and that fact always in his plain sight? Not so. The philosophy of freedom demands manliness as the antithesis of meanness and degradation. As the days roll on into months, it is quite safe to assert that the combine of wealth shall be met by the protest of poverty, organized for protection of self. The example above is but a sample of the whole. Workers must be treated as men who are worthy, not only of their hire but also of respect—when they respect themselves especially.

That brings us to another phase of the labor question. The manly man, be he millionaire or miner, respects himself, and will not trample upon the rights of another. Having won for himself the jewel "fair play," will he refuse it to any one else, even though that may mean an employer of labor or combination of labor? How is that question to be answered? Have the labor organizations always granted fair play to their employers? Not always—indeed, not very often. When Robespierre and his followers struck for freedom, license and murder finally became their idea of fair play. Prior to that, our own Cromwell and his Puritans must have the head of Charles I and any other that had opposed them. The American revolutionists killed or chased out the Tories, and the United Empire Loyalists were forced north to enrich Canadian wilds quite against the intentions of their persecutors. There was no fair play in the minds of the United States Senate when they smashed the Saratoga convention by which General Washington accepted Burgoyne's surrender with the honors of war for his army, and then sent them to United

States prisons to be treated as felons. Could it be expected then, that less cultivated and more hard-fisted working men should, after a victorious strike, have any more regard for their employers than these high-toned leaders had for those over whom they had triumphed?

And yet they are called upon by the very sufferings and difficulties that surround them, to remember while they triumph, that the strong must forbear—that it is the All Powerful one who declares that “we must do unto all men as we would that they should do unto us.” “Fair Play” is the jewel these words are compressed into. Let every trades union man remember that. He it is who is the stronger force in the land when multiplied by thousands and organized in sections. The power of the miners has been just felt. This is the terrible force that Mr. Powderly and others like him commenced to work for even thirty years ago, with despair of success, but with the fruition that no man ever thought to see. Mr. Powderly was right when he declared strikes were against the interests both of the organized worker and his employer. There seemed no other way in the end, however, and the strike, as a last resort, has brought the commercial world in 1903 to recognize the trades union as a force to be reckoned with, even though they are all miners.

There is little doubt that in the battle before the commission, which at the appointment of the highest authority in the United States, took evidence from miner and mine owner, it was the union who won the sympathy of the people of the United States. The same will be the case in every dispute in which the organized workers can, after being refused reasonable requests for the amelioration of their

condition, go on strike and abide lawfully the outcome. Human sympathy will tolerate no enslavement of men, and will resent arrogant treatment of their representatives who may go to the employers for a redress of grievances. “I do not tell my men why I discharge them!” This was said by an employer whose men recently struck, because he had discharged some of their number whom they believed had been thus treated because they were union officers. Why should an employer discharge his man and give him no reason? It is unmannerly in the first place to be rude, and inhuman in the second place to be the cause of a ranking in the mind of an employee so treated. It will not do to say in excuse that workers go without giving warning. Employers are, or should be, examples to their employed workers. The effort should be to show them that there is some consideration for them in the minds of the employers. The example would not always be rewarded by mutual confidence. It would, however, be a step to the day when there shall be mutual confidence—when the jewel “fair play” shall rival the sun for brightness, and when co-operation will be the watchword betwixt man and man in every trade.


They are ahead of us in New Zealand. The safety of the state and the peace of the manufacturer with the worker lies in a consideration of all questions between the organized trades-union and the employing classes.

To arbitrate differences there must be two sides responsible. In Canada we must come to this—that the law recognizes first and regulates the trades union status afterwards. In the Pennsylvania coal strike, the United States recognized the union first, arbitrated the case after

judicially taking evidence on both sides. The result is clearly indicative of the way out of labor disputes—a legal status for the unions and a means of arbitrating the differences that arise.

It has been objected that freedom is quite distinct from fair play. My contention is that one is part of and actually the essence of the other. There is no fair play without perfect liberty. Liberty must govern the individual with fair play. Whatever either of tyranny in discipline or unfair wages trenches upon the right of man to freedom and a fair degree of

comfort, is even more galling and objectionable than the weight of constitutional law that might disfranchise or enslave him. The struggle for fair play in the human soul is no whit different from the struggle for freedom from what is commonly called slavery. Fair play for the worker means an independent, honest, manly race to come, whom none may dare to enslave by any law. Fair Play means freedom from all that is wrong, and a real brotherhood of man, which the great master-carpenter of Nazareth came upon this earth to teach us.



HON. H. THOS. DUFFY, K.C., LL.D., D.C.L.

THE Hon. H. T. Duffy, K.C., Advocate, Treasurer of the Province of Quebec, was born in the Township of Durham, Drummond County, P. Q. He was educated at St. Francis College, Richmond, and at McGill College, Montreal, where he obtained the degree of B.A. with honors in English Literature in 1876, the degree of B.C.L. in 1878, LL.D. (Laval) 1902, and D. C. L. Bishop's 1903. Mr. Duffy resides in Sweetsburg, and has been elected Mayor of that place on several occasions. He has an extensive practice in the Eastern Townships, is solicitor for the Bank of Ottawa in Granby, and has often been retained as Counsel in important cases before the Supreme Court and the Privy Council. A few years ago Mr. Duffy was created a Fellow of the Royal Colonial Institute, and recently he was elected Batonnier General of the Province of Quebec. He has also served as Crown Prosecutor for the District of Bedford, is a member of the Council of Public Instruction, and Church Warden of his parish.



Mr. Duffy is a Liberal in politics. At the general elections in 1897 he was returned by a large majority for the County of Brome. On the formation of the Marchand Ministry in 1897, he was sworn in as Minister of Public Works. In the administration of the affairs of his Department, which at the time included the railways of the Province, Mr. Duffy

displayed marked administrative ability, and many important public works were successfully and economically carried out under his regime.

By the death of the Prime Minister, the Honorable F. G. Marchand, in September, 1901, the Government was dissolved, and a new ministry was formed by the Honorable S. N. Parent. Mr. Duffy was offered the important portfolio of Treasurer of the Province, which he accepted, and at the subsequent general elections he was returned by acclamation.

The Budget Speech delivered by the Honorable Treasurer, four months after his installation, showed that he had already acquired a clear and intelligent grasp of the peculiar condition of the finances of the province, and that under

his firm hand expenditure would in all probability be kept well within the limits of the receipts.

Mr. Duffy represents the English Protestant minority of the Province in the Government, and enjoys the confidence and esteem of all sections of the community.

As an orator he is favorably known far beyond the confines of his native province. He has a commanding presence, a deep powerful voice, his enunciation is clear and distinct, and his arguments are clear and concise. In the autumn of 1898 he was invited by the united Boards of Trade of the Merimac Valley, to address an influential assembly at Lowell, Mass., U.S.A, as the representative of Canada. His forcible and judicious speech on that occasion created a deep impression, not only upon the minds of the French Canadians of the New England States, but also upon the public generally. Another remarkable speech which has passed into history was delivered by Mr. Duffy in Quebec, in September, 1898, at the unveiling of the Monument to Samuel Champlain, by the Governor General. On this memorable occasion Mr. Duffy was invited as the only English speaker. He is an effective campaign speaker, and as a debater in the House he generally succeeds in carrying his point by the force of his logic, and by his fund of ready wit. Mr. Duffy's career has been brilliant from its commencement, which may be attributed in a large measure to the energy and thought which he brings to bear upon each question submitted to his consideration.

In 1902 Mr. Duffy was appointed to represent the Province at the Coronation of His Majesty, King Edward the Seventh.

The Treasury Department of the Province of Quebec. Collection of the Revenue.

For revenue purposes the Province is divided into 33 districts, each of which is placed in charge of a Collector, assisted, in the more important districts, by a Deputy Collector. There is, besides, in the City of Montreal, a Revenue Police Force, employed mainly in the Districts of Montreal East and Montreal West, but members of which are, when necessary, sent on special duty into the other revenue districts.

As enquiry is frequently made concerning the revenue districts of the Province, their limits and the officers in charge of them, we feel sure that a complete list will interest many of our readers. In this list the districts are set down in alphabetical order, with the names of the counties contained in each district, and the name and post-office address of each Collector:—

REVENUE DISTRICTS, P. Q.

1. Arthabaska, comprising the counties of Arthabaska, Drummond and Megantic; Collector, Th. Coté, Arthabaska-ville; Deputy Collector, P. H. Coté.
2. Beauce:—Counties of Beauce and Dorchester; Collector, H. E. Martinette, St. Joseph de Beauce.
3. Beauharnois:—Counties of Beauharnois, Chateauguay and Huntingdon; Collector, P. McLaren, Ormstown.
4. Bedford:—Counties of Brome, Missisquoi and Shefford; Collector, L. A. Perkins, Mansonville.
5. Bonaventure:—County of Bonaventure; Collector, Z. Marcotte, Nouvelle.

6. Charlevoix:—County of Charlevoix; Collector, H. Simard, Baie St. Paul.

7. Chicoutimi:—County of Chicoutimi; Collector, N. Tremblay, Chicoutimi.

8. Gaspé East:—part of Gaspé County; Collector, W. Langlois, Douglastown.

9. Gaspé West:—part of Gaspé County; Collector, N. Lévesque, St. Anne des Monts.

10. Iberville:—Counties of Iberville, Naperville and St. John's; Collector, J. Régnier, Iberville.

11. Joliette:—Counties of Joliette, L'Assomption and Montcalm; Collector, J. S. Boulet, Joliette.

12. Kamouraska:—County of Kamouraska; Collector, T. M. T. LeBel, Kamouraska.

13. Lake St. John:—County of Lake St. John; Collector, L. Boudreault, Hébertville.

14. Magdalen Islands:—Collector, E. Chiasson, Étang du Nord.

15. Matane:—part of County of Matane; Collector, C. Chouinard, Matane.

16. Montmagny:—Counties of Bellechasse, L'Islet and Montmagny; Collector, G. A. Lamarre, St. Valier.

17. Montreal East:—Eastern portion of Montreal City, and Counties of the judicial district of Montreal on the south shore of the St. Lawrence, to wit: La Prairie, Chambly and Vercheres, also County of Hochelaga on the Island of Montreal; Collector, L. H. Brosseau, Montreal; Deputy Collector, M. Michaud.

18. Montreal West:—Western portion of Montreal City, and counties lying to the north of the St. Lawrence, to wit:

Jacques Cartier, Laval, Soulanges and Vaudreuil; Collector, W. B. Lambe, Montreal; Deputy Collector, Ph. Lamontagne.

19. For the purposes of the Succession Duties Act, the judicial district of Montreal is organized as a revenue district; Collector, A. de Martigny, Montreal; Deputy Collector, J. E. Lagüe.

20. Ottawa East—that portion of the County of Ottawa which lies to the east of the Lievre river; Collector, J. Charlebois, Montebello.

21. Ottawa North:—northern part of that part of Ottawa County which lies west of the Lievre river; Collector, E. A. Ste. Marie, Gracefield.

22. Ottawa West:—Southern half of said western portion of the County of Ottawa; Collector, T. W. Symmes, Hull.

23. Pontiac East:—part of County of Pontiac; Collector, S. Smith, Maryland.

24. Pontiac West:—part of County of Pontiac; Collector, C. A. Dubé, Baie des Pères.

25. Quebec:—City of Quebec, and Counties of Levis, Lotbiniere, Montmorency, Portneuf and Quebec; Collector, J. E. Fortier, Quebec; assistant, J. B. Forgues.

26. Richelieu:—Counties of Berthier, Richelieu and Yamaska; Collector, P. Teller, Sorel.

27. Rimouski:—County of Rimouski; Collector, J. D'Anjou, Rimouski.

28. Saguenay:—County of Saguenay; Collector, J. H. Topping, Escoumains.

29. St. Francis:—Counties of Sherbrooke, Compton, Richmond, Stanstead and Wolfe; Collectors, Morpil and Lefevre, Sherbrooke.

30. St. Hyacinthe:—Counties of Bagot, Rouville and St. Hyacinthe; Collectors, Boivin and Beaudry, St. Hyacinthe.

31. Temiscouata:—County of Temiscouata; Collector, J. Lord, Fraserville.

32. Terrebonne:—Counties of Argen-teuil, Two Mountains and Terrebonne; Collector, F. Paquin, St. Eustache.

33. Three Rivers:—Counties of Cham-plain, Maskinonge, Nicolet and St. Maurice; Collectors, Jolin and Rivard, Three Rivers.

Under the judicious and energetic administration of the present Provincial Treasurer, the Honorable Mr. Duffy, the revenue is steadily increasing. To give a single example, taken from one of the revenue services, that of the Public License Law, the receipts in this service have exceeded the estimates since 1901. For the fiscal year ended the 30th June, 1901, the receipts were \$661,968.23, a higher figure than had been reached since Confederation; in the following year (1901-1902) this amount was exceeded by \$19,260 95, the receipts being \$681,229.18.



JULES HELBRONNER



THE labor movement in Montreal might be written in the history of the last twenty years. Prior to that date there was no concerted action on the part of the working classes to accomplish anything in the way of bettering their condition. True, there were several good strong trades unions, but each one sought to better their own condition without the least thought of rendering any assistance to their fellows of other occupations. A general movement on the part of the masses began in 1883, with the birth of the Dominion Assembly Knights of Labor, which was not a trades union, but an organization of all who earned their living in an honorable way. That organization became strong and influential by admitting mechanics, laborers, business men, journalists, in fact all who were interested in bettering the condition of humanity. In 1885, a meeting of all the labor organizations in the city was held for the purpose of making a united effort to have the statute labor tax abolished, when a temporary organization known as the Central

Trades and Labor Council was formed for that purpose. It was on that occasion that the writer became acquainted with Jules Helbronner, the subject of this sketch, who was born in Paris in 1844. His father, Joseph Helbronner, was a manufacturer. Young Jules was educated in his native city. After leaving school he took a position as clerk, which he held



until 1873, when he came to Montreal, and joined the staff of *Le Moniteur du Commerce*, as commercial reporter, and after some time in that capacity he became its chief editor, where he remained until 1883, when he became connected with *Le Monde* and remained only a short time with that paper. When *La Presse* was founded in 1884 he was induced to become connected with the staff of the new paper as assistant


to the editor-in-chief. It was at this juncture that Mr. Helbronner began the special study of municipal matters in relation to the labor question for which he became famous for his articles under the nom-de-plume of "Jean Baptiste Gagnepetit," and he has been looked upon ever since as the best exponent of

municipal labor problems in Montreal. It can be said without fear of contradiction that the abolition of the statute labor tax could scarcely have been handled successfully without the aid and assistance of Mr. Helbronner. He joined Ville Marie Assembly, Knights of Labor, in 1885, and became a member of the Central Trades and Labor Council at its inception, and through his efforts and knowledge of municipal affairs is largely due the success that attended the Council in the many legal contests they had with the city in those days, for the purpose of placing the workmen on an equal footing with the rest of their fellow citizens. Mr. Helbronner was born a labor reformer, and was always found on the side of the working classes when their cause was reasonable and just, and still more was prepared to make any sacrifice rather than relinquish his principles. This fact was thoroughly demonstrated in 1886 when the labor organizations put in nomination three candidates to represent the city divisions in the Local Legislature, when the proprietor of *La Presse* informed Mr. Helbronner that the paper in its editorial columns must ignore the labor candidates, which Mr. Helbronner would not consent to do, he then and there tendered his resignation which, however, was not accepted, and consequently the paper was induced to support the cause of labor. Nor was that a bad stroke of policy on the part of the paper, for through the sup-

porting of the labor candidates and Mr. Helbronner's masterly style of writing on labor matters, the circulation of *La Presse* began to grow more extensively, and we have no hesitation in saying that to his work is largely due the fact that that paper occupies the position it does to-day as one of the foremost papers of the Dominion.

In 1886 he was appointed a member of the Royal Labor Commission which visited many parts of the Dominion for the purpose of enquiring into the condition of labor and reporting thereon to the Government. In 1889 he was appointed a commissioner by the Federal Government to visit Paris, France, with the object of making a report on the Social Economy Section of the Exhibition, which it is needless to say was done in a masterly way and to the satisfaction of all concerned. In 1890 he again joined the staff of *La Presse* and became its chief editor two years later, which position he still occupies. Mr. Helbronner also re-entered the Trades and Labor Council on his return from Paris and immediately began the fight for the uniform imposition of the water tax, as prior to that date the working classes paid more than their just share of the water rates.

Mr. Helbronner is one of the prominent members of the French Colony in Montreal, and is president of the French Benevolent Society; he is also a member of the *Chambre de Commerce*.





LEVIE TREMBLAY



THOMAS O'FARRELL



RIVERSIDE PARK HOTEL

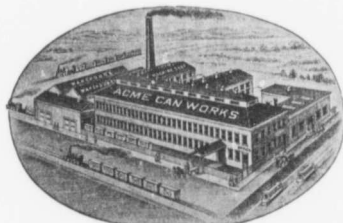
The above cuts are those of Messrs. Tremblay and O'Farrell, proprietors of that popular resort, Riverside Park, which is lined with beautiful groves and dotted with shrubbery. A cut of the magnificent Hotel is shown above. There is also a theatre where performances of a superior character take place afternoon and evening.



IT IS SELDOM in these days of marvelous inventions, untold combinations of capital and huge international corporations, that we find two young men conducting one of the most extensive and marvelously prosperous manufacturing establishments of its kind on the continent of America. The Acme Can Works was not inherited by Mr. James B. Campbell and Mr. William Pratt, the present proprietors, but they succeeded Mr. William Walker, who established the business about thirty years ago, and when it was taken hold of by Messrs. Campbell and Pratt, it was a comparatively small concern. But young blood, energy, ability, pluck, enterprise and determination has made the Acme Can Works what it is to-day, the most extensive of its kind on this side of the Atlantic. Originally located at 177 St. Antoine street, the immense increase in business forced the removal of the plant to Ontario Street and Jeanne D'Arc avenue, Maisonneuve, two years ago. Here it occupies a ground area of 290x100 feet, the main building being 190x50 feet, the machine shop 40x30, the plate store room 40x50, all two storeys, with stables and sheds attached. Throughout the plant the very finest machinery is installed, and the equipment for making dies for working tin and other metals, and for general jobbing work, is most complete. The offices are on Jeanne D'Arc avenue, and

employment is given to over 200 hands. The house imports all its tin plate from England, and makes all its own patterns, while with their improved can machinery, they make the largest assortment of cans of any house in America, turning out 100,000 cans every day of ten hours. They manufacture key-opening and other cans for meats, fish, fruits, vegetables, spices, etc., also paint irons, paint and color cans, round and square varnish and oil cans, lye tins, etc., and no other house equals the product of the Acme Can Works in the finish and workmanship of their goods, or the close price quotations at which they are placed

on the market. They supply canneries and manufacturers and the wholesale trade throughout the Dominion, having two travellers who cover the road regularly, while all orders receive their careful attention and prompt



ACME CAN WORKS

shipment, the house soliciting correspondence from can users, and giving the very best attention to mail orders. Among the facilities enjoyed by the house is a private railway siding, and they operate their machinery by two fifteen-horse power electric motors, gas being used with blast for heating solder. There is an excellent lunch room for the employees, and the industry is managed by Mr. Wm. Pratt, who has charge of all manufacturing. His wide experience enables him to maintain it in the foremost place, and no manufacturing establishment in Montreal is held in higher repute.

Department of Marine and Fisheries.



THE Department of Marine and Fisheries, controlled by the Dominion Government, was constituted at the time of Confederation. It has, since the date of its formation, been presided over by men of unquestioned ability, and the management of the work has been characterized by complete efficiency and thoroughness in all details. The first Minister who held this office was the Hon. Peter Mitchell, who retained it from 1867 to 1873, and whose ability and zeal left permanent results. The Department is at present administered by Hon. Raymond Préfontaine, whose ability and zeal is unquestioned, and he is certainly one of the ablest men who has had charge of the Department since Confederation.

The duties appertaining to the office of Minister of Marine and Fisheries are many and onerous. The magnitude of the Department may be guessed when it is remembered that Canada ranks among the foremost of the nations in the ownership of shipping tonnage. The volume of foreign trade is far greater in Canada than in the United States. The officials in the employ of the Department and engaged in its inside and outside service are counted by thousands. Since the formation of the Department the Fisheries Branch has assumed such proportions that it is scarcely second in importance to that of the Marine, and the employment

of a very large staff is necessary. The details are most intricate.

The Fisheries of Canada are the largest in the world, and their value is fully in proportion to their extent. The sea fisheries are practically inexhaustible, the conditions being peculiarly favorable, as the Arctic currents supply the waters with the nutriment which draws the fish in immense shoals about our shores. The ocean about the Maritime Provinces is rich and teeming. Every variety of fish is to be found in these waters, but the fisheries of commercial importance are the seal, lobster, herring, cod, and mackerel. Nor are our fisheries confined to the ocean. Our boundless lakes and immense and numerous streams yield an abundance of fish of great commercial value.

The services under the management of the Department of Marine and Fisheries are defined by Act of Parliament as follows:

AN ACT RESPECTING THE DEPARTMENT OF MARINE AND FISHERIES.

[Assented to 12th April, 1892.]

Her Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Commons of Canada, enacts as follows:—

1. There shall be a department which shall be called "The Department of Marine and Fisheries," over which the Minister of Marine and Fisheries for the time being appointed by the Governor General by Commission under the Great

Seal shall preside; and the Minister shall have the management and direction of the said department and shall hold office during pleasure.

2. The Governor in Council may appoint an officer who shall be called the Deputy Minister of Marine and Fisheries and who shall be the deputy head of the Department of Marine and Fisheries; and the Governor in Council may also appoint such other officers as are necessary for the proper conduct of the business of the said department, all of whom shall hold office during pleasure.

3. The duties, powers and functions of the Minister of Marine and Fisheries shall extend and apply to the subjects and boards and other public bodies, officers and other persons, and services and properties of the Crown, enumerated in the schedule to this Act, of which the said Minister shall have the control, regulation, management and supervision.

