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The Volunteer Review

AND MILITARY AND NAVAL GAZETTE.

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

VOL. V.

OTTAWA, CANADA, MONDAY, MARCH 6, 1871.

No. 10.

ORGANIZATION OF THE PRUSSIAN ARMY

By C. V. H.

From the *U. S. Army and Navy Journal*.

VII.—YEARLY COURSE OF TRAINING.

THE 1st of October is the New Year's day in the Prussian army, when the reserves are dismissed and the recruits arrive. Drill and instruction of the recruits commence immediately. The "drill sergeant" and the necessary number of non-commissioned officers, under orders of a lieutenant of the company are permanently detailed, and excused from guard and other duties. Three months are allotted for the school of the soldier, including the rudiments of skirmish drill and some target practice by way of introduction. Recruits drill between four and five hours a day. Most garrisons are provided with a drill house, built for the purposes of drilling in winter. In the evening the recruits receive theoretical instruction from the non-commissioned officer of the squad. The older men do the necessary guard duty, by way of repetition, and have additional target practice for the poorer marksmen. In cavalry and artillery the instruction in riding of course commences at once, along with the drill on foot. The best riders among the old soldiers are placed in charge of the young re-mounts, of which each squadron receives about the same number, ten to fifteen a year; they are five-year-olds, and are not placed in the squadron until they are thoroughly broken. The old men ride their horses in the *manège*, built on purpose at each cavalry or artillery garrison, formed in riding classes, not only for the purpose of exercise, but for improving men and horses in every respect. No horse is permitted one day, Sundays excepted, to go without his forty-five minutes' ride in the school. After three months the recruits are inspected by the battalion and regimental commander in the school of the soldier and theoretical instruction. The company is then formed, and about six weeks are accorded to the captain to drill his company in the school of the company and formal skirmish drill, to be inspected at the end of this period by the colonel in a very strict manner. The discipline and efficiency expected in the school of the company are very great. If it happened twice during the

drill that a man should be late in bringing the hand down at "carry arms," the company would be considered to be poor in the manual.

With the cavalry the period of recruiting embraces six months, but the movements of the squadron are taught on foot during these months in order to have the men perfectly well acquainted with the school of the squadron towards the coming of the better season, when the squadron is formed and drilled mounted. Company and squadron inspections—which always mean inspection in regard to efficiency in drill and discipline as the main thing, but which are never confined to an inspection of cleanliness of dress and arms only—being over, the battalion commander takes his battalion in hand. There is never less than a battalion in a garrison. The battalion drills about one month in school of the battalion, and the same precision is expected by the general commanding the brigade, who comes to inspect it, which is exacted from the companies. The slightest neglect at any drill is visited by extra drill in the afternoon of one or two hours, when non-commissioned officers drill the backsliders under the supervision of the officer of the day. Captains of cavalry drill their squadrons about six weeks, and in regard to artillery it ought to be remarked that their duties are very arduous, because every man must be efficient in the different parts of duty, and not all the pieces of the batteries being provided with horses in peace times, it is hard work to put all the men through. In garrisons where more than one battalion is stationed, as in large cities or fortresses, some time is given to dulling the regiments and brigades. The four squadrons of each cavalry regiment get concentrated about this time of the year for a ten days' drill by regiment—not a very difficult matter, as the stations of the regiment are seldom further than one or two days' march from each other. The division general and the general commanding the army corps at this time visit each regiment or battalion.

The infantry in the beginning of May commence the "summer term;" that is, they begin skirmish drill in the woods, outpost duty, one company against another, and the regular course of target practice. Every Prussian soldier fires at least 100 rounds a year at the target, every single shot being recorded. It is a general rule that everything is to be looked after by the officers in their respective commands. Skirmishing and outpost duty are in their turn inspected, and the target practice winds up with a prize shooting.

Engineers and the administrative branches,

especially the train battalion, go yearly through a course of training adapted to their different duties, and they turn out at the end of the year the regulation number of men trained for the exercise of their duties if called upon in case of war. In the latter part of August the field manoeuvres commence. The artillery, after having gone through their target firing, are detailed to the infantry divisions, which unite for drilling by brigades first, and ultimately a day or two by division, just to keep the hands in for handling their commands, and several days follow, when one brigade of infantry, with cavalry and artillery, has its little campaign against the other, a campaign resembling a veritable one almost in every thing except the bullet. The troops bivouac, execute heavy marches—in short, everything is tried which may occur in war. For these occasions the reserves are called in their turn, and with the 1st of October the new year commences again.

Two army corps every year do these field manoeuvres on a larger scale, the King being present in person. Then the reserves, up to the number of 1000 per battalion, are called in for about four to six weeks, and the corps manoeuvre against each other. Of course there is some damage done to the fields, though the thing takes place after harvest; but a board composed of representatives of the county and of the government is on the spot to apprise and adjust damages to be paid for.

Just to show how the standard of efficiency is kept up, it may be permitted to narrate a little anecdote. In 1861 or '62 the great fall review took place on the Rhine, the Seventh and Eighth army corps against each other. General von Brinard, an old knight of the Iron Cross, and a distinguished officer, commanded his Eighth corps. One of the brigadiers conducted his brigade improperly, in a manner which in earnest would have led to its destruction. A French officer present—and the French officers always muster in considerable numbers on these occasions on the Rhine—remarked to General von B.: "Monsieur Dieu, Général, cette brigade-là est perdue!" "O non," replied the General, "ce n'est pas la brigade, c'est le général qui est perdu." Next morning the brigadier received the King's order retiring him from the service with his pension.

It is a great mistake to believe that officers and men of the Prussian army are idlers. The duties are very hard all the year round; the officers fulfil them as teachers of this great school, and the men are subjected to this sharp training for the purpose of getting them into the habit of enduring hard-

ship. A man who may have been accustomed to ten hours' hard work a day in the field will not always be able to undergo the hardships of a soldier. At his work he may rest whenever he pleases; on the march he must move on until the time of rest comes on for the whole. And much more, such is the case with mechanics and other men not at all accustomed to outdoor work. Having gone through all this, however, for three years, it is reasonable to expect that he can do it again if called upon during the next six years of his life, especially if he has had occasion to try it again once or twice during his stay in the reserve.

The small numbers of stragglers and sick in the Prussian army has been favorably remarked upon in 1866 by all the testimony we have, and there is no doubt it will be the same in 1870 as soon as an impartial and cool judgment shall be passed about it.

VIII.—STANDING PREPARATIONS FOR MOBILIZATION.

The first preparation is thirty million thalers in cash in the treasury. Such at least was the amount in 1866 collected and set aside by law, not to be touched except for paying the first expenses of war. This money is used in payment for the horses which are taken from the country, for the establishment of the great depots of provisions, and other immediate expenses. Thirty millions don't go very far nowadays, but they are sufficient until Parliament can find the ways and means. Not the calling in of the men is the main thing, but of the horses. I am unable to state what the number required is now; but anybody who knows what numbers of animals are needed for transportation can easily imagine the importance of the article in a country where no mules are raised. The number of horses fit for military service is registered by a yearly census; and every part of the army knows wherefrom they get their share. Mixed boards in each circle, as soon as the order is out, receive, examine, appraise, and assort them according to the schedule, and off they go. The additional trooper horses all come from Eastern Prussia, Mecklenburg, and Hanover, the provinces which raise the best stock. Railroads assist materially nowadays to accelerate this business. Horse trains are the first flying about. The artillery have the hardest task; they have to break in the additional horses during the few days before the start, and to utilize every moment of leisure when the first move by rail is made. If, therefore, the possibility of war arises, the purchase of the necessary artillery horses is the first step to be taken. In 1866 the artillery got their horses all ready in March, when the first difficulties arose with Austria. This year the war came upon Germany like a thief in the night, the artillery must have had much trouble, though to break horses for artillery service which have been at the plough is not so very difficult after all for men who are perfectly up to the business. There is no trouble about the horses for the train. Officers procure their increased number of mounts by private purchase, but receive assistance in money.

It need hardly be mentioned that the material of every description in every department is always ready. Clothing, accoutrements, arms for the field army and for the depot battalions, are in keeping of each battalion, which has its own war store. The colonel is responsible for their preservation. All regular issues in peace are made therefrom, being replaced at the same time. The amount of ammunition, carts, and first reserves in ammunition train (*Kriegschargirung*) is always ready at the nearest depot. The

stores for the Landwehr are in charge of the Landwehr battalion commander, and of a few men permanently detailed. The reserve of needle-guns is very great. No new musket is ever issued, except the arsenal has got 150 per cent. in reserve. Supposing the field army is to take the field with 300,000 infantry, 450,000 needle-guns are actually in reserve. Prussia has made no contracts for the fabrication of arms of any description since the outbreak of the present war, though the government armories have, of course, to a great extent stopped work on account of the workmen being in the field. Neither have any purchases of arms been made in foreign countries.

The easiest part of the business is to get the men. The order for each man is ready to the name and address and to the very signature of the Landwehr battalion commander, and nothing is to be inserted but the date when the man is to report. Official notice is given besides by the newspapers, to call the attention of temporary absentees. The orders are prearranged by districts and villages, so as to reduce the time of forwarding by rail, and messengers on horseback, to a minimum. All applications for getting excused are settled every year by the department recruiting board, previously mentioned. They are of various kinds: 1st. Persons whose services in their civil position are indispensable in the very moment of mobilization, such as locomotive engineers; 2nd. Persons disabled by chronic disease or accidents; 3rd. Persons who have become entitled to exemption under the law, as a farmer whose father has died and has left the son the only supporter of a family of younger children, etc. All these cases are acted upon from year to year by the board. At the moment of a mobilization no applications are entertained at all, except in very urgent cases arisen since the last session of the board; but their number is, by a regular routine of business, reduced to a minimum.

As the mobilization of the whole army at once can become necessary only in a case of war with Austria, Russia or France, the first movements have been fixed, once for all, for the concentration of army corps on the respective frontiers; and it need not be said that the plan for the transportation by rail to a certain extent is ready at the headquarters of the general staff, to the very time-tables of the great railroad lines.

(To be continued.)

THE FALL OF PARIS.

HISTORICAL COMPARISONS.

