

THE
MODEL
CITIZEN

SIR ISAAC PITMAN & SONS, LIMITED

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THE MODEL CITIZEN

THE MODEL CITIZEN

A Simple Exposition of Civic Rights
and Duties, and a Descriptive Account
of British Institutions, Local, National
and Imperial

By

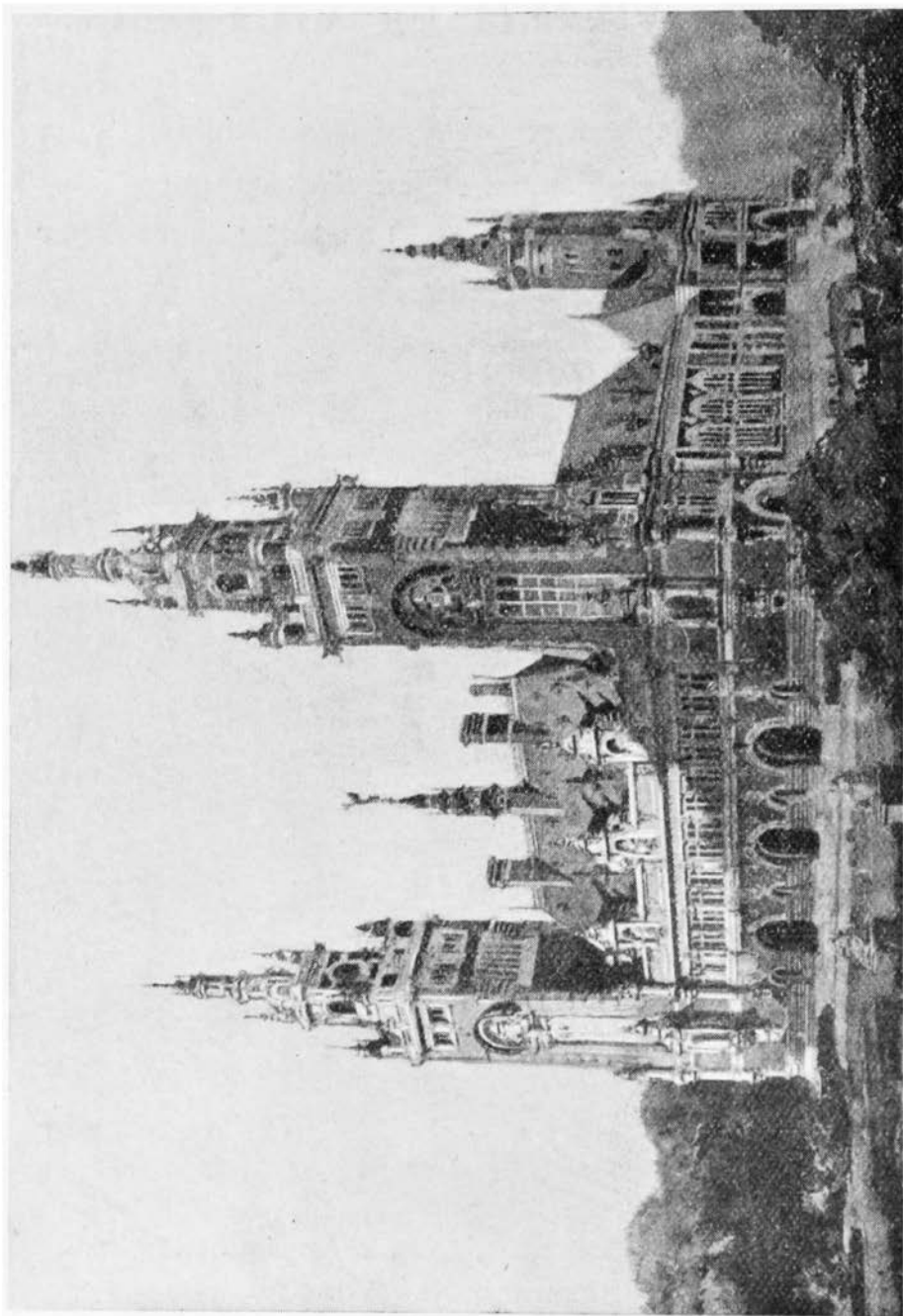
H. OSMAN NEWLAND

*Fellow of the Royal Historical Society; Member of Council
of the Sociological Society of Great Britain; Special Lecturer
in Citizenship to the London County Council; Author of a
"Short History of Citizenship," etc.*

LONDON

SIR ISAAC PITMAN & SONS, LTD., 1 AMEN CORNER, E.C.

BATH AND NEW YORK



THE DESIGN ACCEPTED FOR THE PROPOSED PALACE OF PEACE AT THE HAGUE

FOREWORD

BY THE EARL OF MEATH

Too little care has been taken in the past to train the rising generation of Britons in those virtues which tend towards the growth of good Citizenship, and to impart to them the knowledge which shall enable them, when they grow up, to appreciate, to preserve, and to make the best use of those free institutions which are the glory of the British Empire, and the envy of the world.

The free institutions handed down to us by our ancestors are sharp-edged tools, which can only be used with safety and advantage by the trained hand, and may become a source of serious danger in that of ignorance and of incompetence.

The government of the country in former times was entrusted to a comparatively small section of the population—a section which, in the main, was educated, had been trained to govern, and which inherited many gifts and advantages peculiar to an aristocracy which for generations has been accustomed to the exercise of power.

To-day the government of the British Empire is in the hands of a democracy only just awakening to the consciousness of its power, and hardly yet alive to its responsibilities. Unless disaster is to

overtake the State, it is imperative that this democracy shall be prepared for the proper exercise of the great responsibilities which the circumstances of the time have thrust upon it.

The present volume appears to me to be well-suited for the purpose of providing the knowledge which is essential in the making of the good Citizen, and the wholesome nature of its teaching should be found most effective in the formation of character, and in imparting to Britain's sons and daughters a high standard of patriotic duty, and an inspiring sense of their national and imperial responsibilities.

MEATH.

PREFACE

ALMOST every year new rights and privileges of citizenship are conferred upon those who are fortunate enough to be members of the British Empire. To every one of those rights is attached a duty, but everyone is not aware of this, or, if it is explained to them, they try to ignore it. Some people spend their lives fighting for their "rights," and shirking their duties ; others pay so much attention to their duties that they forget to stand up for their rights ; while many never trouble about either rights or duties. The aim of this little book is to help young students to understand and appreciate both. The people of this country wield powers which they never before possessed ; the right of the humblest to enter the highest offices of State has been recognized. Is it not advisable then that they should be given special educational facilities to use those powers rightly and well ? Every citizen, aye, and every boy and girl—the citizens of the future—ought not only to know and exercise the rights and duties of citizenship, but they should also know why they should have these rights and duties, and why they should exercise both.

Five years ago I suggested to the London School Board that " Citizenship " should be introduced into the Evening Schools and offered to start the first class. The Board approved, and the London County Council has continued the class. The subject has now been introduced into the examinations for the Teacher's Certificate, and for the L.C.C. Clerkships. Several text-books have, therefore, appeared from time to time, but none, I believe, contains

in one volume a complete summary of Citizenship from its Municipal, National, and Imperial aspects. This book has been written partly to supply the need, but partly also to fire the aspirations of our young people not only to be good citizens but to take an active part, when they possess the capacity, in the government of their country. I beg to acknowledge my gratitude to the Earl of Meath, who has kindly written a Foreword, revised proofs, and helped me by many valuable suggestions ; also to Sir John Cockburn and others who have read sections of the proofs.

H. OSMAN NEWLAND.

Streatham Hill, S.W.

August, 1907.

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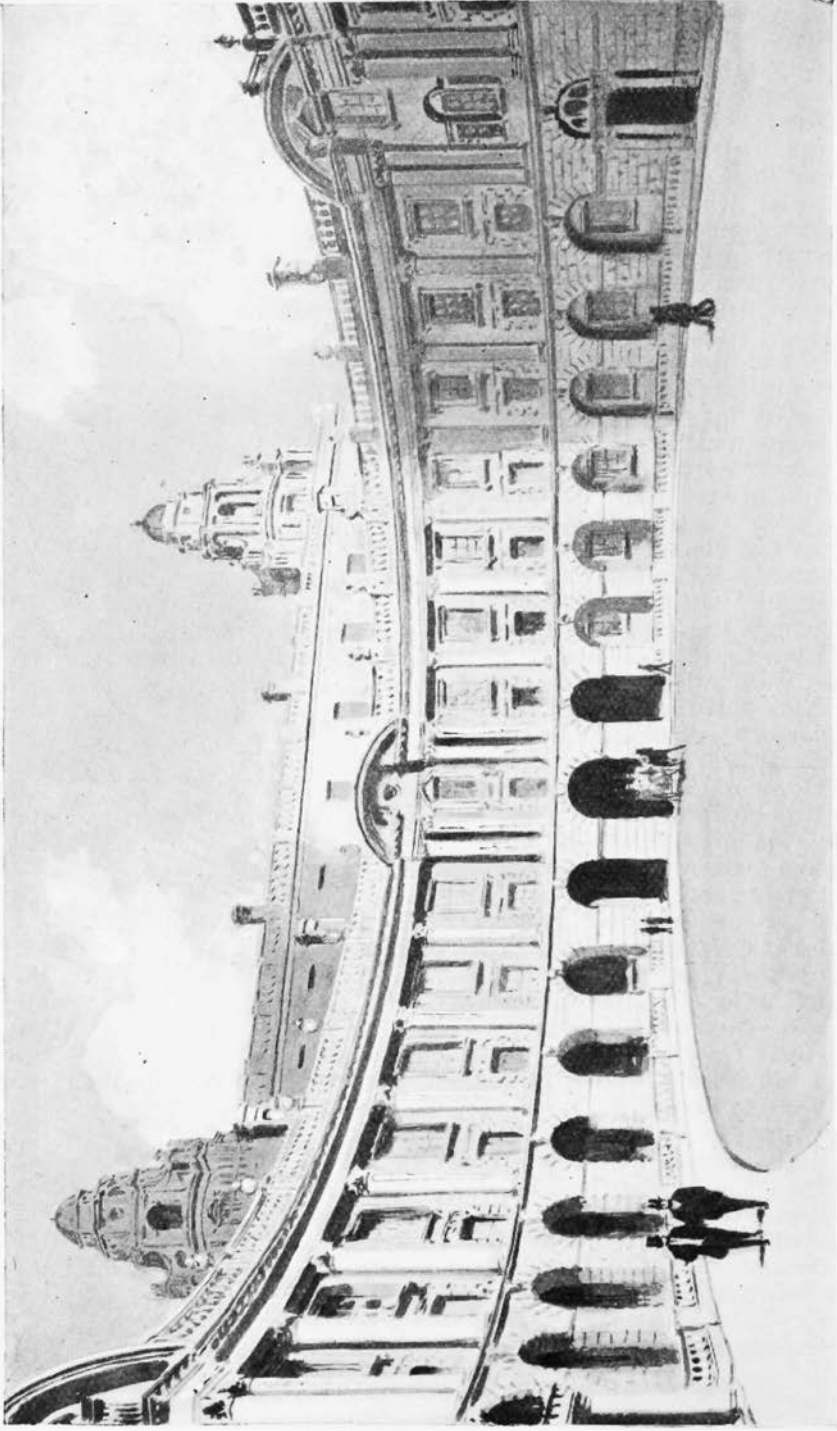
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THE NEW OFFICES OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION AT WHITEHALL


This part of the new building is in the form of a circular court, which is said to be the finest of its kind in the world.

The Model Citizen

SECTION I.

CITIZEN RIGHTS AND DUTIES.

I. AN ELECTION DAY.

“ENKINS is in !” “ Three cheers for Jenkins ! ”
“ Hurrah ! Hurrah ! Hurrah ! ”

Down the road dash carriages and motor-cars, and following them comes a crowd of people, full of excitement and noise. Banners and handkerchiefs are being waved, caps are thrown into the air, some of the crowd cheer, others try to howl down the cheers, and some people are actually fighting.

What is the matter ? Ask one of the crowd. He will show you a card, upon which is printed

VOTE FOR JENKINS.

Then he will point to a poster on the wall, on which is printed in a different colour,

VOTE FOR SMITH.

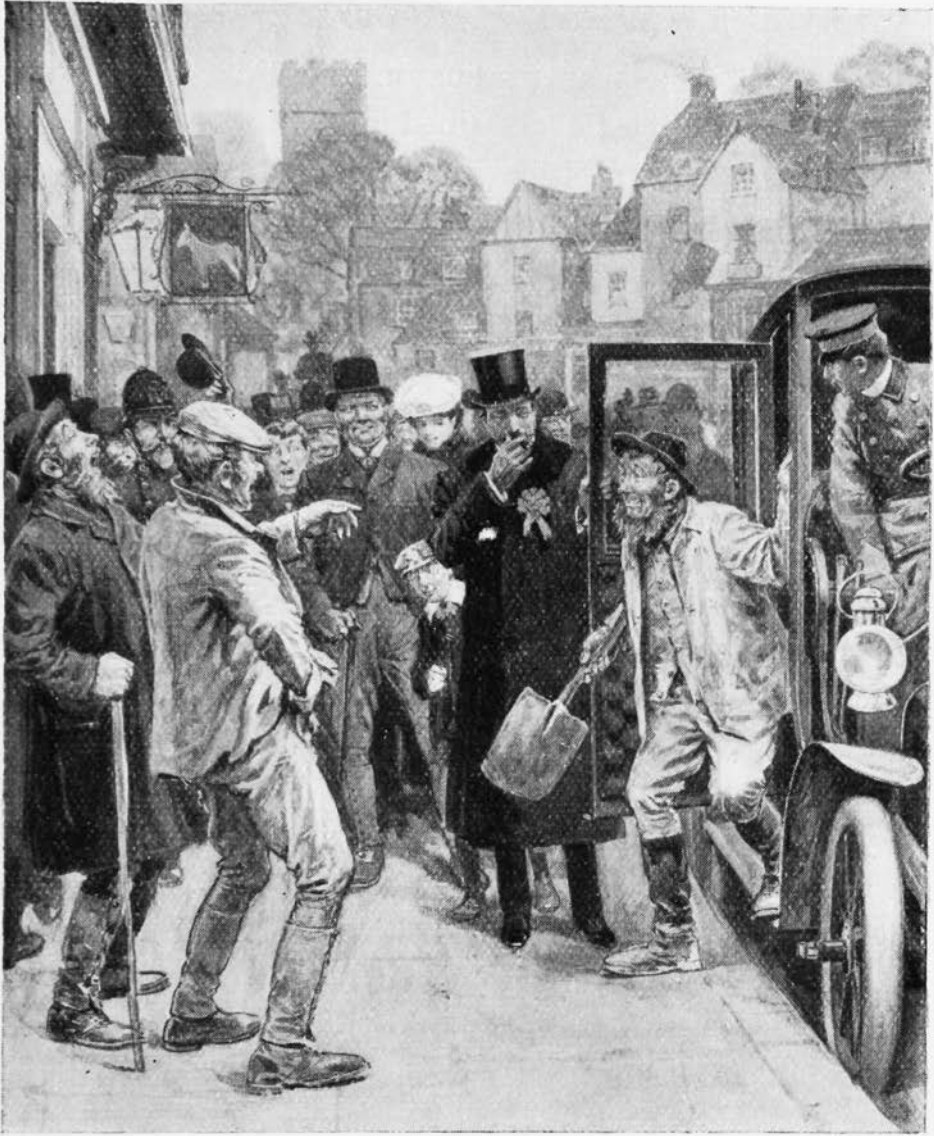
Lastly, he will tell you that it is election day, and that every man worth knowing has been to that school yonder,

to give his vote for Jenkins or Smith, so that one of them may be elected to represent the townspeople in Parliament, where he will take care that every citizen shall enjoy his rights and perform his duties, and that the people of some other country shall not come and rob us of our country, our wealth, or our liberty.