4. The Governor in Council may at any time assign any of the duties and powers hereby assigned to and vested in the Minister of Marine and Fisheries to any other member of the Queen's Privy Council for Canada and his department; and from the period appointed for that purpose by Order in Council such duties and powers shall be transferred to and vested in such other member of the Queen's Privy Council for Canada and his department.

5. The Minister shall invite tenders by public advertisement for the execution of all works, except in cases of pressing emergency in which delay would be injurious to the public interest, or where, from the nature of the work, it can be more expeditiously and economically executed by the officers and servants of the

department; and the said Minister shall also in like manner invite tenders for all contracts for supplies.

6. The Minister, whenever any public work is being carried out by contract under his direction, shall take all reasonable care that good and sufficient security is given to and in the name of Her Majesty for the due performance of the work, within the amount and time specified for its completion; and whenever it seems to the Minister inexpedient to let such work to the lowest tenderer, he shall so report and shall obtain the authority of the Governor in Council previous to passing by such lowest tenderer.

7. The Minister shall make and submit to the Governor General an annual report on all the works under his control, to be laid before both Houses of Parliament within fifteen days from the commencement of each session, showing the state of each work and the amount received and expended in respect thereof, with such other information as is requisite.

8. This Act shall be substituted for chapter twenty-five of the Revised Statutes, which is hereby repealed.

1. Pilots and Pilotage, and Decayed Pilots' Fund.

2. The construction and maintenance of light-houses, light-ships, fog-alarms, buoys and beacons.

3. Ports and harbors, harbor commissioners, harbor masters and port wardens.

4. Piers, wharves, and breakwaters, and the collection of tolls in connection therewith, and the minor repairs on such properties.

5. Steamships and vessels belonging to the Government of Canada engaged in connection with services administered by the Minister of Marine and Fisheries.

6. Sick and distressed seamen, and the establishment, regulation, and maintenance of Marine and Seamen's Hospitals.

7. Signal service.

8. Humane establishments.

9. Lifeboat service and rewards for saving life.

10. Inquiries into causes of shipwrecks and casualties, and the collection of wreck statistics.

11. Inspection of steamboats and examination of engineers, and inquiry into accidents to steamers and the conduct of engineers.

12. Examination of masters and mates.

13. Registration and measurement of shipping, and preparation of returns of registered shipping of Canada.

14. Meteorological and magnetic services.

15. Tidal observations on the coasts of Canada.

16. Climatology of Canada.

17. Inspection of vessels carrying live stock from Canada to Europe.

18. Shipping of steamers, shipping masters and shipping offices.

19. Winter communication between Prince Edward Island and the mainland by steamers and iceboats.

20. Hydrographic surveys.

21. Administration of deck-load law, and the subject of deck and load lines and coasting trade.

22. Removal of wrecks and other obstructions in navigable waters.

23. Sea, coast, and inland fisheries, and the management, regulation, and protection thereof, and everything relating thereto, and the payment of fishing bounties.

In 1889 a Fishery Intelligence Bureau was inaugurated on a small scale. It has

since become a necessity to the fishing community. The reports furnished by it, especially those relating to Labrador and the North Shore, are most useful to the large fishing firms.

Provision has been made by statute for the relief of sick and distressed mariners, a duty being levied of two cents per ton register on every vessel arriving in any port in the Province of Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and British Columbia, the money thus collected forming what is known as the "Sick Mariner's Fund." Vessels of 100 tons and less pay the duty once in each calendar year, and vessels over 100 tons three times a year, but vessels not registered in Canada, and employed exclusively in fishing or on a fishing voyage, are exempt.

Under the Department, the Board of Steamboat Inspection, formed of the Chairman and certain Inspectors, grant, after due and satisfactory examination, certificates for steam vessels to run, and for the employment of qualified engineers, and in like manner, the Board of Examiners of Masters and Mates, comprising a Chairman and certain Examiners, give, if a satisfactory examination has been passed, certificates to successful candidates either as masters or mates.

There are in Canada four graving docks. Three of these belong to the Dominion Government, the fourth being owned by a Company. Those belonging to the Government are—(1) The Esquimalt Dock in British Columbia, finished in June, 1886; the Levis Dock in the St. Lawrence River, finished in 1887; and the graving dock at Kingston, Ont., which was finished in November, 1891, and serves the shipping in Lake Ontario and the River St. Lawrence.

The Other Side of the Question

By C. J. ALLOWAY



JUST as long as the sole purpose and aim of unionism is the increase of the financial compensation of its members and the decrease of the amount of labor to be individually performed, just so long will there be a continual fight between employer and employee. The employer must have his profit; if he cannot he will seek other fields for the investment of his capital.

So long as he is assured of that profit the compensation paid his workmen and the amount of labor he secures from each individual is a minor matter. There is, however, no way in which he may be assured of that profit. He has to rely upon the inexorable law of supply and demand. It regulates the price which he shall receive for his output. It establishes the quantity he is justified in producing. He is not a free agent. If he makes a mistake he must pay for his error out of his own pocket. He cannot remedy it save in isolated instances, at the cost of the consumer. He must give the consumer what he wants at the price he is willing to pay, the lowest price for which equal value can be secured elsewhere. If he does not some one else will.

The two great elements in manufacturing are the cost of raw material and the cost of the labor required to work it up. The cost of the raw material is regulated, like that of the completed article by the law of supply and demand. The cost of

labor should be regulated in the same way, but it is not. The labor unions maintain that they possess the right, through an organization destroying the individuality of action of its members, of wiping that law out of existence and substituting for it a written scale of wages and conditions of employed based solely upon the assertion that all the workingman may squeeze out of the employer he is entitled to claim.

The position is an untenable one. That it is so is proven by the fact that in order to bring it into operation, the unions are compelled to resort to distinctly illegal means. In the first place they have set up the odious doctrine that the union man is superior to the non-union, and that the latter is not fit to work alongside of his organized brother. Wherever the conditions are propitious the union has put this doctrine into practical application by binding employers to hire only men approved by it, and to discharge any men who refuse to join the organization. The union thereby establishes itself as a compulsory organization with the employer as a recruiting agent. His ability to furnish employment to men is taken from him and handed over to the union as one of its assets. He is allowed to furnish employment to such men only as the union may approve, and it may even call upon him to discharge men, not because they have failed in the proper performance of their duty towards him, but because they have neglected their duties as members of the union. He

must go down on his knees to the walking delegate, or as he prefers to be known the business agent. If he hires a man whom he may know to have a family on the verge of starvation the union may compel his dismissal, even though he may be a union man, because he is not the man whom the union considers is entitled to the job. If he does not now do just what the union sets him to do, the union orders his men to quit work until he is prepared to obey its behests. The employer is reduced to the position of being merely permitted to supply work for certain men under certain conditions. The path he may tread is carefully marked out for him, and he may only step out of it at his own peril.

What return does the union make to him for this sacrifice of his independence? Absolutely none. There is not a single trades union on the North American continent to-day which is making the slightest effort to increase the efficiency of its members.

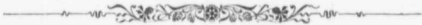
The only purpose for which the unions exist is that of grinding more money for less work out of the employers. That is the only subject of discussion at the meetings. More money and less work! There is a constant reiteration of the claim that to the union the men owe all the advantages they possess. To the employer nothing is due. His carcass is hung up as an exhibit of what the power of organization effected, and his fate is urged as an example to incite men into forcing other employers into a like position. He receives no thanks. So intense is the selfishness of unionism that it recognizes no good in anything otherwise than its own sweet self. It uses the politician and sneers at him behind his back. Gratitude is the last thing of which it may be accused.

The chief weapon of offence of the union is the strike. No man may be compelled to work under conditions which are not satisfactory to him. This is right, and if the unions contented themselves with this, much might be forgiven them. But they have magnified this right into one whereby they claim not merely the right to leave work when it so pleases them, but to do everything and anything to keep other men from filling the places they voluntarily vacated. They have set up the ruinous doctrine that the job he quits belongs to the striker and that the man who dares to fill it is not worthy of recognition by honest men. So insolent has unionism been upon this point that to be called a "scab" is to-day generally regarded among workmen as being a greater reflection upon a man's honor than if he were called a drunkard or even a thief. And what is a "scab?" nothing else but a man who has accepted a vacant place at wages satisfactory to himself. Every man should have a right to work unmolested when he can secure employment under terms and conditions satisfactory to himself. The law gives him that right. Nevertheless, the union sets its mandate above the law. It sends its emissaries to call him "scab," to assault him, to attack his home, to molest his wife and children, to threaten the grocer and the butcher who supply his daily wants, to arouse his neighbors to petty acts of spite against him and his family, to do anything and everything which may frighten him into leaving the work which may be the means of saving him from starvation. Nine times out of ten the law and its guardians look stolidly on. Often when they are compelled out of very decency to protect him, the protection is given in a manner almost as injurious to a man's

self respect as the lack of it would have been to his physical welfare. What is the reward of this man, one of the heroes of labor? Too often the strike is settled and the terms of the settlement compel the employer to discharge him. Nothing has been more injurious to the interests of employers generally than this refusal to stand by the men who came to their assistance in time of trouble. So frequently have they been deserted that now it is extremely difficult to find good men who will dare to defy unionism for the purpose of retaining positions held by them. Nothing has done more to foster the feeling among strikers that the jobs they quit are theirs when they are ready to return than this disposition on the part of employers to discharge men who have done the best they could to make way a place for the striker. Many of the evils of unionism have been brought into active being by the foolish and weak actions of employers. Had they from the very first jointly maintained their rights, they would not to-day be fighting

unionism whenever unionism feels itself strong enough for the fray.

Arbitration, mediation and conciliation are useless remedies. The foolish and ruinous contest must be continued until the recognition becomes general that the trades-union is an organization whose aims and methods are directly at variance with the best interests of the State. With that general recognition will come a demand for the maintenance of law and order in a firm decisive manner. It will be to jail with the man who dares to interfere with the right of another man to work, either by mouth or intimidation. Allied with this will come the incorporation of the unions, forcing upon them the responsibility of their acts. This will be all that will be required. Where the union must accept responsibility for its acts, and when the agent of the union has the open cell door before his eyes when he dares to interfere with a man working, strikes will be a thing of the past, or those which are declared will be for the purpose of remedying genuine grievances.



Department of Public Works.



PREVIOUS to the year 1879, this interesting and important Department embraced canals, works on navigable rivers, harbors, light-houses, beacons and buoys, slides and booms, roads and bridges, public buildings and provincial vessels. But on the 15th of May, 1879, by the Act 42 Victoria, chap. 7, the division was authorized of the then existing Department of Public Works into two Departments, to be presided over and managed by two Ministers; one of the said Ministers to be designated the "Minister of Railways and Canals," and the other the "Minister of Public Works."

The Department is administered by the Hon. James Sutherland, M.P., whose widely recognized ability for executive administration marks him out as peculiarly fitted to fill high office in his country's service.

Of all our Public Buildings the most imposing as well as the most important are the Government Houses at Ottawa. They are exceedingly spacious and handsome, and their magnificent situation on a prominent rocky point, which juts out into the River Ottawa, at an elevation considerably higher than the city, brings into prominence their best features, and never fails to awaken the enthusiastic admiration of the visitor who beholds the Canadian seat of Government for the first time. The grounds about the Buildings are, indeed,

for beauty of situation, unsurpassed in America. The "Lover's Walk," about half a mile in length, around the face of the cliff, shaded by trees of great beauty, is one of the most delightful retreats imaginable. The Parliament and Departmental Buildings, east and west, are marvels of architectural grace and perfection.

The style of architecture in these buildings is a modified 12th century Gothic. The material principally employed in their construction is a hard, cream-colored sandstone. Ohio freestone is employed in the dressings, stairs, gables and pinnacles, and a very pleasing effect is gained by the relieving arches of red Potsdam sandstone over the windows and doors. Most of the timber used was obtained in the Ottawa Valley. The roofs are of Vermont slate of a dark color, variegated by lighter bands.

The buildings form three sides of a quadrangle, measuring, from north to south, six hundred feet, from east to west, seven hundred feet, and containing an area of over nine and a half acres. The Parliament Buildings occupies the north side of this square, upon which it has a frontage of four hundred and seventy-two feet. It faces towards the south, and its extreme depth at the centre is three hundred and seventy feet. The Departmental Buildings form the east and west sides of the square, and are of a rectangular shape. The Eastern Block has a frontage on the square of three hundred

and nineteen feet, while the Western Block shows on the square a frontage of two hundred and twenty feet.

These magnificent piles of architecture cost between five and six millions of dollars.

The Senate Chamber and House of Commons in the central building are both beautifully finished. Each measures 84 by 45 feet, and the House of Commons is arranged for the accommodation of two hundred members. The roof of glass above each, through which light is admitted, is supported by numerous marble columns of elegant design and high polish.

The Parliamentary Library, which forms a separate building, is both beautiful and wonderfully unique. The principal room is circular, and ninety feet in diameter. The main wall is four feet thick, and its exterior face forms a polygon of sixteen sides, at each angle of which is a flying buttress, spanning the roof of the lean-to, and adjoining the main wall at a height calculated to resist the thrust of the vaulted roof. The whole is most effective. This Library contains a great number of books, which are arranged with regularity, and are catalogued and indexed in the most thorough and convenient manner. A statue of the late Queen, standing in the centre of the circular apartment, forms an interesting and beautiful feature.

In the corridors of the Parliament Buildings are large-sized portraits of many of the old members of the Canadian Legislatures, and to those who are acquainted with Canada's romantic and eventful history, these present great attractions.

The East and West Buildings are occupied as offices by the officials of the

Civil Service. In the West Block are situated the offices of the Department which forms the subject of this sketch.

On the south side of Wellington Street, and facing the Parliament Buildings, is another block of Departmental Buildings. The erection of these were not contemplated at the time when the Governmental Buildings were first planned, but was rendered a necessity later on by the need of further accommodation for the work of storing of official documents. It is a massive block, and imparts an imposing appearance to that portion of Wellington Street.

Among other prominent Canadian buildings may be reckoned the Post Offices at Montreal, Toronto, Quebec and Ottawa. The first named is Italian Renaissance in style, and covers an area of 11,804 square feet. It was built at a cost of \$490,593.

Surveys and examinations are made by officers under instructions from this Department, the purpose of these being to obtain reliable and accurate information touching the desirability and practicability of undertaking the construction of such works as are from time to time urged upon the Government.

The report of the Chief Engineer contains always a most interesting record of improvements accomplished among the wharves, piers and breakwaters of the Dominion. A list of these for a year is astonishing, by reason of its extent and varied nature of the work. On the River St. John, in New Brunswick, in 1894, a very important and interesting survey was made. This river, 450 miles long, takes its rise from sources in the Province of Quebec and State of Maine. Entering New Brunswick at the confluence of the St. Francis, a little below the Quebec

border, it flows for 300 miles before it empties into the Bay of Fundy at St. John. Three natural features of the river are remarkable, viz.: The Tidal Falls, Grand Falls, and the Annual Flood. The Chief Engineer's report stated that, for purposes of works, the river may be divided into three compartments:

1. Tidal navigation for steamers and sailing vessels from St. John to Fredericton, 84 miles, requiring 11 feet at low water. Principal obstruction, the Oromocto shoals, giving about 9 feet of water.

2. Inland navigation for steamers from Fredericton to Woodstock, a distance of about 65 miles, requiring $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet at low water. Obstacle to inland navigation in the shape of boulders in a few places, and extensive shoals of material, more or less coarse, varying from sandy gravel to stones.

3. The upper river, including, with the tributaries, all that part above Woodstock.

The report further showed that during the year there had been expended in the first of these divisions a sum of \$846.94. In the second, \$498.33 had covered the cost of the removal of boulders, gravel, etc., and in working other improvements. In the third division, the completion of a dam at Grand Falls, the removal of a huge, rocky obstacle, the scraping of channels through bars, and other works too numerous to mention, involved an outlay of \$2,085.

A slight idea only can be gained of the enormous extent of work done by this Department, through lending attention to such brief extracts from its reports as can be dealt with in this article. The mere headings of the numerous

divisions of the work accomplished by its officers are bewildering in their numbers: a detailed account gives really an astonishing idea of the amount of labor that a well organized and efficient system can accomplish. During a single recent year one thousand and seventeen papers were referred by the Secretary of the Department to the office of the Chief Engineer for report or action. During the same year the letters received in the office of the Chief Engineer from resident enquirers and others amounted to seven thousand.

The Department of Public Works has charge of the Government Telegraph Lines, in itself a very extensive branch of the service.

This Department has in its charge the National Art Gallery at Ottawa, containing many beautiful and valuable pictures, as well as a most interesting collection of coins, pottery, and antiquities, the latter chiefly from Cyprus.

It may not be amiss to explain that the Government only own and operate these lines which have been built by them in furtherance of the public service, between places where the traffic could not be expected to be sufficient to compensate private outlay, but when public interests require that there shall be communication, especially in connection with the signal and other stations established by the Marine Department along the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the Maritime Provinces and British Columbia, and also for the better opening up of the North-West Territories. Since the establishment of the telegraph service in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and along the Atlantic Coast, the reduction in Marine Insurance Premiums has been 50 per cent.

The Department of Justice



THIS Department of the Government is presided over by the Hon. Charles Fitzpatrick, the Minister of Justice and Attorney-General of Canada. The superintendence of all matters connected with the administration of justice in Canada, and not coming within the jurisdiction of the provincial authorities, belongs to the Department. Its grave import is manifest, and the ability and right-mindedness which have heretofore characterized its management are signally matter for public satisfaction.

The duties which belong to the office of Minister of Justice are many and arduous. He is the legal adviser of the Governor-General and the legal adviser of the Privy Council.

It falls within the province of the Minister of Justice to advise upon the Legislation Acts and proceedings of the several Provincial Legislatures, and generally on all matters referred to him by the Crown and the other Departments of Government.

He also performs the duties appertaining to the office of Attorney-General in England, in so far as the same applies to Canada, while the duties formerly belonging to the Attorneys-General of the several provinces previous to Confederation, in so far as they relate to matters properly within Dominion jurisdiction, are performed by him. He advises the

heads of the several Departments of the Government on all matters of Law connected with such Departments; and he is charged with the settlement and approval of all instruments under the Great Seal of Canada.

The following are the names of the Gentlemen who have filled the office of Minister of Justice since Confederation:

Sir John Macdonald, K.C.B., 1st July, 1867-6th November, 1873.

Antoine Aimé Dorion, 7th November, 1873-31st May, 1874.

Telesphore Fournier, 8th July, 1874-18th May, 1875.

Edward Blake, 19th May, 1875-7th June 1877.

R. Laflamme, 8th June, 1877-16th October, 1878.

James McDonald, 17th October, 1878-19th May, 1881.

Sir A. Campbell, K.C.M.G., 20th May, 1881-24th September, 1885.

Right Hon. Sir John S. D. Thompson, P.C., K.C.M.G., 25th September, 1885-12th December, 1894.

Hon. Sir Chas. H. Tupper, 21st December, 1894-4th January, 1896.

A. R. Dickey, 15th January, 1896-8th July, 1896.

Sir Oliver Mowat, 13th July, 1896-18th November, 1897.

Hon. David Mills, 18th November, 1897-8th February, 1902.

Hon. C. Fitzpatrick, 11th February, 1902.

To the Minister of Justice belongs the serious and oft-times painful duty of advising on the exercise of the prerogative of clemency.

The principal officers of the Department are as follows:

Minister of Justice and Attorney-General of Canada—Hon. Charles Fitzpatrick.

Solicitor-General, Hon. Henry George Carroll.

Deputy Minister—Edmund Leslie Newcombe, B.A., Q.C.

Chief Clerks—Augustus Power, Q.C., and G. L. B. Frazer, B.A., Barrister.

Minister's Private Secretary—J. D. Clarke.

Secretary to Deputy Minister—John Leslie.

Private Secretaries to Solicitor General—J. Meilleur and Hector Verret.

It will be observed that the administration of the Penitentiaries of the Do-

minion devolves upon the Department. There are five penitentiaries in the Dominion, and figures show that the convict population has, during recent years, been diminishing, the actual average having gradually declined in almost every penitentiary. A few years ago the Inspector of Penitentiaries said:—

"It is an evidence of the general prosperity of the Dominion, because, in times of depressions and financial stringency, it is found that the percentage of criminals who reach the penitentiaries—to the general population—is considerably larger than when labor, industry, and enterprise are successful, and plentiful crops reward the toil of the husbandman."

The five penitentiaries of the Dominion are situated at Kingston, Ont.; St-Vincent de Paul, Montreal, Que.; Dorchester, N.B.; Stoney Mountain, Man.; and New Westminister, B.C.



Workingmen's Mutual Benefit Societies

By Ald. H. LAPORTE



HERE is nothing new under the sun. Often things that seem new, have originated in the years long gone by—buried in the dust of ages—What makes believe they are new, is because they are garbed with the dress of modern progress and civilization. Such is the case of the Mutual Benefit Societies. At first, and without going any further, let us draw a line and specify exactly the difference between Benevolent and Mutual Benefit Societies.

The Benevolent societies are without any doubt as old as the world, they are based on charity, which principle was set at the dawn of humanity. But let us do away with the word—Charity—which may cause friction, and hurt the feelings of proud and sensitive people.

The Mutual Benefit Societies are based on philanthropy. It is the immediate and useful association between a group of persons working in harmony towards a proposed aim.

It may be compared to a commercial house of several partners, where each and every partner of the firm by their constant and individual labor gather up wealth and share unequal the profits accumulated.

In the present case, it is men who invest their money, their savings in a profitable business to withdraw a legitimate profit when deemed opportune, either for themselves or their family during their life or at death. How generous, noble patriotic is this philanthropic sacrifice.