(From the London Daily Telegraph)

In history the campaign which is now closing will be known as the war of the great capitulations. Sedan, Metz and Paris have each in succession eclipsed the magnitude of all previous military surrenders, and stamped the conflict of 1870 with a character absolutely of its own. Pavia, Ulm, Baylen, the humiliating disasters which stand out most prominently on the page of the world's record, seem but trifling in comparison with the huge catastrophes that have "huddled on the back" of unfortunate France. It is singular that, when one endeavors to find any parallel or precedent for the events of the present campaign, it is in the annals of France herself, of the military nation *par excellence*, that the search is easiest and most successful. Saint Louis, King John, and King Francis were all French Monarchs; so was Napoleon the First, whose double surrender to the allies, though not so strikingly

dramatic in mode, was altogether as real and effective as that of his nephew at Sedan. Again at Pavia and at Baylen it was French armies and French commanders that gave up their swords; the Convention of Cintra mistaken and absurdly lenient though it was, involved the practical submission of a whole French army to the victors of Nimera, and if the capitulation of Ulm stood, until the capitulation of Sedan, unrivalled in magnitude and thoroughness it was only one brilliant exception to the strange rule that condemns the French to set against the memory of their splendid military triumphs a roll of military disaster unparalleled in the experience of any other people. The 25,000 men whom Mack surrendered in October 1805—even the 80,000 men who composed the army that Napoleon then broke up in the Valley of the Danube—are hardly a patch upon the enormous masses of soldiery which, in this marvellous campaign, we have seen delivering themselves up captives to the inexorably skilful and fortunate invader. The 90,000 of Sedan, the 173,000 of Metz, the 17,000 of Strasbourg, the 14,000 of Orleans, the 22,000 of Le Mans, the almost innumerable thousands of defeated and dejected men who have been marched into captivity through the forced gates of Thionville, Verdun, and a score of other fortresses what are all these in relation to the tremendous surrender which is to-day in progress under our eyes? The capitulation of Paris is not the yielding of a fortress, not the submission of a garrison; it is the surrender of a nation. It would be difficult to discover, even in the chronicles of this unprecedented strife, clearer proof of the

ABSOLUTE MILITARY SUPREMACY

of the Germans than afforded by the facts and figures which relate to the surrender of Paris. The investing army which receives the submission of the huge garrison is even at this moment, after all the reinforcements from Germany, not half so numerous as the force that submits. The Prussian Guard, the Fourth, Fifth, Sixth, Eleventh, and Twelfth North German Corps, the two Bavarian Corps of Von der Tann and Hartmann, and the division of Wurttembergers which holds the ground on the south-east of Paris, do not at highest calculation number more than 210,000 or 220,000 men. The Landwehr Divisions and other, so to speak, accidental forces that help to complete the circle of investment may perhaps raise the total to 250,000. But look for a moment at the conditions under which this force has had, during four weary winter months, to do its work. The front which the Germans have been compelled to show to the enemy has, even when the investment was closest, never been of smaller extent than some fifty miles. Within the circle, at the very heart of it, and able to move at will as one man in one mass to any point of the circumference, lay an army of 520,000 men—more than twice as strong as the beleaguering troops at the highest computation of their numbers. Again and again has the huge host within striven with lavish sacrifice of blood, to break through the bonds which, stretched around them so finely, yet held them in so firmly. Circular railway, "strategical" routes inside the ramparts, all the facilities of the interior lines and rapid communication, have availed nothing against the stern purpose and untiring vigilance of the besiegers. In unwearied patience and stolid self-devotion, with a watchfulness and fortitude which it would be hard to match even from the annals of Spartan trials and triumphs, have the Germans maintained their investment. Eye has never failed,

nerve never flinched, hand never faltered. The quarter of a million have utterly "cribbed, cabined and confined" the two millions and a half. Five hundred thousand armed, drilled, and honestly patriotic Frenchmen—not by any means all Paris, or open to the cruel censure that has been so liberally dealt out to the battalions of grocers—have over and over again striven hard to make a *trouee* in the hostile cordon to find

A CRINK IN THE GERMAN ARMOUR.

Patriotic ferrency, love of home and fame and honor; the cause that they were acting before the eyes in which they most desired to bear themselves well, and fighting literally *pro aris et focis*—all these sources of inspiration have been impotent to aid the garrison of Paris in breaking out. They were two to one in absolute number, ten to one by dint of their power of throwing themselves in a mass on a single point in the long thin line of the German investment. But their impact, when they did attempt to make a gap in the besieging line, was as the smiting of a leaden sword against a weapon of proof. Again and again the dull blow was dealt; again and again came the instantaneous and shivering parry, until the besieged became hopeless and helpless; and their last disastrous sortie proved that they had completely lost faith in themselves. So by the unbending purpose, the constant watchfulness, and the unswerving energy of 200,000 Germans, 500,000 French soldiers have been driven to the last sad and humiliating confession of utter defeat. The old practice was to compute the ratio of the besieging to the besieged forces as the ratio of the circle to its own diameter. But "Messieurs les Allemands" have changed all that; they have shown how a siege may be conducted to a triumphant issue by an army less than one-half the strength of the garrison. By the fall of Paris the campaign practically closes; and nothing in its whole course was so consistent in its character as this ending. Utter collapse, absolute defeat, uninterrupted disaster—such have been for the French the monotonous features and fortunes of the war. We have heard of the practice of wood-cutters in the vast forests of North America, who make such an incision in the bark of many trees on one continuous line, that when a slight push is given to the farthest it falls on its fellow, and the whole rank goes down "by the run." It has been exactly so with the French armies in this campaign. At Weissemburg, at Woerth, at Thionville, at Gravelotte, at Sedan, at Orleans, at Vendome, at Belfort—steadily and continually the

FATAL IMPETUS ONCE GIVEN

on the frontier has sent to the ground, in hopeless disaster and irretrievable confusion the armies of France. Imperialist or Republican, Guardsmen or Mobiles; men impelled by NAPOLEON, or inspired by GARIBOLDI—all alike have crashed into utter ruin before the steady and resolute course of the Germans. We do not now stay to ask what would have been the case if, as one time seemed not quite improbable, the first push had been given by the hand of France. Disaster, in war, is contagious and self-reproductive. Had Starbruck been Weissemburg, or had MACMAHON undone the deadly mischief which the vehement but careless DOUAY expiated with his life, who could tell that the end of the campaign, if it had even now come, might not have been very different? Meanwhile, we can only grieve with the accomplished facts. France lies absolutely powerless under the heel of the Germans. Neither Marengo nor Jena,

nor Austerlitz, nor Brodino—no battle of history, no sudden disaster befalling a military nation—ever so sorely smote the pride of a people as this capitulation of Paris, closing, as it does, an almost unbroken series of defeats. But the fact that is Franco which has now fought and lost forbids us to imagine that the end is yet. If the Beresina, and Leipsig, and Waterloo are French memories, so also are Friedland, Jena and Wagram. A nation which is perpetually at strife—which accepts combat as the first law of being—must have its ups and downs, its chances and mischances. It would be simply absurd to imagine that Franco biffed and prostrated to-day, will not fight for a hundred years to come. A great people, proud, quick and sensitive, jealous of its memories, and ambitious for its future, cannot rest in such a way for such a time. If the German Emperor persevere in the terms of peace which have been foreshadowed in the policy of merciless annexation, France will fight again and that ere the present generation has ceased to feel the spur of its terrible defeat.

ON BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

An able paper was read the other day at the Russell institution by Captain Duncan, R. A. "On Canada or British North America. The views advocated were mainly that Canada, with its area of three millions of square miles and its population of four millions, is the most important colony of the empire, and likely to become the highway to the east, on the completion of the new and projected line of railway to British Columbia, in lieu of the present route by the Grand Trunk so exposed to hostile attack; that the severance of the colonies would be fatal to the interests of the British Empire and that Canada is all important, in view of any misunderstanding with the United States and should therefore be aided and protected to the uttermost by the mother country, as an essential foothold on the American continent in the event of war. The mode proposed for her defence would be by fortifying the chief towns, and maintaining efficient gun-boats on the St. Lawrence and the lakes the country keeping on foot the establishment necessary for a contingent of 200,000 fighting men. Military colonisation to be the basis of such a population; Government sending out discharged soldiers, with good conduct certificates and the Dominion making free grants of land on conclusion of their cultivating and residing on the same with liability to service in defence of the country. Encouragement should be held out to retired officers to settle and take commands and free passages and land grants made as rewards to soldiers after a certain term of service, thus affording such inducements to enlistment at home as would supersede the recruiting sergeant, and remove all fears for our army at home now so rife.—*European Mail.*

The Suez Canal promises to turn out a remunerative investment. The revenue receipts from tolls for the month of December amounted to \$160,000, or at the rate of two million yearly, an income representing an expenditure of forty millions of dollars. The ship owners of Great Britain patronize the Suez route more than any other nation in consequence of their large trade with China and India. The steamship "Rolo" recently made the passage from Gravesend to Calcutta within thirty-five days, making use of the Suez Canal route. The work of deepening the canal proceeds vigorously, and no detention occurs during the passage of the largest craft.

A MILITARY correspondent of the London Times says: "I have made a great many enquiries about the wounds inflicted by different weapons and I find that the evidence is on the whole to the effect a chassepot inflicts a more dangerous wound than the needle-gun and is a more effective weapon in every respect. A thoughtless inquirer may find surgeons who will assert the contrary, because the chassepot bullet at a long range is perhaps less destructive than the needle-gun at a short one. The orifice made by the French bullet is small, and if no bone has been touched, is apt to heal over quickly; but the canal made through the flesh in flames, suppurates and causes dangerous swelling and internal evil. So thoroughly is this now understood that some of the best surgeons recommend immediate enlargement of the orifice. Now and then a case occurs, though very rarely of a chassepot bullet passing through a bone without shattering it. There is a case here at this moment of a soldier whose tibia was penetrated in this manner. The bullet retained its form with the exception of a little derangement of its point. Generally speaking—and I have examined a large collection of bullets which have done their work—the missile flattens out and splinters the bone just in proportion to its force in striking. The chassepot bullet is lighter than that of the needle-gun, but its velocity at any given distance is far greater. The new Bavarian rifle, the Werder, is better than either the chassepot or the needle-gun; but as yet only the picket troops are armed with it. I am inclined to think its action as a breech-loader even quicker than that of the Martini. It is a small bore, and the barrel has, of course, a sharply-twisted rifling. The Prussians are in love with it, and the best proof of its popularity is that very few examples are ever left on the field of battle, because every dead man's rifle is seized by a living comrade, who leaves his own in exchange for it. Before this campaign the Prussians endeavored to induce Bavarians to adopt the needle-gun. It is now probable that the Prussian army will adopt the Bavarian weapon."

The German troops, according to a Berlin paper, now occupy, not partially but completely thirty two of the eighty six French Departments comprising 15,000 communes. They exercise in these all civil and military powers, control the post telegraphs and railways and regularly collect the taxes.

A Western editor, on entering his office and seeing his apprentice boy cutting some queer capers, called out to him, "Jim, what are you doing on the floor?" "Why sir I have had a shock." "A shock?" "Yes sir." "What kind of a shock?" "Why sir," said the lad gasping, "one of your subscribers came in during your absence—said he owed for two years subscription—paid for it—and also paid another year in advance."

"YOUNG ARTUOR."—Yes, Agossiz does recommend authors to eat fish, because the phosphorous in it makes brains. So far you are correct. But I cannot help you to a decision about the amount you need to eat—at least not with certainty. If the specimen composition you sent is about your fair usual average I should judge that a couple of whales would be all that you want for the present. Not the largest kind, but simply good middling sized whales.—*Mark Twain in the Galaxy.*

NARRATIVE OF THE RED RIVER EXPEDITION.—PART II.

BY AN OFFICER OF THE EXPEDITIONARY FORCE

(From *Blackwood for June*.)

[CONTINUED.]

The wind had died away completely, leaving the surface of the lake calm as a mirror, wherein was reflected only the mist of the approaching evening. There was no hum of birds or insects from the woods which fringed its shores, no swallows rippled its smoothness in their hunt after an evening meal. Except at this little spot, where we wore all bustle and excitement, the scene had the stillness of death about it, which in the distance seemed all the more deathlike from the contrast between it and the noise immediately around us. This absence of animal or even insect life in the North American woods is one of their most striking characteristics.

It was a pretty sight to see this little flotilla of boats row off over the lake, whilst it still glowed with the golden tinges of the sun's last rays. It called to mind many an account read in early youth of very similar scenes when freebooting Norsemen weighed anchor and shook out their sails in some secluded inlet bent upon adventure. Except that we had rifled guns and cannon, our equipment and our arrangements for overcoming the obstacles of nature were of a most primitive description. It seemed curious that a military expedition should be fitted out in such an advanced era of civilization, in an age so justly celebrated for its inventions and its progress in those arts and sciences which now enter so largely into the organization of armies, and yet that it should not be possible to enlist into its services the aid either of steam or of the electric telegraph. The sail and the oar were to be our means of propulsion, as they had been those of the Greeks and Romans in classic times; and when we arrived at the end of our 600 miles' journey, we should have as much difficulty and as far to send in order to communicate with even the nearest telegraph office, as Cæsar had when he sent a messenger to Rome announcing his successful descent upon our shores more than 1,900 years ago.