Years ago, these election days were more exciting than to-day. But they were not so pleasant ; for people ate and drank more than was good for them, threw rotten eggs, bad fish, dead cats, and stones at the men who offered themselves for election, and, generally, indulged in free fights, in which many were badly injured.

All this has been stopped now, because people are wiser. We count heads, instead of breaking them ; and when your father, your uncle, or your brother votes, no one need know how he has voted, for he has only to ask for a printed paper, put a X against the name of the candidate he favours, and slip it into the ballot box. These papers are counted at the end of the day, or early the next morning. Should Jenkins secure the larger number of votes, he will be declared elected. He will then write M.P. (member of Parliament) after his name, and take his seat in the House of Commons to help in the government of his country.

And now, as some of you are already longing to become members of Parliament when you are old enough, you will want to know more about their work and how the country is governed. Even though you cannot all become members of Parliament, you may all be citizens ; it is



THE HUMOURS OF A MODERN ELECTION

Great efforts are made to secure every vote, and some amusing incidents have occurred through the use of the motor-car to bring poor voters to the poll.

only proper, therefore, that you should learn something about your local and national institutions, so that you may use them rightly and well.

2. WHAT IS A CITIZEN ?




YOU remember reading in the Bible how Paul the Apostle described himself as “a citizen of no mean city,” and that when he claimed the rights of Roman citizenship, the chief captain exclaimed, “With a great price obtained I this freedom ;” to which Paul answered, “But I was free-born.”

This story tells you that in those days the right to be a citizen was greatly valued ; it belonged only to the free-born, and to those who could afford to buy freedom. It seems strange to us to talk of buying “freedom.” We are all free-born in Britain, and directly a slave steps upon British soil, he is free.

This was not so in olden times, even in Britain. Only a few people were free, and only some of the few were citizens. Every one had duties to perform, but only the free man or the citizen had “rights.” To-day, we cannot buy freedom, or citizenship, but we can all enjoy both, because, like Paul, we are “free-born.”

All British subjects are called citizens, as a rule, because they enjoy certain “rights,” and have to perform certain duties of citizenship ; but they cannot strictly be called full citizens until they possess a vote, which enables them to take a part in the government of their village, town, or country. We shall have to consider this full citizenship presently. Let us first see what are the principal rights and duties of every citizen, always remembering that there is no “right ” without a “duty ” or “duty ” without a “right.”

3. RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF THE CITIZEN.

“IRE! Fire!” Up the street gallops the fire-engine with its hose, its ladders, and its brave helmeted men ready to fight the flames and meet a burning death, if need be, in order to save the lives of some humble citizens in the blazing house yonder.

It is only a poor neighbourhood. The house is old and dingy, the inhabitants are tattered and torn; but they enjoy the right to live, and to have their lives protected, just as much as the King at Buckingham Palace. In return for this right, which they and we equally enjoy, it is their duty and ours to allow other people to live, and to protect life whenever we see it in danger.

But who is that man in uniform whom the crowd are cheering? He has come out from one of the burning houses before the firemen reach them, and he is carrying on his shoulders a little child. He has lost his cap, his uniform is scorched, his hands and face are black with smoke.

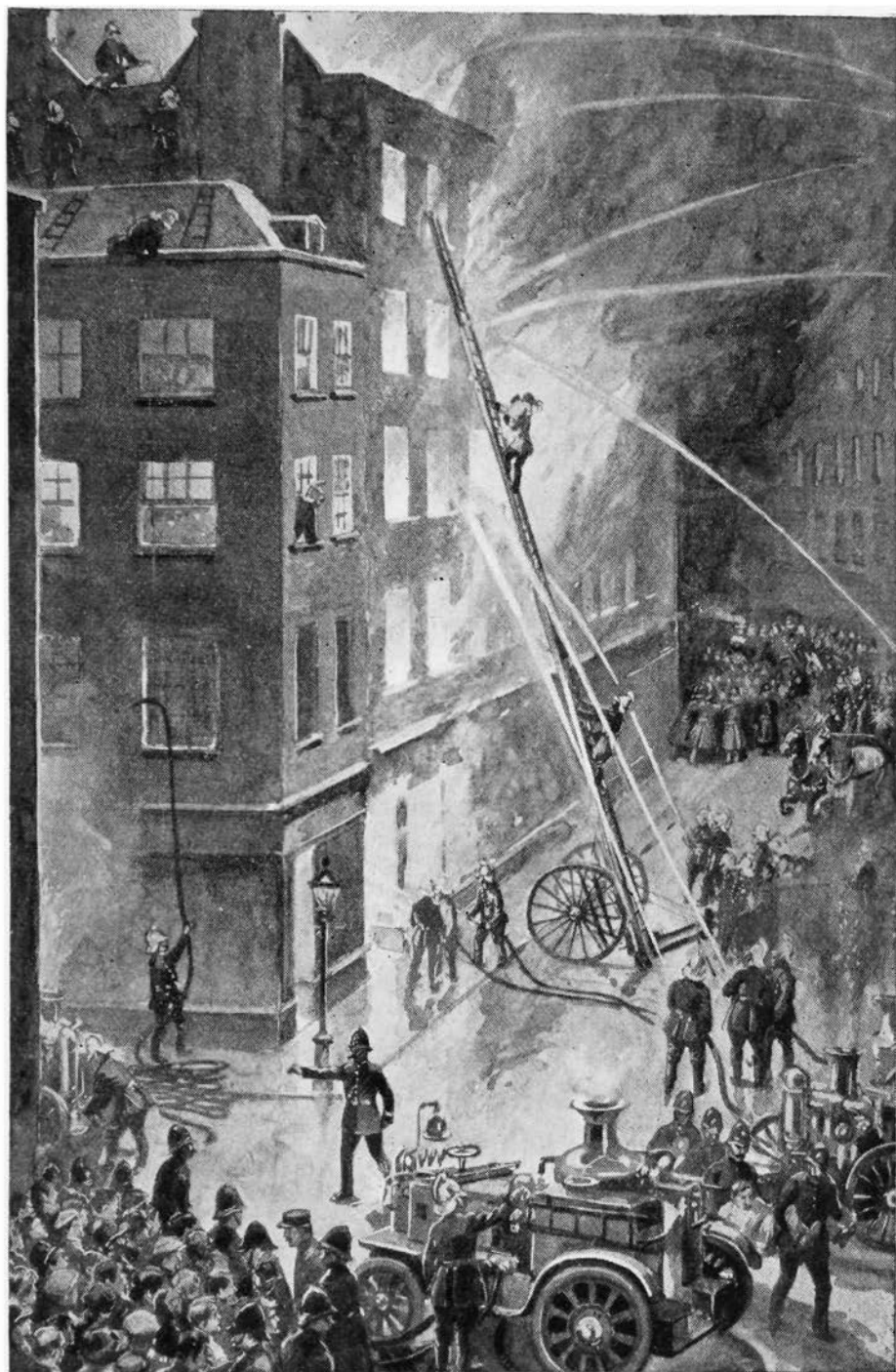
He is a soldier, whose chief duty is to fight for his country, to protect us all from foreign enemies, who would take away from us our liberties and our citizen rights. He was passing by the houses when the fire broke out, and he at once gave the alarm, which every good citizen can and ought to do: then, seeing some children at the top windows, he dashed up the stairs through the

blinding smoke, and risked his own life in his efforts to rescue them.

This was no part of his duty as a soldier. He was not paid to do it. But he was not one of those people who only do those duties they are paid to do. Such people are not worth knowing, and are not worthy of the name of Britons. Good citizens do not ask or require payment for doing a duty, or serving their fellow-creatures. Like this brave soldier, they always do unto others as they would like others to do unto them.

Let us leave the fire and go down the street. On the way we shall meet several policemen. One is keeping the crowd from venturing too near the fire, thus preventing them from obstructing the firemen in their duty. Others are directing the traffic at the bottom of the street, seeing that people crossing the road are not knocked down or run over, and that every person, whether on foot, on horseback, or in a vehicle, has the free use of the King's highway, and behaves properly in the public thoroughfare.

Another policeman is guarding the bank opposite. It is the duty of every citizen to save some money against sickness or accident, or to put it by for old age. People usually deposit these savings in a bank, and they have the right to have their money or property looked after. Some people, unfortunately, have not enough money to save, but they have a home with furniture and tools, and things that have been given them or purchased, and which, consequently, they value. They have a right, just as



SCENE AT A FIRE IN LONDON

much as the rich people, to have these protected. We call these rights the rights of property.


The policeman will protect, not only our property, but our liberty. Do you see that crowd over at the street corner? A man on a stool is addressing the people. He has a grievance, and he is making it public. He is brandishing a newspaper, in which he has also made public his opinions about a political dispute.

He has the right to speak and to write freely, and the policeman who is watching him will see that he has fair play, and is not interrupted too much, so long as the man himself respects the same rights of the people he is addressing, and allows them to ask questions afterwards, and does not offend their religious, moral or other feelings intentionally. This is a right which the citizens of very few countries enjoy, and we should be very proud of it.

Whenever, then, we come out in the morning and see the policeman at the street corner, it should serve to remind us of our rights to life, ownership of property and liberty. It should also remind us of the duties which we owe to others, because if we are found neglectful of those duties, by trespassing against the laws of life, property and liberty, the policeman will take us to the Courts of Justice, where we shall be tried and punished.

These rights and duties of life, property and liberty we call our "fundamental" rights and duties, because without them we should consider ourselves badly governed, and we should have to unite to turn out the Government, and put a new one in its place.

4. GOVERNMENT AND SELF-GOVERNMENT.

“ OAL! No! Foul! How's that, referee? ”

A shrill whistle blows across the football field, and the two teams stop their play suddenly, while the referee gives his decision.

The referee has been elected by the two rival football teams to govern their game, and they agree to obey his ruling. Why? Because they know that in football and every other game, as well as in every business of life, no two groups of people can work or play together long without disagreement.

They know also that when such disagreements take place, one of the parties must be wrong; perhaps both are wrong; yet neither will own that they are wrong. Unless then a referee be elected, the game will turn into a fight between the two teams, until both are exhausted, or the weaker gives in, or the police interfere and clear everyone off the field.

So it is in the ordinary affairs of life, and so it has been in the history of nations. In some places where two people have fought, one has conquered and made the other submit. In other places, whole races have died out, through fighting against each other, and for want of good government. In other places again, while two parties have been fighting, a third party, like the police in the football field, has interfered, and forced both the fighting parties to yield to their decision or government.

Where the people are wise they elect their own

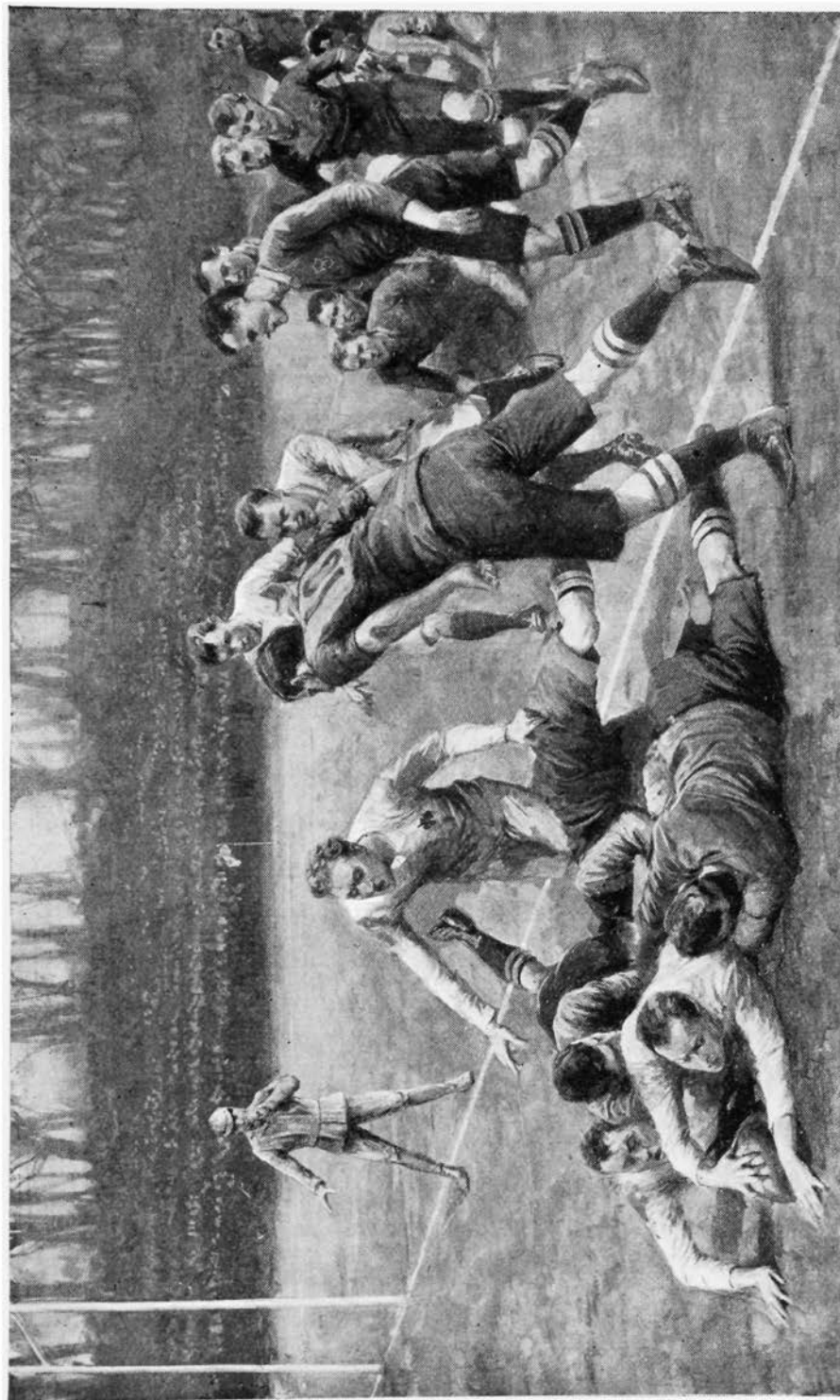
government, or referee. They can then work or play better than other people, because they know that those whom they have elected are, like the referee, acquainted with all the rules of the game better perhaps than are the players themselves. They know also that those who are elected will see fair play, and judge wisely of people's mistakes.