Pauperism will be a thing of the past, the law breakers and wretched would disappear, the hospitals emptied and the tempestuous social questions smoothed, if the principle of Mutual Benefit Societies could be well understood by the masses. At all times the government have always fostered and encouraged the Mutual Benefit Societies; they have seen in them the foundation stone on which lay the peace of a country as well as the welfare of every citizen.

One may assert with truth that, nevertheless, the protection and zeal of governmental authorities was in years past too interested, because to them was reserved the privilege to appoint presidents and directors of such societies. It was at the time, too, when the ballot box was unknown and when the vote of the electors was nullified under the autocratic power of a king or emperor.

With the evolution of to-day these forms of government are no more, and the elector by the means of his vote is the master of the situation.

At present in some countries, notably in France, the state has the right to revise charters and operations of such societies in order to protect those interested against fraud or injustice.

Why not do the same everywhere?

We may be also allowed to say, as we proceed, that France was the cradle of the mutual societies. The first one was under the patronage of Ste. Anne and was founded in the year 1580.

And what was the object of these societies. The gathering up of isolated individuals, the grouping of persons with the same ideal, with identical aspirations working together for the prosperity of their association and for the welfare of the community at large.

It has been, and it is yet the aim at all times of those societies to protect against eventualities in life such as sickness or accidents, members who join those fraternal corporations. By means of personal and periodical disbursements a certain sum forms a capital which is the property of the society and when needed a portion is distributed amongst the suffering or distressed members.

A mutual benefit society is particularly advantageous to workmen and laborers, or people depending solely on their daily labor to provide for the necessaries of life. That is the reason why every workman either a mason, a hod carrier, etc., and even we may add commercial men, lawyers, etc., should join one of the mutual societies.

It is as wise to do so as it is for every chief of a family to see that provisions and coal should be provided for every year in due time, and that the means to obtain same should be looked after carefully. Often an era of abundance is followed by famine, and happy in these trying circumstances are the persons who can rely on some outside help. Then! friends, to enjoy such privileges join immediately one of the mutual benefit societies.

A few cents saved daily would bring this fortunate resource to you. One does not know the power of a single cent.

Ten cents saved daily amounts to \$36.00 a year, \$360.00 in 10 years, or \$720.00 in 20 years.

Placed at compound interest of 5% any sum doubles itself in 14 years.

To give an exact idea of the value of a cent, we will say that if it has been placed at 5% compound interest at the beginning of the Christian era, there would not be gold enough in the whole world to pay interest on same to-day.

The savings of the people in a country is the guarantee of the stability of its institutions. What makes the wealth of France, if it is not the savings of its inhabitants. Whenever the republic needs funds, there pours from every corner of the country heaps of gold—the savings of the people, which are for the occasion government bankers.

It is wonderful, not to say marvellous, what could be done by the agglomeration of money savings. The word of Madame Sevigny to her daughter about domestic economy could be well applied to the present case: "The freshets swells up and make the largest rivers."

Do not hesitate, workmen, laborers to patronize mutual benefit societies, the association in general is one of the great remedies to the evils of modern civilization. Join them, with confidence, and rest assured that it will be beneficial to your family and yourself. Join them because the association renders a man wiser, protects him against the many difficulties met on the road of life, shelters him from the danger of being a pauper and makes of every member of its society a free citizen.

HONORABLE CHARLES JOSEPH DOHERTY



HAT Canadians have reason to be proud of their institutions and the form of government under which they are living needs no argument at our hands to prove the assertion.

We have only to glance at the names of those occupying positions of honor and trust in the country's service to be assured that the interests of the people will be safely guarded. We find all our public offices of any importance ably and worthily filled, but in no case is this more striking than in that of the judiciary. While a large number of worthy men have been highly honored by being elevated to the Bench, there are cases where the bench is more honored by the occupant than otherwise.

As in the case of the gentleman of whom we are writing, Honorable Charles Joseph Doherty, his elevation to the Bench was looked upon by his friends and admirers as leaving a gap and removing from the Bar a man whose place could not be easily filled. Judge Doherty, like all men of lofty character and great ability, is extremely modest and unassuming, kind, courteous and genial, large-

hearted, generous and charitable. His father, the late Hon. Marcus Doherty, was a native of Ireland, and came to this country in 1835. Judge Doherty was born in Montreal May 11th, 1855. His education was received entirely in his native city, beginning his collegiate career at St. Mary's College, when, after completing a course in that institution, he entered McGill

University, where he graduated B.C.L. in 1876, taking, jointly with J. M. Green-shields, the Elizabeth Torrence gold medal. He was admitted to the bar in 1877. It would occupy too much space to enumerate the many important and celebrated cases that were participated in by the judge during his career at the bar. Among others might be mentioned several heavy libel suits, including the Montreal



Amateur Athletic Association against the *Post*, and the Society of Jesus against the *Toronto Mail*. The Judge demonstrated clearly his superior knowledge of municipal law in connection with the abolition of the statute labor tax, on that occasion the committee appointed by the labor organizations interviewed many eminent lawyers for the purpose of taking such action as might be deemed necessary to

have the tax declared illegal by the courts, but on every occasion they were informed that the tax was legal and their wishes could only be gratified by having the law repealed in the regular way, finally Mr. Doherty was seen and after looking into the matter for some time and giving it that careful consideration that was characteristic of the man, he decided to take the case, stating at the same time that the statute labor tax in the City of Montreal was illegal, and he was confident that the court would render a decision (which it did) favorable to united labor which was certainly a great legal triumph for Mr. Doherty. He acted as counsel (and again succeeded) for the same body in their appeal to the courts against the City for the purpose of having the water tax more uniformly distributed, as, prior to that date the working class paid more than their just share of the water rates. He also appeared before the Privy Council in London on several occasions. Evidently his success began to tell as honors were showered upon him. In 1887 he was created a Queen's Council and subsequently a member of the Council of the Montreal Bar. He was appointed Professor of Civil Law on the re-organization of the McGill Law School, a position he still holds. He was also president of the University Literary Society. Mr. Doherty, like the majority of young lawyers, became interested in public affairs, and on two occasions contested Montreal Centre for the Local Legislature, and was defeated in both contests. The cause of his defeat might be attributed to the fact that he was too manly to stoop to the tactics of the average politician, too honorable to lie, deceive and humbug the misguided elector; he was not of the handshaking, smiling clap net on the back sort of politician.

No, he was born a gentleman and consequently could not succeed as a politician. Being of Irish descent, he always took a keen interest in Irish affairs and his great talents and influence were ever at the disposal of the Irish cause. He was president of the Land League in the early days when it was not popular, and little understood by the general public, and subsequently president of the Irish National League. He also represented the Irishmen of Montreal at the Irish National Convention held in Dublin in 1890. Mr. Doherty lectured several times on Irish subjects, and on one occasion, on the duty of Irishmen to the land of their birth and of their adoption. He was a member of the Royal Commission, appointed to investigate the operation of the Catholic and Protestant School Boards of Montreal. While the judge is an ardent Home Ruler and strongly Irish in Irish affairs he is above all a Canadian, which was clearly demonstrated by his active participation in the events of 1885, the year of the Riel rebellion. He at that time held a commission of captain in the sixty-fifth Battalion and went with his regiment to the North West. Throughout the stormy weeks that followed he played his part with customary zeal and efficiency, and was in command of the garrison at Fort Saskatchewan until the withdrawal of the troops. He received the honorary degree of LL.D. from the University of Ottawa in 1895. He takes a keen interest in the labor movement, and is ever ready to extend a helping hand to organized labor wherever its cause is reasonable and just. He was raised to the Bench as a Puisne Judge of the Superior Court, Province of Quebec, October the 10th, 1891. In the celebrated case of the Canada Revue Publishing Company against Archbishop Fabre, of Montreal, he rendered judgment

in October, 1894, which was afterwards confirmed by the Court of Review. This was an action brought against the Archbishop by the proprietors of the newspaper for the purposes of recovering damages caused by the issuing of a pastoral letter exhorting the faithful to abstain from supporting or reading the paper, under pain of being deprived of the rights of the church. The *Legal News* (of March 15th, 1895), commenting on the judgment rendered by Judge Doherty dismissing the action, said: This case is an interesting and important addition to the jurisprudence on the subject of religious denominations in this province. Mr. Justice Doherty's treatment of the question is extremely able, and applying but one, though not an unimportant, test to the judgement, it may be said that there is not a single position taken by the learned judge in laying down the principles of

law which serve as the basis of the decision, which an enlightened member of any religious denomination, be he Roman Catholic or Anglican, Presbyterian or Methodist, Congregationalist or Jew, can reasonably take exception The absolute equality before the law of all religious denominations in this province, is clearly recognized throughout the judgment, and their right to maintain discipline among their members is distinctly asserted. The limitations are that the rules must be consistent with the law of the land, and that the tribunal or duly constituted authority of the body must not act in an unfair or malicious manner It may be added, that the authorities cited by the Court are exceedingly opposite, and show that the decision is in harmony with English jurisprudence. Judge Doherty married in 1888, Catherine Lucy, daughter of the late Edmund Barnard, Q.C.



WHO SHOULD OWN THE LAND?

Extracts from the Encyclical letter of Bishop Nulty to the Clergy and Laity of his diocese.

THE WHOLE PEOPLE THE TRUE OWNERS OF
THE LAND.



WHEN a privileged class arrogantly claims a right of private property in the land of a country, that claim is simply unintelligible, except on the broad principle that the land of a country is not a free gift at all, but solely a family inheritance; that it is not a free gift which God has bestowed on His creatures, but an inheritance which He has left to His children; that they, therefore, being God's eldest sons, inherit this property by right of succession; that the rest of the world have no share or claim to it on the ground that their origin is tainted with the stain of illegitimacy. The world, however, will hardly submit to this shameful imputation of its own degradation, especially when it is not sustained by even a shadow of reason.

I infer, therefore, that no individual or class of individuals can hold a right of private property in the land of a country; that the people of the country, in their public corporate capacity, are, and always must be, the real owners of the land of their country—holding an indisputable title to it in the fact that they received it as a free gift from its Creator, and as a necessary means for preserving and enjoying the life He has bestowed upon them.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN THE RIGHT OF THE
INDIVIDUAL AND THE RIGHT OF
THE COMMUNITY.

Usufruct, therefore, is the highest form of property that individuals can hold in land. On the other hand, I have shown that the cultivators' right of property in the produce of the land, in the improvements he has made in the productiveness of the land, and in its undisturbed occupation, as long as he continues to improve it—that these various rights are all founded on the strictest principles of justice, and that their recognition and protection by the State will secure for the land the highest culture and improvement it is capable of receiving, and will draw from it, without fail, the highest returns of human food it is capable of yielding. On these immutable principles of justice and right, the order, the progress and welfare of society depend. They allow free scope, and hold out the highest encouragement to the fullest development of the energy and activity of human industry and enterprise by securing to everyone the full fruits of his labour, and recognizing in him a right of property to all that his hands produce. They guarantee to him immunity and protection from disturbance as long as he devotes himself with earnestness and zeal to his industrial pursuits. On the other hand, if a man, through indolence or incompetence, allows his land to run wild, to return to its primitive sterility and bar-

reunness, so as to produce nothing at all, or, at all events, much less than it is capable of yielding, it is no hardship to that man if these principles call on him to surrender a trust which he held from society, and which, to the great detriment of society, he has so grievously abused. Finally, it is no injustice to refuse the remuneration of labour to those who have not laboured at all. This usufruct, therefore, is a right of property in land which is held mainly for the benefit of the public and for the advancement of the general interests of the community.

And yet the general interests of the community are hardly distinguishable from the private interests of the usufructuary. The larger the amount of permanent improvements made in the soil, the richer and the more abundant returns it will yield, the better will it be for both interests. An usufructuary or farmer who labours might and main for his own self-interests, labours with the same amount of earnestness and zeal for the interests of the public as well. But it is the consideration of the public interests that will determine the continuity of his occupancy. The continuity of his occupancy entirely depends on the continuity of its real, practical effectiveness for the advancement of the interests of the public. The moment it ceases to be useful and beneficial to the public welfare, that moment it ceases to have a right to exist any longer. If individuals could have a right of private property in land, that right would not be fettered by these responsibilities; in fact, it would not be liable to responsibility at all. The ownership of reclaimed tracts of land like the Bedford Level approximates closely, without, however, fully realizing, to a right of private property in land. The

owner of the Bedford Level is not responsible to society for the management of that property, nor is he bound to have any regard to its interests in the use he wishes to make of it. Being master of his own free actions, he was not bound to create that property for the benefit of society, but for his own, and he may now make whatever use he pleases of it. If through mismanagement it produces less than it is capable of yielding, that is his own affair altogether. If he allowed it to return to its original sterility, society might regret that it suffered a great loss, but it could not complain that he did it an injustice or a wrong.

The distinction, therefore, between the two rights of property in land is essential and fundamental, and it is absolutely necessary to apprehend it clearly, and to bear it distinctly in mind. Now, there is nothing novel or startling in the common and inalienable right of property which I have shown every people possesses in the land of its country. I know of no writer in political economy who disputes it, although I am familiar with the works of many of the most eminent of them.

THAT THE RENT OF LAND SHOULD GO TO
THE COMMUNITY A DESIGN OF THE
DIVINE PROVIDENCE.

I think, therefore, that I may fairly infer, on the strength of authority as well as of reason, that the people are and always must be the real owners of the land of their country. This great social fact appears to me to be of incalculable importance, and it is fortunate indeed that on the strictest principles of justice it is not clouded even by a shadow of uncertainty or doubt. There is, moreover, a charm and a peculiar beauty in the clearness with which it reveals the

wisdom and the benevolence of the designs of Providence in the admirable provision He has made for the wants and the necessities of that state of social existence of which he is the author, and in which the very instincts of nature tell us we are to spend our lives. A vast public property, a great national fund, has been placed under the dominion and at the disposal of the nation to supply itself abundantly with resources necessary to liquidate the expenses of its government, the administration of its laws, and the education of its youth, and to enable it to provide for the suitable sustenance and support of its criminal and pauper population. One of the most interesting peculiarities of this property is that its value is never stationary; it is constantly progressive and increasing in a direct ratio to the growth of the population; and the very causes that increase and multiply the demands made on it increase proportionately its ability to meet them, as I shall clearly show further on.

LANDLORDISM TAKES THE PATRIMONY OF THE PEOPLE.

Let the democracy of England, as well as of Ireland, learn the melancholy fate that has overtaken this splendid inheritance which God has placed in their hands, and which would have saved them the $\text{£}80,000,000$ which they now annually pay by direct and indirect taxation for the government of the country. That patrimony was once theirs by right, and by right it is theirs still; but, in fact, it is theirs no longer; a class wrested the land from the people of the country, and now hold a strict monopoly in it. They sell to the people as if it were an ordinary article of private property, and

solely the result of their own capital and labour. The rents which the landlords draw from their lands is an income which they derive from the sale of what are avowedly God's gifts, which "no man made." If they had only claimed the right of selling the use of the permanent improvements they had in the soil, by the capital and labour they had expended on it, no one could dispute the justice of their demand; but any element of income that might possibly be derived from this source is called, in the language of political economy, not rent, but profit.

If the "Bedford Level," and the rich tract of land in Meath with which I have compared it, were to be leased out to tenant farmers for a given term of years, the one would fetch quite as much as the other. The farmer would not concern himself much in inquiring into the *source* from which the fertility of the land was derived; all his solicitude and inquiries would be directed to the existence of the fact that the fertility was there, and which of them possessed it in the highest degree. The rent which the owner of the "Bedford Level" would receive for the use of his land would be a just and equitable remuneration, to which he was entitled for the expenditure of his labour and capital, whilst the Meath proprietor would receive as high a reward for having done nothing at all. Only that his income is so woefully wanting in justice, the condition of the Meath proprietor would certainly be enviable.

THE PRICE OF LAND A MONOPOLY PRICE.

But this privileged class not merely sells the use of God's gifts, but extort for them a price which is most unjust and exorbitant; in fact, they hardly ever sell them at less than scarcity of famine prices.

⁴(1880). Now 130 millions.—ED. S. T.

If a man wants to buy a suit of broadcloth, the price he will be required to pay for it will amount to very little more than what it cost to produce it—and yet that suit of clothes may be a requirement of such necessity or utility to him that he would willingly pay three times the amount it actually cost rather than submit to the inconvenience of doing without it. On the other hand, the manufacturer would extort the last shilling he would be willing to give for it, only that he knows there are scores of other manufacturers ready to undersell him if he demanded much more than the cost of production. The price, therefore, of commodities of all kinds that can be produced on a large scale, and to an indefinite extent, will depend on the cost required to produce them, or, at least, that part of them which is produced at the highest expense. But there is a limited class of commodities whose selling price has no relation or dependence at all on the cost at which they have been produced; for example, rare wines, that grown only on soils of limited extent; paintings by the old masters; statues of exquisite beauty and finish by celebrated sculptors; rare books, bronzes and medals; and provisions or articles of human food in cities during a siege, and more generally in times of scarcity and famine—these commodities are limited in quantity, and it is physically impossible in the circumstances to increase, multiply, or augment them further. The seller of these commodities, not being afraid of competition, can put any price he pleases on them short of the purchaser's extreme estate of their necessity, utility, or advantage to themselves. Fabulous sums of money, therefore, have been expended in the purchase of such commodities—sometimes to indulge a taste for the fine arts;

sometimes to satisfy a passion for the rare and the beautiful; and sometimes, too, to gratify a feeling of vanity or ambition to the *sole proprietors* of objects of antiquarian interest and curiosity. On the other hand, enormous sums of money have been paid in times of scarcity or during a siege for the commonest necessities of life, or, failing these, for substitutes that have been requisitioned for human food, the use of which would make one shudder in circumstances of less pressing necessity. Now, the land is a commodity that strictly belongs to this class. It is limited in extent, and no human power can enlarge or extend its area. The competition for it is excessive, and the competitors are struggling for its attainment—not for the purpose of satisfying a taste for the fine arts, or to gratify a passion for the rare or the beautiful, but to secure the necessary means of existence; for they must live *on* and *by* the land, or they cannot live at all. The owner, therefore, of that land can put on it any rent he pleases, and the poor people competing for it have no choice but to accept his terms or die in a ditch or a poorhouse. Under the present system of land tenure, the owners are not only enabled, but actually exact for the use of the land the last shilling the tenant is able to pay, leaving him only what is barely sufficient to keep him from dying. Mr. Mill, who is the highest of all authorities on this subject, thus writes on the letting of land as it is actually carried out in Ireland:—"With individual exceptions (some of them very honourable ones) the owners of Irish estates do nothing for the land but drain it of its produce. What has been epigrammatically said in the discussions on 'peculiar burthens' is literally true when applied to them—that the greatest 'burthen' on the land is the land-

lords. Returning nothing to the soil, they consume its whole produce, minus the potatoes strictly necessary to keep the inhabitants from dying of famine."

LANDLORDISM CONFISCATES THE WORK
OF IMPROVERS.

But the present system of land tenure not merely enables a class to exact from the people of the country a famine price for the use of the land which God made, but it also enables them to charge a rent for the use of the improvements on the land which the people themselves made, which is purely the result of their own industry and capital, and which is, in fact, on the strictest principles of justice, their own private property. With the knowledge and experience which we have acquired all our lives long of the transactions that are daily taking place between landlords and tenants, the clearest and most convincing proof that can be given of this fact will perhaps be found in the plain and simple statement of it.

The land of Ireland would at this moment still be in its original state of nature, had it not been drained, cleared, reclaimed and fertilized by the enormous outlay of labour and capital which has been expended on it by the people of the present day and their forefathers in past generations. The landlords contributed nothing, or next to nothing, for its improvement.

What has become of this enormous property? The correct answer to this question will, I think, be found to be that one part of it had been wantonly wasted and destroyed, that the landlords have coolly appropriated to their own use a second part of it, and that the people pay, at the present moment, a rent for the use of the residue of what was once all their

own property. In the one County of Meath, in this diocese, there are about 369,000 acres of land laid down in grass seeds or pasture. That vast territory was nearly all parcelled out about the commencement of this century in farms of various sizes, ranging from ten to seventy, eighty, or a hundred acres each. These farms were dotted over with clean, commodious, comfortable, whitewashed dwellings, with offices, outhouses, and the plant of well-to-do farmers. These dwellings were occupied by a race of the most laborious, industrious, hard-working and virtuous people that ever lived in any country. But, owing to the iniquitous system of land tenure, they have been almost all mercilessly evicted and swept away, and every vestige of the vast amount of human life, industry, contentment, and happiness that once flourished on these lands has been so carefully obliterated that, looking at them in their present melancholy solitude, one would imagine them to have been "prairie lands" since the creation. The property which these poor people possessed in their dwellings and farm houses has been thus wantonly destroyed, and the permanent improvements they had created in the productiveness of the soil were coolly appropriated by the landlords who evicted them. Until the Irish Land League interfered with their operations, these exterminators sold out by public auction every year the use of the people's property, as well as the natural productiveness of the soil, to cattle dealers for a term of nine, ten, or eleven months, and at a rent ranging from £4 to £6 an acre, and they drew from their estates an income twice, and in many instances three times as large as the few honest and honourable proprietors in their neigh-

bourhood who never evicted any one at all. I need hardly direct attention to the notorious fact that those who have been suffered to remain were only too glad to be allowed the privilege of paying a rent for the use of the residue of what was once their own property.

LANDLORDISM PREVENTS IMPROVEMENTS.

But the truth is, if the landlords *only* confiscated the enormous property created on the land by the people's capital and labour for ages up to the present moment, a word of complaint would not be heard against them. The great grievance of which the people would complain is that, even still, if the tenant has the folly to expend his labour and capital in the permanent improvements which the soil so sadly requires, the landlords are on the lookout to appropriate it at once, and put a fresh increase of rent on him for the use of his own property. Quite recently, therefore, the nation has earnestly appealed to the Legislature, through the

Bessborough and Richmond Commissions, to protect the property which the people were ready to create in the permanent improvement of the soil, by barring the landlord's right to appropriate it, or charge a fresh rent for the use of it. Even the Tory section of the Richmond Commission were so struck with the manifest injustice of the arbitrary power by which the landlord can claim any rent he pleases, not only on the land, but on the tenant's permanent improvements in the land, that they virtually recommend the Government to leave the tenants no longer at their mercy. "Bearing in mind," they say, "the system by which the improvements and equipments of a farm are very generally the work of the tenant, and the fact that a yearly tenant is at any time liable to have his rent raised in consequence of the increased value that has been given to his holding by the expenditure of his own capital and labour, the desire of legislative interference to protect him from any arbitrary increase of rent does not seem unnatural."