All sorts of melancholy prophecies had been published in the papers as to the dangers we should have to encounter. We were to be devoured by mosquitoes and other flies. It was said the Indians themselves could not live in the woods during July; others who knew the country declared that the heat was then so stifling that the most acclimatized hunters had to forsake them, and seek for air and breath along the shores of Lake Superior. Many asserted that the Indians would never permit us to pass through their country without enforcing the payment of a large subsidy; whilst many laughed at the notion of ever attempting to make the journey to Fort Garry in anything except bark canoes manned by Indians. When told of the description of boats we were taking with us, some pitied us as poor deluded people totally ignorant of what was before us; whilst all these wise-aces seemed to consider us as men whom the gods having doomed to destruction had first hexed.

Sensible men who had but recently returned *via* the United States from Manitoba said that our force ought at least to be three times stronger than it was; that Riel was on the lookout for our advance, and intended to defend step by step and mile by mile

the difficult country we should have to pass through, whereas a few good huntsmen, accustomed to the woods could annihilate an army; in fact, that General Braddock's fate was in store for us, &c., &c. Never did any expedition have more lugubrious prophecies made concerning it.

From time to time the soldiers were, however, encouraged by intelligence received from Red River announcing Riel's determination to show fight. The work on the Kaministiquia River had been so severe, and that of road making—always distasteful to soldiers—so very wearisome, that all looked forward to the embarkation at Shobandowan Lake as a relief from toil, or at least regarded it as a new phase in the undertaking whose novelty alone would compensate for any drawbacks attendant upon it. From the 1st June, to the 16th July (when the first detachment started) it had rained upon twenty-three days. Fine weather always cheers men up when in the field; and as the embarkation took place on a lovely day, this fact added to the novelty of the operation, raised our animal spirits, even the few of a desponding temperament, who for some time before had never ceased repeating that a start was out of the question "for a long time"—even these men were seen to smile with gratification as the boats pushed off from shore, the men cheering for "Fort Garry."

No men ever began an undertaking, notwithstanding the evil forebodings of croakers with lighter hearts; every man seemed as if he was embarking at Richmond for a pleasure trip on the river; and all, the private just as much as the officer, appeared to take a real earnest interest in their work. They were pictures of good health and soldier-like condition. Whilst stationed at Prince Arthur's Landing, and the other larger camps, the men had fresh meat, bread, and potatoes every day. No spirits were allowed throughout the journey to Fort Garry, but all ranks had daily a large ration of tea. This was one of the very few military expeditions ever undertaken by English troops where intoxicating liquor formed no part of the daily ration. It was an experiment based upon the practice common in Canada, where the lumbermen, who spend the whole winter in the backwoods, employed upon the hardest labour, and exposed to a freezing temperature, are allowed no spirits, but have an unlimited quantity of tea. Our old-fashioned generals accept, without any attempt to question its truth, the traditional theory of rum being essential to keep British soldiers in health and humour. Let us hope that the experience we have acquired during the Red River Expedition may have buried forever this old foggy superstition. Never have the soldiers of any nation been called upon to perform more unceasingly hard work; and it may be confidently asserted, without dread of contradiction, that no men have ever been more cheerful or better behaved in every respect. No spirit-ration means no crime; and even the doctors, who anticipated serious illness from the absence of liquor, will allow that no troops have ever been healthier than we were from the beginning to the end of the operation. With the exception of slight cases of diarrhoea, arising from change of diet, it may be said that sickness was unknown amongst us.

The same busy scene was repeated daily up to the 2nd August when the last detachment started. The weather had improved greatly, and remained good until nearly the end of August, when it again turned to rain. The expeditionary force from front to rear, covered the route for 150 miles; but as ar-

rangements had been made for communicating and sending messages either backwards or forwards, and as the officer commanding the whole force travelled about in a bark canoe well manned by Indians, going from one detachment to another as he considered necessary, all were well in hand, and under his control for concentration at any time should circumstances have required it. The officer commanding each brigade had been furnished with a map of the route, which, although far from accurate gave a sufficiently detailed delineation of the country to enable them to steer their course by compass across the large lakes. We had been promised an ample supply of guides but only very few were forthcoming when required.

The officer representing the Canadian Government with us, whose duty it was to have furnished them, found at the last moment that the Indians he had depended upon to act in this capacity held back and refused the "job" upon all sorts of excuses. As described in the previous article, the priesthood of Canada being much opposed to this expedition, had preached it down everywhere; and there can be little doubt that priestly influence was brought to bear upon the Christian Indians settled near Fort William, to prevent them from acting as our guides. These Indians are partially civilized, many of them speak French, and a considerable proportion can write their own language in a character which has been invented especially for them. They live in houses clustered together on both banks of the Kaministiquia, a few miles above where it falls into Lake Superior. The village, for such it may be called, is known as the "Mission," from the Jesuit establishment there. They cultivate small patches of ground; but their chief means of obtaining a livelihood is by hunting and fishing, and by working for the Hudson Bay Company as voyageurs on the inland rivers, transporting goods from one post to the other. This expedition to Red River would have been a godsend to them if they had not been tampered with, as it would have afforded them lucrative employment. They know every river, lake and portage in the country as far as Fort Francis; and in previous years, when exploring and surveying parties had been at work in their country, they had done good service in a most willing and cheerful manner.

They are a simple-minded but very superstitious race, easily ruled by the Jesuit Father, who has spent his life amongst them doing good. Rumour was busy at this village frightening them with stories of Riel's determination to fight, and of the great numbers of armed men at his back. These Christian Chippewas have an extraordinary dread of war—so much so, that when we had reached Fort Francis, the few who did accompany us so far became terror-stricken by the warlike reports that Riel's emissaries had spread amongst the Indians in that district, and positively refused to go any further. When a little coercion was tried by telling them that we could not afford to give them any provisions to take them back to their homes unless they kept with us, they bewailed their fate, many of them with tears, saying they would risk anything sooner than go on where there was to be fighting—their determination was not to be shaken by any arguments or promises. The warlike characteristics for which the North American Indian was so celebrated, if they are faithfully described in "Hiawatha" and Cooper's novels, have disappeared even from the once celebrated tribe of Iroquois. Of this latter race we had a considerable number as voyageurs, a large proportion of whom were most anxious to turn back from Fort Francis when they heard

the startling accounts of the number of Riel's followers, and of his determination to fight. Their minds were only to be quieted by assuring them of the falseness of these rumors.

Shebandowan Lake, about 20 miles long and a few wide, running in a W. by N. direction, has no striking features to distinguish it from thousands of other lakes in Canada. It has about the same proportion of islands, and the same cliffless shore, common to nearly all of them. As it is almost at the summit level forming the watershed between the basins of the St. Lawrence and the rivers which flow into Hudson Bay, no mountains about upon it, although there are some hills in the distance. The north side had been burnt over for miles inland, where blackened trunks stood up against the sky-line as one viewed the shore from the boats. For miles raspberry-bushes had taken the place of the destroyed forest, the fruit of which supplied a good supper to the several detachments that had to spend the evening there. The southern side is thickly wooded with very poor timber, poplar being the prevailing tree; indeed, there is so much rock and so little soil everywhere in this vicinity, that it is only wonderful how anything can grow. A portage of about three-quarters of a mile took us into another lake about 8 miles long, our course over which was due north; Lac de Mille Lacs was reached from it by a portage of over a mile in length. The latter is a curiously-shaped and straggling expanse of water, in which there are islands without number, many being of sufficient size to have great bays stretching for miles into them. One island so closely resembles another, that it is wonderful how any of us found our way over the 20 miles to be travelled before we reached the next portage. Even the brigade furnished with the most experienced guides strayed sometimes for hours out of their course. Steering solely by the compass took one repeatedly into these large bays; and nothing is more disheartening than finding one's self in a *cul de sac* after a pull for many miles up one of these bays, and having to row back again to search for another passage. Immediately as we passed out of this lake we had the stream with us all the rest of our voyage.

Having steered for about the first 5 miles over this lake a N. W. course, the general direction for more than 100 miles is S. W.: a slight detour is then made to the south, and the rest of the journey as far as Fort Francis is in a N. W. direction.

We shall not weary the reader with descriptions of the many lakes and rivers and dreary portages passed over during the journey, but in order to give a general idea of the country, we shall divide it into three sections: the first, between Shebandowan and Fort Francis; the second, from thence to Fort Alexander; and the third, from that place to Fort Garry, the objective point of the Expedition.

The first section is a dreary region, unfit, from its sterile barrenness, for man's habitation. Rock, water, and stunted trees everywhere. When it was necessary to pitch tents, we seldom found enough soil for the pegs to support them, and were forced to use large stones instead. The surface is covered with moss which in some places was so thick that, with a blanket rolled round one, our bivouac had all the softness of a luxurious spring bed. The blue berry bushes were in full fruit as we went along, affording us many a good meal; and enabling us to vary the usual *menu* of salt pork and biscuit. We met numerous families of Indians, who thronged round our boats begging for provisions. They were an intolerable nuisance, and so very dirty that their presence gives one a

sort of creeping sensation. It was curious to see them arrive at a portage, a family travelling generally in two or three canoes. The lord and master would step ashore, pull his canoe up, and shouldering his gun, would stalk off to the other side, leaving his wife or wives, as the case might be, and perhaps his mother, to carry over the canoes and all their worldly goods.

We were once pointed out an old woman who some years ago had supported life, when in a starving condition, by eating human flesh—by no means an extraordinary or unusual occurrence amongst those people when in such straits. She was certainly a most loathsome creature to look at; her face was so deeply wrinkled, and the wrinkles so full of dirt, that she seemed as if tattooed.

We generally spared these poor creatures a little from our ration; whatever we gave them was put into a pot, in which was boiled together pork, flour, blueberries, fish, biscuit, &c., &c. No two things could be too incongruous to be boiled at the same time. They never roast, grill, or stew, boiling being their sole idea of the culinary art. They were very fond of the water in which the pork was boiled, drinking it freely, as if it was some delicious beverage. They generally carried in their canoes a fish skin bottle filled with sturgeon oil, of which they took copious draughts at times. The women wear their hair in one long plait hanging down behind, the men in two, very often joined at the ends. So very beardless are the men, that when one meets a canoe with Indians sitting in it, there might often be difficulty in distinguishing the sexes, if it were not for this variety in the number of plaits with which they are *coiffes*. The women always wear leggings from the knees to the ankle, with a petticoat reaching to the calf of the leg; an open cloth jacket, with a sort of a bodice supported by braces over the shoulders, completes their costume. The men were generally clothed in woollen garments, mostly of quaint, old-fashioned patterns, purchased at the Hudson Bay posts. Having become accustomed to the coats made in the style common here a hundred years ago, the Indians will not purchase those of any other pattern: so that the Company, who have their tailoring done in London, have to get the clothes they require for exportation made accordingly. Unlike their squaws, they almost always wear some sort of shirt; and although they are frequently without trousers, they never from earliest boyhood, go without a breech-cloth. They seldom or never build a hut of even the roughest description, living, as their ancestors have done for centuries, in wigwams made with birch bark stretched over poles driven into the ground in a circle and all meeting at the top. An aperture is left to serve as a chimney, for they light a fire and cook within during cold weather. The space left as a door is closed by a curtain. Altogether it is a cold residence in a climate where the Fahrenheit thermometer ranges for months from zero to many degrees below it.