You will, therefore, see that everybody either wants government, or has to submit to it. When people have government forced upon them without any choice, we call it tyranny or despotic government ; when they elect their own governors, we say that they possess self-government and liberty.

The amount of liberty among self-governed races depends upon how the people use their rights, and upon the character of the governors whom they elect. The British people have been self-governed for centuries, but they have not always made the most of their rights or chosen the best representatives, and so they have not always enjoyed as much liberty as they do to-day.

But British government is now the admiration and the model of the world. It is our duty, therefore, as British citizens, to help to keep it in this position ; to be proud of our institutions, our rights and our duties ; and when we get our votes, to elect as our governors only those persons who are known to be of the highest character and ability.

It may also be our duty to offer ourselves for election. But we need not be members of Parliament in order to take a share in the government of our country. We can



THE GREAT RUGBY MATCH BETWEEN ENGLAND AND SOUTH AFRICA AT THE CRYSTAL PALACE, 1906

The referee awards England a try, thus equalizing the scores. The match ended in a draw.

do so by serving on our local councils, by writing books or newspaper articles, by preaching in the pulpit, by teaching in the school, or simply by using our votes. For good government is never carried on by one person alone, or by a few, but by many.

Even a school, which is very small in comparison with our country, is divided up into classes ; each class is governed by a teacher ; and all the teachers are responsible to a head teacher. There are many more parishes, towns, and counties in Great Britain than there are classes in the school, and many more governors than teachers. Yet every little parish has its own government ; every citizen lives in some parish, town, or district ; every parish, town and district is situated in some county ; every county is part of a country ; and the citizen not only has a voice in the government of each of these divisions, but he may also be elected in each as a governor.

Some of our members of Parliament have been workmen, railway guards, or clerks, but most of them have served first upon their parish, town, or county council. The British people are indeed beginning to recognize that one of the best qualifications a man may possess for membership of Parliament is that of having been trusted by his fellows with the government of their local affairs. Let us learn all we can about these local councils and the institutions with which they have to deal ; then we shall better understand the importance of Parliament and our greater institutions.

SECTION II.

OUR LOCAL INSTITUTIONS.

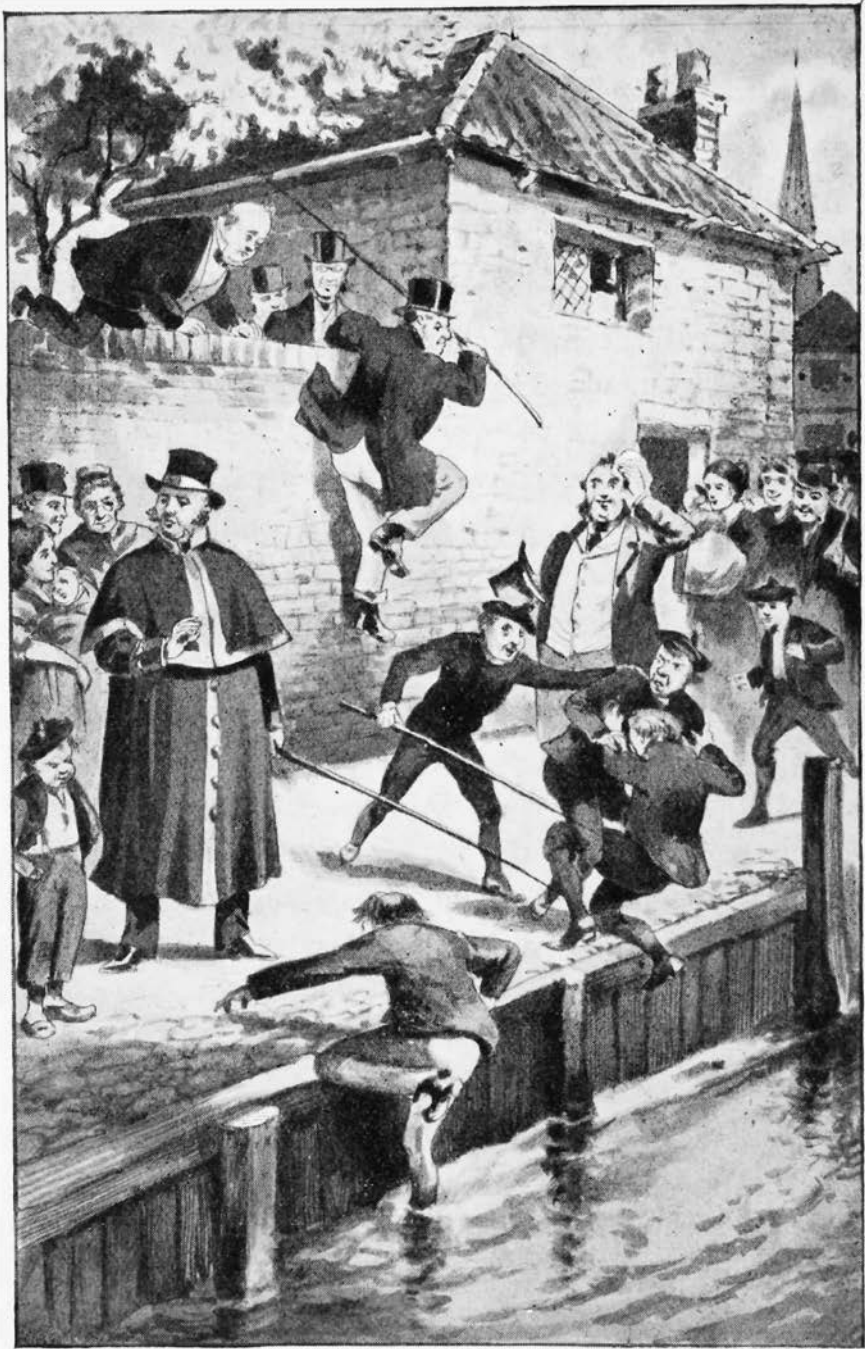
5. THE PARISH BOUNDS.



HAVE you ever seen the choir boys of the village beat the parish bounds? This is a ceremony which usually takes place about Ascension Day. The boys and the parish clerk, or the clergyman, leave the church, or hall, or school with white wands or sticks, and they make a procession round the parish, stopping every now and then to beat the flagstones, the walls or the hedges with the sticks. Over hedge and wall and stream they clamber or leap, and when they get back to the school, they are treated to buns and milk.

But at one time, instead of getting buns and milk, and instead of beating the walls or stones, the boys themselves were beaten all round the parish bounds with the sticks. That was the time when no one except the rich, could leave the parish without permission; and to make sure that the people should not forget this, they were taken round while they were young and beaten at the boundaries.

In those days people could not choose their own careers or occupations. They were obliged to work at the same trades that their fathers pursued; they had to labour from sunrise till sunset; and if they neglected to attend service at the parish church, they were fined. There were no such institutions then as public baths and



BEATING THE BOUNDS

washhouses, free libraries and museums, or parish councils.

How different are things now ! We are free to go where we please, and worship where and how we like. Every occupation is open to us. Boys are no longer beaten round the bounds ; and the bounds themselves have been so altered that in many places the ceremony of beating them is no longer observed. Still it is very useful to know where the new boundaries are, and to be able to point out the principal places of interest in the parish.

6. THE PARISH CHURCH.



IN making a round of the parish, one of the first places you will visit will be the Parish Church. This is one of our oldest citizen institutions. At one time it was the only place of education and public meeting. It also afforded shelter to those in distress. The criminal flying from justice, or the defeated soldier escaping from battle claimed sanctuary at its altar ; for while he was there none dare touch him ; he was safe from arrest or death.

The villagers held their markets in the aisles of the church ; the affairs of the parish were discussed in the vestry ; and the vicar and churchwardens governed the parish in almost everything, except the punishment of crime. No one could be buried in the consecrated ground of the churchyard except those who belonged to the Church of England, and no service was read over people who had committed suicide or were unbaptized.

If you should visit some of the old villages in Belgium and Germany, you would see parish life centred around the parish church just as it used to be in England.

The parish church is still a valuable citizen institution. It solemnizes the marriages of those of our citizens who are not satisfied with registering their vows at other churches or chapels or at the Registrar's office; it encourages boys' brigades, mutual improvement and temperance societies; and it affords a place of worship and retirement, where people may think and hear about the highest duties of citizenship.

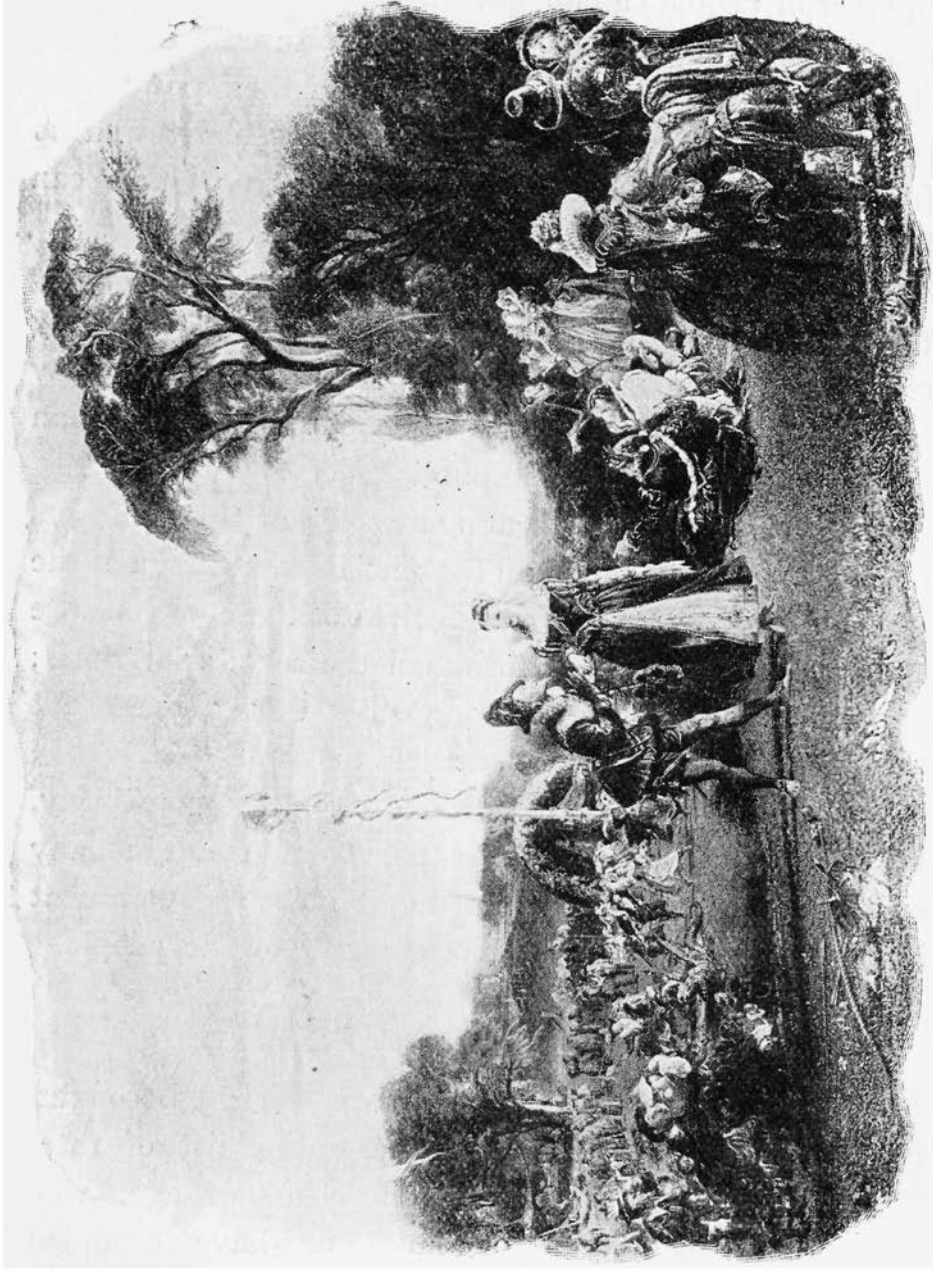
The vestry, also, in urban parishes, retains many of its governing functions. But generally, and particularly in the country districts, the powers of church and vestry have been absorbed or taken over by the parish councils and it is to these bodies that we owe all our modern improvements.

7. THE PARISH COUNCIL.



EVERY rural parish has a parish meeting at least once a year. Every ratepayer and every person who pays £10 a year in rent and who has lived in the parish for twelve months may attend and vote. These meetings are always held after six o'clock in the evening, and if six people want a meeting at any time after that hour, they may call one. Thus every one can have a voice in the government of his parish.

If there are more than three hundred inhabitants, a council has to be elected by the meeting for the management of affairs, because, as we have already seen, a large



THE VILLAGE GREEN ON MAY DAY IN THE DAYS OF QUEEN ELIZABETH
(From the picture by C. R. Leslie, R.A.)

number of people cannot govern themselves so well as a few selected for that special purpose. In case these few should take too great an advantage of their power, the parish meeting retains the right to check them ; and no free libraries, baths, washhouses, or street lamps can be put up without the approval of this meeting.