The Department of Labour

THE Department of Labour for the Dominion of Canada was established in the summer of 1900 under the provisions of the Conciliation Act which was passed by Parliament that year. The measure was introduced in the House by Sir William Mulock, who, a few months previous had introduced a resolution known as the "fair wages resolution" which calls for the payment of current rates of wages on all Government contract work and its performance under proper sanitary and other conditions. When the act was passed Sir William was appointed Minister of Labour, and has, since the establishment of the Department, held in the Ministry the joint office of Postmaster General and Minister of Labour. Since its creation the Department has grown continuously and has become of increasing usefulness not only to the workingmen of Canada, in whose interest it was primarily established, but to the country in general. The Department, in addition to a staff of experts resident at Ottawa, has a correspondent in every city of the Dominion. The Deputy Minister is W. L. Mackenzie King who is also the Editor of the *Labour Gazette*.

The *Labour Gazette* is the official journal of the Department. It is published monthly and relates to matters of concern to workingmen and their employers and to persons interested in the industrial development of the country. In the columns of the numbers which have

already appeared will be found the important industrial events of the year, the substance of all legislation passed by the Dominion Parliament and the several Provincial Legislatures in any way affecting labour; an account of the nature, causes and results as well as the principal features of all important strikes and lock-outs in the Dominion, statistical tables giving current rates of wages in the several trades in the principal localities from the Atlantic to the Pacific, similar tables giving a comparison of the cost of living in different parts of Canada, the number of labour unions, localities where situated, date of formation, etc., etc., also the chief legal decisions in the principal courts of the Dominion affecting labour, and reviews of important labour reports from all parts of the world. But for the Department of Labour all this information would never have been collected or put in such a way as to be of service to the working classes, or to direct public attention to the nature and conditions under which they labour. Volume I comprises the numbers of the *Labour Gazette* for the first year of the Department's existence and contains 599 pages, Vol. II has 779 pages and Vol. III over 1,000 pages. The increased size of the publication is simply indicative of the general increase in the work of the Department as a whole, while the increase in the circulation of the *Gazette*, which has grown from a monthly issue of 4,000 the first year, to a regular monthly issue of 12,000 to 13,000 at the end of the third year of the

Department's existence, is suggestive of the increased appreciation which has been accorded it by the general public.

Besides the publication of the *Labour Gazette* the Department has protected the interests of labour in a variety of ways. A most important part of its work has had to do with the enforcement of the fair wages resolution of the House of Commons, securing for the workmen engaged on all work for the Dominion Government a fair day's pay for a fair day's work. In consequence of the rigorous measures for the protection of the working classes which have been introduced into all Government contracts and the superintendence given by the Department of Labour to the enforcement of these regulations, the evil of the sweating system, which at one time had gained a foothold on Government contract work, has been virtually swept out of existence. In contracts, for example, for the uniforms of soldiers and post office letter carriers, conditions are inserted requiring that all the work shall be performed in places which comply with sanitary regulations, and that not less than certain wages which are current shall be paid to any man or woman engaged on the work, and that the hours of labour shall not be excessive. Before contractors receive a contract they are obliged to furnish a statement of the rates of wages and hours of labour and other conditions governing the employment of those to be engaged on the work which is being done by the Government, and these conditions are first submitted to the Department of Labour for its approval and, if necessary, a fair wages officer is sent by the Department to inspect the premises and report as to what would be a fair rate of wages and a fair number of hours to be worked. This

policy is extended to all branches of Government contracts, including erection of public buildings and works in the Public Works Department, the construction of ships, lighthouses, etc., in the Department of Marine and Fisheries, contracts for railways, the building of railroad stations, etc., under the Department of Railways and Canals. Several hundred schedules in all have been prepared by the Department of Labour during the three years of its existence, which have become parts of contracts awarded by different Departments of the Government. The Department has also in that time investigated 60 or more claims of workmen for wages alleged to be due in accordance with schedules inserted in contracts given to their employers, and in a large number of cases have compelled the payment by contractors of amounts to which the men were entitled but which they might otherwise not have received. Where contractors have refused to make payments the Department which has had the awarding of the contract has made payment itself to the workmen through the Department of Labour and has deducted the amount owing to the contractor under the contract. The indirect effect of this work of the Department of Labour has been to stimulate the adoption of a similar policy by the Governments of some of the Provinces and the local governing boards of municipalities, councils, etc.

In the settlement of strikes and lock-outs the Department of Labour has also rendered most valuable services to the industrial classes of the community. Some of the largest and most important strikes of the Dominion have been settled through its intervention. The industries affected by these settlements have been among

the most important of the country, embracing coal and metalliferous mines, cotton and paper mills, iron and tool works, piano manufactures, and shipping interests. In almost every case in which the Department has been appealed to under the Conciliation Act within a reasonable time after the commencement of the strike or lock-out a settlement, resulting in the immediate termination of the dispute, has ensued. The wages of between 10,000 and 12,000 employees have been directly affected by the settlements reached during the past three years, while the saving to capital and business generally has been very great.

The interests of the working people have also been advanced by the enactment of new legislation, which, but for the existence of the Department and the progressive policy of its Minister would not appear at the present time on the statute books of the Dominion. In this connection may be mentioned the act for the settlement of railway labour disputes, which was passed by the present Parliament and which makes provision for the compulsory investigation into the nature and causes of existing or threatened disputes on railways, and contains other provisions of a kind likely to preclude the possibility of future prolonged disturbances in the most important part of the transportation system of the Dominion.

An important labour commission to investigate the nature and causes of industrial disputes in the Province of

British Columbia was created by the Department during the present year. The commission heard a large number of witnesses, including both employers and employed, officers of trade unions and others; went fully into the causes of strikes existing at the time in the Province and dealt generally with questions affecting the rights of both employers and employed as well as of organized labour. Its report, which is the most comprehensive single labour document issued by any public body in the Dominion, will doubtless be made the basis of important labour legislation and is likely to have an influence in shaping the development of the labour movement for some little time.

The Department has a very important collection of labour publications. Its library has three main divisions, one containing publications of labour Departments and Bureaus of Labour Statistics of the several countries of the world having such; another, publications relating to labour of a general nature, and the third, trade and labour journals. These documents have been collected with care, not only with a view of having available sources for purposes of immediate reference but also a store of labour literature with particular reference to Canada which may be in future of invaluable service for purposes of historical or other research.

Space alone precludes a mention of other features of the work of the Department which are of the first importance.

Sketch of the Canadian Post Office



THE history of the Canadian Post Office begins with the history of British rule in this country. Benjamin Franklin, who was Deputy Postmaster General for the northern district of North America, was directed immediately on the execution of the Treaty of Paris in 1763 to proceed to Quebec for the purpose of extending the service under his control to include the new province. Obeying these instructions, he was brought into contact with Hugh Finlay, a young Scotchman who came to Canada in 1760, and who cheerfully undertook the charge of the post office in this country. He was styled Postmaster of Quebec and he had deputies in Three Rivers, Berthier and Montreal. From Berthier were served the military establishments at Sorel and other points of the Richelieu river. The postal system in America at this time was under the direct control of the British Post Office, the chief appointments being made by commission from the Crown. The only connection with the outer world esteemed at this time was the connection with England, and it was effected by means of a service to and from the settlements on the St. Lawrence and New York. The trips were made at first weekly, and in 1774 twice a week. The charges for conveyance of letters were extremely high. To-day they would be regarded as absolutely prohibitive. They were based on a double principle, viz :—the distance

the letter was carried, and the number of enclosures it contained. The charge for a single letter was 4 d. for the first 60 miles, 6 d. between 60 and 100 miles; 8 d. between 100 and 200 miles; and 2 d. for each additional 100 miles. By a single letter was meant a single sheet not weighing more than one ounce. If it contained an enclosure no matter how small, it became a double letter, and the rate was doubled. Two enclosures made the letter subject to three times the charge on a single letter and three enclosures entailed a fourfold charge. A single letter passing from Montreal to Quebec cost 8 d. or 16 cents for postage. A bank note enclosed raised the charge to 32 cents. A letter containing three enclosures or weighing one ounce required 5 shillings and 4 pence to carry it from Quebec to New York, and 9 shillings and 4 pence, or \$2.33 from Quebec to London.

The outbreak of the war of the Revolution in 1775 interrupted the connection with New York, and experiments were made to open a service to and from Halifax. The results were not at first encouraging, owing to the difficulties and expense, but as the British Government became interested, offering to establish a regular packet service to Halifax, the colonial post office persevered, and when the close of the war removed the dangers of interruption from the enemy, a regular service was established to Halifax, where connections more or less close was made with England. The route pursued to

Halifax was down the South shore of the St. Lawrence to a point a few miles this side of Rivière du Loup, thence over the Portage to Lake Temiscouata, across this lake and down the Madawaska and St. John Rivers to Parrottown, as St. John was then called. From this point it crossed the Bay of Fundy to Digby, thence along the Annapolis valley to Halifax. The trip to Halifax did not present any unusual difficulties, apart from its length, except on the Portage between the St. Lawrence and Lake Temiscouata. The mountainous character of this region made travel there, at all times, arduous and dangerous.

The extension of the service eastward to the Maritime Provinces, which was the direct result of the war with the United States, was followed shortly after by an extension to the west, which was also one of the consequences of this war. In 1787, a number of the U. E. Loyalists, who had settled along the upper St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario, petitioned the post office for a mail courier, and two years later post offices were opened at Lachine, Cornwall, Prescott, Brockville and Kingston, at several points on the Bay of Quinte, and at Niagara, Detroit and Michillimackinac. These three last points, which were in the United States territory, were not ceded to that country until 1796. There was a regular service as far west as Kingston, and from that point westward opportunity was taken of every trustworthy means of transmission. During the summer the vessels on the lake offered frequent chances for communication with the western country.

Finlay's connection with the Department ceased in 1800, and he was succeeded by George Heriot, who contributed a history of Canada, and a volume of

sketches. Heriot was followed in 1816 by Daniel Sutherland, who, in turn, gave place to Thomas Allen Stayner in 1828. Stayner held the office until 1851, when it passed into the control of the Province of Canada. The period between 1800 and 1851 witnessed a great extension of the usefulness of the post office throughout the country, but no great change took place during that period in its principles of administration. The most notable feature of the period was the long conflict which was carried on between the provincial legislatures on the one side and the post office on the other. As already stated, the post office was under the control of the British Post Office, and for a long time acknowledged no authority in the Provincial Governments. The question whether new post offices or mail routes should be opened lay entirely with the Deputy Postmaster General as representative of the Home Post Office, and the anxious care with which he endeavoured to satisfy himself that the profits of the post office should not suffer by the extensions of the service was exceedingly irritating to those who were making homes for themselves in the back woods. It became known that the Deputy Postmaster General was remitting considerable sums as profit to the Home Office; also that the Deputy Postmaster General himself was adding considerably to his emoluments, by appropriating to his own use the whole postage on newspapers. Although this appears to us, as it did to the public of that day, a gross misuse of public money, the practice had the full sanction of the Department at home. The Post Office Act in force at that time had been passed in Queen Anne's time when newspapers were in their merest infancy, and no provision had been made

for postage on newspapers. As there was no way under the law by which newspapers could be sent except at the exorbitant rates which were charged for letters, newspapers were treated as outside the law, and certain officials, of whom the Deputy Postmaster General of British North America was one, were permitted to forward newspapers through the post under their franks, charging a moderate fee on the papers so sent. The profits which the fortunate individuals enjoyed from this source were very considerable, Mr. Stayner receiving \$10,542 in 1840 on this account. As his salary was £500, it will be seen that his perquisites from the newspaper privilege became of much more importance to him than the regular emoluments of his office.

Every effort was made to keep these facts from the Canadian public, but as they leaked out they excited great indignation, and indeed were among the causes which led to the Rebellion of 1837. The legislatures of the Provinces appointed committees of inquiry, and passed resolutions denouncing the sending of the surplus Canadian Postal Revenues to England, and the misappropriation of the newspaper postage by the Deputy Postmaster General. Publishers of newspapers seeing the opportunity of free postage, agitated vigorously against the abuses, but, in the early stages, all to no purpose. The British Post Office when questioned as to their right to take the surplus revenue, replied at first with much flippancy, being encouraged thereto by the ultra loyalists in Canada. The legislatures of Upper and Lower Canada sent William Lyon Mackenzie and D. B. Viger to England in 1832 to discuss these and other grievances, which were disturbing the Provinces, and the British

government becoming impressed with the gravity of the situation, passed an Act in 1834 giving effect to the conclusions reached in the discussion with the Provincial representatives. Owing to the necessity for the correspondence between the Upper Provinces and England passing through the Maritime provinces, it was indispensable that the service and the charges should be uniform throughout the Provinces, and as unanimity of action on the part of the several legislatures could by no means be presumed, it was agreed that the only course possible was to leave the supreme control of the Colonial Post Office in the British Post Office. The charges were to be fixed by the legislatures, the surplus revenues were to be divided among the provinces, and, most important of all, full publicity was to be given to the affairs of the post office in Canada. The Imperial Act of 1834 providing for these things was to come into operation when it was formally accepted by the Provincial legislatures, but, curiously enough, little more was heard of it after it was laid before the legislatures. When the newspaper publishers saw that they would have to pay as much in the way of postage as they had already done, they lost their special interest in the measure, and in no case does it appear that the legislative committees appointed to report on the measure, ever presented their reports to the Assemblies.

The compliance on the part of the British government with the wishes of the Provinces took the energy out of the agitation, and the political union of the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada which took place in 1841 paved the way for the complete independence of the Provincial Post Office. An Act was passed in 1846 by the British Parliament

providing for the transfer of the control of the Colonial Post Office to the local government, and on the 6th April, 1851, the Provincial Government assumed the charge, the Honourable James Morris being the first Canadian Postmaster General.

When the post office passed into the hands of the Provincial Government, there were 601 post offices within the system, the mail routes covered 7,595 miles, the number of miles travelled annually with the mails was 2,487,000, and the revenue was \$375,208. The Postmaster General took vigorous measures to make the post office of service to the public. He reduced the postage rates by two thirds. Up till this time the rates were to a large extent governed by the same principles which were in operation when the service was established in 1763. The principle of charging according to the number of enclosures a letter contained was abandoned in 1843, and replaced by charging on a basis of weight, the $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce being the unit. But the distance a letter travelled still operated to determine the charge. The charge for a $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce letter when Mr. Morris became Postmaster General was $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. within a radius of 60 miles; 7 d. between 60 and 100 miles; 9 d. between 100 and 200 miles, and $11\frac{1}{2}$ d. between 200 and 300 miles; 1 s.- $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. between 300 and 400 miles; 1 s.-4 d. between 400 and 500 miles. The varying rates were all swept away in 1851 and a uniform charge of 3 d. per $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce for all parts of the country was established. This year postage stamps were introduced, the design being prepared by Mr. (now Sir Sanford) Fleming. Mr. Morris had been thoroughly imbued with the efficacy of low rates, as a means of increasing business, for in his first

report he anticipated that by 1853, the business would increase to such an extent as would warrant the introduction of the Penny Postage as they had it in England. The revenue did sustain wonderfully the heavy reduction in the rates, and if circumstances had remained as they were, Mr. Morris might have realized his aims. But at this time, railways were being constructed between the several parts of the united provinces, and while the acceleration in the delivery surpassed all expectations, they added enormously to the expenditure, and as we know the aims of Mr. Morris were not destined to have effect until the present administration.

The functions of the post office at this time were confined to the bare conveyance of letters and newspapers. Money Orders, Savings Banks and the other facilities which are now part and parcel of our ideas of a post office were still in the future. Registration of letters had been in operation since 1841, but as the charge for registration was one shilling, we may well believe that the system had found but little favour with the public. Communication between Canada and the Maritime Provinces was carried on but twice a week. Mr. Morris made it three times a week.

The Railway Mail Service may be said to have begun in 1854. For some years prior to that date, mails had been carried between Montreal and St. Johns and St. Hyacinthe by the local railroads, but the opening of the Great Western railway for traffic between Windsor and Niagara Falls may be taken as marking the beginning of a systematic service. The Department sent an official to England to study the methods of the railway travelling post office, and a service was begun on the same lines in this

country. The saving of time by the use of railways in communicating between the several parts of this vast country was a matter of wonder at the time. When the Grand Trunk Railway was completed in 1856, between Toronto and Quebec, the Postmaster General drew attention to the gain in time by means of a comparative table. In 1853, mails passing between Quebec and Windsor took $10\frac{1}{2}$ days; in 1857, the time was reduced to 49 hours. The time from Quebec to Niagara was reduced from 8 days to 50 hours, and between Quebec and Toronto from 7 days to 40 hours.

In 1856, the Money Order system was introduced into Canada from England, 84 offices comprising the system at first. This year also, the first British mails were carried up the St. Lawrence by steamer, the Allan Line having received the contract. The time occupied during the first season was 12 days and $20\frac{1}{2}$ hours westward and 11 days 2 hours eastward.

In 1858, the Savings Bank was established with 81 offices, and in the same year the letter rate was reduced to 3 cents per $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce, at which it remained until 1889, when the unit of weight was changed to an ounce.

Though the Confederation in 1867 of the original provinces forming the Dominion, and the subsequent incorporation into it of the remaining provinces and territories immensely increased the scope of the Post Office, extending its operations from the Atlantic to the Pacific, there were no important changes in the Departmental organization until 1888, when the accounting system was remodelled. Under the new system the several accounts rendered by Postmasters of the more important offices—for postage, money

order receipts and payments, and savings bank deposits — which were formerly rendered separately to two distinct and mutually independent branches of the Department were fused into one, while the less important offices, which did not attend to money order and other subsidiary business ceased accounting to the Department altogether. In their relations with the Department this latter class of offices became mere stamp vendors, their duty being limited to keeping intact a supply of stamps with which they were entrusted. By means of accounts rendered, many daily, and none less than four times monthly, the Department is in a position to keep a very satisfactory check on the financial operations of the accounting offices.

This was the first step taken in recognition of the fact that the Department had passed out of merely provincial limitations, and had to deal with one of the most extensive organizations on earth. Nothing further was done in this direction until the advent of the present administration in 1896. The chief means for the transmission of correspondence, the railway mail service, and the system of handling of correspondence, which for many causes could not be delivered, remained as they had been since the days when the postal service of Canada comprised no more than the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada. The control of the arrangements for the conveyance of mails by railway was in the hands of several local officers, who worked in a large measure independently of one another, and between whom that harmony of action necessary for the perfect working of such a system was impossible as they were without a departmental head charged specially with the duty of securing united

action throughout the system. The Dead Letter Office, which deals with undelivered or otherwise irregular correspondence, was rendered largely ineffective by the fact that all its operations were carried on in Ottawa, the delays in dealing with irregularities in correspondence at the ends of the Dominion being often most serious.

The Postmaster General in re-organizing these important branches of service, invoked precisely opposite principles. The railway mail service was centralized; the Dead Letter Office de-centralized. The railway mail service was put under a controlling head, whose position towards the service became analogous to that of a postmaster whose staff is at work in the trains from one end of the Dominion to the other. The Dead Letter Office was restored to efficiency by having branches established in all the important centres, at which all ordinary work in connection with untransmissible or undeliverable letters is done. If a man in Vancouver, for instance, posts a letter without postage stamps, or with an address which could not be deciphered, the matter can be remedied at the branch Dead Letter Office in the course of a day or two at most, while under the old system, two and probably three weeks would be required.

The Money Order Office admirable in its arrangements for the safe transmission of large sums, found that its business so far as concerned the transmission of small amounts was being gradually taken away from it by other agencies, which, however, could do business only in places of some importance. In order to recover this business, and at the same time to give the public the benefit of a system as widely diffused as the post office, Postal Notes were introduced, and these may be

found in practically every post office in the country. A number of other facilities, such as the Immediate Delivery System, have put the Service in a position that it need not fear comparison with any other system.

At the end of the fiscal year of 1898, it was found that the series of deficits, which had marked the operations of the Department ever since it came under Provincial control, and which of late years had assumed large proportions, had practically disappeared, and more comprehensive schemes were at once entered upon. The Postmaster General began negotiations with the British Office looking to the establishment of a specially low rate of postage for letters passing from one part to any other part of the British Empire. As a result of these negotiations, a conference was called which was composed of representatives of the mother country and of the leading colonies, and which met in London in July, 1898. It is gratifying to the Canadian Post Office that it fell to its Chief to make the important motion, on which the Inter-Imperial postage rate of two cents per $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce was founded. The motion was seconded by Mr. Tennant, the representative from Cape Colony. The reduced rate came into force on Christmas, 1898, and on the 1st January, 1899, the Canadian domestic rate was reduced to two cents per ounce for letters. Under the Convention with the United States, this rate also applies to letters going to that country. The financial results were just what were anticipated. The deficit which had been brought down in 1898 to the unprecedentedly low figure of \$47,000, sprang up to \$461,662 in 1900. In 1901, this deficit underwent a small reduction, but in 1902, the Department

was able to announce the gratifying intelligence that the turn had at last been reached, and that there was a surplus of over \$5,000.

At the beginning of 1903, steps were taken to complete the plans for an Inter-Imperial domestic scheme, which were commenced in 1898. The British Post

Office were induced, after lengthened negotiations, to permit Canadian newspapers to enter their territory when paid at the Canadian domestic rates, and a large number of the Colonies have also signified their willingness to accept such newspapers on the same terms.