During the whole of our journey to Fort Francis we seldom had a favorable wind. Although this added greatly to our labor at the oar, still it blew us fine weather. Easterly winds in these regions bring the evaporations from the great lakes, which break into heavy showers of rain against the hills forming the height of land. Most of the rain we had fell at night; and if we occasionally had a wet bivouac, wood was plentiful, and we were able to dry ourselves easily before large fires. Now and then we got a slant of wind, and when the weather was fine there were ample materials for the artist's

brush, the white sails standing out so well against the dark green foliage common to every island and shore throughout the route.

(To be continued.)

HOW TO CURE DRUNKENNESS.

It is generally understood that young persons when first employed as pastry cooks are permitted to surfeit themselves to their hearts content on pies and sweetmeats, the result being that in a very short time they become perfectly callous to the charms of the counter. We learn from a valuable little book recently published in London, called "The Home Nurse," that in the Austrian army a similar principle is adopted as a remedy for drunkenness, and medical reports state that out of one hundred and thirty nine cases one hundred and twenty-eight cures of confirmed drunkards have been effected. The plan is as follows:

The soldier taken in a state of intoxication or purposely inebriated, is confined to his room where his diet is carefully and amply supplied to him, according to his choice. For his drink he is allowed brandy and water in the proportion of one-third brandy and two-thirds water. Coffee with a small quantity of brandy is also allowed him. At first the treatment throws the patient into a constant state of intoxication and he sleeps much. At the end of three or four days he takes a dislike to his food and drink and asks for a change, which request were it acceded to, would entirely prevent the completion of the cure. On the contrary it must now be persevered in until the patient can no longer swallow food or drink, and even the smell revolts and nauseates the stomach when the cure may be considered as effected. The shortest time for the continuance of the treatment is seven days, the longest nine. In order to prevent the congestion which might ensue the patient must now be given gentle emetics; that is, one grain of emetic in a bottle of water: a wine glassful to be taken every quarter of an hour in the morning fasting. This is followed by forty grains of magnesia daily, given in broth or gruel, placing the patient at first on a low, light diet, and then gradually increasing to his original rations. If during the first part of the treatment spitting of blood or convulsions should result, it must not be persevered in; therefore this mode of remedy cannot, on any pretence whatever, be adopted but by a medical man. In Russia drunkenness is also treated as a disease, and certain strong aromatic preparations are used as curative means. As a temporary remedy to restore the unfortunate victim to a state of sobriety, give him from ten to twelve drops of spirits of ammonia in a wine glass of water. This will be sufficient in a common case, but if the person be positively drunk it may be necessary to give him this dose a second time, in which case it will generally act as an emetic (an advantage), when a short sleep will ensue, and the patient will awake restored. None but a medical man may venture to apply the ammonia to the nostrils, as not only injurious but fatal effects may ensue.

In reply to a young writer who wishes to know "which magazine will give the highest position quickest," a contemporary advises, "a powder magazine if you contribute an article."

A minister asked his followers to hang up against a fence where he expected to go to when he died. "If I can't get along any better than I do now," he said, "I shant go anywhere."

In another column will be found a legal opinion of the utmost importance on the Fishery question; it was given thirty years ago, within less than a quarter of a century of the date on which the Treaty in dispute was negotiated, and when the parties actively engaged therein were living. The opinions given are incontrovertible and lest there should be any doubt about the Yankee interpretation of the Maritime law and rights the following cut from the *Ottawa Times* of the 4th inst., shows directly how those rights are understood:

"We alluded in yesterday's *Times* to the seizure of a Nova Scotian schooner by the American authorities in Boston harbour, because some of the crew had caught three lobsters for their breakfast! The *Yarmouth (N.S.) Herald* very pertinently says in reference to this matter:

"The souls of several of our Nova Scotia journalists, of the *Chronicle* and *Free Press* stripe, have been terribly exercised by the seizure and confiscation of the American schooner *Wampatuck* found fishing within the three mile limit, with seven freshly caught cod fish lying on her deck—and great stress has been laid on the assured fact that the fish were merely caught by the cook for breakfast, and not in prosecution of regular fishing operations. We are curious to know what these high toned gentlemen will say to this illustration of the way in which Americans themselves deal with foreigners found trespassing (even constructively) on their own fishing privileges."

This question of Fishery rights is of vital importance to us and must not be allowed to become a subject of negotiation in any way but one and that is the admission of Colonial fish to United States markets as freely as fish caught by their own people. The abrogation of their coasting laws and the free navigation of their internal waters. Arbitration by cheating Canada out of two thirds of the State of Maine placed her commerce at the mercy of the Yankees and necessitated the bonding system. We have nearly emancipated ourselves from the consequences of this stupendous blunder, and, with all due deference to English statesmen, we do not wish to see it repeated.

ONTARIO VOLUNTEER ITEMS.

The drill shed at Dundas is in want of repairs; the roof not being considered safe.

The company of the 40th Battalion stationed at Colborne, under the command of Captain Vars, is composed of a fine body of young men, selected by the officer in question, and are considered to be well up in the new drill system.

The general feeling amongst the Volunteer Cavalry officers, and particularly those in country quarters is, that the force should be drilled and equipped as mounted Rifles; the expense of the present Hussar uniform for an officer is far too great, and prevents many men from joining the Cavalry who would otherwise do so. Blank ammunition is much required for the Spencer carbine, to accustom the horses to stand fire.

The bands of the different Battalions throughout Ontario are very efficient; their uniform is neat, and many of the Battalions have bandmasters who have served in the bands of Her Majesty's Regular Army.

The Guelph Garrison Artillery is attached to No. 1 Company of the 30th Battalion V.M., and has been recommended to be formed into a Field Battery under the command of Lieutenant Macdonald, an active and efficient officer and well posted in artillery practice.

All ranks are in favor of the Annual Brigade Camps, but consider that pay should be allowed when a Sunday intervenes. Waterproof sheets would be a great comfort when on service or in camp.

The Volunteer Cavalry would have been glad if Riding Schools could have been got up in some of the principal localities. Horses could have been furnished by the officers and men, and under competent instructors would doubtless have made good progress. A riding school is as necessary for a cavalryman as the schools for the Artillery and Infantry.—COMMUNICATED.

NEWS OF THE WEEK.

The preliminary terms of peace between Prussia and France were signed at Versailles on the 24th February, and only await the ratification of the French Legislature which were agreed to on a division of 546 ayes, against 107 nays. The terms are sufficiently hard, the cession of Alsace and part of Lorraine, the retention of Metz and a war indemnity of \$100,000,000 are the modest demands of the Chancellor of the resuscitated German Empire, coupled with the humiliating conditions of the occupation of Sedan and other portions of French territory till the indemnity is paid and the triumphal entry of the Prussian army into Paris. The question now naturally arises as to what next? Will this treaty bring peace? It may for a very brief period, but the instant France finds a master she will at once brace her joints for the combat—the defeat of 1870 will be avenged sooner or later.

The Germans have nearly concluded their preparations for the triumphal entry of Paris, but the final orders have not been given, and there is yet hope, though very slight, that the pageant upon which the Emperor seems to have set his heart, may not take place. The Parisians are getting intensely excited at the prospect of the humiliation, and there is every probability that they will not accept the advice of those who, like the forty editors, urge calmness under the trial, but will turn upon those who needlessly trample on their already wounded feelings. The mobs of the suburbs have been committing frightful atrocities, having murdered several policemen; but the authorities seem powerless to quell the rioting that may result in still more terrible scenes than those which have been enacted. The National Guards appear lukewarm upholders of law and order, and

it is reported that a great body of them marched to the Champ Elysees, where they encamped with the intention of fighting the Germans. The actual glimmer of Prussian bayonets might cause them to adopt the old notion that prudence is the better part of valour; but should there be a contest with the guards, or with the mob, the blood thus shed will forever tarnish the glory of the German conquest, and stain the splendour of the German triumph.

It is stated that the negotiations respecting the proposed entry of Paris occupied the attention of Bismarck and Thiers for a longer time than the discussion of the war indemnity and the cession of French territory. The aged President endeavoured in vain to persuade the Chancellor to obtain the relinquishment of the Emperor's design to gratify his pride of conquest; but he was compelled to remain satisfied with Belfort, Nancy and Luneville.

The Rothschilds have offered, it is stated, to pay the entire war indemnity in a year, so as to get rid of the German army of occupation. This army is to be under command of Prince Frederick Charles, with his headquarters at Rheims.

The following correspondence has passed between the Emperor of Germany and the Czar Alexander:—The Emperor in his letter to the Czar, after stating the terms upon which peace has been concluded, says—"We have arrived at the end of a glorious and bloody war, which was provoked by the frivolity of the French. Prussia remembers that you prevented the spread of war. God bless you." The Czar replied that he shared the joy which was felt by his illustrious brother and hoped for durable peace. He had proved a devoted friend. The happiness and glory of Russia and Prussia were now insured.

The *Evening Times*' special from Versailles gives the following particulars of the treaty of peace signed on Sunday:—"The fortified cities of Luneville, Nancy and Belfort are left to France. Longwy, Thionville, Metz, Saarbruck and the Iron districts will go to Germany."

The *Etoile Belge* says the call to arms was sounded in Paris on Sunday night. A body of Nationals and regulars went to the Avenue des Ternes to oppose the entry of the Prussians, should the latter insist on entering the city. Painful scenes are expected.

The *Times*' Versailles special correspondent telegraphs that the armistice has been prolonged to the 12th March. No requisitions will be made by troops entering Paris who will be quartered in public buildings. If the armistice is to be broken off, three days' notice will be required.

Emperor William will merely pass through Paris, and his new possessions en route to Berlin.

In the Rue de la Capelle, on Tuesday, three cannon were dragged into position by women and a number of boys in the Boulevard Beau-

harnois dragged two howitzers round a column. The National Guards have obtained from various quarters 108 cannon, 12 mitrailleurs, and 4 howitzers. The Government proclamation was read by the people with great indignation. They declare they will resist the enemy with cannon and rifles, which they obtained during the night.

The Assembly enthusiastically voted by acclamation the resolution offered by M. Targe, decreeing the fall of the empire, and stigmatised Napoleon as the author of the misfortunes of France.

At a banquet at Versailles on the 27th, the Emperor showed his preliminaries of the treaty of peace, signed an hour before, and accepted the felicitations of the august personages present. The Emperor embraced Von Moltke and von Roon, and expressed deep gratitude for the services of these officers. It is the intention of his Majesty to witness the entry of the 11th corps at the *enceinte* on Wednesday morning. The reasons for his doing this are obvious to all who are acquainted with the state of public feeling in Paris and vicinity. The 11th corps will have the honor of being the first Prussian force that will occupy the capital. At ten o'clock precisely they will enter with colors flying and bands playing in full war strength, 35,000 men, with 96 field guns. At the end of three days they will be relieved by another corps, probably the Guards. The process of relief will probably involve the presence of 10,000 Germans within the *enceinte* at one time. Each corps will remain three days, and be succeeded by another, until all have had a turn. The whole period of occupation has not been decided on. The Prussians seem to suppose the occupation will last only a few days. This is not unlikely, but may prove a delicate hope, for the occupation may last many months, which is not improbable from indications at present. There is reason to believe that it is the intention of the French Government to disband the whole Imperial army immediately they are released from captivity in Germany, and organize a new and gigantic system of national defence. The old army will be swept away immediately, and a prolonged occupation of Paris by the German garrison may be an actual necessity of these wholesale measures for the regeneration of France. The first instalment of indemnity will be £20,000,000, and the payment of a second alike amount. The evacuation of the Seine Inferieur will immediately take place. A treaty of commerce between France and Prussia on terms accorded most favorable to both nations is one of the stipulations of the treaty of peace.]