Parish councillors are elected every year. They have to look after the footpaths and roads ; and no one may close up a thoroughfare without their consent. They have power to purchase land and provide new recreation grounds, village greens, and public offices.

They have the right to appoint some of the managers of the village school, and all the officials who carry out the work of the Council. The principal of these officials are the parish clerk, who performs all the secretarial work ; and the overseers, who, among other duties, make out the lists of those who are entitled to vote.

The work of the overseers is one of great responsibility, because any carelessness on their part would result in many citizens losing their vote, and might place a government in power which was not representative of the people.

8. THE VOTERS' LISTS.

EVERY August, the overseers—or, in boroughs, the town clerks—make out a list of rate-payers, over twenty-one years of age, who are owners of houses or land, or have occupied houses or shops from July 15 in the previous year. All these people are entitled to vote at every election.

The overseers have to exhibit these lists on the doors of churches, chapels, post-offices, police stations, and public libraries, so that anyone who thinks his name should be on the list may see for himself.

Suppose that your name ought to be, but is not, on the list. You can claim to have it inserted. A Revision Court is held every September for this purpose. If you fail to make the claim, and no one else does it for you, you will lose your vote. Now, many people do not take the trouble to look at these voters' lists; so a few omissions on the overseers' part may result in Smith being elected a member of Parliament instead of Jenkins, for sometimes the votes are nearly equal.

There is another reason why you should examine these lists. Some people contrive to get on the lists who are under twenty-one, or who for some other reason are not entitled to vote. The overseers may not always be able to inquire into each case, but you may know the facts. If you see a name on the list which you know should not be there, you may object, and the Revision Court will see that justice is done.

Lodgers who pay ten pounds a year for rent are entitled to vote at the Parliamentary and the Parish Council and District Council elections, but not at the Borough or County Council elections, except in London, where they have the right to vote at the election of members of Parliament, and also of all local bodies, such as the County Council, Borough Councils, and Boards of Guardians. Lodgers have to send a written claim for their votes

to the overseers. These claims are published, so that people may make objection to them, if necessary.

The overseers, therefore, are very important officials ; but they are not paid for performing these duties, and any person may be called upon to serve. The Parish Council may, however, appoint an assistant overseer, who receives a salary and sometimes acts as clerk to the Council, or as rate collector.

There are many other officials, also, who have to be paid ; and you will probably want to know now who pays them, and who meets all the expenses for printing, the cost of the offices, of the schools, libraries, baths, and the numerous other local institutions.

9. THE RATES.



ANOTHER very important duty which falls upon the overseers is the assessment and collection of rates. A paid official is usually appointed to collect. He is called the rate collector.

Every one knows the rate collector, and many people would rather not know him. No official is more harmless ; yet none is less liked than he. Some people are “ not at home ” when he calls ; others will not pay until they are summoned, when, of course, they have to pay the cost of the summons as well. They forget that all the benefits of freedom, of health and of government, which we enjoy, have to be paid for.

All local expenses are paid out of the rates, and national expenses out of the taxes. Let us notice now how

everybody contributes something, according to his means, to the rates.

All the property in the district, including railways, canals and street hoardings, is valued at so many pounds a year. About a sixth of this is deducted for wear and tear, and the remainder is called the rateable value. Thus, if you rent a house at £30 a year, the rateable value is £25. Supposing, then, that the average rate which is required from everybody amounts to 6s. 8d. in the £, your rates will be £8 6s. 8d. each year.

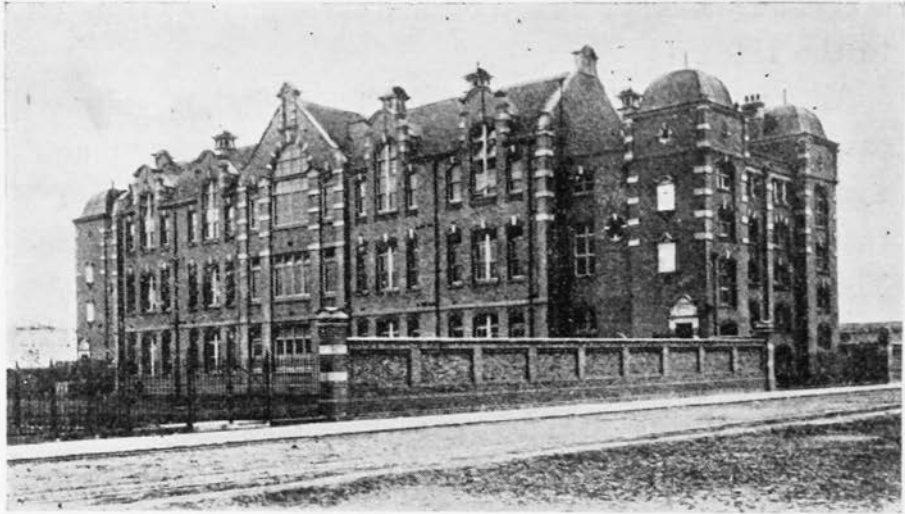
If you think you are rated too high, you can appeal, and if you can prove your case, your rates will be reduced. Lodgers do not pay rates, but the rooms they rent are cheaper or dearer according to the rates and the rent of the house. Thus every one really contributes something, but only according to his means, to the maintenance of our local institutions.

10. THE SCHOOL.



THE most important of our local institutions is the school. Most of us love our school. If we do not, we ought to, because we owe to it that education which distinguishes us from the savage, and which enables us to earn our own living honestly.

This is not all we owe to our school. There we develop our bodies as well as our minds, there we make our first friends and our first enemies; there we find not only that we cannot do always as we like, but that there are others of the same age as ourselves who are stronger



A LARGE COUNCIL SCHOOL

and more clever than we are, and this makes us try to equal and surpass them ; there also we learn toleration for others, and are fitted for those citizen responsibilities which one day we may have to undertake.

The history of the school is as old as that of the church. In the days when most disputes were settled by the sword, those people who wanted peace and learning sought refuge in the monasteries, where the monks taught them all that they wanted to know.

Later on, these monks used to select those boys who showed special ability, no matter how poor they were, and sent them to the university. Ploughboys became bishops and lawyers at a time when kings and nobles could neither read nor write.

The kings and nobles soon found that "knowledge was power;" so they were obliged to learn as well as fight, and as they were very jealous of the power which

the church and the people might exercise through education, they tried to prevent the masses from having such knowledge, until at last, when for various reasons the monasteries were closed, the poor were left uneducated.

Grammar schools were then built for the middle classes, and one or two charity schools, like the Bluecoat School, were put up for the most diligent of the poorer people. The middle classes then became jealous of these charity schools, and managed to use them for their own children, so that for a long time the poor people were as ignorant as could be.

About the beginning of the nineteenth century Sunday schools were opened, and, strange as it may seem to you, reading, writing and arithmetic were at first taught in these schools to any poor people who attended. So crowded did these schools become, and so anxious were people to learn, that day schools were opened, and the Government gave money to help them.

Then almost everybody began to think that they could open schools and teach. If some of us could go back to the time when our grandfathers and grandmothers were boys and girls, we should scarcely be able to keep from laughing at some of the schools and their teachers.

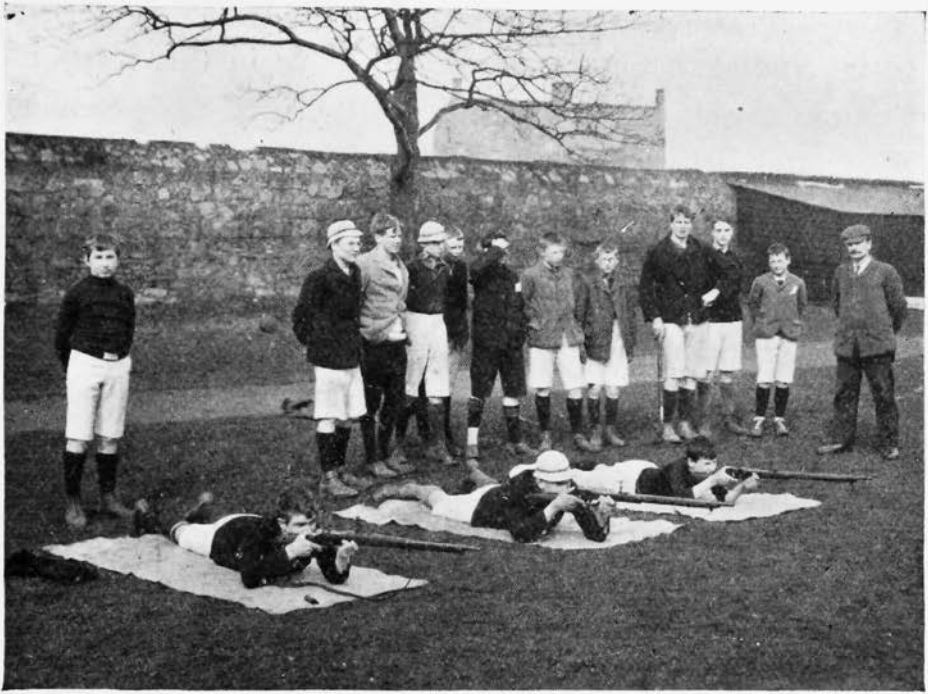
Suppose that some morning when you went to school you found that, instead of the fine building and airy rooms to which you are accustomed, there was nothing but a stuffy bedroom or unsavoury kitchen in which to learn your lessons. Suppose, also, that instead of the

well-educated teachers, who have given a lifetime to their profession, you found that you were expected to learn from discharged barmaids or servants, lodging-house keepers, milliners, and people who could scarcely write or add up a column of figures. Yet such was the state of many of our schools in 1859. Thousands of children, consequently, did not go to school at all.

Then the Government woke up. In 1870, the Elementary Education Act was passed. Board schools were built all over the country; proper teachers were appointed and registered; and parents were forced to send their children to school. At first a small charge was made for the children's education, but later the Board schools were opened free to all, and evening classes were started for those who wished to continue their studies after they had left school and begun to earn their own living.

These schools are now called Council schools, because they are under the control of the district, borough or county councils. These councils appoint managers, correspondents and inspectors to visit the schools, and to do all they can for their advancement. His Majesty's Inspector comes down from the Board of Education to see that the councils are using their educational authority well, and if he finds everything satisfactory, he recommends grants of money from the State funds to assist their work.

Most of the councils offer a number of scholarships for competition among the more clever boys and girls. By the aid of these, it is possible for the children of the

*Photo by**Clarke & Hyde*

A CADET CORPS PRACTISING

poorest parents to go from the elementary school to the secondary or large public schools, where literature, science, and other advanced subjects are taught, and at which it is possible to win extra scholarships, that will take the winners to the university, and pay for all their expenses while they are there.

Those who are not fortunate enough to win one of these scholarships, and whose parents cannot afford to keep them at school after fourteen or sixteen years of age, can still continue their studies at the evening schools, at which almost every subject is taught, including literature, languages, science, art, and citizenship.

It is most essential, if we are to be good citizens, that

we should make every use of the education which is offered to us. Other countries are ahead of us in this respect. German clerks are ousting English clerks in our great cities, and British trade is suffering from our people not taking sufficient interest in technical education, whilst our rivals abroad are taking every advantage of it.

At some schools also there are rifle classes, at which boys are trained to be good marksmen, so that when they are older, they can join the volunteers or the militia, if they wish, and be ready to efficiently defend their country should there be need of their services. For the girls there are cookery and laundry classes, with opportunities to learn art needlework, music, and other subjects which serve to make a home attractive, useful and beautiful.

It is most important that the best of education should be given to our girls, for one day most of them will be wives and mothers, and will have the greatest influence upon the careers of their husbands, as well as upon the early life and future of their children. Almost every man who has risen to fame has acknowledged how much he has owed to a good mother, or a good wife; and there are few wives and mothers who will not admit how much they owed to their early education.

Finally, those who use their school days well will look back upon them in years to come with pride and delight. Then they will explain to their children why the school is so important an institution, and why they should value it so much, and make the most of the lessons learnt there.

II. PUBLIC LIBRARY AND MUSEUM.



THE education of the good citizen only begins at the school; it is never finished; and it is never too late to learn. You can always tell the scholar from the smatterer, and the wise man from the fool, by the way they estimate and use their knowledge. The man who knows a little thinks he knows everything, but the more a man really knows, the more he realizes how much he has yet to learn.

There are other places of education besides the school and the university; and the most important perhaps are the public library and the public museum. Almost every parish now possesses a free public library with a reading room and, sometimes, a writing room.

Here one may read of all the wisdom of the ages, from the time of the mighty Pharaohs and the mysterious Sphinx to the present day; here one may sit in silent contemplation of the deeds of great men who have long since left this world, and yet who seem to live again in books; here one may get glimpses into the future through the written thoughts of some genius gifted with foresight and imagination. All this is free to our citizens, and, if they wish, they may borrow the books to read at home for a short time.