LIST OF POSTMASTERS GENERAL SINCE THE POST OFFICE CAME UNDER THE CONTROL OF THE CANADIAN GOVERNMENT

NAMES	FROM	TO
The Honourable James Morris	22nd Feb., 1851	16th Aug., 1853
" M. Cameron	17th Aug., 1853	10th Sept., 1854
" R. Spence	11th Sept., 1854	1st Feb., 1858
" Sidney Smith	2nd Feb., 1858	1st Aug., 1858
" M. H. Foley	2nd Aug., 1858	6th Aug., 1858
" J. A. Macdonald	6th Aug., 1858	6th Aug., 1858
" Sidney Smith	7th Aug., 1858	23rd May, 1862
" M. H. Foley	24th May, 1862	15th May, 1863
" O. Mowat	16th May, 1863	29th March, 1864
" M. H. Foley	30th March, 1864	29th June, 1864
" O. Mowat	30th June, 1864	23rd Nov., 1864
" W. P. Howland	24th Nov., 1864	
" H. L. Langevin		
" Sir A. Campbell	1st July, 1867	30th June, 1873
" John O'Connor	1st July, 1873	6th Nov., 1873
" D. A. Macdonald	7th Nov., 1873	18th May, 1875
" T. Fournier	19th May, 1875	8th Oct., 1875
" L. S. Huntington	9th Oct., 1875	18th Oct., 1878
" Sir H. L. Langevin	19th Oct., 1878	19th May, 1879
" Sir A. Campbell	20th May, 1879	15th Jan., 1880
" John O'Connor	16th Jan., 1880	7th Nov., 1880
" Sir A. Campbell	8th Nov., 1880	19th May, 1881
" John O'Connor	20th May, 1881	22nd May, 1882
" John Carling	23rd May, 1882	24th Sept., 1885
" Sir A. Campbell	25th Sept., 1885	26th Jan., 1887
" A. W. McLelan	27th Jan., 1887	2nd Aug., 1888
" John Haggart	3rd Aug., 1888	24th Jan., 1892
" Sir A. P. Caron	25th Jan., 1892	30th April, 1896
" L. O. Taillon	1st May, 1896	12th July, 1896
" Sir William Mulock	13th July, 1896	

LIST OF DEPUTY POSTMASTERS GENERAL DURING THE SAME PERIOD

W. H. Griffin, C.M.G.	6th April, 1851	30th June, 1888
William White, C.M.G.	1st July, 1888	31st July, 1897
R. M. Coulter, M.D.	1st Aug., 1897	



Honorable Richard William Scott



ON. Richard William Scott, Senator, Statesman and Administrator, was born at Prescott, Ontario, February 25th, 1825. He showed as a child great intelligence, and was educated by a private tutor, and was by

his parents early destined for a professional life. He is the son of the late W. J. Scott, M.D., who, after having served in the medical department in the army of Wellington, came to Canada and was appointed Registrar of the County of Grenville, Ontario, and by his wife, Sarah Ann, daughter of the late Captain Allan McDonnell, formerly an officer in the King's Royal Yorkers. Young Scott having fixed

upon the law as a profession, he entered the office of Crooks & Smith, Toronto, and was called to the bar in 1848. He began his professional career in Ottawa and in a short time was recognized as a talented

man and soon became one of the leaders of the bar in that city. In 1852, while still a young man, his administrative ability was recognized by his fellow-citizens by electing him Mayor of Ottawa. Two years later, 1857, he was returned to the Legislature as member for the city, which seat he retained

for six years, when he retired from public life until the birth of the Dominion in 1867, when he was elected to represent the Federal Capital in the first legislature of Ontario. In 1871 he was elected Speaker of the Ontario Assembly, and subsequently became Commissioner of Crown Lands in the ministry formed by Mr. Blake. When Sir Oliver Mowatt succeeded to the premiership, Mr. Scott was con-



tinued in the same office. On the formation of the MacKenzie government in Nov., 1873, he was sworn of the Privy Council, and two months later he was appointed Secretary of State for Canada.

He was called to the Senate, March 13th, 1874, and remained a member of the MacKenzie administration during its existence. Mr Scott was one of the leaders in the Senate from 1874 until the retirement of the government, when he became leader of the Opposition in that body. When Sir Wilfrid Laurier undertook the formation of his cabinet in July, 1896, Mr. Scott was again appointed Secretary of State for Canada, which office he holds up to the present time. As an administrator Mr. Scott has no peer in Canadian history. Suffice it to say that, owing to his marked ability as such, he has been called upon from time to time to discharge the duties of almost every position in the cabinet. The Hon. R. W. Scott will be remembered and spoken of by generations of Canadians yet unborn, as one of Canada's foremost statesmen and law makers. The first act of great importance introduced and carried through the Parliament by him as a private member in 1863, and which now forms part of our constitutional system, is the Separate School Law of Ontario—a measure which was the means of removing a vexed question from the political domain. But the act by which he is most widely known is the Canadian Temperance Act of 1875, more popularly known as the Scott Act. This enactment was the outcome of a persistent agitation on the part of the temperance people to have the old Dunkin Act (which was found to be unworkable) substituted by

something more suitable to the requirements of the prohibitionists. So the Canadian Temperance Act was so framed that it is really a pioneer in the way of local option in regard to the liquor traffic, and its constitutionality has been upheld by the highest court of the Empire notwithstanding that the most determined efforts were made to overthrow it by the ablest legal talent that could be found, which is a remarkable tribute to the ability of its framer. In his early political career Mr. Scott was a Conservative. He joined the Liberal party in 1871. He was President of St. Patrick's Literary Society, Ottawa, for several years and one of the trustees of St. Patrick's church at the time of its erection. He was one of the founders of the Ontario Catholic League, and was chairman of the local committee having for its object the relief of the Pope; L. L. D. Ottawa Catholic University, of which he is one of the Law Faculty; Q. C., 1867; member of the council of the Dominion Law Society, 1879. He was appointed a member of the sub-committee of the Privy Council in 1896 for the purpose of dealing with the Manitoba School question. His wife, Mary, daughter of the late John Heron, is a highly accomplished lady, who filled for some years the position of Vice-President of the Local Council of Women under the Presidency of Lady Aberdeen. Mr. Scott is one of the best known, most popular and highly respected public men in Canada.



Honorable Dr. James John Edmond Guerin

HERE are few men better known in the province of Quebec, or in fact throughout the Dominion than Hon. Dr. James John Edmond Guerin. The Doctor is a gentleman of very distinguished appearance, and when once

seen cannot easily be forgotten. Like all talented and brainy men, he is unassuming, modest and genial. Liberal in disposition as well as political, his unassuming charity towards the poor and needy is well known. The writer has known him to visit patients day after day for more than a year without any hope of reward. He is the son of the late Thomas Guerin, who was well known as consulting engineer of the Public Works Department of the Dominion. He was born in Montreal, July 4th, 1856, and was educated at the Montreal College. From that institution he entered McGill University, where he pursued his medical studies and obtained his degrees in 1878, when he immediately began the practice of his profession. The young Doctor being possessed of a con-

siderable amount of energy and determination, soon succeeded in building up a very extensive clientele, and in 1880 he was appointed attending physician to the Hotel-Dieu, and for many years has been clinical chief in that institution—a position he still occupies. Upwards of



800 doctors have received their medical training at his hands in this hospital, and consequently he has an extensive consulting practice in Canada and the neighboring States. He is also Professor of Clinical Medicine in Laval University. The Doctor, like all men of lofty character and ambition, was desirous of acquiring even more professional knowledge and for that purpose he spent considerable time in Paris, studying under the most noted

masters. He has acted for many years as consulting physician to Mount St. Louis College and also to the Little Sisters of the Poor. Being born of Irish parents the Doctor has always taken a keen interest in the welfare of the land of his fathers. He was President of St. Patrick's Society for three years consecutively, in 1895, 1896 and 1897. He

was elected a delegate to represent the Irish people of Montreal at the Irish race convention held in Dublin in 1896. He was President of the Shamrock Lacrosse Club, and subsequently became President of the National Lacrosse Association of Canada. He was one of the founders of the Knights of Columbus in Canada, and was elected first Grand Knight of the Order in the Dominion. He was elected to the Quebec Legislature for St. Ann's Division, Montreal, by the largest majority that was ever given to any candidate in the history of the constituency. He was re-elected in 1897, and was called to Mr. Marchand's cabinet without portfolio on May the 25th of the same year and in 1900 was elected by acclamation and is at present a member of the Parent Government. In 1891 the Doctor was strongly urged to allow himself to be put in nomination for Mayor of Montreal, and no doubt would have been returned by acclamation, but owing to pressure of professional business

he declined the honor. He was appointed by the Dominion Government as one of the medical arbitrators to settle the claims of the Canadian volunteers who were wounded or contracted disease during the North-West Rebellion. He was named member of the Council of Public Instruction. He married in 1885, Mary, daughter of the late Senator O'Brien. She died three years later. He has two children, a son and a daughter. It is a hopeful sign for the toiling masses to have men of influence and high social standing, such as Doctor Guerin, reviewing what is commonly called the "labor question," in a broad, liberal spirit, and being ever ready to extend a helping hand and to aid, morally and materially, every effort that is conducive to their welfare and advancement. The influence of such men cannot be over estimated in this, the early part of the twentieth century when social rumblings and industrial disturbances are so prevalent throughout the civilized world.



HON. HORACE ARCHAMBAULT

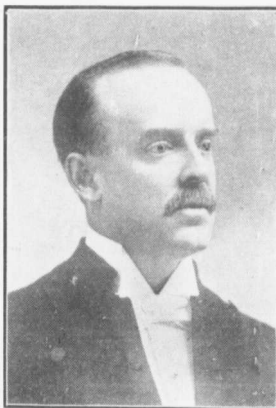


INCE its formation the Quebec Legislative Council has numbered amongst its members some of the foremost of the Province, men of sterling worth, sound judgment and great power of penetration, who have not un-

frequently sacrificed their private interests for the good of the province; men whose names will be recorded in the history of their country, whose destiny is a high place among the nations of the earth. Of the large number who have graced the halls of the council chamber there is none more highly honored and esteemed than that of Hon. Horace Archambault, K.C., who was born on March 6th, 1857, at l'Assumption, Province of Quebec. He

was educated at the college of his native place and graduated L.L.L. with highly distinguished honors, at Laval University, 1878 (L. L. D. in course, 1886). Mr. Archambault was called to the bar in 1878. He began the practice in Montreal where he soon acquired a large clientele, and in 1881 became Professor of Commercial and Maritime Law in his Alma

Mater. On June the 5th, 1888, he was appointed a member of the Legislative Council, Province of Quebec. He was also appointed a member of the Council of Public Instruction in 1890, than whom none is better qualified, as Hon. Mr. Archambault has taken advanced ground



with regard to the educational system in his native province. He was created a Q.C. by the Earl of Derby in the same year. On the formation of the administration of the Hon. Mr. Marchand in Quebec in May, 1857, Mr. Archambault was offered and accepted the position of Attorney General. It is needless to say that Mr. Marchand could not have made a better choice, by reason of the fact that he is not only a lawyer of great ability, but also

one of the most distinguished in the province of Quebec. Mr. Archambault is a Roman Catholic in religion and a Liberal in politics. He married in September, 1882, Elizabeth, daughter of Roger Lelievre, of Quebec. He is a gentleman of broad views, and is equally respected and esteemed by political friends and foes for his genial disposition.

MR. WILLIAM PATERSON



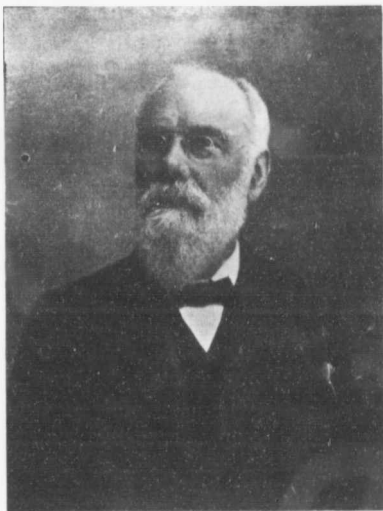
WHEN Sir Wilfrid Laurier undertook the work of constructing his Government, after the overthrow of the Conservative Ministry on July 23rd, 1896, he had a large number of able public men in the Liberal

party to choose from, but it was generally expected that Mr. William Paterson would be one of those selected for an important rank. His long, faithful and able services in Parliament, on the platform, and in the counsels of the party; his outstanding ability, his expert knowledge of the trade and commerce of the country, and the strong hold he had upon the political affections of the Liberals of Ontario, marked him as one to whom just preferment was due, and it was no surprise, therefore, when he was selected as the head of the Customs Department. The appointment was universally ad-

mitted to be an excellent one and it is not exaggerating to say that it has been abundantly justified, both from a public and party standpoint, by the results of his administration of that important Department.

Mr. Paterson was born in Hamilton,

Ontario, on September 19th, 1839, and is of Scotch descent, his parents having emigrated to Canada from Aberdeen a year or so before his birth. He was educated in Hamilton and at Caledonia, in Haldimand County. In 1854 he removed to Brantford. He commenced life in a humble capacity, but his Scotch qualities of perseverance and industry, coupled with great natural



ability, soon brought him to the front, and at the early age of 33 he was elected Mayor of Brantford, then an important and thriving town. In the same year a general election for the Commons was held, and

Sir Francis Hincks, the Minister of Finance, offered himself for election in South Brant. Mr. Paterson was unanimously selected as the Liberal candidate, and, notwithstanding his inexperience in the higher public life, he succeeded, after a strenuous campaign, in defeating his redoubtable opponent by a comfortable majority. Thus was commenced a Parliamentary career which has extended continuously down through the years since. The victory was a notable one for the Liberals! and the victor was hailed as an acquisition to Parliament.

Possessed of splendid debating powers, a natural gift of oratory, a magnificent voice, shrewd common sense, and splendid business ability, the young Parliamentarian soon made a place for himself in the House and in his party. He supported the grand old chieftain, Alexander Mackenzie, faithfully, earnestly and zealously, both in opposition and office. Afterwards he was one of the Hon. Edward Blake's chief lieutenants. Sir Richard Cartwright, the Liberal financial critic, having been defeated at the general election of 1882, Mr Paterson was selected by Mr Blake to reply to the budget speech of the session following the election, and he acquitted himself in a highly creditable manner. From then on he has been considered one of the "big" men in Parliament. Later, when Mr. Blake resigned the leadership of the Liberals, the subject of our sketch was prominent in the movement which made Mr. Laurier—notwithstanding his protests—the Liberal leader, and no one has served a political chief more loyally or ably.

Mr. Paterson has always been a "bonnie political fighter," as his opponents will no doubt willingly admit, but he has always fought fair and above board. He never descends to personalities. Indeed, he would rather say a good word about an opponent than a bad one. Persuasive, eloquent, thoroughly in earnest, and never abusive, he seldom, if ever, fails to capture his audience. A good authority once described him as the best vote catcher on the "stump" in the Liberal ranks.

A year after his appointment as Controller of Customs, the Controliership was abolished, and he was raised to the rank of Minister of Customs, and sworn of the Privy Council. His career as a member of the Government has been most successful and honourable. He took a prominent part in framing the Tariff of 1897—having been a member of the Tariff Commission—and rendered important and valuable services to the country at the Colonial Conference in London in 1902. Shrewd, fair-minded, far-seeing, well read and travelled, cautious to a degree, and possessed of a rich store of business and Parliamentary experience, he is eminently fitted to be one of the Vice Regal advisors. The word of reproach or finger of scorn has never been directed towards him. Above reproach he is in every respect, and both in his political and private capacity he has always commanded the respect of friend and foe. A "safe" man is a term which might appropriately be applied to him.

The State and the Working Man

BY MICHAEL GUERIN



WHILE the whole world is in unison in singing the merits and praises of the late Pope Leo XIII, would it not be opportune to put into practice some of the remedies suggested in his wonderful encyclical on the Labour question entitled "Rerum Novarum"?

"Let the State therefore declare itself specially appointed to be the providence of the workingman."

In Canada the solution of the labor question could be easily accomplished by the State. The workingmen constitute a large majority of the population. They consequently, by their votes, can control the Parliamentary elections, and they should have the hearty support of the Government, whose duty it is to initiate legislation beneficial to all classes of the people.

Our Federal Parliament is composed of two political parties. The Conservative party now in opposition is living in the glories of the past. Its adherents seem to imagine that they are the inventors and patentees of the protective system of Tariff, although it is the system in operation in every great nation in the world—bar one,—and they are willing to devote unlimited time to prove the self-evident fact that Protection is better than Free Trade for Canada.

The other party, called Liberal, is now in power, and has ceased discussing any theories which it can conveniently avoid. It seemingly requires suggestions from the people.

On the party in power devolves the obligation to "declare itself specially appointed to be the providence of the workingmen."

What has it done for them so far?

When its distinguished chief, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, was invited to attend the Colonial Conference held in London in 1902, he insisted on keeping intact the constitution of Canada, and he put his veto on a proposal which he considered would draw this country into a whirlpool of militarism, a system inimical to the interests of Canada.

The Liberal party has shown a disposition to be useful, by the establishment of a Department of Labour, presided over by the Postmaster General.

The principal business of the Department of Labour, however, seems to be to gather statistics and to publish them in an official publication—which very few people read. It also establishes schedules of the wages payable on Government contracts. All this is a step in the right direction, but it is entirely insufficient.

The Department of Labour, instead of being a mere adjunct to another important Department, should command the entire

attention of the Minister of Labour or Industry.

Furthermore, now that the Government in power has inaugurated a new system, by the appointment of a Railway Commission and a Transportation Commission, to assist the Ministers of Railways and of Public Works, by affording them the co-operation and advice of men unswayed by political considerations, but having a knowledge of the questions at issue, a Labour Commission looking to the levelling up of the condition of the working people, is more necessary for the welfare of the country than either of the two already decided upon.

The Labour Commission should be composed of competent, educated and sympathetic men, to study and analyze sociological matters, to examine the laws that are being enacted, as well as those already existing in other progressive countries such as Great Britain, France, Germany, New Zealand, etc., to attend the congresses for the betterment of the working classes held in different countries, to report on the applicability to Canada of the laws and of the projected laws devised for such countries—not with a view of compiling the information obtained into reports and merely publishing them in the Labour Journal as statistics, but with the purpose of formulating and submitting to Parliament for enactment, such laws and improvements as are found to be suitable to the genius and to the wants of our Canadian people.

In other words we want a practical—not a theoretical—Department of Labour supplemented by an enlightened Labour Commission.

I may be asked, What subjects could such a Department deal with?

I would answer, at the start, that the

working men of Canada want from the Government of the country nothing that they not willing to pay for—and nothing that they are not entitled to receive.

There are certain things that the Government could do, which would greatly improve their condition, which should be done and which could be done without any loss of the country's capital, by the government simply, in certain cases, lending its credit to the working men. To begin with, the Government has on deposit in the Post Office Savings Banks, some 45 millions of the people's money, for which it pays interest at the rate of three per cent. per annum.

Suppose that the Government were to lend to its citizens—born in Canada—for the purposes of colonization through the intermediary of territorial councils, say \$20,000,000.

What would be the result? 50,000 heads of families could be placed on the free-grant homesteads now in possession of the country. An amount of \$400.00 could be loaned to each settler to begin operations, build his house, etc.; such an amount being quite sufficient to start him in the world.

This amount, repayable with interest at 3 per cent., and an equal amount for sinking fund, would be extinguished in 24 years.

The settler would have to pay \$24.00 per annum for a limited number of years, while in a short time he would be clearing at a low estimate \$1,200 per annum on his property and the country would be producing at least 100 million bushels more of wheat every year.

An equal amount of \$20,000,000 might be advanced to the cities for the purpose of making loans to the workingmen; to enable them to become the owners of

their dwelling houses. This could be accomplished in such a way that by payments much smaller than the amounts they now pay for rent, the working men could meet the payments of interest and capital necessary to purchase their homes.

The Department of Labour could and should protect the savings of the people by taking hold of the large sums of money being paid at present by the people into certain mutual benefit life insurance societies, which, with the rates now in vogue, cannot possibly meet their obligation and are obtaining the money of the people under false pretences.

This would cost the Government nothing but a little extra administration, and would save millions to the people.

Again, there are certain products in which Canada excels the world, notably lumber.

A special variety of timber, viz : spruce, which was of little value heretofore, has suddenly developed into a great source of wealth for Canada, because of its value for the production of paper. The principal requirements for this business are a large supply of wood and large water powers, both of which are to be found in the Province of Quebec, as the whole northern part of the Province is covered with spruce forests. On account of the ever increasing demand for news paper and the exhaustion of the wood supply in the United States, Canada is bound to become the paper producer of the world.

But the paper business to be profitable must be done on a large scale—machinery is very expensive.

As the Government advances for the building of railways three-quarters of the cost, why could it not advance a like proportion to build up the paper industry here, and to afford to a very numerous

class of people, accustomed rather to industrial or manufacturing pursuits than to agriculture, a means of acquiring a competency in the northern portion of Quebec and Ontario now being opened up. It would furthermore provide business for the Quebec section of the new Transcontinental Railway. As the future solution of the Labour question is co-operation or profit sharing, the Government should make distinction in the granting of charters of subsidies, or of loans in favour of companies which would undertake to pay their working men—over and above the amount of their wages—a stated proportion of the profits earned by the company.

Again, why cannot our Government devise an old age pension fund to provide for those who are no longer able to work. It is being done in other countries; why not here?

If the working men of Canada were to request of the Government to carry out the few suggestions outlined above, immediately the danger signal would be hoisted, and the evils of "Paternalism" and lack of self-reliance would be proclaimed by a section of the Press.