The Germans entered Paris on Wednesday the 1st inst. and marched through the city, and in some cases on entering the city were mobbed and narrowly escaped injury, although nothing of a serious nature occurred. A crowd pointed to the Arc and said "Wait till we enter Berlin." The Germans took

no notice of the insult. At 11-15 a.m. the head of the German troops advanced up the Grand Avenue; after the dragoons came Bismarck, the Dukes of Saxe Cobourg, and Wurtemberg, Leopold of Bavaria, General Adolbrecht, and Prince Charles of Prussia. Then the Prussian Infantry passed under the Arc de Triomphe. They were received by the crowd with whistling screams and derisive shouts. A squadron of hussars came next. Bismarck did not enter the Arc de Triomphe but turned round and made back to Neuilly. The grandest part of the military spectacle was the march along the Champ Elysses, with bayonets and helmets glittering in the sun, and the flags, torn by battle, floating on the breeze. A crowd of men and boys blocking the way were dispersed by the Uhlans. The Uhlans and Bavarians are especially hated. The troops looked splendid and surprised the French, who owned they could not beat them. General Kamaka commands the army of occupation. A Prussian military commission has been appointed to receive the complaints of inhabitants who have deserted occupied quarters of the city. The public buildings have also been deserted and closed.

A correspondent has just returned from Paris, who gives the following account of the Emperor's review of the German troops at Long Champs: Exactly at half past ten o'clock the Emperor drove up to the back of the grand stand in a low open carriage, attended by dragoons and the great officers of his household. Alighting on the steps of the grand entrance he took a horse and cantered across the field towards the general staff, which had followed along the line. As the Emperor appeared the bands played "Heil Dieu," and all the troops saluted him. The Emperor looked exceedingly well, and rode dashing despite his lingering indisposition. As he rode down the front of the line flags were drooped, and the men gave three ringing cheers. The Emperor kept his hand on his helmet and smiled upon the soldiers. Passing Bismarck he waived his hand in a friendly manner twice. Having passed up and down the lines, the Emperor galloped across the field to a point 200 yards to the right of the grand stand facing the troops, where he took up a position in front of the Crown Prince, sitting erect upon his horse, and surveying the troops for a moment with deep emotion. The order was given to march, the bands struck up, and with a splendid step 30,000 men marched past in so perfect a manner that each battalion presented a profile as only one man. It is said the Emperor left for Germany on Saturday.

We overheard two negroes the other day, arguing about the creation of the world, when one said: "De world rested on a turtle's back—de bible sez so. Is dat so? What does it say the turtle rested on?" "Hush yor mouf, big niggah, you jis gone and broke up the argument."

PRESENTATION TO LT. COL. GRANT.

A meeting of the 5th Royals and their friends was last night held in the Mechanics Hall, Col. Roath presiding. The meeting was for the purpose of making a presentation to Lt. Col. Grant who had retired from the regiment. There were present a number of ladies, and on the platform were the officers of the regiment; also Col. Dyde, Lt.-Col. Ferrier and other officers, Pipey Wier entered playing the bagpipes.

Col. Roath stated the object of the meeting which was, he said, to present to Lt. Col. Grant a testimonial on behalf of the non-commissioned officers and men.

Sergeant-Major Muirhead read the address, which amongst other things, said Lt. Col. Grant's connection with the regiment extended over nearly ten years; and the corps had twice marched to the front under his command. They greatly regretted the resignation and begged his acceptance of a cup, as some testimony of their high regard for him as a man and an officer.

The cup was then presented by Sergeant-Major Muirhead, and was a massive silver one of fine workmanship, and bore on one side the colors of the regiment, with tiers of drums, and a sentry on either side on guard, the top being surmounted with a crown. On the other side of the cup was the following inscription: "Presented to Lieutenant-Colonel Grant by the non-commissioned officers and men of the 5th Royals V. M., as an appreciation of his services in connection with the battalion."

The band of the regiment played "Auld Lang Syne," after which Colonel Grant made a suitable reply, taking his farewell of the regiment over whose course, he said, he should always watch, and trusted that the regiment would continue to emulate the *esprit du corps* for which it had always been noticeable.

Another air having been played by the band, the Colonel took occasion to give a brief history of the regiment from its enrollment in 1862; showing a handsome list of prizes won by its members at the rifle ranges. The places at which the regiment had done duty were Sandwich, Cornwall, St. Johns, Hemmingford, St. Armands, and Pigeon Hill. Captain Esdaile, Colonel Dyde, Major Campbell, and Lieutenant-Colonel Ferrier spoke briefly, and after the presentation the officers of the regiment and a few of their friends dined together at Dolly's Chop-house. —*Montreal Witness.*

CAPTAIN McDONALD.—Many of our readers are personally acquainted with Dr. McDonald, late of Consecan, who enlisted in the Red River Expedition and received the appointment of Captain of a Company in the Ontario Battalion. Early last summer Dr. McDonald, with his usual pluck, volunteered to leave Fort Garry and go many hundred miles away in the Saskatchewan region to combat as well as he could the small-pox, which has been making such fearful havoc amongst the poor Indians. Up till a few days since fears were entertained as to his safety and a report reached us a short time ago that he had fallen a victim to the disease he went forth to conquer. We are delighted to state, however, that letters have been received announcing his safety and perfect health! He is expected to return in the spring and we have no doubt a hearty welcome awaits him. If any man deserves well of his country, it is Dr. McDonald. —*New Nation.*

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

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THE VOLUNTEER REVIEW

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TO CORRESPONDENTS:

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

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

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

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

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

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The Volunteer Review,

AND MILITARY AND NAVAL GAZETTE.

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

OTTAWA, MONDAY, MARCH 6, 1871.

We would again remind our Subscribers in Ontario that our Agent Lt.-Col. LOVELACE is now on a collecting tour through that Province, and would feel obliged by their promptly paying up to him their individual indebtedness to this office.

The general meeting of the Dominion Rifle Association is to be held on Wednesday 8th March, in the Western Departmental Buildings, and promises to be of no ordinary interest. It is evident if we are to achieve success in training our Volunteers to that proficiency with the military rifle they ought to attain it must be first by battalion and district competition, which is provided for already, and secondly by furnishing the additional incentive which a national *Wimbledon* can afford. It would appear to us that the Dominion Rifle Association has at very important duty to perform with relation to our Canadian military forces, and we look to the people's Representatives that they place at the command of the Council sufficient means to carry out the objects for which the Association has been organized.

There can be no doubt that the interests of Canada would be very materially advanced if a fair representation of our Canadian soldiers selected from the various Provinces were sent to England to compete for the prizes at *Wimbledon*. Such a measure would have the effect of convincing the people of Great Britain that this country had taken the best and most effective method of providing for their own defence, and it would

give our own people an opportunity of seeing and understanding the wealth, importance, and resources of those small islands which governs such a large portion of the civilized world. The results of such a movement are of sufficient importance to warrant a very considerable outlay indeed, and would involve a very large amount of administrative energy on the part of the Council.

There can be no doubt that the Dominion Rifle Association deserves the support of the people of Canada, and it is to be hoped that no petty feelings will be allowed to mar its usefulness, or that it would be forced to give place to local bodies whose aspirations, however valuable, could by no means compensate for the services that institution could render by bringing all portions of the local military forces into constant and friendly rivalry. And the duty of contributing to its support should not wholly devolve on the Canadian Parliament, but the various Provincial Legislatures would find it to their account to vote annual sums towards the very important objects the Dominion Association was organized to subserve.

THE RIVERS AND CANALS OF BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

III.

The capacity of the Ottawa Canals as designed by Mr. Shively would be 31,680,000 tons, or 13,840,000 tons downwards and a like upwards movement, their construction would occupy about *four* years, at which period it might become necessary to enlarge the St. Lawrence and Welland Canals.

Fifty-six miles below Montreal on the South shore of the St. Lawrence, at the town of Sorel, the Richelieu River discharges the surplus waters of Lakes Champlain and George, and is rendered navigable by a single lock—a canal at Chambly of *twelve* miles in length with *ten* locks, each *one hundred and ten feet* in length by *twenty-two feet* wide with *five feet* of water—the lockage is *seventy-four feet*—its capacity is 3,168,000 tons, an upward movement of 1,584,000 tons with a like downward tonnage.

The Caughanawaga Canal as proposed is to be an artificial channel of *thirty-two* miles in length, connecting the waters of the St. Lawrence above the Lachine Rapids with the Richelieu River at the head of the Chambly Canal, its increased volume may be of advantage in throwing the trade in broad stuffs and timber into the hands of the Burlington people because the Champlaine Canal interposes insuperable obstacles between Lake George and the Hudson River, its summit level being *fifty-five feet* above the Lake, the water supply is not sufficient for enlarged locks and no reasonable amount of money would carry the waters of Lake George into the Hudson and therefore the change of cargo must take place at Burlington where Railway communication to the Eastern States centre; the obvious inference is that this channel would benefit the people of the

United States alone, by intercepting the trade of the St. Lawrence almost at the head of tidal water and sending it into the State of Vermont for the benefit of the Railway interests therein.

At the City of Ottawa the Rideau River, after a course of over two hundred miles, sends the drainage of over fifteen hundred square miles into the Ottawa River. It is rendered navigable for a distance of ninety miles by a series of the best and boldest Engineering works on this Continent: they consist of large and solidly constructed dams and exquisitely finished locks; it is joined to the Cataraque River, a small stream falling into the St. Lawrence at Kingston, by an artificial cutting less than one mile in length. This stream has been treated in a similar manner to the Rideau, only the dams are more massive; there are forty seven locks, an upward lockage of two hundred and seventy-four feet from the Ottawa to the summit level and one hundred and fifty-six feet downward to the St. Lawrence. The locks are one hundred and thirty-three feet long, thirty-three feet wide, with five feet six inches depth of water—the total length of artificial canalizing is sixteen miles—of navigation one hundred and twenty-six miles—the capacity of which is equal to 6,366,000 tons, or 3,168,000 tons of an upward movement, with a like quantity downwards. Its value as a commercial channel is principally confined to local traffic, the distribution of Lumber to the Albany market via Oswego, but a good deal of foreign traffic could be developed if the Ottawa canals were opened. The system described are those whose developments exercise a direct effect on the commercial prosperity of Canada.

It is now time to consider what the true principles of commercial development really are, and in doing this it will be necessary to put out of sight the value of any channel whose sole claim to notice is the fact that it is likely to pay a certain per centage on construction. As laid down in the first article the river courses ought to be the most profitable outlets for the traffic of the country—there can be hardly any modification of this axiom—nor is it necessary to enter into very elaborate statistics to prove that the direct commercial interest of Canada will be best served and developed by keeping the St. Lawrence free of foreign interference, and consequently foreign complications. Its great rival the Erie Canal has succeeded by judicious legislation, and the United States by unscrupulous treaty dealings has materially assisted it in monopolising the trade of the Western States, but that is rapidly outgrowing the capacity of the channel into which it has been forced and it has arrived at its maximum power of enlargement owing to want of water at the summit level.