Few of our ancestors enjoyed this privilege, for public libraries have only come into general use during the last twenty years. Every parish may now have its public library, if the majority of the people wish for one; but as the council may spend no more than one penny in the

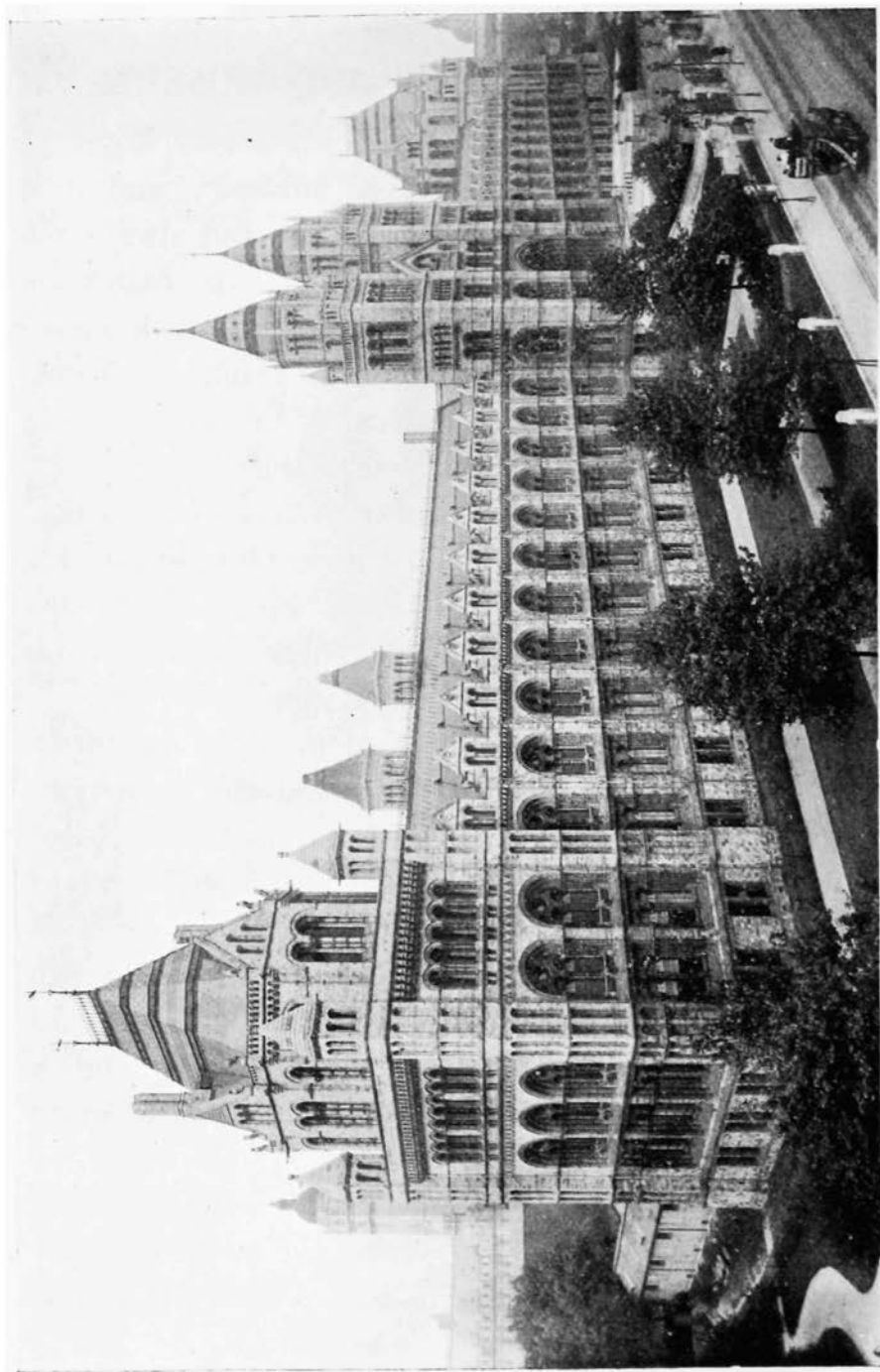


Photo by

THE NATURAL HISTORY MUSEUM, SOUTH KENSINGTON

Photolithrom Co.

pound for every ratepayer, you will have to go to the county town, or some other large city, if you wish to see and use the best public libraries. In London the most valuable books may be found in the Guildhall Reference Library, which is open free every week-day, or in the British Museum Library, to which the publishers are obliged to send a copy of every book that is printed.

Museums and art galleries are usually too costly for the village and the small town, but they, also, are institutions of education. When you go into a great city, like London, Birmingham, Liverpool, or Glasgow, do not forget to visit the principal museums there.

In these places you may gaze upon a collection of animal, bird, and vegetable life, as well as works of art, from parts of the world which you will never perhaps be able to visit. You may study with eager curiosity and wonderment the specimens of animals and birds which have long ceased to exist, and the rude implements of uncivilized men, of whose history we know nothing except what we can gather from these primitive articles, because they lived and died before history was written.

12. THE PUBLIC BATHS AND WASHHOUSES.



WITH all our educational institutions, however, it is of little use training the mind unless the body be kept pure and in good condition. This can only be done by cleanliness and healthy exercise of every bodily function, for which the public baths of

our large towns afford excellent facilities. Handsome baths for swimmers and non-swimmers are now to be found in almost every locality, and in some places, as at Tooting Common, Brockwell Park, Highgate and Victoria Park, all near London, open air swimming baths have been provided.

Swimming is not only conducive to cleanliness, but it exercises every limb and every muscle; and next to being good citizens, you should all try to become strong, healthy, and vigorous men and women. By learning to swim, also, you are preparing yourself against accidents on the sea or river, or at the seaside; and you may perhaps be able to save many a fellow creature's life.

Our ancestors had no such privileges or opportunities as these. Still less would they have dreamed of public washhouses, where overworked mothers could do their washing under better conditions and with better appliances than at home.

Few of these ancestors, perhaps, had washhouses even in their own homes. But then they did not live in great cities where every house is cut off with the least possible garden, and the poor have to dry their clothes on the roof, or by hanging them on lines inside their only living room. Nor did they live in a country village where much of the land is "private," where boards proclaim that "Trespassers will be prosecuted," or motor-cars dash by, smothering everything and everybody in the dust they leave behind them.

Our ancestors had their troubles, however, and they



OPEN AIR SWIMMING BATH, BROCKWELL PARK, LONDON

were not so well looked after as we are to-day. People sometimes talk about the "good old days," but they forget what misfortunes people then had to suffer.

13. THE PUBLIC HEALTH.



YOU have all read of the Great Plague of London, which brought such misery and death into that city in 1665. This was not the only terrible disease from which our people have suffered at different times. The Black Death, cholera, small-pox, diphtheria, and other infectious and contagious diseases have periodically visited not only our towns, but our country villages, paralyzing business and causing panic among the people.

Sometimes diseases have been brought here by dirty, ill-fed refugees from Russia, Germany, and other countries, coming to our shores for employment, or on their way to America. Sometimes they have been brought by infected merchandise, but more often still, perhaps, they have been caused by our own bad drainage, our crowded slums and factories, and the adulteration of our food.

Less than a hundred years ago the sewage of a town was emptied into the nearest stream or river, so that by the time it had passed through a few towns and villages, these rivers were sewage streams, carrying germs of filth and disease wherever they flowed. Less than fifty years ago, many people herded together in cellars unfit for human habitation, while others were permitted to build houses over cesspools, without paying attention to any of the laws of health.

In our day, sanitation has become a science, and is taught in most of our schools. Small-pox and typhus have almost disappeared, the terrible diseases of consumption and cancer have been checked. All the houses of the middle classes, as well as many working class dwellings now contain bathrooms.

To what is all this change due? Partly to education, and partly to science. But neither of these alone could have produced so great a change in so short a time. They have been obliged to work together, and they have had to get material force behind them. This force has been supplied by local government administered by the district councils.

14. THE DISTRICT COUNCIL.



ANY one of you may become a district councillor, and if you happened to be selected as chairman, you would become a county magistrate, and be entitled to put J.P. (Justice of the Peace) after your name. You may be a district councillor for three years without re-election, but usually one-third of the councillors retire each year, so that elections are frequent, and every one has a chance.

Besides looking after the water supply and the drains, and controlling all other sanitary matters, these district councils may inspect lodging-houses and workshops, dairies, bakeries, and laundries, because it is in these places that germs of disease are most likely to be spread.

They may also inspect the food that is sold in the district, and it is well that they should exercise this power to the fullest extent, for there are some unscrupulous people who adulterate food, and so poison our people slowly, and lower the vitality and physique of the nation. Good food and good air are necessities of our existence; that is why some of our poorer children are given meals at school, and why slums are being abolished.

The people who adulterate food deserve to be severely punished, and you can do no better work as a citizen than to bring such people to justice. Doubtful articles of food should be submitted to the public analyst, who is obliged to examine them for a small fee.

Some district councils have another very important duty to perform, namely, to look after the poor and

needy. In larger districts near the great towns, this duty is undertaken by a special Board of Guardians, elected in the same way as the other councils. If we pay a visit to the institution which is the last refuge of the poor and unfortunate, we shall notice something of this work and its important responsibilities.

15. THE WORKHOUSE.



HAVE you ever stood near the gates of the workhouse about eight o'clock on a summer's evening, or at six in the winter? If so, you will have noticed a number of ragged, pitiful-looking people waiting for admission. These are the unfortunate people who, from some cause or another, have no home of their own and no work to do.

In the summer you may see some of them on the tramp in the country lanes, or snoozing under the hedges; in the winter they seek the shelter of the railway arches and the city bridges until the workhouse opens. Sometimes they have to sleep out all night.

Many of them tramp from one workhouse to another without desiring or looking for work, trusting to be taken in at the casual ward of the workhouse, which gives them shelter and food for one night only, and discharges them next morning at eleven o'clock, after they have performed some light tasks in return for their board and lodging. At one time such people were whipped and branded. No one was allowed to beg, and there were no workhouses. The first workhouse was built at Bristol in 1697.

The workhouse is a very clean, but very bare building.

There are seven wards or divisions, one for infirm men, one for infirm women, one for able-bodied men, one for able-bodied women, one for boys between seven and fifteen, one for girls between seven and fifteen, and one for children under seven.

The food, of course, is very modest, but there is enough. The discipline is strict, and sometimes harsh. This depends upon the master and matron of the workhouse, who are paid officials.

There are other residents besides the casuals ; people who have come down in the world, often through no fault of their own, but through their children or acquaintances having ruined them, or through the failure of banks or solicitors, to whom they had entrusted their savings for old age. These people in their time helped, by their charity and by payment of their rates, to assist their country, and they have a right to the help of their fellow-countrymen now.

Many people are ashamed to enter the workhouse, and they try to keep out of it as long as they can. To help them to do so, the Guardians of the Poor, or, in rural districts, the councillors, inquire into all deserving cases, and give them assistance from the rates, without obliging them to go into the workhouse. The difficulty is to find the most deserving people.

The workhouse is a very useful institution, but it is not a pleasant one ; and we should do all in our power to keep out of it ourselves, and help others to do the same.

16. COMMONS, PARKS, AND RECREATION GROUNDS.



WE cannot go far upon any main road without passing a large common or heath. Seats are placed here and there; good paths are cut across the common in every direction, and artificial lakes have been made. This is the work of the local councils. Most of these large tracts of ground belonged at one time to the adjacent village or manor for the use of all the inhabitants; but about the eighteenth century several landowners began to encroach upon these open spaces, and enclosed parts of them with hedges or walls for their own use. These enclosures, although sanctioned by Act of Parliament, became so serious that, after many years had passed, it was necessary to put the remaining commons and heaths under control. The parish, district and town councils are principally responsible for looking after these open spaces, and providing more where necessary.

The town councils have taken full advantage of this citizen right. Thus, the Leeds Corporation acquired Roundhay Park, once a gentleman's mansion and grounds with picturesque woods and lakes. This is now a public recreation ground, where boating, skating, music and open air dancing may be enjoyed. Manchester bought the park of the Earl of Wilton for the same purpose.

Some of the county councils have acted similarly. The London County Council, which is the controlling authority for most of the parks around London, has, in



Photo by

ST. JAMES'S PARK, LONDON

R. Bunting

Children fishing by the edge of the lake.

particular, secured thousands of acres from being built upon, and has purchased many a private park for a public recreation ground. One of the purchases is Brockwell Park, Brixton, where an excellent open air swimming lake has been provided, with boards, dressing-room and concrete bottom.

Some of the large public parks in London belong to the Crown, and are not under the management of the London County Council. These royal parks are under the direct control of the Government and are paid for out of the national taxes. Such is Hyde Park, where great statesmen, artists, authors, and other eminent people may be seen riding, driving, or walking. Another such park is St. James's Park, adjoining St. James's Palace, a favourite resort of young people, especially for fishing.

In most of these parks bands play during the summer ; and in many of them games of all kinds are permitted to be played at certain times of the year. You can see for yourselves at what times and places these games may be played by looking at the notice boards, which are to be found in every park or recreation ground. You will also notice the warning not to pick flowers or destroy shrubs, trees, etc. Many private parks which were once open to the public have been closed because such notices were disregarded. The Councils and the Government provide keepers and policemen to look after these rules on our behalf, and it is our duty to assist them.

The London County Council has, during the last few years, increased the number of open spaces from forty to one hundred and ten, and their area from 2,656 to 4,956 acres, besides providing bathing facilities for women as well as men.

These commons, parks and heaths are the lungs of our large cities, and their value is inestimable in making the lives of our citizens brighter, happier and healthier.

17. THE COUNTY COUNCIL.



SINCE 1888 the county council has been, perhaps, the most powerful of local institutions. It has to keep in repair the main roads (or pay the district council to do so); it also controls and maintains lunatic asylums, reformatories for bad boys and girls, industrial schools and bridges.

It has power to build new bridges or buildings, to alter

boundaries, to divide the county into polling districts for voting purposes, to license theatres, music halls, or any other place for music and dancing, and to decide the number of parish councillors, or whether a parish shall have a council. It may also lend money to the parish councils.

The county council has many other duties. Among the most important are the administration of the free schools, and the partial control of the county police. The county council does most of its work through committees, of which the most important are the Finance Committee, the Education Committee, and the Standing Joint Committee.

The first two of these explain themselves. You ought to know, however, that the Education Committee appoints a board of managers for each school. The Standing Joint Committee is composed of county magistrates as well as members of the county council; it controls the county police force.

The county councillors are elected every three years. Aldermen are elected by the councillors, and hold office for three or six years. Some councils number twenty-eight members, others over a hundred. The chairman becomes a Justice of the Peace, and sometimes receives other honours; but he is only elected for one year.

The area under the county council is generally the same as the old shire, from which it takes its name; but some large shires, like Yorkshire or Lincolnshire, contain several divisions or parts, each of which has its own county

council. There are also a number of large towns, known as county boroughs, which lie outside the county divisions, and whose councils possess powers similar and equal to those of the county councils.