A striking expression of speech is often more powerful than the strongest argument to advance a cause or to disarm an opponent; thus when Sir Wilfrid Laurier was inspired with the idea of using the term, "Vortex of Militarism," as a condition not desirable for Canada, a vision at once came to our minds of standing armies, of war, of carnage and of premature death to the young and brave dimly concealed under the name of glory or of duty—a duty often the result of a politician's ambition for applause or of his lust for money.

On the other hand, the term, "Paternal-

ism," is a hackneyed expression trotted out as a deterrent wherever it is suggested to improve the condition of the people.

In any of the suggestions I have made the Government will not be required to spend any of its money, but merely to temporarily use its credit, or rather the credit of the people of Canada, the credit of the working people of Canada.

For the purpose of opening up the country, of inducing immigrants from strange and uncongenial countries to come and take up our free lands, the Government has signed a contract to build a new Transcontinental Railway.

Besides the benefit to be acquired by the increased population it will bring, the fact of expending 100 millions of dollars will be productive of great prosperity in all parts of the country. Moreover, the building of the railway will create wealth for the commonwealth; for the lands whose remoteness now makes them useless will be then brought into communication with the rest of the world.

Notwithstanding all these advantages, look at the cost to the Government.

The Premier acknowledges a gift of 13 millions of dollars to the Grand Trunk

Pacific Company, others have estimated the cost to the country at considerably more. Still, "Paternalism" has not been suggested as an argument against the grant. Nobody has suggested that the self-reliance of the Grand Trunk shareholders will be impaired by the favours granted, although besides the gift of 13 millions, the Government will at least lend this English company its credit to the extent of 100 millions!

To what extent would the Government lend its credit on unquestionably better security to its own citizens?

This country is possessed of potential wealth, and its assets are still held by the country at large; they have not been squandered in free grants to any extent. Its credit is of the very best. It can perhaps do more for its working men than any other country in the world, but its public men are not yet alive to the wants of the toilers who have not the time nor the training requisite to think out the problems necessary to their well-being.

Let the State become the Providence of the working men!



HONORABLE S. N. PARENT



It is permitted to few men to achieve in their own town so high a reputation, and a popularity so widespread as that enjoyed by Hon. Simon Napoleon Parent, Prime Minister of Quebec. The ancient and oft-quoted saying, "a prophet

A native Canadian, Mr. Parent was born at Beauport, Province of Quebec, Sept. 12th, 1855. His father was the late Paul Parent, of Beauport, Que. His early education was received under the care of a private tutor.

He afterwards entered Laval Univer-



has no honor in his own country," has not been exemplified in his career, which furnishes a gratifying illustration of the honor and esteem to be won from his fellows by a public-spirited and disinterested citizen.

sity, from whence he graduated L.L.L., winning the Lome gold medal and Tessier prize. He immediately entered upon the practice of his profession, after his admission to the Bar, in 1881, and has had a

very successful career in Quebec from the outset. His legal acumen, logical debating powers, sound reasoning, and thorough knowledge of the minute intricacies of his profession, entitles him to rank with the first of our legal luminaries. These qualifications have no doubt enabled him to fill with credit to himself and honor to the City of Quebec the high positions he occupies at the present time. He was elected to the City Council in 1890, and in the same year was returned to the Legislature as representative for St. Saviour by the Liberal party. Four years later, 1894, he was elected Mayor of the City of Quebec, and still holds that office, which speaks well for his popularity in the city at large, as well as the constituency he so ably represents in the Assembly where he was returned at the general elections in 1897 by a majority of 1385. Many improvements have been made in the city since he has become its chief magistrate. The financial position of the city has improved very much through the able and wise administration of Mr. Parent. He entered the cabinet of the late Mr. Marchand, as Commissioner of Crown Lands, in 1897. On the demise of that gentleman, Mr. Parent was called by the Lieut.-Governor to form a cabinet,

which he succeeded in doing in September, 1900, and, like himself, his administration has been extremely popular.

He married in 1877, Delle Clara, daughter of Ambrose Gendron. One of whom so much can be truthfully alleged must be admitted to be a remarkable man, one in every way fitted to be an ornament to the prominent positions he occupies as chief magistrate of the Ancient Capital and Premier of his native province.

The character of Mr. Parent independently of his intellectual powers, inspires a high degree of personal respect, even in the minds of those most opposed to him, and in expressing the hope that a long and useful public career is before him, we express a universal sentiment. Certain it is that the fame which he has achieved is at least as pure and lofty as in any to be found on the pages of our country's history. He has shown us that he possesses both the will and the power to do much for the Province of Quebec. There is certainly no man in the City of Quebec, if not in the entire province, who enjoys a more wide-spread popularity with his fellow citizens of all walks and conditions of life, and more particularly amongst the working classes, than Hon. Mr. Parent.



DEPARTMENT OF CUSTOMS



THE Customs Department, of which Mr. Paterson is the honourable and honoured chief, is one of the most important in the public service, and perhaps the most difficult to administer. It comes into daily contact with the business life of the country, and has a direct bearing on all industries. Necessary though they may be, taxes on commodities imported are an interference with the freedom of trade—their collection involving delay in the delivery of goods, more or less exacting procedure to be followed, and in short, a great deal of inconvenience to importers. It will be apparent, therefore, that to ensure compliance with the law with the minimum of friction with the public in the last seven years bears testimony to the wisdom and efficiency of the administration. Mr. Paterson's persistent aim has been to broaden and liberalize the policy of the Department, to remove harsh and irksome restrictions upon trade, and give the merchants the greatest possible facilities, without exposing the Revenue to loss.

The prime objects of good Customs administration are to treat all importers equally, both in respect of rates and values for duty, and to ensure the payment of duty in accordance with the standard laid down in the law. Parliament having decreed that duties shall be levied upon imported goods, it of course follows as a matter of right and justice, that the

taxation must be uniform. With regard to rates, no great trouble is experienced, but the determination of values very often involves problems of the most complex and difficult character. The standard or basis of value for duty is the ordinary credit price at which similar goods to those imported are sold for home consumption in the principal markets of the country whence and at the time when the goods were exported directly to Canada. When we consider the multitudinous variety of articles imported, the constant and rapid changes in styles, in fashions, the ever changing methods of trade, the keenness of competition, the almost daily formation of trusts and combines in the United States, and the manifest desire of that country to secure a strong foothold on the foreign trade of the world, it will be apparent to every business man that the Minister of Customs and his responsible officers have a task of great magnitude and difficulty.

One of the first reforms instituted by the Minister was the adoption of a regulation requiring exporters of goods to Canada to certify that the invoice prices represent the prices at which the goods were sold in like quantity, on credit terms, for home consumption in the country of export, and if they do not, to show the home consumption price in the margin of the invoice. Two important objects are attained by this. In the first place, uniformity of values for duty is secured in a greater degree than for-

merly, and second, the Department and importers are placed in a position to hold the exporters responsible for false or irregular invoices. The regulation has also been productive of very beneficial results from a revenue standpoint. In addition to this requirement, a staff of officers are employed to make special investigations as to market values in foreign countries, particularly in the United States, which exports largely to us.

A very important part of the work of the Department is the compilation and publication of statistics showing the importations and exportations into and from the country, and the foreign coastwise shipping. In this connection a most valuable reform in the interests of the business community was effected by Mr. Paterson. Formerly the Trade and Navigation returns were published annually, and, as a rule, were not issued from the press for a period of from five to six months after the close of the fiscal year. The information contained therein was, therefore, too ancient to be of any practical use to business men; it was only useful for Parliamentary purposes. Realizing this, the Minister, in 1900, organized a new branch of the Department, and arranged for the publication of monthly returns in addition to the yearly volumes. By this means, merchants and manufacturers are fully and promptly informed of their foreign competition.

To secure greater accuracy, exports, which previously have been recorded at the nearest Customs office to the point where they originated, have since 1900 been recorded only at the ports of exit from the country.

The Department is also charged with the administration, in whole or in part,

of the laws and regulations regarding coastwise shipping, the bonding of foreign goods shipped through Cnnada, quarantine, San Jose Scale, etc. It has also to attend to the payment or drawback of duty to Canadian manufacturers in respect of imported articles entered in to articles manufactured in Canada and exported therefrom.

Touching the Coasting Laws, it might be mentioned here that Mr. Paterson was instrumental in having an amendment to the Act passed, in the interests of British and Canadian shipping. The new law requires the payment of a duty or license fee of 25% on any vessel with its appurtenances, which was not built in any British country or does not belong to any country having a treaty with Britain in regard to coasting privileges, and which desires to participate in the coasting trade of Canada. Formerly a vessel built in a foreign country could obtain British Registry in Britain or one of her Colonies outside of Canada, without charge, and by virtue thereof be entitled to participate in Canadian coasting trade privileges. The new act calls for the payment of the duty or license fee referred to in such cases.

A laboratory is maintained for the determining by polariscope of the rate of duty payable on imported sugars and molasses; for testing tea for purity, and for analyzing chemicals and other compounds for rating purposes.

Another important branch of the work is the prevention of smuggling. In the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Maritime Provinces two cruisers are employed to keep a sharp look-out for smuggling craft from St. Pierre and Miquelon. For many years a large illicit trade in liquors was carried on between these islands and the



Honorable Clifford Sifton



EW names are better known or more highly honored throughout Western Canada than that of Hon. Clifford Sifton, who was born in the Township of London, Middlesex, Ontario, March 10th, 1861. He was

educated at the High School, London, Ontario, at the Boys' College, Dundas, and Victoria University, Cobourg, where he graduated B. A. and Prince of Wales gold medal, 1880. He was admitted to the Manitoba Bar in 1882. His father, John W. Sifton, was formerly speaker of the Manitoba Assembly. Mr. Sifton removed from Winnipeg to Brandon, where he began the practice of his profession, where in a short time his ability and talents were duly recognized by being made City Solicitor and Solicitor of the Western Judicial Board. He was created a Q.C. in 1885. He was elected to repre-



sent North Brandon in the Manitoba Legislature in 1888, and was appointed Attorney General of Manitoba on May 14th, 1891, in the Greenway Government. There are few instances where a man became prominent and succeeded in coming to the front at an early age which is cer-

tainly due to his extraordinary ability and zeal. He in fact became a Liberal leader in his province, since he was chosen one of the representatives of the party to attend the Reform convention in Ottawa, June, 1893. Here again his capability manifested itself as he was elected a vice chairman. He is not only capable, but he is also aggressive, for it was he, in 1895, who introduced in

the Legislature the resolutions refusing to carry out the Dominion Government's Order in Council, for the restoration of separate school privileges to the Catholics of Manitoba. He intro-

duced in 1896 resolutions protesting against the passage by Parliament of the Manitoba Remedial Bill then under discussion. He was appointed a commissioner on behalf of the Manitoba Government in March of the same year, to meet with delegates from the Dominion Government for the purpose of discussing the same question, and later he signified the refusal of his government to accede to the demands of the Ottawa administration. It became apparent to Sir Wilfrid Laurier that Mr. Sifton was a political giant in Manitoba, for on November 17th, 1896, when the new Liberal administration was still in its infancy, he retired from the government of his province, and was appointed Minister of the Interior and Superintendent General of Indian Affairs.

He was immediately elected by acclamation to the House of Commons for Brandon, which constituency became vacant by the resignation of Dalton McCarthy. He made a tour of investigation through the New Yukon District in 1897, he went through the White and Chilkoote passes, as well as taking cognisance of other routes to the inland water-ways. He is a vice-president of the Dominion Educational Association. In 1884 he married Elizabeth Anna, daughter of H. T. Burrows, Ottawa. Mr. Sifton is still a young man, and the measure of his attainments is yet unfilled. Whatever honors there may yet be in store for him, and we trust there are many, will be both well bestowed and well earned.



Honorable Sydney Arthur Fisher, B.A., P.C.



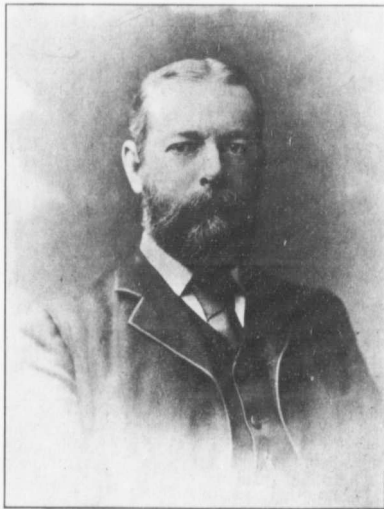
ON of Arthur Fisher, M.D., L.R.C.S., Edinburgh, of Montreal, and his wife Susanna Corse. Born in Montreal June 12, 1850. Educated in High School and McGill University, Montreal, and Trinity College, Cambridge,

(B. A. 1871).

Mr. Fisher devoted much of his time after leaving college to agriculture and the study of the scientific principles applicable to farming, dairying and stock raising; and he has been identified with the most important agricultural bodies of the Province of Quebec, having been the founder of the Provincial Fruit Growers' Association, of Quebec, president of the Ensilage and Stock Feeding Association, of Montreal, vice-president of the Provincial Dairy Association, of Quebec, and a director of the Brome Agricultural Society.

In 1880, Mr. Fisher entered Dominion

politics, being an unsuccessful candidate for Brome in the House of Commons in 1880, but being elected to that seat at the general election of 1882, and again in 1887. At the general election of 1891 he was defeated in contesting Brome by a majority of one. He took an active



part in the political campaign throughout Canada which led to the victory of the present government in 1896, when Mr. Fisher was again returned for Brome and became Minister of Agriculture. He was re-elected by acclamation for Brome in 1900.

In December, 1896, Mr. Fisher secured from the United States Government the removal of quarantine restrictions to the

trade in cattle. In the spring of '97 he introduced the system of mechanical and chemical refrigeration on ocean steamships, and has since pursued a vigorous policy providing for the marketing abroad

of Canada's perishable products in good condition by means of a complete chain of cold storage and other transportation facilities. In '97 Mr. Fisher secured the passage of an act for the Registration of Cheese Factories and Creameries, and Branding of Dairy Products, to prevent misrepresentation as to date of manufacture of such products. In 1898 he introduced and secured the passage of an act to protect Canada against the introduction of the insect pest known as the "San Jose Scale." In 1899 he introduced the innovation of appointing a Dominion Live Stock Commissioner, and of an Agriculturist at the Central Experimental Farm, to experiment with a view to the best possible cultivation of land and management of stock.

In 1900 Mr. Fisher was responsible for an act respecting the incorporation of Live Stock Record Associations under Federal authority, and started on the work of establishing Farmers' Institute work and meetings all over Canada. The same year Mr. Fisher had an act passed amending the Canadian copyright law, providing for the granting of licenses by English authors to Canadian publishers and for the prohibition of books imported in violation of such licenses. During the session of 1901 Mr. Fisher introduced and had passed an act for the marking and inspection of packages containing fruit for sale, either abroad or in Canada, which was amended in 1892 in regard to procedure for violation of the act, under the Criminal Code, and the imposition and application of penalties for such violation. Owing to efficient enforcement of this act, it is now the exception rather than the rule to find false packing of Canadian fruit by Canadian shippers, and great benefit has therefore accrued not only to the home and foreign buyers of Canadian

fruit and the reputation of the latter, but to the growers and shippers as well.

Mr. Fisher instituted during his first term of office, 1896 to 1900, and is still prosecuting experiments in the curing of cheese, of treating and curing tobacco, in the proper feeding and treatment of the bacon hog, in the fattening and preparation of poultry for the British market, in eradicating and treating tuberculosis in cattle, and, incidentally, in human beings, introducing the test at Government expense for the detection of this disease in cattle, and created a bureau of public health for the Dominion at Ottawa. He instituted the Exhibition Branch of the Department of Agriculture, and during the winter of 1903 visited the Fifth National Exhibition at Osaka, Japan, and inquired into the openings in that country for Canadian trade. In the session of 1903 Mr. Fisher introduced and had passed three important bills, one amending the Patent Act, another with a view to facilitating the work of the veterinary service of the country, and a third to prohibit the importation, manufacture or sale of adulterated butter. Mr. Fisher having established a division in his department for investigation into the sale of agricultural seeds and the improvement of their quality, introduced a fourth bill, whose aim was, briefly, the sale of pure seed to farmers. Although the general principles of the bill were strongly supported, it was considered advisable to allow it to stand until the session of 1904, and in the meantime a bulletin has been issued and distributed throughout the country respecting the aim of the bill, which it embodies, in order that the interested public may have at hand the means of closer study of the principles of the proposed legislation, and if they see fit make suggestions to the minister in regard to it. Mr. Fisher is unmarried. His home, where he has a fine farm, is at Knowlton, Quebec.

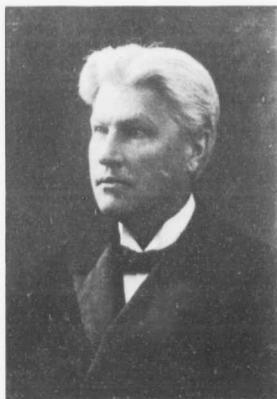
JOHN S. BUCHAN, K. C.



HE name of "Buchan" has been for many centuries associated in Scottish annals with deeds of knightly daring. It rings in ballad and in song of old times, and history tells us of many a Buchan, whose prowess assisted in shaping

the destinies of his native land. John Stuart Buchan, K.C., of Montreal, (whose distinguished appearance is an indication of his lofty character) is of Scottish extraction, and is descended from the ancient house of Buchan, an Earldom of great antiquity in Scotland, which can be traced back to the time of William, known as the Lion, who reigned in the twelfth century.

He is the eldest son of William Buchan by his wife Katherine Stuart. He was born at St. Andrews, County of Argenteuil, Province of Quebec, on October 28th, 1852. His great grandfather came to Canada about the beginning of the last century, and took up a large tract of land, some of which is still in possession of the family, and on which the subject of this



sketch lived up to the time of his entering McGill University. Owing to feeble and uncertain health in boyhood days his early education was much interrupted, but outdoor life combined with great care, gradually overcame his temporary weakness. Any lack of attendance at school was made up by private and systematic tuition. He first attended the common school of his native place and was afterwards placed in Lachute Academy, and finally graduated B.C.L. at McGill University, and was admitted to the Bar in 1884. Since then he has practised his profession continually in Montreal, where he is at the present time a member of the firm of Buchan & Elliot. He was created a Queen's Counsel in 1898. Mr. Buchan is a thoroughly

practical man and gave much time and attention to the study of agricultural and mechanical pursuits, which was certainly a good sound early training, and has no doubt done much towards the development of mind and body. He always took a keen interest in public affairs, he is a forcible and fluent speaker, an orator and a writer

of much ability, and an amateur geologist of considerable note.

For many years he contributed to newspapers and periodicals, on political, social and scientific questions, and was editor of a local newspaper for a number of years. He was appointed a justice of the peace in 1877, but preferred private life to that of a public functionary. He is an ardent student of the labour question, and gave much time and thought to the solution of that most important question, and being possessed of a broad mind he is ever ready to do justice to all parties concerned. He believes that both sides to the dispute are to some extent at fault, and is of the opinion that labour disputes cannot be permanently settled, until each party recognizes and respects the rights of the other, he claims that much of the trouble between Capital and Labor is a legacy from the past. Mr. Buchan in an article on page 92 in this

work, under the caption of "War," points out that many employers of labor still goes on the principle of grinding out of their employees the uttermost farthing, and in other cases, the employee uses every effort to give as little service as possible in return for the wages which he receives. This kind of industrial warfare cannot go on much longer, and if some solution of the difficulty is not soon found, there is not wanting signs that forces are gathering which will bring on a struggle which shall be a veritable Armageddon.

Mr. Buchan has been for thirty years connected with the Baptist Church, and was elected president of the Baptist Convention of Ontario and Quebec in 1894. He married twice, first in 1885 to Katherine, daughter of F. McMartin, of St. Andrews, (she died, August 1894,) second in 1896, to Annie, daughter of the late J. H. Henderson, of Montreal.



Honorable Henry Robert Emmerson

IN a young country like Canada whose broad acres are teeming with undeveloped wealth, in the form of iron, coal, copper, oil and minerals of every description, it becomes a most pleasing task to a biographer

who first saw the light of day on Canadian soil, to briefly sketch the lines of men who are known to be thoroughly patriotic and who are earnestly and zealously devoting their whole time, attention and energy, to the best interests of their country and the development of its resources. Such be said of the subject of this sketch. Hon. Henry Robert Emmerson, was born at Manger-ville, Sunbury County, New Brunswick, September 25th, 1853, is the son of Rev. R. H. Emmerson, (Baptist) by his wife Augusta, daughter of Joseph Read, of Minuidie, Nova Scotia. He was educated

at Amherst Academy, Mount Allison Academy, at St. Joseph's College, Memramcook, and at Acadia College, Wolfville, Nova Scotia. He subsequently attended the Law School at Boston University, where he was prize assayer in 1876 and

1877, and took the degree of LL.B. He was admitted as an attorney, in 1877, and called to the bar of New Brunswick in 1878. He has since practised his profession at Dorchester, where he soon attained a leading position and was engaged in all the important cases in Westmoreland and Albert counties. He was for some years vice-president for New Brunswick of the Maritime



Liberal Association. He entered public life in 1888, as one of the representatives of Albert, in the Provincial Assembly. From the outset Mr. Emmerson took an active part in all the deliberations

of the House, and it soon became apparent that at no very distant date he was destined to become something more than a private member, and in March, 1891, he was appointed to the Legislative Council. He became a member of the Blair Administration as President of the Executive Council, and in charge of the Government business in the Legislative Council in March, 1892. On the abolition of the Legislative Council the same year, he was appointed chief commissioner of Public Works, October 10th, retaining also the Presidency of the Executive Council, and obtained a seat in the Legislature by contesting the county of Albert. Upon Mr. Blair's retirement from Provincial politics, he retained office under Mr. Mitchell. On the death of the latter gentleman, Mr. Emmerson became Premier of New Brunswick, December, 1897, retaining the portfolio of Public Works. He contested the seat for the House of Commons for Westmoreland at the general election, in 1887, in which he suffered defeat. He was also

a candidate for the same chamber at the general election in 1891, when he was again unsuccessful. He resigned the Premiership of New Brunswick in 1900, and was elected to the House of Commons for Westmoreland.