In order to enable the St. Lawrence to take all due advantage of this state of affairs, improvements in lighting the Gulf, and the lower and upper divisions of the river are

necessary, the erection of wharves, buoys, and beacons, as well as such liberal regulations regarding tolls as would operate as a premium on the route. That it is already attracting a large share of Western commerce the following extract will prove:

The New York *Evening Post* of the 8th raises a great outcry against the state of canal system which supplies New York. It points out that debt is very heavy on the canals, and that the tolls in consequence are far too large. The *Post* continues:—“The Canal Board at Albany” is now, it “seems, running the canals on resolutions “of the Legislature, which are of such doubtful constitutionality that the Attorney-General is called upon to interpret them. “The diversion of trade from the city of New York is every year increasing, so that now “other cities control the import trade of “commodities and their transportation to “the interior, which heretofore we received. “New York cannot afford to trade with the “canal question. Her commerce will be “drawn to other ports if she neglects any “prudent means to keep it here.

The *Post* is quite right. Commerce is certainly flowing to other ports rather than to New York, for not only are the dues on the Erie and other canals preposterously too large, but their capacity is vastly too small and the time taken in traversing them very long. And, while New York labours under these disadvantages, in what direction does the trade which once came to her flow? To what port does the great producer of the West forward his grain at the present time? To Montreal; and justly; and more and more year by year, season by season.

The reason is obvious. It is not our intention to wade deeply into the sea of the statistics which are at our elbow, and which are already well known to the Chicago and Milwaukee producer, the person most interested. It is enough to mention roughly that whereas the dues on the Erie Canal amount to \$4.60 per ton, the toll on the St. Lawrence route is but \$2.65: that while it takes ten days to reach tide water by the Erie, the same point of shipment can be attained in 4 days and 13 hours by the flowing river; that ships of nearly double the tonnage can be accommodated in the Canadian Canals, that can be taken on those that feed New York; and that the former route is open from twelve to eighteen days longer than the latter: it is but to explain these points of difference, to show why the export commerce of New York dwindles, and why Montreal advances with rapid strides to her natural place as the head of navigation for the departure of trading vessels for the Liverpool markets, those which the producer chiefly desires to reach.

If Canadian commercial interests are to prosper it must be by securing the profits of their own carrying trade, and this can only be done by becoming their own importers. There is no necessity for going into statistical details to show how extensively the interests of Canada have suffered and how much her commercial prosperity has been retarded by allowing foreigners to do the business of carriers thereto, nor how largely diplomatic blundering aided that consumption. The operations of the bonding system can be understood by the following from the “Annual Report on the Commerce of Montreal for 1869,” by Mr. J. Patterson; a very valuable work on the commercial statis-

tics of Canada. At page 30 Mr. Patterson says:—

“The bonding system as carried out by the United States authorities is made to press heavily and vexatiously upon Canadian merchants; while the arrangement as given effect to by Canada (or more correctly speaking, as hitherto it has not been put in force at all) is exceedingly favorable to mercantile interests in the Eastern and Western States, an example or two will clearly demonstrate this.

“1st. Take as the first example the statements of shippers of flour from Montreal to Liverpool or Glasgow via Grand Trunk Railway and the Montreal Ocean Steamship Company’s steamers from Portland during the past year or two. A shipment of 500 barrels of flour is taxed—1st, for frontier charges; 2nd, for bond at Portland; and 3rd, for cancelling the bond at port of destination. The first of these charges is \$2.00 paid in Montreal to the Grand Trunk Railway Company—that being the sum charged for customs duty at Island Pond. The impost operates in this way—suppose a shipper sends 500 barrels of flour from Montreal intended for Liverpool besides freight \$2.00 must be paid as entry charges upon the five car loads. A single car load (100 barrels) would cost \$2, while six car loads (600 barrels) would be taxed \$4.00, or as much as ten car loads. The second item amounts to \$3.00 charged for bonding the flour at Portland.

The charge for bonding 10 barrels or 20 barrels would be as much as for 500 barrels.

“The experience of merchants is diversified under the third item one shipper has paid 12s. 6d. sterling as each cancelling fee, while an extensive exporting house never know what would have to be paid for cancelling—sometimes one guinea was paid, at other times three guineas.

“2nd. The experience of Montreal merchants regarding shipments of flour via Grand Trunk Railway and Portland to the Maritime Provinces is that the charges are limited to those paid at Island Pond as above mentioned, some firms stating the amount to be \$2.00, others \$2.50.”

3rd The following statement appeared in the Montreal *Gazette* of 22nd January, 1870: “We have had shown to us a bill of charges by a merchant in this city, on a small package of fish, a sample lot (value \$11 25) amounting to \$6.07. The freight to Portland was \$1.50, from Portland to Montreal \$1 57, bonding charges \$2.50, and entry 50 cents.

In fact, the United States, like the Anglo-Bengalee Disinterested Assurance Company, “Stick it into Canada up hill and down dale and make a develish comfortable little profit out of her.” Under the circumstances it would be worse than folly to place the means of extending this system within the power of the people who have exercised it so cruelly.

The coasting laws of the United States jealously exclude all foreign vessels from their trade, and its regulations are interpreted as well as practically applied in the most reserved and selfish spirit. Canals, therefore loading into their territories cannot be navigated by Canadian vessels, and will only furnish the means for making an effective attempt to attract the current of trade from our rivers and canals.

At the period when the Reciprocity Treaty came into effect the export and import trade for the year 1855 was equal to \$64,274,628; at the close of that arrangement in 1865 it had risen to \$87,101,626,—for the year 1870 it was \$148,387,820. In the ten years under reciprocity the gross increase had been a little over 35.5 per cent.—in the five years which have since elapsed it has increased over 70 per cent. It would be utterly impossible to find a more conclusive argument in favor of complete commercial independence. But this is not all; the gross statement of tonnage in the same period shows: that in 1855 the trade of Canada employed 2387 seagoing vessels of all classes, of a tonnage equal to 870,874 tons, and lake craft of 1459 vessels, with a capacity of 204, tons, making a gross total of 1,072,205 tons; in 1865 her trade employed 4238 seagoing vessels of a capacity of 2,052,332 tons, and lake craft 1376 vessels, of 206,450 tons, making a gross total of 2,252,782 tons; in the year 1870 she employs 9567 seagoing vessels with a capacity of 2,608,519 tons, and 17,866 lake craft with a capacity of 3,187,606 tons, making a gross total of 5,796,105 tons.

From this statement it will be seen that in ten years under reciprocity our marine doubled, while in *five years* without that it also doubled. But the most remarkable expansion is seen in the fact that during the *ten* years of reciprocity our lake trade had no extension worth noticing, while in the *five* years that Canada has been independent of foreign complications this trade has multiplied over fifteen times.

It is evident then that the reason of this expansion is to be found in the difference of the cost of freight and charges as between the Erie and St. Lawrence canals. It is at this point the value of the Ottawa route would make itself felt by reducing both freight charges and time to a minimum, as well as rendering all competition impossible.

Taking the gross traffic ready to seek those channels at 3,000,000 tons, a toll of \$1.50 per ton would produce \$4,500,000 annually, the cost of the Ottawa Canals being \$25,000,000, or eighteen per cent. on the outlay. The St. Lawrence and Welland Canals have cost over \$10,000,000—to enlarge them to the proposed size of the Ottawa will involve a further outlay of at least \$30,000,000 more—the profits at the rate described would be a little over eleven per cent. on the outlay, so that in capacity, time, and value the advantages would be at least 50 per cent. in favor of the Ottawa route, but they do not and as a mere question of profit on a given outlay earn two per cent. The works on the Ottawa Canals would open an entirely new country to settlement. It would afford another and the most profitable market for the lumber trade, thus furnishing return cargoes and enabling the shippers to reduce the rates on Western produce choosing that market. Its almost illimitable water power would furnish the

means of manufacturing the grain on the downward voyage—a process by the way which will rapidly be extended as the loss by *primage* on the grain in bulk becomes more serious. And it will add to the value of this lumber trade by stimulating manufactures of house fittings, furniture, and other industries connected therewith. To the northward of the line of proposed navigation lies a district at least 200 miles in average width rich in timber, minerals, and available agricultural lands, which must be developed by this means, and if no other considerations warranted the outlay that alone would justify it.

But there are other reasons demanding imperatively that a channel possessing the advantages claimed for the Ottawa should be afforded to the vast traffic that would seek it as an outlet to the seaboard. The agricultural products of Minnesota, Dakota and the British North Western territory demands the provision of an outlet which will entail the minimum of cost.

It is true that the resources of this vast area are not yet developed, but Minnesota, with a population less than 500,000 and not more than one-twentieth of her area under cultivation, has this year *twenty millions* of bushels of wheat and other grains for exportation. Its principal points of concentration are at St. Paul on the Mississippi and Duluth at the head of Lake Superior—those two ports are connected by a railway 154 miles in length. St. Paul is distant from Chicago by railway 449 miles, by the Mississippi River 556 miles, and the Illinois Canal 320 miles. It will be easily seen that profitable communication with Lake Michigan for agricultural produce is out of the question. The trade will seek the port of Duluth, at which will also centre for the present at least the Red River trade. It is distant from Georgetown, on Red River, 254 miles, and a railway will be completed to that point this year—from thence to Fort Garry there is steam navigation. It is not necessary to take the route by Thunder Bay into consideration at present.

A vessel clearing the Sault Ste. Marie Canal will reach the mouth of French River in a voyage of 100 miles, while a further voyage of 430 miles would place the cargo at the head of tide water; to attain the same point by the St. Lawrence and Lakes would involve a voyage of 856 miles.

It would therefore appear that the commercial interests of Canada will be best served by opening an entirely new route from the lakes to the seaboard, and after it is in operation if the commerce of the Western States demands the enlargement of the frontier canals they should then be undertaken. Their advantages have already enabled them to compete successfully with the Erie Canal for a share of Western traffic, and it would not be a profitable investment to pull them to pieces before that traffic requires it. And this consideration involves

the question of a national policy in connection with this commercial problem. Our true interest evidently lies in the direction of closer trade arrangements with Great Britain and our sister Colonies. In the year 1869 there was imported into the former 82,969,174 bushels of wheat from all countries; of this quantity the United States furnished 28,504,479 bushels, and Canada 6,340,153 bushels. Now those who argue for the enlargement of the frontier canals do so under the idea that they would secure this trade. The powers of competition of those outlets are tested with results as shown. But the route that will give more than 50 per cent. of advantage will be sure to secure it, and that is the object to which all the efforts of our people should tend. The value of the Caughnawaga Canal would be solely to send the six million bushels seeking the St. Lawrence to Boston to be shipped for Liverpool.

The trade of our North Western possessions will within ten years amount to more than half the quantity now sent to England by Canada and the United States. By affording facilities to the produce of Minnesota and Dakota such as those the Ottawa Canals would offer the whole of this transport trade would find its way to the British markets in Canadian vessels.

It is therefore our true policy to avoid as far as possible reciprocal trade relations with the United States that would in the slightest degree give their people any preference in our markets or any advantage in our carrying trade.

If this country should at any time enforce a discriminating duty it should be in favor of Great Britain, because it is evident we shall have to fight a stiff contest for commercial equality with our neighbors, and in our case the loss of that equality means political subjugation.

We have now the option of controlling the commerce of the Western States and our North Western territories,—we can only maintain our advantage by active exertions, and open a route which neither foreign treaties or foreign legislation can affect. Every consideration urges the adoption of such a course, and wise men will not allow it to be postponed or subordinated to foolish and selfish schemers on the frontiers. Our agricultural interests demands the opening up of the country which the Ottawa navigation traverses, and the construction of the works therefore will reflect honor on the statesman who is far seeing enough to appreciate their importance.