18. THE CORONER, THE LORD LIEUTENANT AND THE SHERIFF.



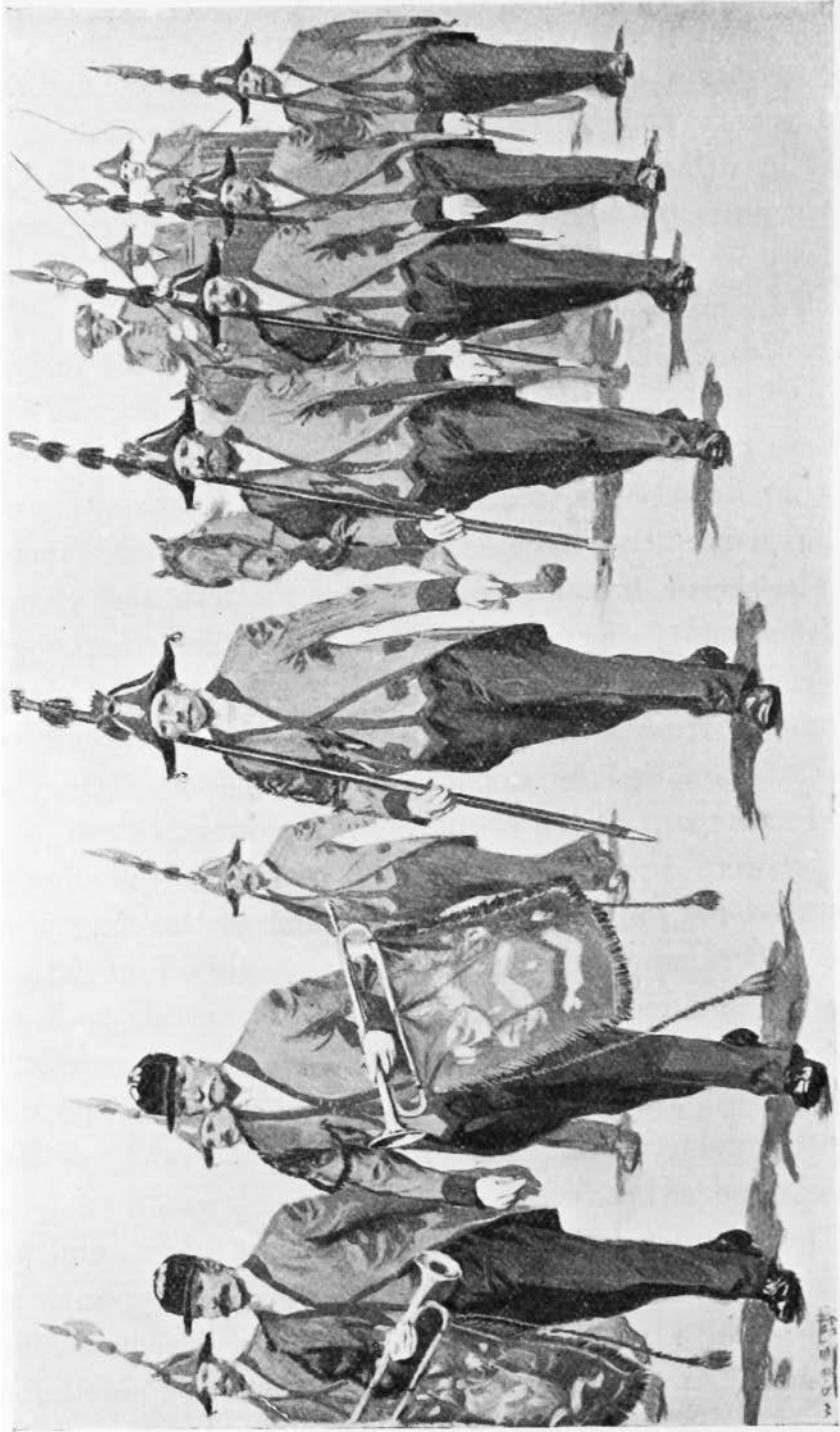
THE appointment of several officials rests with the county council. One official in particular deserves notice, the county coroner. At one time this officer used to inquire into fires, sudden deaths, and discoveries of treasure, besides having various other powers. He now only holds inquests on sudden death, and occasionally, perhaps, inquires into some treasure trove. When he holds his inquest, he can command the services of twelve citizens to act as a jury ; and the same penalty as in the police courts can be enforced for refusal to act.

The county coroner holds office for life, unless removed by the Lord Chancellor for misconduct or incompetence. The county council appoints, but cannot dismiss him. You must not suppose, however, that all coroners are county officers, or hold office in this way. Boroughs which have a separate Court of Quarter Sessions, and a population of not less than 10,000, elect their own coroners. There are also certain places in England where the lord of the manor may appoint a coroner, and in one manor in Essex the tenants are permitted to enjoy this privilege.

Two important officers of the county are not elected by the county council. They are the lord lieutenant and the sheriff. The first, who acts as the principal justice of the peace in the county and as the King's representative at any important county function, is appointed by the Crown, and is usually a peer, or a large landowner. He also commands the county militia, and proposes to the Lord Chancellor the names of suitable persons for the office of justice of the peace. He is allowed to appoint deputy lieutenants to act in his place. You may know these gentlemen by the letters "D.L." after their names.

The sheriff, or shire-reeve, acts as the returning officer at the county elections, and has to provide a hangman to execute death sentences, or else perform the duty himself. He also meets the judges when they come to the Assizes, and he is considered next in rank to the lord lieutenant of the county. At one time, before railways were introduced into this country, the sheriff escorted the judges from one boundary of the county to the other, meeting the neighbouring sheriff at either border, and receiving from him, or transferring to him, the responsibility. The picturesque "javelin men," who always accompany the sheriff, were, in those days, a really necessary armed force, to ensure the safety of the King's judges on the march.

The sheriff receives no salary for his services, and he cannot refuse the position if it is conferred upon him by the King ; only wealthy men, therefore, are selected for election. At one time the sheriffs were appointed for



THE SHERIFF'S JAVELIN MEN ESCORTING A JUDGE

life, but Edward III made a law that no sheriff should remain in the position longer than one year, and that annually, on All Souls' Day, new sheriffs should be elected by the Chancellor, the Treasurer, and the Chief Baron of the Exchequer. The date was changed by George II to the morrow of St. Martin's Day.

In accordance with this law, the judges of the High Court and the officers of the Exchequer meet every year, usually on November 12th, and prepare a list of suitable persons, three for every county. The list is submitted to the King, who, in Privy Council, signifies approval by "pricking," that is, by making a pinprick opposite the names of the officers who are to be elected sheriffs for the ensuing year.

Cambridgeshire and Huntingdonshire have only one sheriff between them. Middlesex had no independent sheriff until 1889, because in 1101 Henry I gave the right of appointing its sheriff to the City of London, which paid a rent of £300 for the county. The mayor and citizens of London appointed the sheriff of Middlesex until the Local Government Act of 1888 deprived them of this right.

The sheriffs of the counties of Cornwall and Lancashire are not elected in the manner we have just mentioned, because both of these counties are royal duchies. The former belongs to the Prince of Wales, who appoints his own sheriff; the latter belongs to the Crown and is nominally administered by the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.

Besides these two exceptions, there are nineteen "counties of cities," or "counties of towns," each of which elects its own sheriff, the appointment being made by the council or corporation on the ninth of November in each year, immediately after the election of the mayor. These counties of cities or towns are entirely independent of the surrounding counties. They are really ancient boroughs, which have been given the special privilege of a county organization.

The City of London, although quite distinct from the County of London, also elects two sheriffs, subject, of course, to the approval of the Crown. These sheriffs are appointed by the aldermen and liverymen of the City companies, and the Lord Mayor of London is always chosen from among those aldermen who have served as sheriffs. There is now also a sheriff of the "County of London;" but it should be remembered that London is only an administrative county, not a "shire" in the old sense, for it includes parts of the three shires of Middlesex, Surrey and Kent.

In Scotland the sheriff is a law officer, who, besides acting as returning officer at elections, and having to revise the electors' lists, is the chief local judge of the county. He is not, like the English and Welsh sheriffs, a resident in the county over which he is appointed, but is usually a practising lawyer resident in Edinburgh, a sheriff's substitute being appointed to act for him. The lord lieutenant of a Scotch county sometimes receives the honorary title of sheriff principal.

19. THE POLICE COURT.



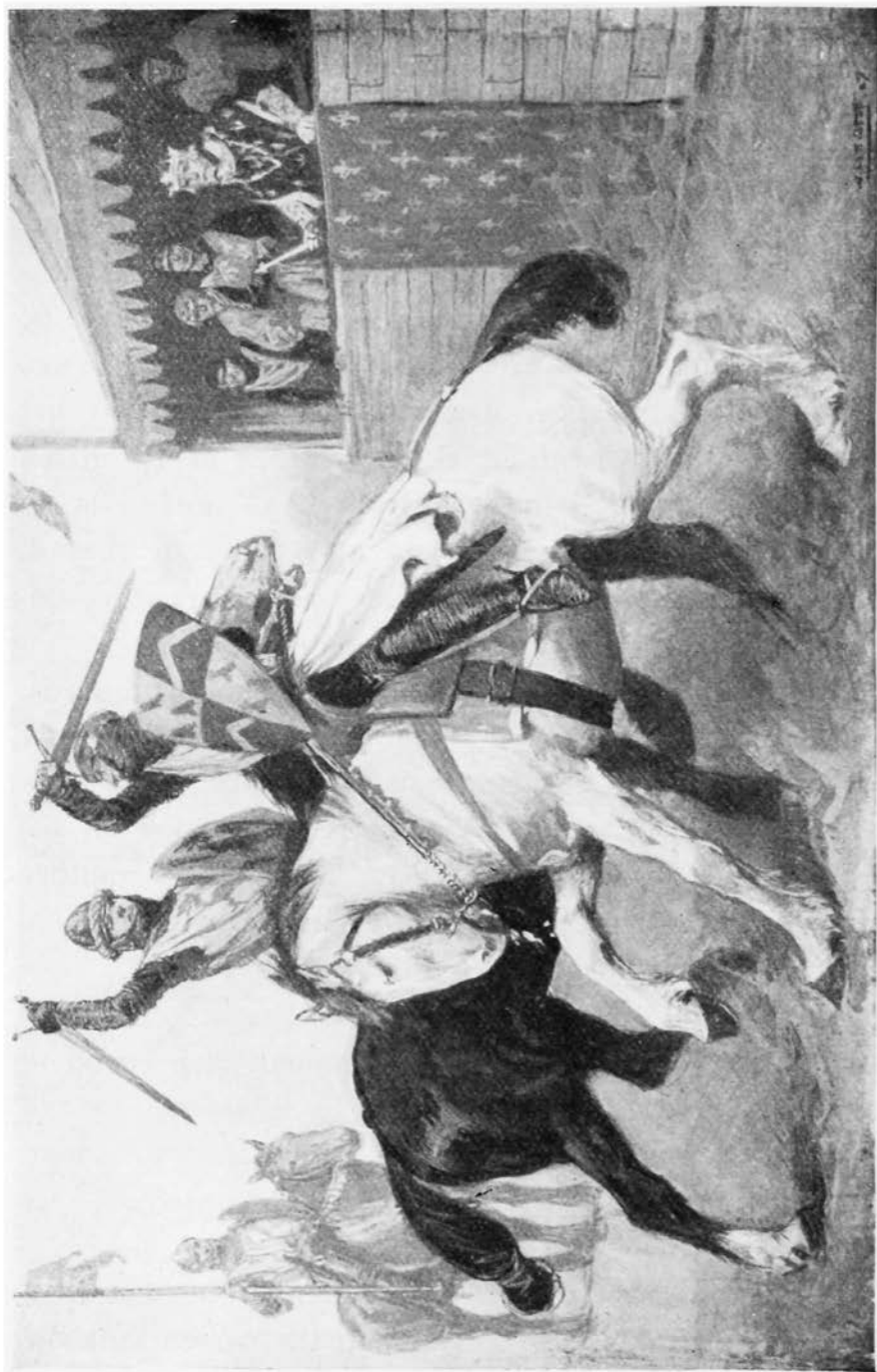
THE police court is another important citizen institution. A morning's visit there will show us some of the saddest sights of life ; but without the police court the good and honest people would be constant sufferers from the wicked and the unscrupulous.

The courts of justice, of which our local police court is one, are the institutions through which every citizen is assured of justice and security. Laws are made by Parliament ; but laws are of no use unless they are obeyed. The courts of justice have to see that the laws are observed, and to punish those who offend against them.

Punishment is good for people who do unlawful deeds. If every man were caught and punished when first committing a bad action, there would be very little wrong-doing. But if punishment is to be good for us, it must be administered justly, and that is another reason why we have police courts, and why every one is considered innocent until proved guilty.

This was not always so. Among our Saxon forefathers, a man who was charged with a criminal offence had to prove his innocence by submitting to an *ordeal*. One of these ordeals was to walk over red hot coals, or take hold of a red hot poker. If a man burned himself he was judged guilty.

Another ordeal was to have the hands and feet tied, and then be thrown into a river. If the person sank, he was innocent ; if he made an attempt to save himself,



A TRIAL BY BATTLE IN NORMAN TIMES

he was seized directly he came to land, and then punished as guilty.

Under the early Normans, innocence was decided by a *trial by battle*, in which of course the strongest, or the richest, who could engage a strong man to fight for him, came off best. Later on, in the reign of Henry II, the trial by jury, which had been experimented with a few times previously, became the custom.

Later still came our modern police court, presided over by justices of the peace. For many years, only wealthy men could become local magistrates, but it is possible now for any educated man to become one by being elected chairman of a district, borough, or county council.

Now let us suppose that you have been summoned to the village police court for an offence. Perhaps it is for picking flowers, or breaking down trees in the public recreation ground, riding on the pathway, throwing things out of a window, or trespassing on private land ; for you can be summoned for any of these acts. The local justice of the peace may fine or imprison you, if he thinks fit, or he may order you to be birched.

If you have been arrested for an ordinary assault, for obstruction, or for disturbing the peace, you may be taken to the police station and locked up for the night. But you must be charged before the magistrate next morning, because one of our laws, the Habeas Corpus Act, says no man may be kept in prison without trial.

When you are brought before the court next morning, the magistrate's clerk, who is a solicitor and knows every

point of the law, reads the charge. You may then call upon any witnesses in your defence, and you may cross-examine your accusers, or you may engage a lawyer to do all this for you.

All witnesses are sworn on oath ; so if they give false evidence they may be prosecuted and heavily punished for perjury. Everything that they say is taken down by the magistrates' clerk, and if you are committed for trial, this evidence is sent to the judge who will try you at the superior court.

The local magistrate need not send you for trial unless he thinks fit, or unless you wish. He may try you by "summary jurisdiction," or, in other words, dispose of the case at once by discharging you, or by imposing a fine, or a term of imprisonment. But if you do not admit the offence, and claim a trial by jury, or if the magistrate thinks the evidence doubtful, you will have to be tried at the Court of Quarter Sessions by a jury directed by a Recorder, or by a bench of county magistrates presided over by a chairman.

If the offence be very serious, as, for example, manslaughter, you may have to go before the Assizes to be tried by a jury directed by the great judges of the land.