His religious persuasion is the same as that of his father, and is a Senator of Acadia University, Wolfville, N.S. He married June, 1878, Emily C., daughter of C. B. Ricord, iron founder. As a public speaker, Mr. Emmerson can hold his own with his opponents at all times, and wherever he addresses a public gathering his name attracts large audiences, and he is listened to with the most profound attention. He is liberal and broadminded in his views, thoroughly Canadian in his aims and aspirations, and has an earnest and enthusiastic faith in the future of the country. Owing to his kind and genial nature, Hon. Mr. Emmerson has a wide circle of friends, and it is safe to say that there is still greater honors in store for him.



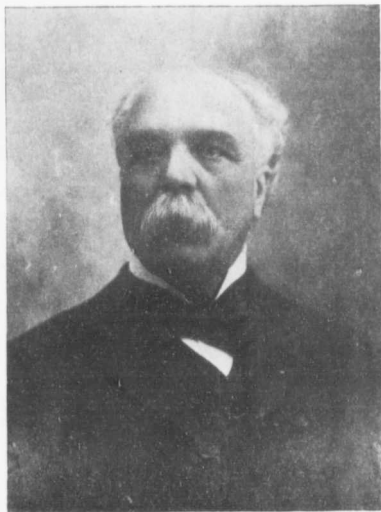


Honorable M. E. Bernier



HE career of a man who, either of his own choice or owing to some unforeseen and unsought for turn of fortune, comes prominently before the public as a candidate for Parliamentary place or honor, must always

possess a keen interest. And not unjustly is this the case; the man who has been able to so command the confidence and esteem of his fellow citizens, that, with one voice, for twenty-two years, they bid him to assume the grave responsibility attaching to the position of member of the Parliament of the Dominion, and by virtue of that office to safeguard and direct their interests, must needs be a man of no ordinary ability. His name, his personality, will always demand attention. No happier instance could be adduced of the wisdom which most usually charac-



terizes the public choice, and justifies the procedure and methods appertaining to a representative form of government than that furnished by the public career of the subject of this sketch. Hon. Michel Esdras Bernier, who was born at St. Hyacinthe, on September 27th, 1841. He

is the youngest son of the late Etienne Bernier of the same place. He was educated at the Seminary of his native place. In 1857 he was admitted to the practice of the notarial profession, and is a prominent member of the Notarial Board of the Province of Quebec. Mr. Bernier engaged in farming for a number of years. He was elected to the House of Commons, in 1882, and owing to his thorough know-

ledge of the wants of constituents, his kindly and genial disposition, combined with industry and strict attention to his parliamentary duties, he has been returned at every general election since without

interruption. which speaks very well for the good sound common sense of his constituents for electing to represent them a man from their own ranks, as it were, without the intervention of professionals from the large cities who knows neither their aspirations nor wants, and of whom in return they know nothing, except, that he represents a certain party. It would be well if many other constituencies followed in the footsteps of St. Hyacinthe and elect local men with whom they are acquainted and who can properly represent them in the councils of the nation. Mr. Bernier was for a number of years President of the St. Hyacinthe Agricultural Society. He married in November, 1865, Alida, daughter of the late Simeon Marchesseault, who, was one of the leaders of the Patriots in 1837, who fought for the liberty that we enjoy to-day, and Mr. Marchesseault was one of the

many who were exiled to the Bermudas for the part they played in the liberation of the country. Mr. Bernier was sworn of the Privy Council and appointed Minister of Inland Revenue in the administration of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, on June 22nd, 1900. Mr. Bernier possesses a critical and inquiring turn of mind, which impels him to question whatever is not convincing, and this, with his personal independence, constitutes him a public man of a high order, whose usefulness in his day and generation will only be more fully appreciated with the lapse of years.

Instances are rare of public men, circumstanced in some respects as the subject of our sketch, who, entering early into the political arena, is enabled to devote the best years of his life to his country, giving to the cause of good Government both the energy of youth and the wisdom and sagacity of maturer years.



DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE



HE duties that devolve upon the Minister of Finance by reason of his position may be divided into three classes.

- a.*—General.
- b.*—Parliamentary.
- c.*—Departmental.

a. General.—The Minister of Finance as a member of the Ministry is responsible with his colleagues for the policy of the Government, and for the advice tendered the Governor General on all questions relating to the Dominion. In the meetings of the Committee of the Privy Council, for that is what the Ministry is, his opinion must be frequently sought, as a large proportion of the business transacted has a financial side to it, or affects in some way the finances of the country. One of the most important items of business in this connection is the preparation and submission to Council of the estimates of amounts for the requirements of the Dominion. This is carried out under his control and direction. As he has to take care that the outlay on the one hand and the revenue on the other are equalized as nearly as may be, it will be seen that he is interested in every appropriation asked for.

b. Parliamentary.—The Sessions of Parliament, that seem to be growing longer in duration year by year, require practically constant personal attendance and attention on the part of the Minister. The House in the ordinary course meets

at 3 o'clock in the afternoon and continues in session, with an interruption of a couple of hours for dinner, until late on in the evenings. Apart from the session of the House, there are the sittings of the various committees of which the Minister of Finance is a member. The most important of these are the Banking and Commerce Committee and the Public Accounts Committee, the names of which explain themselves. The committees meet in the mornings. In the House certain duties devolve upon the Minister of Finance. The most important is the carrying through all the various stages of the various resolutions, item by item, that go to make up the whole of the supplies required to carry on the services of the Dominion. Associated with this feature of his parliamentary duties are the preparation and delivery of the budget, or the exposition of the position and condition of the Dominion accounts and finances, and a general review of the circumstances that affect the financial welfare of the Dominion. Changes of tariff are usually announced in the budget speech, and in the investigation that precede all tariff amendments, the Minister of Finance necessarily is interested in the effect that such changes have on the revenue.

c. Departmental.—Apart from the general duties that devolve upon the Minister of Finance as a member of the Privy Council and as a member of the House of Commons, there are certain functions the law lays upon him in regard

to certain features of the business of the Dominion.

Chapter 28 of the Revised Statutes of Canada, Section 2 enacts:—"There shall be a department of the Civil Service of Canada, which shall be called 'The Department of Finance,' over which the Minister of Finance and Receiver General for the time being, appointed by the Governor General by commission under the Great Seal of Canada, shall preside, and the said Minister shall hold office during pleasure, and shall have the management and direction of the department." The Minister of Finance then presides over the Department of Finance. The business that devolves on the Department of Finance under the general control of the minister is of a varied character. The accounts of the Dominion of all kinds are centered in that department, appropriation accounts, revenue and expenditure accounts, open accounts, banking accounts, accounts with financial agents, loan accounts, sinking fund accounts, all brought together and exhibited in the balance sheets and statements that go to make up the yearly blue book known as the public accounts. As the amounts involved are exceedingly large, the gross liabilities on the 30th June, 1903, being about \$375,000,000, the responsibility is correspondingly great. The insurance companies doing business in Canada come under his supervision. His oversight extends to the inspection of the companies and the publication of their returns. There is a Government Savings Bank, with balances due depositors to the extent of \$16,000,000, (doing business

almost entirely in the Maritime Provinces,) managed by the Finance Department. The Minister of Finance also keeps an eye on the funds of the Post Office Savings Bank with its deposits of over \$44,000,000. The chartered banks are compelled by law to make returns to him of the state of their affairs, and any special return he desires has to be furnished. The issue and redemption of Dominion notes for the business needs of the Dominion are controlled by the Finance Department; and the holding of the millions of gold required as a reserve for such notes is regulated also by this department. The Minister of Finance negotiates all loans temporary and otherwise needed by Canada, and all Government moneys of every kind that are deposited in the banks are deposited in his name as Receiver General.

By law the Minister of Finance is chairman of the Treasury Board, which acts as a Committee of the Privy Council on all matters relating to finance, revenue and expenditure or public accounts which are referred to it by council. The board is composed of the Minister of Finance and five other ministers nominated by the Governor in Council, and their meetings are of frequent occurrence.

The above gives a general view of the chief duties of the Minister of Finance as such. In addition to all this, as a member of the House of Commons representing a constituency, he has all the responsibility and duty that attach to an individual member of parliament of looking after the welfare of his constituents.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR



THE Interior, that is Manitoba and the great North-West Territory, which includes all British North America lying outside the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, British Columbia, Prince Edward Island and Keewatin—being bounded on the North by the Arctic, on the East by the Atlantic, on the West by the Pacific, and on the South by portions of the Dominion of Canada and the United States. This magnificent territory, covering an area of about 2,750,000 square miles, is watered by numerous rivers and lakes. Seven great rivers flow into Hudson's Bay, three into the Arctic Ocean, and three into Lake Winnipeg. The Mackenzie River is 2,500 miles long; it flows through a fertile and finely wooded country, and drains an area of 443,000 square miles. The Saskatchewan River is 1,300 miles in length, and with its tributaries drains an area of 363,000 square miles. Of lakes, the Great Bear Lake is 250 miles long and about the same in breadth. Lake Athabaska is 230 miles long and from 20 to 40 miles wide. Lake Winnipeg is 280 miles long, varying in width from 5 to 57 miles. Lake of the Woods is 75 miles long and 60 miles wide. The immense district, at once watered and drained by these rivers and lakes, has at least 300,000,000 acres of the finest wheat-growing country in the world. The fertile belt of the Saskatchewan alone contains an area of 64,400 square miles in

one continuous strip 800 miles long and about 80 miles broad. But, probably, the best and largest wheat area lies beyond the Saskatchewan, comprising the valleys of the Athabaska and Peace rivers, up to the slopes of the Rocky Mountains on the Pacific side, giving an area of 300,000,000 acres beyond what has been known as "the fertile belt," and one-third of which is incalculably rich for all agricultural purposes. Upon the acquirement of this vast territory by the Government, arrangements were made for a careful but elaborate survey for the purpose of laying out the country into Townships. During the summer of 1873 the International Boundary, lat 49°, was established by the Boundary Commission, appointed by the Imperial and United States Governments. This line was accepted as the base of the surveys, and was to be known as the "First Base." From this line others were run at right angles northward and named Principal Meridians.

After much deliberation, it was decided to lay out the country in four-sided townships, in forms almost square. Each township measures on its east and west sides, from centre to centre of the road allowances,—which form its actual boundaries—483 chains, and on its north and south sides, 480 chains, more or less; subject to the deficiency or surplus resulting from the convergence or divergence of the meridian, caused by the curvature of the surface of the earth.

The "First Base," or International Boundary, established, others were run twenty-four miles apart parallel to this one, and numbered Second, Third, Fourth and Fifth Base, as far as the surveys extend to the North. The country was then laid out in blocks twenty-four miles square, each block containing sixteen townships. These blocks lie within four straight lines, having a Base Line at the north and at the south. Twelve miles from either Base a line is run east and west, named a "Correction Line," and on this line all corrections are made. Each township is sub-divided into thirty-six "Sections," each containing one square mile, or 640 acres; two sections of each township, numbered 11 and 29, are reserved by the Government as "School Lands," so that adequate provision is made for educational purposes.

To promote and wisely guide settlement in so vast and valuable a country was a task involving great responsibility. For it meant the opening up of a new world; it meant laying a proper basis of civil government for the vast population which in the near future must be gathered there. A false start might lead to disastrous issues. This new portion of the Dominion is now playing a very important part in directing the policy of the whole country.

In the land regulations the settler is provided with a homestead of 160 acres, which he gets free of any cost, except \$10.00 as registration fee, and the adjoining 160 acres may be pre-empted at \$2.00 per acre in Class D, and \$2.50 per acre in Classes A, B, and C.—an average price of \$1.00 to \$1.25 per acre for a farm of 320 acres. The regulations are as follows:—

1. The surveyed lands in Manitoba and the North-West Territories shall, for

the purpose of these Regulations, be classified as follows:—

CLASS A.—Lands within twenty-four miles of the main line, or any branch line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, on either side thereof.

CLASS B.—Lands within twelve miles, on either side, of any projected line of railway (other than the Canadian Pacific Railway), approved by Order-in-Council published in the *Canada Gazette*.

CLASS C.—Lands south of the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway not included in Classes A or B.

CLASS D.—Lands other than those in Classes A, B, and C.

2. The even-numbered sections in all the foregoing classes are to be held exclusively for homesteads and pre-emptions.

a. Except in Class D, where they may be affected by colonization agreements, as hereinafter provided.

b. Except where it may be necessary out of them to provide wood lots for settlers.

c. Except in case where the Minister of the Interior, under provisions of the Dominion Land Acts, may deem it expedient to withdraw certain lands, and sell them at public auction, or otherwise deal with them as the Governor-in-Council may direct.

3. The odd-numbered sections in Class A are reserved for the Canadian Pacific Railway Company.

4. The odd-numbered sections in

Classes B and C shall be for sale at \$2.50 per acre, payable at the time of sale:

a. Except where they have been or may be dealt with otherwise by the Governor-in-Council.

5. The odd-numbered sections in Class D shall be for sale at \$2 per acre, payable at time of sale:

a. Except where they have been or may be dealt with otherwise by the Governor-in-Council.

b. Except lands affected by colonization agreement, as hereinafter provided.

6. Persons who, subsequent to survey, but before the issue of the Order-in-Council of the 9th October, 1879, excluding odd-numbered sections from homestead entry, took possession of land in odd-numbered sections by residing on and cultivating the same, shall, if continuing so to occupy them, be permitted to obtain homestead and pre-emption entries as if they were on even-numbered sections.

PRE-EMPTIONS

7. The prices for pre-emption lots shall be as follows:—

For lands in Classes A, B, and C, \$2.50 per acre.

For lands in Class D, \$2.00 per acre.

Payments shall be made in one sum at the end of three years from the date of entry, or at such earlier date as a settler may, under the provisions of the Dominion Lands Acts, obtain a patent for the homestead to which such pre-emption lot belongs.

* * * * *

Provision was also made for the encouragement of colonization companies for filling up the North-West, and the value of the whole land policy of the department may be measured by the fact that the sale and homesteading of lands, commenced on a small scale in 1871, exceeded, for the year 1882, ten millions of acres, and that the money receipts from 1870, the date of the transfer of the Territory from the Hudson's Bay Company to the Dominion Government, to the first of January, 1882, amounted to but \$820,000, while on the first of January, 1883, the returns gave the enormous sum of \$2,250,000. A startling statement in proof of the marvellous rapidity with which the country is being settled.

For some time it was feared that the supply of fuel on the great prairies would be but scant, and render life to the settler difficult during the extreme cold of winter, but subsequent surveys have discovered numerous beds of coal there. In the region west of Edmonton, bounded on the north by the Athabasca River and on the south by the Red Deer River, a coal field has been found covering an area of not less than 25,000 square miles. Coal seams have been seen on the Pembina River 20 feet thick. It is also found on McLeod River, and at Coal Creek, near the entrance to the Jasper Valley. In the elevated country, south of Little Slave Lake, many fine seams have been found, and its occurrence on Peace River is well known.

In order to administer the affairs of this huge country as its settlement may demand, and to prepare the way for its self-government in the near future, the Government have divided the whole territory into four provinces, viz: Assiniboia, bounded on the south by the International boundary line, on the east by the western

boundary of Manitoba, on the north by the 9th Correction Line of the Dominion Lands System of Survey into townships which is near the 52nd parallel of latitude, and on the west by the line dividing the 10th and 11th ranges of townships west of the 4th initial meridian of the Dominion Lands Survey; the district comprising an area of 95,000 square miles. Second, the Saskatchewan Province, about 114,000 square miles, bounded on the south by the district of Assiniboia and the northern boundary of the Province of Manitoba; on the east by Winnipeg, with a part of Nelson River; on the north by the 18th Correction Line, and on the west by the Correction Line dividing the 10th and 11th ranges of townships west of the fourth initial meridian. Third, the district of Alberta, comprising about 100,000 square miles, bounded on the south by the International boundary, on the east by the district of Assiniboia, on the west by the Province of British Columbia at the base of the Rocky Mountains, and on the north by the 18th Correction Line. Fourth, the district of Athabaska, containing an area of about 122,000 square miles, bounded

on the south by Alberta, on the east by the 10th and 11th ranges of the Dominion Lands Townships, until it intersects the Athabaska River; then by that river and the Athabaska Lake and Slave River to its intersection with the northern boundary of the district which is to be the 32nd Correction Line.

To provide for the administration of justice, to protect the rights of settlers and the Indians who are placed on "reserves," a system of mounted police is maintained in an efficient manner. As the result of this and the friendly attitude of the Government toward the native Indian tribes, the North-West is absolutely free from the turmoil and bloodshed which so generally mar the frontier life in the western parts of the United States. So that this North-West, with its healthy and fruit-producing climate, its inexhaustible rich soil, its abundance of timber, coal and water, offering health and wealth to all who will settle with a mind to toil, must, in a few years, become the happy homes of millions who will provide corn for the markets of the old and new worlds.



Department of the Secretary of State



THE importance of the office of Secretary of State becomes apparent when we consider that he is the channel of communication between the Dominion and Provincial Governments. The correspondence of the Department is very large. It has charge of all State correspondence, and all State records not specially transferred to other Departments, are in its care.

The Department was formed in 1867. Its proper title is "The Department of the Secretary of State of Canada."

To the Secretary of State are sent all Petitions of right. Petitions for executive clemency to criminals, etc., addressed to the Governor-General in Council.

He is the Registrar-General of Canada, and upon him devolves the duty of registering all Proclamations, Commissions, Letters Patent, Writs, and other instruments issued under the Great Seal; and all bonds, warrants leases, and other instruments requiring registration. The registry branch of the Department is, in fact, the Record Office of the Dominion.

The office of Secretary of State is at present held by Hon. Richard William Scott.

The Secretary of State is charged with the administration of the "Canada Temperance Act," "The Companies' Act," "The Civil Service Act," "The Act respecting Commissions to Public Officers," and "The Trades Union Act."

He is also charged with the collection of information needed for Returns demanded by either the Senate or the House of Commons.

A very interesting feature of the Department is the Records' Branch, which contains an immense store of documents, as valuable as interesting, bearing on the history of Canada, and dating back to the time of the French Regime.

The Board of Civil Service Examiners is under the supervision of the Secretary of State.

A very important feature in connection with the Department is the Government Printing Bureau, which may be looked upon as an experiment in the way of Government ownership of industrial establishments, and in which every workman in the Dominion should be keenly interested in the outcome, as the failure of that institution would mean a death blow for many generations, to the nationalization of industries. Therefore, the workmen employed there, should not expect any better treatment at the hands of the Government than that which is accorded them in all other business concerns of the kind through the country. There were none but union printers employed in the Bureau until recently, when owing to their unreasonable demands, it was deemed advisable to disregard the union principle, or in other words to declare it an open shop.

The principle that the Bureau is in

reality a business institution is laid down plainly in an Order in Council passed in 1893, with regard to appointments to the clerical staff, as follows:—

“ 18th March, 1893.

“ Printing and Stationery—

“ That inasmuch as the Department of Public Printing and Stationery is in effect a manufacturing and business establishment, it is expedient that no one should be first appointed to a position therein who does not bring to the Department technical knowledge acquired in some similar place of business elsewhere, and that in the case of every appointment of a clerical nature made upon the Queen's Printer's account that officer shall make a report stating the reasons for such appointment, and detailing the circumstances under which the requisite technical knowledge was acquired.

“ That a general knowledge of book-

keeping only is not technical knowledge in the sense of this report, and that the services of simple copyists or writers are not needed for the public service in said Department.

“ That the Queen's Printer, under the direction of the Minister, may appoint youths as junior clerks who may acquire in the Department the requisite technical knowledge, but that such appointments shall be considered as temporary only, and shall be charged against contingencies.

“ That such junior clerks before they can obtain appointment on the Queen's Printer's account shall pass the Civil Service Examinations required for other Government clerks, and in addition must give evidence of having attained sufficient technical knowledge of the business of the Department to perform the duties of the respective branches to which they shall be attached.”



Department of Railways and Canals



OME idea of the magnitude of this Department of the Government may be gathered from consideration of the number and extent of the Railways in which the Dominion Government has vast interests. When, in addition to this, we remember that the Canal System of Canada is the most magnificent in the world, the immense importance of the Department, presided over by the Hon. H. R. Emmerson, becomes apparent.

It was in the year 1879 that the Department of Railways and Canals was constituted, under an Act passed in that year, the old Department of Public Works being divided.

The principal officers of the Department are as follows:—

Minister—Hon. H. R. Emmerson.

Deputy of the Minister, Chief Engineer of Railways and Canal, Secretary of the Railway Committee, P. C. Collingwood Schreiber, C.E., C.M.G.

Secretary—L. K. Jones, Department Railways and Canals.

Law Clerk—Girard S. Ruel.

General Manager Government Railways—David Pottinger.

The Government Railways, viz., the Intercolonial and the Prince Edward Island Railway, amount to 1577 miles. The Intercolonial is the more important of these. At the time of the Confederation of the Provinces, it was felt that these, being widely separated, ought to be united

by one vast railway, so that intercourse might be provided. Separate communities were found to be at each extremity of the country, all possessed with the sentiment that they had interests in common, and all owing allegiance to the British Empire. All were willing to be devoted to the Imperial interests in time of danger, and yet all were unable to unite for a common purpose, because means of intercommunication were wanting. It was to meet this want that the Intercolonial Railway was projected, and finally built. It was opened for through traffic between Halifax and Quebec, a distance of 688 miles, in 1874.

The mileage of the Intercolonial Railway System on June 30th, 1894, inclusive of the Prince Edward Island Railway, was 1,383½ miles. The length of the Prince Edward Island Railway is 210½ miles. Included also in the 1,383½ miles is the Windsor Branch, of 32 miles length, leased to the Windsor and Annapolis Railway. The mileage has been increased within the past nine years.

The whole of the main line (1,141 miles) is laid with steel rails.