As a valuable and powerful aid to immigration this would more than repay this country for any outlay on them; while it is evident the enlargement of the St. Lawrence will not add to the population of Canada in any appreciable degree; and simply for the reason that there is no available land for settlement on the frontier. A due consideration of all the consequences will be sure

to establish the fact that the construction of the Ottawa Canals is a political consideration of vital importance to the Dominion.

In our last issue the official lists of the best and second best shots in the Canadian army were published, and we directed attention to the results as evidencing the proficiency attained in the practice of Rifle Shooting by the members of the Volunteer force. The successful competitor Wm. Good having made fifty-six points out of a possible score of sixty at distances of 600 yards—the lowest score being 23 points—the majority making over 40 points, it reflects no slight credit on the mental capacity and steadiness of our Volunteers to find such capital marksmen amongst them, and it shows how readily they appreciate the importance of the movement made by the Adjutant-General to secure proficiency in the use of the Rifle. Important as this movement undoubtedly is, its value is considerably enhanced by the fact that the circumstances surrounding the competition precludes the possibility of employing any weapons but those used in military operations.

The writer of this article was early engaged in the "Rifle Association" movement in this country, and endeavored on many occasions to exclude competition with sporting or fancy rifles, holding, as an article of political faith, that it was an absolute necessity to train our whole male population to the use of the military rifle. Isolated associations however could have taken no step to secure this desirable object, because the greater number of members were always in favor of using the weapon with which they were best acquainted, and it wanted the dictum of authority to take a step in the right direction with the power to enforce it.

The "General Orders" of the 24th August, 1870, inaugurated the practice of which we have the pleasing task to record the results, and they are of a character to illustrate in a striking degree the skill, administrative ability, and far seeing judgment of the Adjutant General. The lesson which the events of the present contest in Europe teaches, is the necessity for training the whole population of the country to the use of arms of precision, not with a view of making them all marksmen at long ranges, but with the object of making them familiar with the weapons which they would be called on to use in their own defence and enabling each individual to understand the degree of proficiency he would be enabled to attain with it; such knowledge being the essential requisite of keeping man steady under fire, because it inspired them with the necessary confidence in their own powers. Independent Rifle Associations will not as a general rule train men in the knowledge necessary for a soldier, and although we do not entirely ignore the services they have rendered, yet it is much to be doubted if occasion required that they would furnish any appreciable amount of trained material towards the de-

fence of the country; it is evident the rifle movement must in future be what the Adjutant General has made it—a purely military movement. The example of the Franc-tireurs, the very small amount of service they were able to render their country and the difficulty of keeping them under control or together is decisive against the employment of independently trained bodies for any military purpose. In connection with Rifle Shooting, whether practised by troops or otherwise, a moderate degree of knowledge connected with the science thereof will be desirable, and one of the very best books we know on the subject is the "Hand Book of Rifle Shooting" by Alex. Lord Russell, (late) Lieut. No. 3 Battery, Ottawa Brigade of Garrison Artillery. In the Rifle Associations are to be of any value beyond furnishing a series of fancy sports, they should subordinate all their operations to military control; and even in the Regimental competitions a practical and scientific knowledge of the whole subject should be made a desideratum for promotion with both officers and men.

It is safe, however, to leave this further step in advance to the Adjutant General, who has already created out of what was little better than a crude mass a highly respectable military force, and taken the first step to make it proficient in the use of its peculiar weapon.

On the day Parliament was opened (Wednesday, 15th inst.) a hale, hearty veteran with soldierly port and bearing might be seen amongst the brilliant Staff in attendance on the Governor General. From appearance no one would have thought that this soldier had fought through the most memorable actions of the war of 1812-15, but the following record of services will shew how much Canada is indebted to gentlemen who, like this gallant soldier, are too modest and retiring to force themselves on public notice.

The following are the services of Colonel John Sewell, late Postmaster of Quebec:—

Appointed Ensign to 89th Regiment, 8th January, 1811. Transferred same year to the 49th Regiment.

Stationed at Fort Erie, 28th September, 1812; on that day the American Seamen having cut out the British armed brig "Maddeson," and commercial schooner "Caledonia," of the North West Company, assisted in the recapture of the "Maddeson," by boarding and burning her.

Commanded a Battery opposite the American post at Black Rock on the 13th of October, 1812. Blew up the American powder magazine, destroying the barracks of large dimensions. Present in action, 28th, 29th and 30th of November, 1812. British Batteries captured, retaken, and repelling American army, under General Smith, driving it back to its position at Black Rock, State of New York.

May, 1813, present in Fort George, Ni-

agara, during the bombardment of that Fort by the Americans, previous to their landing at Missasauga Point. Present in action near Thorold in which Lieut. Col. Boerstler surrendered 541 men of all ranks of the 14th United States regiment, its colors, baggage, one 12-pounder and one 6-pounder gun, to Lieut. Fitzgibbon of the 49th regiment, who commanded a mixed force of 280 men, composed of regular soldiers, Militia and Indians. At the reconnoitering of the American position at Fort George, Niagara. Present in action at Chrystler's Farm, 11th of November, 1813. Present in action at Plattsburg, State of New York. Present in action in some affairs of outpost from St. David's Camp, Cross roads, near Niagara against the Seneca Indians, allies of the Americans.

During the troubles of 1837, organized and commanded the Quebec Light Infantry, having for a time to garrison the Quebec Citadel with his Battalion, under the command of Colonel Baird, 66th Regiment.

This gallant soldier commanded the Quebec Volunteer Force from the first year of its organization, to the passing of the last Militia Act, embracing a period of 14 years, and has been in the public service for a period of fifty-nine years and six months.

REVIEWS.

We have to acknowledge the receipt of the *Canadian Illustrated News* for the 11th and 18th inst.; it is, as usual, replete with amusing and entertaining matter, and several splendid illustrations.

The *Scientific American*, Nos. 7 and 8, vol. 24, contains engravings of recent and useful inventions, a large amount of valuable letter press, scientific, practical and literary—it is always welcome to our table.

If the increase of newspapers be a sign of the progress of material prosperity, then Canada has reason to rejoice for they are multiplying with singular rapidity. We have received the first number of the *Express*, a journal printed at Fergus, in the county of Wellington, Ontario. It is Conservative in politics, neatly got up and contains a large amount of literary matter of a high character; we wish its enterprising proprietors all success.

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

REMITTANCES

Received on Subscription up to Saturday, the 4th inst.

COLBORNE.—(Per Agent.)—Lt. Cummings, \$6.

OAKVILLE.—(Per Agent.)—Capt. Chisholm, \$2.

THE SERENADE.

Ye mayden looked from her lattyce
On ye howlers down below,
As they stode tunin their voyces
At midnightte, in a row.

In a row beneath her lattyce,
With ye tenor at ye head—
A pallyd youth with swarthy hair,
Who ought to have been in bed.

And now ye viols sounded
And ye flute on ye midnightte air,
And dysmal noyses went walling out
From hym of ye swarthy hair.

He called her hys sun, hys light, hys star,
And lykened her to ye moon,
And ye viols, and flute and light guttar
Took up and echoed ye tune.

And ye longer he sung ye louder
Hys voyce was pyched and hygher;
He clasped hys hands where hys heart should be
And, in verse, swore he was on fyre.

Then ye mayden smyled a pensive smyle,
And went to her lyttle stand,
And appeared in white at ye lattyce,
With an ewer in each hand—

Then ye howling grew more frantic!
And fiercer ye music grew!
But onto their heads ye contents
She very deftly threw.

Ye fyre was quenched and ye tumult
Was over and all was still,
And nought was seen of ye howlers
But their coat tayls over ye hyll.

A FEW WORDS ON CANADA.

BY A CANADIAN.

[CONTINUED.]

Since the confederation of the several Provinces, a new militia law has been brought into operation, and under its provisions the whole force has been reorganized; many defects which had been found to exist under previous organizations were removed, and the system made uniform for the whole Dominion.

The present organization of the army of Canada is, therefore, briefly as follows. The population numbers about 4,000,000. Of these the number liable to serve in the Militia is about 675,000, and divided into four classes, consists of all the male inhabitants of the age of 18 years and upwards, and under 60—not exempted or disqualified by law, and being British subjects by birth or naturalization.

1st class, ages 18 to 30, unmarried men or widowers without children.

2nd class, ages 30 to 45, unmarried men or widowers without children.

3rd class, ages 18 to 45, married men or widowers with children.

4th class, 45 to 60.

The following persons only, between the ages of 18 and 60 years, are exempt from enrolment and from actual service at any time:

The Judges of all the Courts of Law or Equity in the Dominion of Canada.

The clergy and ministers of all religious denominations.

The professors in any college or university and all teachers in religious orders.

The warden, keepers and guards of the penitentiaries, and the officers, keepers and guards of all public Lunatic Asylums.

Persons disabled by bodily infirmity.

The only son of a widow, being her only support.

And the following, though enrolled, shall be exempt from actual service at any time, except in case of war, invasion, or insurrection.

Half-pay and retired officers of her Majesty's army and navy.

Seafaring men and sailors actually employed in their calling.

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The enrolment is held to be an embodiment of all the militia men enrolled, and renders them liable to serve except exempt by law.

In order that the enrolment of the militia may be correctly taken from time to time, and the organization perfected for easy communication and command, the whole country is divided into Military Districts, subdivided into Brigade Divisions, again into Regimental Divisions, and lastly into company Divisions; each Regimental Division has appointed to it one Lieut. Colonel and two Majors, and each Company Division one Captain and two sub officers of reserve Militia, who must be residents therein. The Captain is charged with the duty of keeping at all times a correct roll of the whole of the militia within his division, and, when called upon, is required to furnish for active service such numbers of men, either as volunteers or through the operation of the ballot, as may be necessary to make good his proportion of any quota required from the regimental division of which his company division forms a part.

To interfere as little as possible with ordinary routine, the limits of these regimental and company divisions are made, as nearly as practicable, identical with the limits of the territorial divisions, for electoral and municipal purposes, and through this means the men are not called upon to remember any other territorial divisions for militia purposes than those within which they or those representing the property within the company division, exercise their elective franchise.

The officers of the Reserve Militia being appointed solely for purposes of enrolment and ballot, their being resident within their respective divisions, which is insisted on, will enable them to become personally acquainted with the men liable for service, and tend to secure fairness in all the details of the ballot whenever the necessity for supplementing the active force through that means may arise.

To the several regimental divisions grouped into a brigade division, a Brigade Major is attached, and for the brigade divisions which comprise a military district, a Deputy Adjutant General is appointed, who will reside within the district and who has the local command of the militia in his district, while the Adjutant-General, who resides at headquarters, Ottawa, is charged under the orders of Her Majesty with the military command and discipline of the militia in Canada.

The active or that portion of the militia to be annually drilled is 40,000, a number slightly exceeding one in every 100 of the present population; the actual strength is, however, upwards of 42,500, or equal to one in 16 of all the men liable to service. The men are raised in the several regimental divisions in proportion to the strength of the enrolled militia constituting the reserve in each; the period of service for purposes of drill in time of peace is three years, and the men who have thus completed such a period of drill are permitted to return to the reserve and are not liable to be again taken for drill and training until all the other men in the same company division have volunteered or been ballotted to serve. In case of war every man is liable to serve or furnish an approved substitute.

The active force is armed with breech-loading rifles, and has suitable equipment for service in the field. The present force

has been raised by voluntary enrolment, and although the men are governed by very stringent regulations when under arms, they are found to be tractable and apt, and no serious breaches of discipline have taken place. The readiness with which all the corps turned out along an extended line of frontier, when ordered on service at the time of the Fenian raid in 1870, and the rapidity with which the corps were concentrated at the several points where an attack might be expected, shows that Canada has an effective force, composed of men on whom the greatest reliance can be placed, who are able to maintain order in the country, and form an ample contingent to repel any Fenian attack which may be made hereafter on any part of the Dominion.