20. THE ASSIZES.



IF you live anywhere near a county town, do not miss a visit there when the Assizes are held. These Assizes became common in the days of Henry II, who appointed judges to travel through

the country to see that all his subjects had justice done them by the lords and landowners.

The Assizes are now held about three times a year ; public notice of the exact date is always given, and as the arrival of the judges is attended by great pomp and ceremony, the sight is well worth seeing.

The High Sheriff of the county rides in his state carriage, drawn by four horses with outriders, to meet the judges. He wears either a military uniform or court dress, and he is attended by trumpeters and javelin men in gorgeous liveries. The judges also have their marshals and attendants, and they are escorted by the sheriff to the Assize Courts, where a proclamation is read.

The next day business commences. The judge who sits in the Crown Court, where criminal trials take place, wears a scarlet robe trimmed in ermine. The judge who sits in the Civil Court, where libel and breach of promise actions, and similar cases are tried, wears a black robe. Both wear wigs.

Now suppose that you have been committed for trial at the Assizes. You will be brought into the Criminal Court. In a gallery, or on the right of the judge, sit the Grand Jury ; on the left are the Common Jury ; below the judge is the clerk, and facing him are the barristers.

The Grand Jury usually consists of about twenty-four local magistrates or gentlemen of repute, who consider the evidence before you are put on your trial, and they may discharge you, if they think it insufficient. If the

charge appears to be true, they return a "true bill," which means that they allow you to be tried by the Common Jury of twelve citizens.

21. TRIAL BY JURY.



A HIS trial by jury is a right which is much appreciated by every citizen, but there is attached to it also a duty, and a very responsible duty. Every man who has a vote or pays rates is liable to be called upon to serve on a jury, and he dare not refuse, unless he can put forward a very good excuse, or unless he is objected to by the prisoner.

The prisoner has a right to object to any of the jurymen who may be prejudiced against him. He may call witnesses to support his side of the case, and question those who are witnessing against him. Generally, he engages a lawyer to do this for him, but if he cannot afford to do this, and the charge is very serious, the judge will find a lawyer for him, free of charge.

After the evidence, and after the lawyers on both sides have addressed the jury, the judge sums up, and points out to the jury any questions of law which they do not quite understand. Then they retire to consider their verdict. The next few moments, or it may be hours, are terrible both for the prisoner and the jury.

To act on a jury is, perhaps, to undertake the greatest responsibility of any ordinary citizen. Upon your vote hangs the liberty, perhaps the life, of a fellow-creature. By a nod of your head, the uplifting of your hand, or an

utterance of your voice, you may perhaps launch a human being into eternity, bring sorrow and poverty into a home, and cast a stigma for many years to come upon a respectable person, or maybe upon a whole family.



A TRIAL BY JURY

Yet if you do not do your duty, and find a man guilty when you really believe he is guilty, you are letting loose upon your fellow-creatures a person who has shown himself careless of human life, or indifferent to suffering and the rights of others. Your own father, mother, sister, brother or friend may be his next victim.

If a prisoner be found "guilty," the judge passes

sentence upon him. If he be found “not guilty,” he is discharged, and he may not be tried again for the same offence. If he be found guilty of murder, the judge puts on a black cap and passes sentence of death. This punishment is carried out by hanging him, unless an appeal is made to the Home Secretary, who sometimes reduces the sentence to penal servitude for life.

This administration of justice is the same for rich and poor. You cannot buy or sell justice in the British Law Courts. The judges, twenty-nine in all, are paid large salaries of £5,000 a year, so that they shall have not the slightest excuse for taking bribes; and severe punishment would fall upon them if they dared to do so. They have all had to be distinguished lawyers before they could become judges, and they hold their appointments for life from the Crown through the Lord Chancellor.

The only way by which the judges can be removed is by an order from Parliament. This places them beyond intimidation from the most powerful and rich, and at the same time gives Parliament a hold over them, in case they should interpret the law which is made by Parliament in a way which might subvert or undermine our free institutions, as they did in the reigns of James I and James II.

We have said that the judges are appointed by the Lord Chancellor. He is the chairman of the House of Lords, and the head of our judicial system. He is always a Cabinet Minister, and we shall notice him again presently, when we come to notice the House of Lords.

22. THE CITY AND THE BOROUGH.



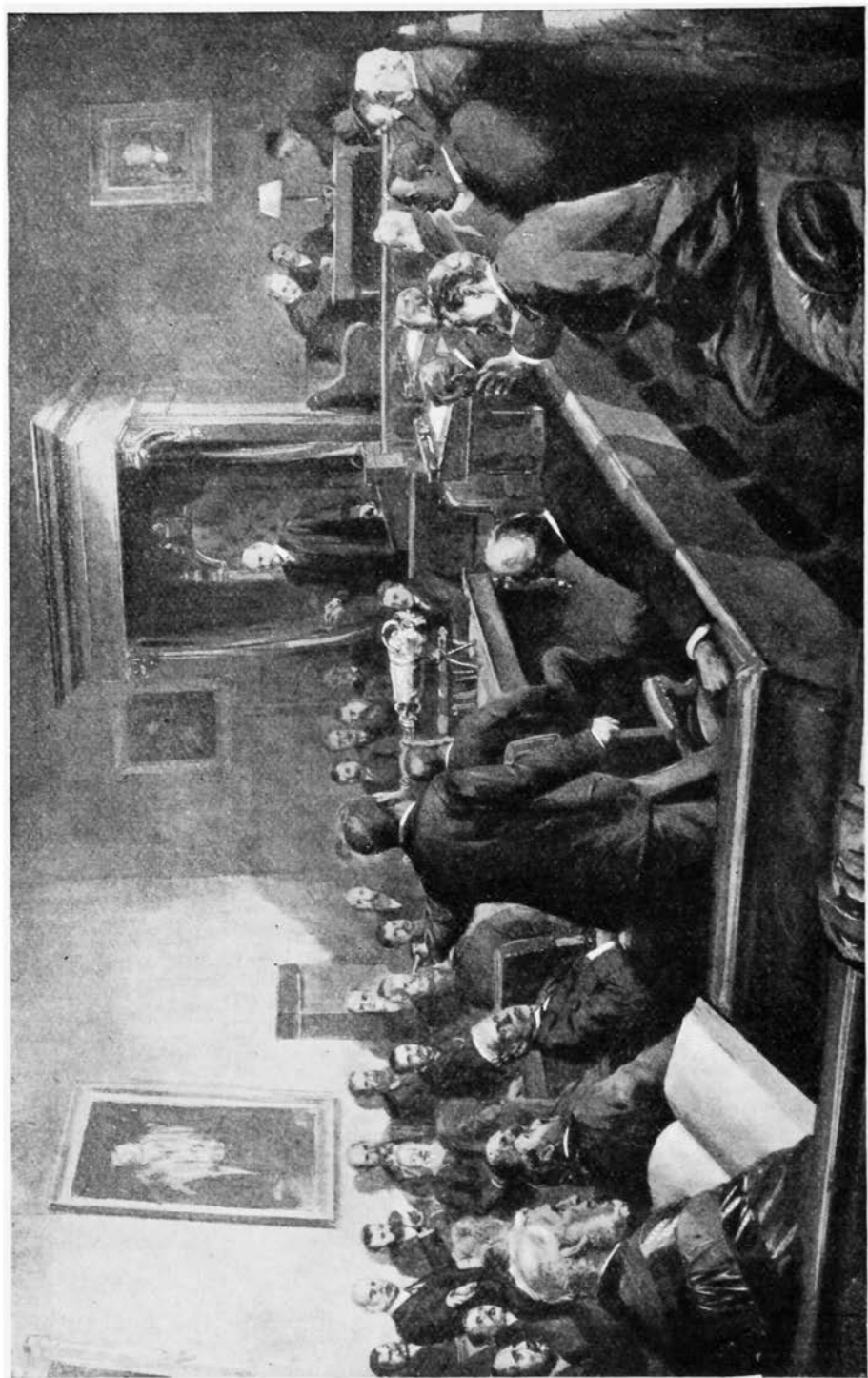
IF we visit any large town of importance in England, we shall find large offices, houses and shops, fine bridges, and wide streets, all lit by electricity. But this is very modern. A hundred years ago there were no street lamps, and the only light to be had was from oil lanterns and tallow candles.

Few of the streets were paved, and people threw their refuse out of the window anywhere. No wonder there were plagues in those days. It was not safe for anyone to go out at night because of the darkness, and because there were no policemen. Only a few watchmen walked up and down, ringing a bell to let people know they were near. How different to our policemen, with their noiseless boots and dark lanterns !

The watchman acted also as a kind of weather prophet and news agency. People would look out of their windows when his bell rang and ask " Watchman ! what of the night ! " He would tell them all the scandal as well as all the important news, if they gave him the opportunity. Now all this sounds very picturesque, but it was not safe and it was not healthy.

There was no local government worthy of the name at that time, and it was not until 1829 that the policeman first made his appearance. Probably you have heard the policeman called " bobby " or " peeler." That is because he was introduced by Sir Robert Peel.

Great changes have come over the city and the borough



THE MAYOR AND CORPORATION OF A CITY

since then. About 1834 it was discovered that some of the magistrates at Malmesbury could neither read nor write, while at Retford a magistrate amused himself by fighting a prisoner. Even in London there were great abuses; only a few people could vote; and one side of the road was watered in the morning and the other in the evening, so that the inhabitants had the dust all day. All this had to be remedied; and one reform after another was made, until in 1888 every borough and every city had its council, and almost everybody was given the vote.

Some of you will perhaps ask what is the difference between a city and a borough, between a citizen and a burgess. There is none to-day except that a city is generally a large town and a borough may be only part of a town. But in days gone by a city was chiefly an ecclesiastical town, that is, there was a cathedral there, while a borough, or burh (as it was once spelt) was a fortified town under the protection of some noble, or the king. Both have the same forms of government and the same privileges. Let us see how they govern themselves.

23. THE TOWN COUNCIL.



HOW many of you have seen the Lord Mayor's show? It is held every year in London during the month of November, to introduce the newly elected mayor to the people, and to impress upon them the wealth and power of the Corporation of the City of London.

About the same time, in every town and borough

throughout England, new mayors are being elected to preside over the town councils. These town councils are more important than parish or district councils, and the town hall, in which they meet, is usually a magnificent building, costing thousands of pounds to erect, and often containing many pictures and other works of art.

The chairmen of these councils are styled "mayors," or in Scotland "provosts;" and in great cities, like London and Edinburgh, they are "lord mayors" or "lord provosts." The councillors are elected for three years, like the district councillors. The town councillors may also elect a limited number of aldermen, either from among themselves or from among other prominent citizens.

The mayor is always considered the first person of importance in the borough. He wears a chain and robes worthy of his office, and he receives a salary to cover the expenses of subscribing to local charities and receiving distinguished visitors, as he is expected to do.

Much of the work of these councils is done by committees, appointed from among the councillors. The town clerk, who acts as secretary to the council, is usually a lawyer.

There are several kinds of boroughs. The most important are the county boroughs and the metropolitan boroughs. The former have the entire management of their own affairs, and rank equally with the county councils. They have their own police forces and fire brigades. The metropolitan boroughs are only found in the suburbs of London, and have not the same



THE LORD MAYOR'S SHOW

This procession is representative of Lord Mayors of former days. The best known of the Mayors, Sir Richard Whittington, is shown in the front of the procession, with the tower of Bow Bells rising in the distance.

independence; they perform a great deal of the same work that the parish and district councils do in the country.

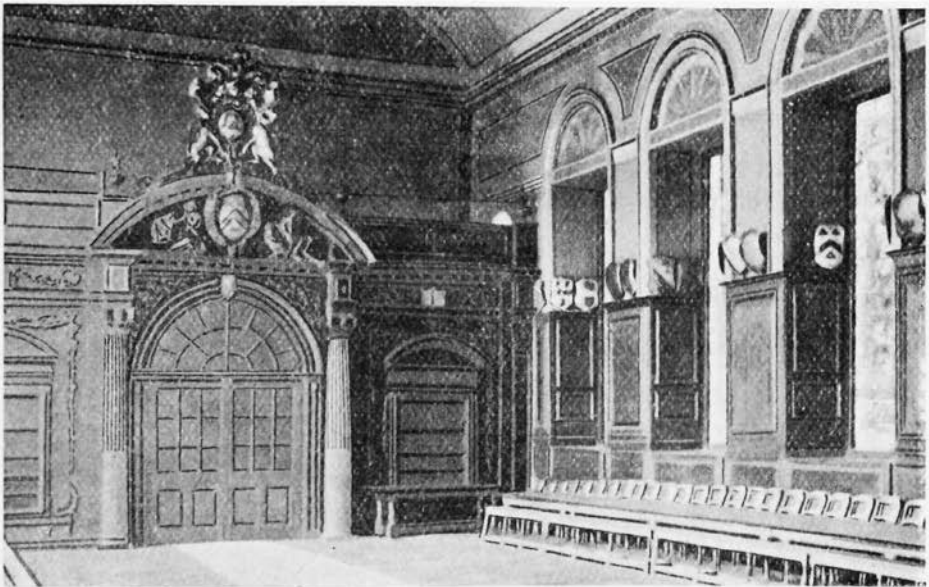
The City of London itself stands apart. It has its own police, and its own government conducted by the Lord Mayor, sheriffs, aldermen, and common council, the latter being elected by the freemen of the city, the liverymen of the guilds or city companies, and rated occupiers of premises.

These city companies are very wealthy and very powerful; they are also very benevolent, and they bestow large sums upon educational and charitable institutions. They are the representatives of the old trade guilds, which played so great a part in the struggle for freedom and self-government.

The Goldsmiths' Company, the Fishmongers' Company, the Haberdashers' Company, the Apothecaries' Company, the Braziers' Company, and the Skinners' Company were among the most famous; they still meet in their city halls, although much of their ancient power has passed away. When we visit the city and see their old haunts, we must always remember the great work which they did in their time. London and the other great towns of England were the home and the heart of freedom, and their councils were the first elective and representative institutions.

Even to-day the town councils undertake great works which the smaller councils could never attempt. Many of the great canals of this country have been constructed by them, and great waterworks have been planned by

them, so that fresh and pure water might be brought into the city from many miles away in the country. They have laid out pleasure grounds and parks, opened picture galleries and museums, taken over the control of gas and electricity, and initiated the excellent system of electric trams which is now found working in almost every town and city in Great Britain and Ireland.