The Intercolonial line touches seven Atlantic ports, viz.:—Pointe du Chene, Pictou, Halifax, Sydney, North Sydney, Quebec and Montreal.

Besides the maintenance and conduct of the Government Railways, there falls under the control of the Department the supervision and inspection of railways in course of construction under Government

subsidy, and the administration of the several provisions on the Railway Act in regard to railways generally; also, the compilation of Railway Statistics; and the construction, maintenance, and operation of the Canals of the Dominion.

The River St. Lawrence, with the System of Canals established on its course above Montreal, and the Lakes Ontario, Erie, St. Clair, Huron and Superior, with connecting canals, give a course of water communication extending from the Straits of Belle Isle to Duluth at the head of Lake Superior, making a distance of 2,384 miles, with a depth of water at the shallowest place of about twelve feet. In addition, we have the Montreal, Ottawa, and Kingston Canals, extending from the harbor of Montreal to the port of Kingston, passing through the Lachine Canal, the navigable section of the Lower Ottawa River, and the Ottawa Canals to the City of Ottawa, thence by the River Rideau and the Rideau Canal to Kingston, on Lake Ontario—a total distance of 246 miles; and Richelieu and Lake Champlain Canal, commencing at Sorel, at the confluence of the Rivers St. Lawrence and

Richelieu and extending along the River Richelieu through the St. Our's Lock to the Chambly Basin, thence by the Chambly Canal to St. John's and the River Richelieu to Lake Champlain—a distance of 81 miles; and St. Peter's Canal, Cape Breton, which connects St. Peter's Bay on the southern side of Cape Breton, N. S., with the Bras d'Or Lakes, and crossing an isthmus, gives access from the Atlantic.

Connected with the St. Lawrence System are the *Murray Canal*, the *Burlington Bay* and the *Trent River Navigation*. The first extended through the Isthmus of Murray, giving connection between the head waters of the Bay of Quinté and Lake Ontario. The Burlington Bay Canal is a cutting through a piece of low land which partly separates Lake Ontario from Burlington Bay. The "Trent River Navigation" is a series of water stretches, composed of a chain of Lakes and Rivers, extending from Trenton, on the Bay of Quinté, to Lake Huron.

The true value of Canadian Railways and Canals the future history of the country will unfold.



Department of Agriculture of Canada

IN 1851, under the Hincks-Morin administration of Upper and Lower Canada, a Bureau of Agriculture and Statistics was created. In 1862 this Bureau became a distinct Department, with Sir Narcisse Belleau as Minister; and in 1864 Dr. J. C. Taché was appointed Deputy Minister of the Department, which, at Confederation, was continued with an extended scope; the latter being further widened by legislation of 1886 and subsequent years. (Vide 31 v., c. 53 s.c., and 49 v., c. 23, r.s.c.)

The following are the names of the Minister of Agriculture since Confederation:

Hon. J. C. Chapais, P.C., from 1st July 1867, to 15th November, 1860, P.C.

Hon. C. Dunkin, D.C.L., Q.C., from November 16th, 1860, to 24th October, 1871.

Hon. J. H. Pope, P.C., from October 25th, 1871, to November 6th, 1873.

Hon. L. Letellier de St. Just, from November 7th 1873, to 14th December, 1876.

Hon. C. A. Pelletier, from January 26th, 1877, to 16th October, 1878.

Hon. J. H. Pope, from 17th October, 1878, to 24th September, 1885.

Hon. John Carling, from 26th September, 1885, to 4th December, 1892.

Hon. A. R. Angers, 5th December, 1892, to 11th July, 1895.

Hon. W. H. Montague, from 21st December, 1895, to 6th January, 1896.

Hon. D. Ferguson (acting) from 7th January, 1896, to 14th January, 1896.

Hon. W. H. Montague, from 15th January, 1896, to 12th July, 1896.

Hon. S. A. Fisher, the present Minister, sworn in on 13th July, 1896.

Deputy Ministers of Agriculture from Confederation:

Dr. J. C. Taché, from 29th May, 1868, to June 30th, 1888 (previously Deputy Minister of the Department under Upper and Lower Canada Government, from 1864).

John Lowe, from 1st July, 1888, to 30th November, 1895.

W. B. Searth, from 1st December, 1895, to 15th May, 1907.

George F. O'Halloran, (present Deputy Minister) appointed 20th May, 1902.

The Department is subdivided into branches, each with a separate head as follows:

The Patent Branch. Chief Clerk, W. J. Lynch.

The Copyright, Trade Mark and Design Branch. Chief Clerk, J. B. Jackson.

The Statistical Branch. Statistician, George Johnson.

The Census Branch. Commissioner, A. Blue.

The Public Health Branch. Director General, F. Montzambert, M.D.

The Experimental Farms Branch. Director, Wm. Saunders, L.L.D.

The Commissioner of Agriculture and Dairying's Branch. Commissioner, Jas W. Robertson, L.L.D.

The Veterinary Branch. Chief Veterinary Inspector, J. G. Rutherford, V. S.

The Exhibition Branch. Commissioner, Wm. Hutchison.

Dominion Archives also are under the control of the Minister of this Department, and a report is published annually by the Archivist in relation to that branch.

THE PATENT BRANCH

Under this branch patents are granted for inventions.

The first patent in Canada was granted on the 8th of June, 1824, to Noah Cushing, a resident of the city of Quebec. This patent was for an invention of a washing and fulling machine, and covered the Province of Quebec.

There were only three patents granted in Canada in that year, 1824. During the past year, 5678 patents have been granted in Canada. The fees derived from the granting of patents in Canada will reach about \$140,000 for 1903. Each year shows an increase in the business of this Branch over that of the preceding year.

Seventy per cent. of the Canadian patents issued are issued to citizens of the United States. On a basis of population, more patents have been taken out in British Columbia in 1902 than in any other Province of the Dominion.

A classification of all Canadian patents was for the first time made, under the present administration. This classification greatly facilitated the work of examination and has been as well of much value to inventors and the interested public.

The Canadian Patent Record is the official publication of this Branch. It is issued monthly, and contains a transcript, with drawings and claims, of all patents granted during the month to which the issue refers. This publication was commenced in 1873. It contains as well a list of copyrights, trade marks and designs granted for the month. The publication is furnished to the chief free libraries of

Canada, Great Britain and the United States.

During the Session of Parliament of 1903, the Honorable the Commissioner of Patents introduced to Parliament an Act to amend the Patent Act, which was passed and is now law. One of the chief provisions of this amending law is similar to a provision of the British Patent law known as the compulsory license system.

THE COPYRIGHT, TRADE MARK AND DESIGN BRANCH

Under this Branch, literary, scientific and artistic works and compositions are copyrighted in Canada, and trade marks, timber marks and industrial designs are registered.

Between \$15,000 and \$20,000 are received annually by this Branch in fees for copyright, trade and timber marks, industrial design, assignments, and certified copies of documents appertaining thereto. The revenue and general business of this branch has steadily increased.

STATISTICAL BRANCH

This Branch has been a part of the Department of Agriculture since the institution of the latter, under the designation of "Bureau of Agriculture and Statistics," by the Hincks-Morin Government of Upper and Lower Canada in 1851. By legislation of 1859, the Minister of Agriculture was empowered to collect useful facts and statistics relating to the agricultural, mechanical and manufacturing interests and adopt measures for the dissemination or publication of them. A statute of the same year provided for a Board, of which the Minister of Agriculture was chairman, whose chief work seems to have been the preparation for and taking of the Census.

When the Department of Agriculture was reinstated after Confederation, the Parliament of Canada assigned Census, Statistics and Registration of Statistics to the Department; and in 1876 provision was made for the registration of criminal statistics of the Dominion, under the administration of the Minister of Agriculture.

In 1886 the first volume of the Statistical Year Book of Canada was issued, as a medium for disseminating statistical facts. The Statistical Year Book of Canada had now passed its eighteenth year of issue with ever increasing acceptability. The demand for copies of this publication is very great, and its great usefulness is admitted on all side, not only in Canada but abroad.

The names of the officers who from time to time have had charge of the Statistical Branch under the several Ministers of Agriculture are:—

W. C. Crofton, Secretary of Agriculture,	1849
W. Hutton, " "	1853-61
Dr. J. C. Taché, Deputy Minister,	1894
George Johnson, Statistician,	1887

THE CENSUS BRANCH

The Census Branch of the Department of Agriculture has been in existence periodically (every ten years) since 1851, when a census of Upper and Lower Canada was obtained.

The first official census of Canada was taken in 1871, under the direction of the late Honorable J. H. Pope, who was then Minister of Agriculture, with Dr. J. C. Taché, who was Deputy Minister of Agriculture, as Chief Commissioner.

The second census of Canada (1881) was also taken under the direction of the Honorable Mr. Pope, with Dr. Taché again in charge of the work.

The third census (1891) was taken under the direction of the Honorable John Carling, Minister of Agriculture, with Mr. George Johnson (the present Dominion Statistician) as Chief Commissioner.

The fourth census (1901) was taken under the direction of the present Minister of Agriculture, the Honorable Sydney A. Fisher, with Mr. Archibald Blue (formerly Director of the Bureau of Mines, Toronto) as Special Commissioner, and Messrs. Thomas Coté and E. H. St. Denis as Assistant Commissioners. Each Province of the Dominion was also represented by a chief officer in the Census Branch at Ottawa. A comparative statement shows that in 1891 only 216 questions were entered on the various schedules as against 657 questions for 1901, which goes to show how much greater and more complete the statistics of the last census will be than those of any of its predecessors.

PUBLIC HEALTH BRANCH

The stations of this Branch range from Louisburg, Cape Breton, to Forty Mile, Yukon. The organized stations are: Sydney, C.B., Halifax, N.S., St. John and Chatham, N.B., Charlottetown, P.E.I., Grosse Isle, with Rimouski, in the River St. Lawrence, and William Head and Vancouver in British Columbia. The unorganized stations are: every other port on both coasts, each such port being designated an Unorganized Maritime Quarantine Station, and every inland customs port on the Canadian frontier between the Pacific and the Atlantic oceans, each such inland port being designated an Unorganized Inland Quarantine Station. The appliances at the organized stations include the most modern forms for the

scientific disinfection both of clothing and persons on land and of vessels and their contents in the offing. The quarantine steamers at the different stations meet the incoming vessels immediately upon arrival at any hour of the day or night. The Grosse Isle and William Head stations are fully equipped with bacteriological laboratories for the detection of infectious disease and the confirmation of the diagnoses made from clinical symptoms. A laboratory has also been erected at the Halifax quarantine station.

Another recent feature in the administration of this service is that of disinfection at the port of departure, which destroys before embarking, lessens the chance of disease during the voyage, diminishes the risk to cabin passengers of contracting disease from the steerage, and by so much replaces any routine disinfection of healthy vessels—even during epidemics—at quarantine, and so greatly lessens interference with travel and traffic.

The service of this Branch includes moreover the administration of epidemic disease, such as smallpox, in the unorganized districts of the North-West and other territories where there is no provincial or territorial board of health. During last season there were some 564 cases of smallpox in the North-West Territories dealt with by the officers of this Branch.

The leper lazaretto at Tracadie, N.B., is administered by the Minister of Agriculture, through this Branch, the Director General of which makes annual inspection of this institution.

The administration of the Public Works (Health) Act is also under the Public Health service, the inspector being an officer of that Branch, and it being provided that any acts of the different health boards on the various public works

shall be subject at all times to be revised or superseded by the Director General of Public Health on reference from the Inspector.

BRANCH OF EXPERIMENTAL FARMS.

This Branch was established in 1886. It was designed to practically assist farmers through experiments and investigations along important lines of agricultural work.

The Central Farm is situated at Ottawa, serving Ontario and Quebec. The Branch Farms are at Nappan, Nova Scotia, serving the Maritime Provinces; at Brandon, Manitoba; at Indian Head, North-West Territories; and at Agassiz, British Columbia. These locations were chosen to fairly represent, in soil and climate, the larger settled areas in the respective provinces. The experiments conducted at each Farm are such as will be beneficial to the larger number of settlers within its influence, and farmers are particularly invited to visit the Farms.

The Officers of the Farms are: the Director, Agriculturist, Horticulturist, Entomologist and Botanist, Chemist, Experimentalist, and Poultry Manager; all of whom reside on the Central Farm. At each Branch Farm there is a Superintendent, who makes weekly a report to the Director. The latter makes personal annual inspection of the Branch Farms.

The Experimental Farms have had a marked influence on the progress of all branches of agriculture and horticulture throughout Canada. The practical suggestions arising from the experiments conducted have done much to advance the stock industry; while the early investigations made in connection with the manufacture of butter and cheese did much to prepare the way for the remarkable growth

which has taken place in the exports of these products. Within the past few years the work of the Farms has been greatly extended, in all lines of agricultural and horticultural work. Evidences of the usefulness of the Farms are found in the general advancement which has been made through their help by the farmers generally. Farmers who find difficulties arising in connection with their avocation write to the officers of the Farms for suggestions and advice; and the publications issued by the Farms, which are now received by more than fifty thousand farmers, and the contents of which are reproduced in newspapers from end to end of Canada, are found invaluable as reliable sources of information.

BRANCH OF THE COMMISSIONER OF AGRICULTURE AND DAIRYING

The general object of the work of this Branch is to render assistance towards the improvement of all agricultural products, including the means and methods of their production, transportation and marketing, with particular regard to those which may be grouped under the name of food products.

The Branch is sub-divided into the following Divisions, each with a head or "Chief":—The Seed Division, Extension of Markets Division, Cold Storage Division, Live Stock Division, Dairy Division, Poultry Division, and Fruit Division. In addition to the work of these divisions, other undertakings of a general character looking towards the advancement of agriculture are carried on. The scope of this Branch has within the past few years been very much extended, and the subdivision above referred to been made within that time to facilitate the usefulness and working of the Branch.

Officers of the Branch are stationed at ports in Great Britain, with instructions to observe and carefully examine the manner in which the products from Canada are handled in the unloading of the steamships, in order that the Department may be able to take the necessary steps to prevent the damage, particularly to cheese and fruit, which has been complained of by shippers' Department, an improvement in the condition in which the products reach the receiver has already been effected.

As a result of investigations, it has been made evident that the trade in agricultural seeds is an exceedingly fruitful medium for the dissemination of noxious weeds. In this connection, the Honorable the Minister prepared and introduced in Parliament at the last session a bill, whose aim was, briefly *pure seed*. Although the general principles of the bill were strongly supported, it was considered wise to allow it to stand until the Session of 1904. In the mean time a bulletin has been distributed respecting the matter, and including a reprint of the bill in question, in order that the interested public may have the means of closer study of the principles of the bill.

Noticeable improvements have been observed in the methods of packing and marking fruit intended for sale, due to the policy of the Department in securing the efficient enforcement of the Fruit Marks Act. It is now the exception rather than the rule to find false packing. In the great majority of the cases in which fruit has been inspected by the Inspectors of the Fruit Division, the fruit has been found to have been correctly marked.

A great number of bulletins and leaflets giving information on agricultural and dairying subjects are distributed by this Branch. Carefully prepared, practical

articles of a similar nature are sent weekly to some 800 newspapers throughout Canada by the Publication Clerk

Nearly all the members of this Branch attend a great number of meetings and deliver addresses on important agricultural topics, to farmers, annually.

VETERINARY BRANCH

The advantage of having a practical farmer as Minister of Agriculture has been felt in this Branch to perhaps a great an extent as in any other. The removal in '97 of the quarantine which for many years prevented trade in cattle between Canada and the United States was the first notable act by which the present Minister showed the Canadian breeders his keen interest in their welfare. The results of this change of policy were little short of marvellous. In '96 the number of cattle exported from Canada into the United States was 577, with a value of \$9,717; in 1900 the number exported was 86,989, value \$1,401,137.

A close watch is kept by this Branch on other countries with the object of keeping quarantine effective. Improvements are now being made in arrangements for quarantine of foreign animals, at Quebec, St. John, N.B., and Halifax. The export cattle trade is carefully safeguarded, all animals being rigidly inspected and marked before shipment. There is a close supervision of live stock throughout the North-West and in the Yukon, which includes a rigid inspection of all animals imported from the United States and Mexico. In all the other provinces officers are employed who promptly investigate and deal with outbreaks of contagious disease, under direct control at Ottawa.

A biological laboratory has been established at Ottawa, where experimental

work also is carried on, and the manufacture of prophylactic vaccines for the use of the public will be undertaken. An experiment station is being established in Nova Scotia, at Antigonish, with a view to obtaining information as to the nature and causes of Pictou Cattle Disease.

During the Session of Parliament of 1903 new and carefully revised legislation was passed, with a view to facilitating the working of the Veterinary Branch; necessitating the issue of new quarantine regulations conforming to the changes in the Act, which are more in accordance with modern conditions than those formerly in force.

In order to improve the organization and facilitate the work of this Branch, the Minister two years ago stationed the Chief Veterinary Officer at Ottawa, so that he might take full control of the executive work and keep in closest possible touch with the other officers throughout the Dominion.

The tendency of the age is towards specialization. The Minister has found that in the work of this Branch as in that of others of his Department, the services of specialists are the most valuable and satisfactory. A number of specially trained veterinary surgeons are therefore employed, who devote their whole time to the work of the Branch without engaging in ordinary practice; and no effort is being spared to render the veterinary service of the Dominion efficient and up-to-date, with a view to being able should occasion unfortunately arise to cope successfully with any of the dangerous contagious maladies to which live stock is liable.

EXHIBITION BRANCH

In view of the great expansion and development of Canada's trade particularly

within the past few years, and the commercial international importance and significance to which large exhibitions have attained, this Branch has naturally grown in national importance and significance as well. Canada has taken part in many of the world's leading exhibitions, among others those of London (1851), Philadelphia (Centennial, 1876), Indian and Colonial in London, (1887), Chicago (Columbian, 1893), Paris (1900), Buffalo (Pan-American 1901), and Glasgow (International, 1901); besides many others of less importance and magnitude, such as the Trans-Mississippi at Omaha, and the Jamaica and Bermuda Exhibitions. For each of these exhibitions, special commissions to represent Canada were appointed; but in view of the frequency with which were being held, the great success at such exhibitions of Canada's various exhibits, and the large benefits to be derived from the advertisement of the natural products and resources of the country afforded by such exhibitions, the Honorable Sydney Fisher, Minister of Agriculture, (under

whose administration such commissions as have been referred to had been appointed and the national exhibits made,) considered that it would be to Canada's advantage to have a permanent exhibition staff of practical experts, whose duty it would be to take full and complete charge of exhibition work. Such a staff was therefore appointed, composed of men who had experience in exhibition work. Since the inauguration of this branch, Canada has participated in several important exhibitions, notably the Royal Exchange Exhibition, London; the Wolverhampton Art and Industrial Exhibition, and the Cork International Exhibition; all in 1902; and also the Fifth National Exhibition of Osaka, Japan, in 1903.

Preparations have now been in progress for some months for Canada's participation in the Louisiana Purchase Exposition to be held at St. Louis in 1904; and this exposition promises to eclipse any exhibition heretofore attempted or held in any part of the world.



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The business was established by the President, K. W. Blackwell, in 1882, as the "K. W. Blackwell Firm," manufacturing Railway Car Springs.

The Canada Switch Manufacturing Company was established in 1889 for the manufacture of Switches, Frogs, etc., for Steam Railways. A few years later electric railway work was taken up and a plant installed specially suited for that purpose.

In 1895 the two concerns were amalgamated under the name of the CANADA SWITCH & SPRING COMPANY, LIMITED. The manufacture of steel

castings was carried on, on a small scale for several years.

Three years ago the works were enlarged and a Bessemer plant installed, and in the year 1901 the plant was again enlarged and an Open Hearth Furnace erected of the very best and latest type.

In addition to this, all the works and plant were improved and enlarged in 1901, making them second to none for the special kind of work that they are designed to turn out.

In carrying out these improvements during 1901, the Company called in the services of a Pennsylvania specialist, who had the necessary knowledge of the most recent practice in designing steel works.

The manner in which this business has been conducted in the past, and the work turned out, is a guarantee to those who may place their orders with this Company that they will get the best attention and the most satisfactory results.

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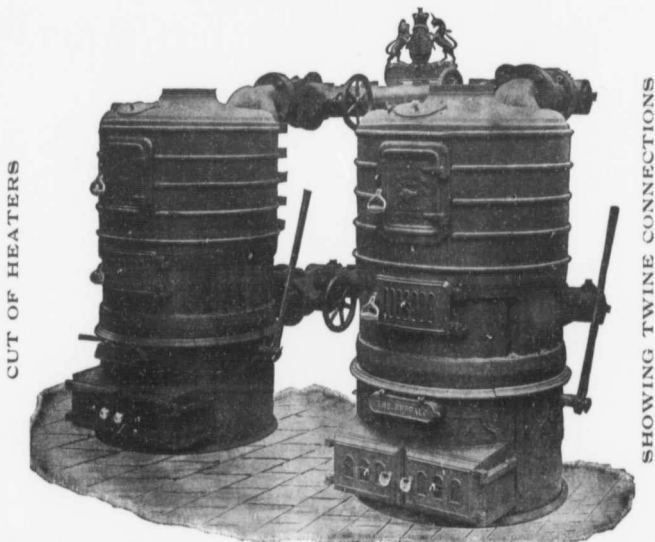
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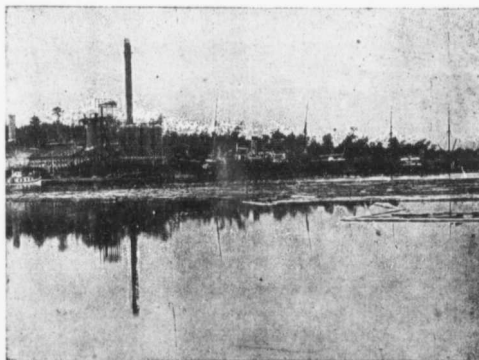
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