On the 24th May, 1870, it became known that the Fenians were concentrating in the territory of the United States with mischievous intent on Canada. Accordingly a portion of the active militia was called out to prevent these misguided men from obtaining a foothold on Canadian Territory. On the 27th May commanding officers reported that 13,540 officers and men of the active militia had mustered at the several posts in their respective districts, and were under arms ready for service along the St. Clair, Detroit, Niagara, St. Lawrence, and Eastern Townships frontiers. In the meantime the Fenians had been repulsed at Eccles Hill on the Missisquoi frontier, on the 25th, and again at Holbrook's on the Huntingdon frontier on the 27th. These attempts frustrated, the enemy became so demoralized, that the demonstrations originally intended to be made at other points were abandoned and so the raids of 1870 ended in utter disaster to the Fenians.

Although only a small number of our men participated in the actual conflict, and that number deservedly carried off the honors, the same spirit and determination to resist which was manifested at Eccles Hill and Holbrook's was apparent everywhere; and had any similar invasion been made, it would have been repulsed with equal promptitude and certainty at any point along the five hundred miles of frontier which at the time appeared to be threatened.

There can be no doubt that if previous to the war now existing, France had had such a territorial organization as that now in operation in Canada, she would have occupied a very different position. The rapidity with which she could have brought her population into service where needed would have kept the Prussians out of France, or at least have rendered their advance a much more hazardous and tedious undertaking than the march to Paris proved to be.

The establishment of Military Schools at convenient centres in the several Districts, in connection with Regiments of the Regular Army had placed, and continues to place the means for instruction within the reach of the Officers. The numbers (over 5000) who have attended these schools shows that the advantages afforded have been properly appreciated, and the result has been such as to enable the formation of corps everywhere. Even in the remote localities where until military schools had been opened, many of the young men had never seen a regular soldier, the country can now boast of corps of active militia, ably commanded and provided with competent instructors. In addition to those who are now officers, very many young men have passed the allotted period of three months in those schools, who, although they hold certificates and have not yet obtained commissions in the active force, remain available, and are

candidates for such whenever vacancies occur, or the opportunities for their appointment may arise.

The system of military instruction which was introduced and successfully carried on prior to 1865 in the Normal Schools, most of the colleges, and in many of the grammar and common schools of the country has proved so beneficial in its results that direct encouragement and support should not only be continued, but the system should be so extended as to embrace all public schools within its provisions. Nothing can tend more to frame the future men of the Dominion, physically and mentally, in habits of discipline, than making military acquirements a fundamental portion of the early education of youth. A reasonable amount of military instruction, when the recipients are young, is far less liable to be forgotten than that which is imparted to adults. Besides this, as the scholars attending these schools are drawn from every class of society in the several communities in which they live, and where they are having imparted to them an education, superior or otherwise, in proportion to their means, inclination and position—fitting them for employment in the several professions and duties of life—the acquisition of military drill and discipline and the muscular development incident to such instruction, would have a vast and beneficial effect as regards the future in the event of any contingency arising which might require their employment for defensive purposes, in any part of the Dominion.

THE FISHERY DIFFICULTY.

(From the Globe.)

In June, 1841, the Nova Scotian House of Assembly sent the following queries to Her Majesty's legal advisers, which, with the answers returned, are worth giving in full now when this same business is being brought prominently forward. And a good many quasi Englishmen, with one or two of those trifling bores among Canadians who are always speaking about their "broad views," are quite sure that in order to have peace, Canadians ought to surrender the whole point at issue *implicititer*.

The questions are as follows.—

"1. Whether the Treaty of 1763 was annulled by the war of 1812, and whether citizens of the United States possess any right of fishery in the waters of the Lower Provinces other than ceded to them by the Convention of 1818; and if so, what right?"

"2. Have American citizens the right, under that Convention, to enter any of the bays of this Province to take fish? If, after they have so entered, may they prosecute the fishery more than three marine miles from the shores of such bays: or should the prescribed distance of three marine miles be measured from the headlands at the entrance of such bays, so as to exclude them?"

"3. Is the distance of three marine miles to be computed from the indents of the coast of British America, or from the extreme headlands, and what is to be considered a headland?"

"4. Have American vessels fitted out for a fishery a right to pass through the Gut of Canso, which they cannot do without coming within the prescribed limits, or to anchor there, or to fish there; and is casting bait, to lure fish, in the track of the vessel fishing within the meaning of the Convention?"

"5. Have American citizens a right to land on the Magdalen Islands, and conduct the fishery from the shores thereof by using

boats and seines; or what right of fishery do they possess on the shores of those Islands, and what is meant by the term shore?"

"6. Have American fishermen the right to enter the bays and harbours of this Province for the purpose of purchasing wood or obtaining water, having provided neither of these articles at the commencement of their voyages in their own country; or have they the right only of entering such bays and harbours in cases of distress, or to purchase wood and obtain water after the usual stock of those articles for the voyage of such fishing craft has been exhausted and destroyed?"

"7. Under existing treaties, what rights of fishing are ceded to the citizens of the United States of America, and what reserved for the exclusive enjoyment of British subjects?"

The answers given by the Queen's Advocate-General and Her Majesty's Attorney-General, at the request of Lord Palmerston are to the following effect:—

"1st Query.—In obedience to your lordship's commands, we have taken these papers into consideration, and have the honor to report that we are of opinion that the Treaty of 1763 was annulled by the war of 1812, and we are also of opinion that the rights of fishery of the citizens of the United States must now be considered as defined and regulated by the Convention of 1818; and, with respect to the general question, 'If so, what right?' we can only refer to terms of the Convention, as explained and elucidated by the observations which will occur in answering the other specific queries.

"2nd and 3rd Queries.—Except within certain defined limits, to which the query put us does not apply, we are of opinion that, by the terms of the Convention, American citizens are excluded from any right of fishing within three miles of the coast of British America, and that the prescribed distance of three miles is to be measured from the headlands, or extreme points of land next the sea, or the coast at the entrance of bays or indents of the coasts; and consequently no right exists, on the part of American citizens, to enter the bays of Nova Scotia, there to take fish, although the fishing being within the bays may be at a greater distance than three miles from the shore of the bay, as we are of opinion that the term 'headland' is used in the Treaty to express the part of the land we have before mentioned, including the interior of the bays and the indents of the coast.

"4th Query.—By the Convention of 1818 it is agreed that American citizens should have the liberty of fishing in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and within certain defined limits in common with British subjects, and such Convention does not contain any words negating the right to navigate the Passage or Strait of Canso, and, therefore, it may be conceded that such right of navigation is not taken away by that Convention; but we have now attentively considered the course of Navigation to the Gulf by Cape Breton, and likewise the capacity and situation of the passage of Canso, and of the British possessions on each side, and we are of opinion that, independently of treaty, no foreign country has the right to use or navigate the passage of Canso, and, according to the terms of the Convention, relating to the liberty of fishing to be enjoyed by the American citizens, we are also of opinion that the Convention did not, either expressly or by necessary implication, concede any right of using or navigating the passage in question. We are also of opinion that casting bait, to lure fish, in the track of any American vessel navigating the passage

would constitute a fishing within the negative terms of the Convention.

5th Query.—With reference to the claim of the right to land on the Magdalen Islands and to fish from the shores thereof, it must be observed that by the Convention the liberty of drying and curing fish (purpose which could only be accomplished by landing) in any of the unsettled bays, &c., of the southern part of Newfoundland and of the coast of Labrador is specially provided for, but such liberty is distinctly negated in any settled bays, &c., and it must, therefore be inferred that if the liberty of landing on the shores of the Magdalen Islands had been intended to have been conceded such an important concession would have been made the subject of express stipulation, and would necessarily have been accompanied with a description of the inland extent of the shore over which such liberty was to be exercised, and whether in settled or unsettled parts; but neither of these important particulars is provided for, even by implication; and that among other considerations, leads us to the conclusion that American citizens have no right to land or conduct the fishery from the shores of the Magdalen Islands. The word 'Shores' does not appear to have been used in the Convention in any other than the general or ordinary sense of the word, and must be construed with reference to the liberty to be exercised upon it, and would, therefore, comprise the land covered with water, as far as could be available for the due enjoyment of the liberty granted.

"6th Query.—By the Convention the liberty of entering the bays and harbors of Nova Scotia, for the purpose of purchasing wood and obtaining water, is ceded in general terms, unrestricted by any conditions, expressed or implied, limiting the enjoyment to vessels duly provided with these articles at the commencement of their voyage and we are of opinion that no such condition could be attached to the enjoyment of the liberty.

"7th Query.—The rights of fishing ceded to the citizens of the United States, and those reserved for the exclusive enjoyment of British subjects, depend altogether upon the Convention of 1818, the only existing treaty on this subject between the two countries; and the material points arising thereon have been specifically answered in our replies to the preceding queries.

"J. DONSON.
"THOMAS WILDE."

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GOVERNMENT HOUSE, OTTAWA,
 4th day of February, 1871.

PRESENT:
 HIS EXCELLENCY THE GOVERNOR
 GENERAL IN COUNCIL.

ON the recommendation of the Honourable the Minister of Customs, and under authority given by the Act 31st Vic. Cap. 6, intituled: "An Act respecting the Customs;" His Excellency has been pleased to make the following Regulation;

On, from and after the first day of March, proximo, the Port of Queenston in the Province of Ontario, shall be and is hereby discontinued as an independent Port of Entry, and shall be and is hereby constituted an Out Port of Entry, and placed under the Survey of the Port of Niagara.

WM. H. LEE,
 Clerk Privy Council,
 Canada.
 9-31

Ottawa, Feb. 13th, 1870.

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9-6m



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PUBLIC NOTICE is hereby given that on **WEDNESDAY** the 22nd day of **MARCH**, at noon, will be sold at **PU LIC AUCTION**, by J. Bermingham, Auctioneer, at his Sale Room, near the market, York Street, Ottawa, the undermentioned lots of Land in the City of Ottawa, the former sales of which have been cancelled, under the 20th Section of the Act 23 Vic., Cap. 2:

- Lots Nos. 31, 43, 50, 51, 52, North side of Rideau Street.
- Lots Nos. 5, 6, 7, West side of Cobourg Street, Lower Town.
- Lots Nos. 10, 26, 31, 33, South side of Ottawa street Lower Town.
- Lots Nos. 1 and 2, East Wurttemberg street, Lower Town.
- Lot No. 5, South Anglesca Square, Lower Town.
- Lot No. 15, South Bolton street, Lower Town.
- Lots Nos. 50 and 51, North Gloucester street, Central Town.
- Lots Nos. 60 and 51 South Maria Street, Central Town.
- Lot No. 10, (East half) North St. Andrew street, Lower Town.

Purchasers to pay one-tenth of the price down at the time and place of sale, and the balance in nine annual instalments, with interest at the rate of six per cent.

Plans can be seen and information obtained at the Office of the Ordnance Lands Branch of this Department, and at the Auctioneer's.

Further particulars will be found in Handbills, and will be given at the time and place of sale.

By order,
 E. PARENT,
 Under Secretary of State.

WM. F. COFFIN,
 Ordnance Lands Agent.
 Department of Secretary of State,
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INTERCOLONIAL RAILWAY,
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 Ottawa, 19th Jan., 1871. 4-9m



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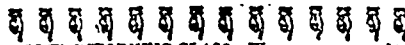
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JOHN LOVELL, Publisher.

Montreal, March 16, 1870.

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