A CORNER OF STATIONERS' HALL, LONDON

Furthermore, they have initiated and carried important measures through Parliament, and thus proved themselves worthy successors of those old burgesses and citizens, who, as members of the merchant and craft guilds in the middle ages, withstood both the King and the nobles in the assertion of their rights, and gave the whole realm, in times of distress or success, of war and peace, a noble lesson in the performance of their duty.

SECTION III.

OUR NATIONAL INSTITUTIONS (PARLIAMENTARY).

24. THE STORY OF OUR PARLIAMENT.



THE government of Britain is carried on by King and Parliament. The King can do nothing without the consent of Parliament, and every Act of Parliament has to be signed by the King before it can become law.

This was not always so. At one time the King ruled without Parliament ; at another time he ruled in defiance of it. Only within modern times, and among European nations, have the people had any voice in government. The first time that the English people insisted on having good government was when they forced King John to affix his seal to Magna Charta or the Great Charter.

John was a bad ruler and an unscrupulous man. No one's life or property was safe with him. Consequently Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury, and several barons called all their armed followers together, and met John at Runnymede, near Windsor. The King was obliged to agree to this charter, but he afterwards tried to evade it as much as possible. Now the principal clauses of Magna Charta were these :

(1) No man was to be arrested, imprisoned, or exiled, without being tried by his equals. In other words every man had a right to liberty and a right to be assumed innocent until proved guilty.



KING JOHN GRANTING MAGNA CHARTA, 1215

(After the picture by Ernest Normand in the Royal Exchange, London. By permission of S. Hildesheimer & Co.)

(2) Justice was not to be sold, refused, or delayed. This means that every man had a right to justice and to equality before the law.

(3) If any man were fined for an offence, such fine was not to be so heavy as to deprive him of his means of earning a living. That is, every man had the right to live and have property.

(4) No taxes were to be levied by the King without the consent of the Council. This asserts the right to good government.

It was the last clause which most annoyed the King ; yet it only gave the lords the right to check his expenditure. Both John and Henry III ignored this clause, and the barons made war upon them.

The leader of the revolt against Henry III was Simon de Montfort, a brave soldier and a wise and just man. As a relative of the King he might have received great wealth and honour ; but he chose instead the path of liberty and right. " I would rather die," said he, " without a foot of land than break the oath I have made." Not only did he lead the barons and burgesses to victory, but he formed a Parliament, to which the leading citizens were called to assist the King in governing the nation.

Unfortunately the barons were jealous of De Montfort ; they deserted him ; and when the King's son, Prince Edward, attacked him with a stronger army, De Montfort was defeated and slain. But his work did not die with him. When Edward became King, he remembered De Montfort's lesson, and Parliament again met in 1295.

For some time, the lords, the knights of the shire, and the burgesses met apart; but in 1341 the knights and the burgesses became united, and formed the House of Commons. The Lords and the Commons have frequently conflicted with each other, but whenever any crisis has arisen to threaten the freedom of our country, they have always co-operated. Monarchs have often discovered this to their amazement and sorrow.

25. THE POWER OF PARLIAMENT.



EDWARD II was a very weak king. He squandered the public money and allowed himself to be governed by favourites. Parliament banished these favourites, but as Edward recalled them, it deposed the King himself.

Richard II was another ruler who governed badly, and Parliament deposed him also. Then, nearly three hundred years after, came the great and final struggles between the kings and the Parliament, ending in the execution of one king and the flight of another.

Two men were chiefly responsible for the civil war, which, in 1649, ended in the capture and execution of Charles I by the Parliament. They were John Hampden and Oliver Cromwell. The two were cousins, and both of them were members of Parliament.

When Charles I, who had been ruling most unjustly for many years, attempted to raise money illegally without the consent of Parliament, John Hampden refused to pay it. He was arrested and brought before the Courts



CHARLES I AT THE GUILDHALL, LONDON

(From the painting by S. J. Solomon, A.R.A. in the Royal Exchange, London.)

of Justice. Seven judges decided against him, because they were afraid of the King, but four judges were in his favour.

Hampden and Cromwell determined to leave England. With many others who were tired of bad government and persecution, they were about to sail for America, when their boat was stopped by order of the King. They returned to become the heroes of the people.

The King himself appeared at the House of Commons with several soldiers to arrest Hampden and four other members, but they escaped to the City. The next day they were brought in triumph to Westminster by the people of London, amid deafening cheers, the rattle of musketry and the roar of cannon.

Charles was obliged to leave London; and civil war broke out. Hampden fell, mortally wounded, at Chalgrove Field, at the beginning of the war; but about the same time his cousin, Oliver Cromwell, leaped into prominence, owing to his military skill and shrewd foresight. At the battle of Marston Moor, Cromwell, who had carefully trained his own soldiers in sincerity, religion, and temperance, as well as bodily strength and marksmanship, defeated the King with great slaughter.

The "Ironsides," as Cromwell's men were called, followed this up with a series of victories; they never lost a battle. The King was taken prisoner, tried and executed. Cromwell was proclaimed Protector, and ruled well for many years.

When he died, there was great confusion in the country.

General Monk declared for a free Parliament, and the new Parliament which was elected asked the exiled son of Charles I to accept the throne. He returned, but the cause for which Hampden had died, and Cromwell had fought, was not lost ; and the nation reveres to this day those two noble men, who risked their all for freedom against kingly tyranny.

The next great event in the history of our Parliament was the Bill of Rights. James II was a son of Charles I, and he came to the throne after his brother Charles II. The execution of his father taught him no wise lesson, for he began to govern badly directly he was made king.

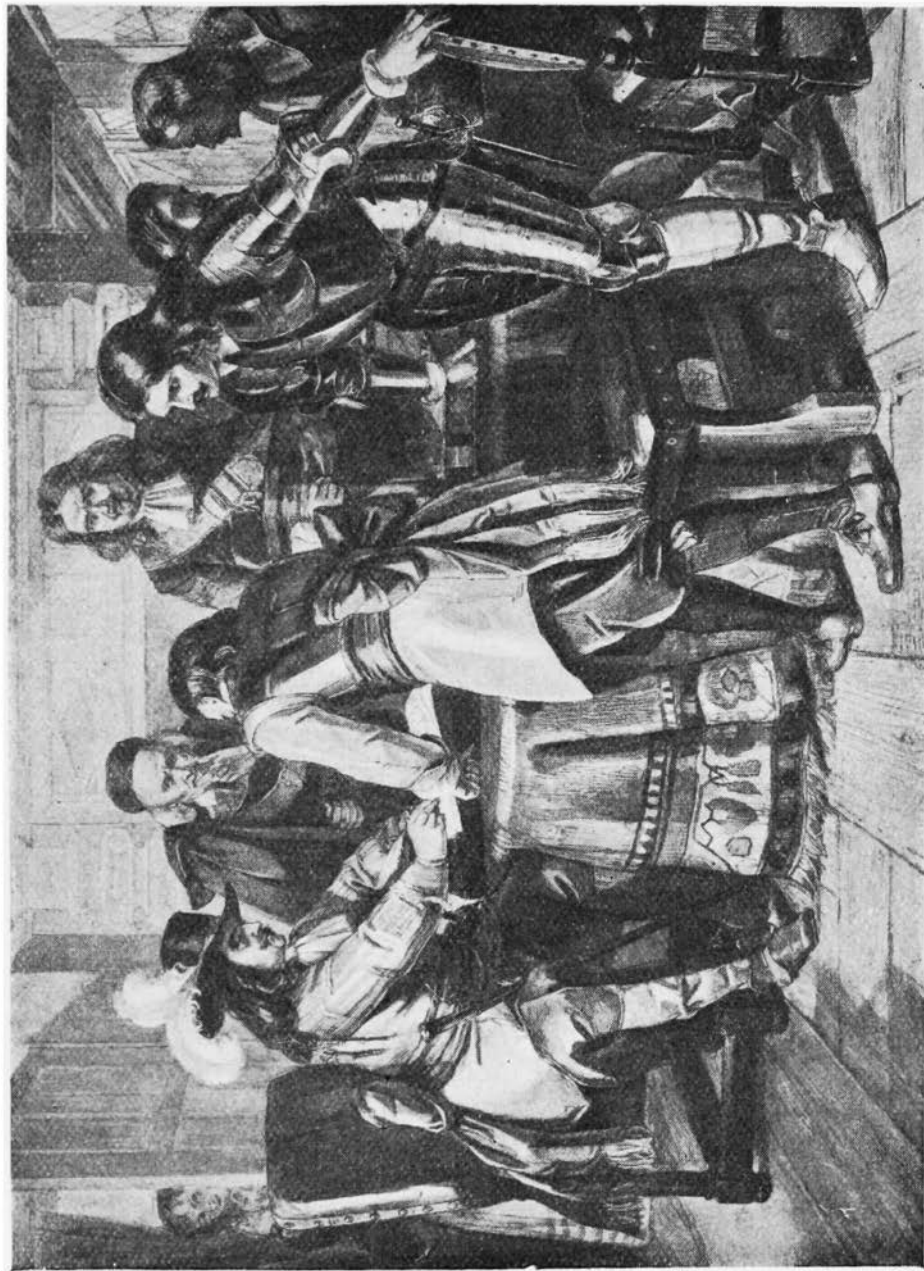
The Parliament, therefore, invited William of Orange, a celebrated Protestant prince, to come and reign in England. He accepted the invitation, and James II fled. This is called our Bloodless Revolution. Before William was permitted to reign, however, he had to sign the Bill of Rights, which declared :—

That the law is above the King.

That the King may not levy taxes, or keep a standing army, without the consent of Parliament.

That the King must call Parliament frequently, but may not interfere in its debates.

From that time Parliament has grown more and more powerful. To-day there is practically nothing that it may not do, and, strange to say, most of its power is concentrated in a small body of men which is unrecognized by law.



GENERAL MONK DECLARING FOR A FREE PARLIAMENT

(After the picture by E. M. Ward, R.A., in the Houses of Parliament. By permission of the Art Union of London, publishers of the engraving.)

26. THE CABINET.

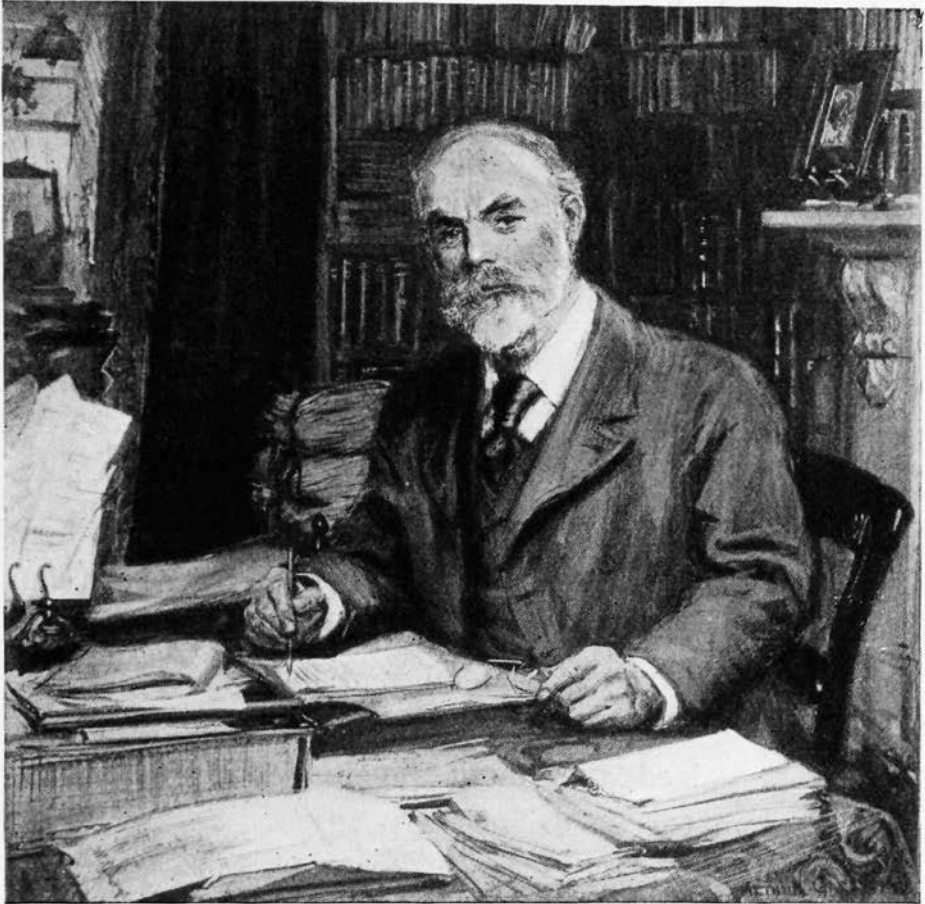


THE King has always had round him a small body of advisers, called the Privy Council. As the number of these advisers constantly increased, the King began to select a few to form an inner council. When William III came to the throne, he found among these select advisers two different sets of ideas which split the body into two parties, each acknowledging a different leader.

As the King could exercise more influence by pitting these parties against each other, he began to form his "Cabinet" of one party exclusively. This became so regular a custom that, when the Georges came to the throne and could speak very little English, the Cabinet became all-important, and those who offered themselves as candidates for Parliament joined either one party or the other, and called themselves "Whigs" or "Tories."

Later on, these names changed to "Liberals" and "Conservatives." To-day the parties are often called "Radicals" and "Unionists." Two other parties have lately arisen, the Irish party and the Labour party. Whenever one of the parties comes into power, that is, when it gets the majority of members from the elections, its leader forms a "Cabinet" of ministers, who are placed in charge of the principal offices of state, and who practically decide all the business of Parliament.

Cabinet ministers always become Privy Councillors, and are addressed as "Right Honourable." Their



THE RIGHT HON. JOHN BURNS, THE FIRST WORKING-MAN TO
BECOME A CABINET MINISTER

*He entered Parliament for the first time in 1892, and became President of the
Local Government Board in 1905.*


meetings are held in secret, no records are kept of them, and none of the ministers may speak of anything that has taken place. Each minister has an equal voice in the control of affairs; but the King himself may not attend their meetings. At one time, in the reign of Queen Anne, these meetings were held on Sundays, and the sovereign was present, but since the time of Walpole,

it has practically become recognized that the King (or Queen) shall not attend the Cabinet meetings.

At one time, also, only lords, landed gentry, or other people of means could become Cabinet ministers, but this exclusive right was broken down in 1905, by the genius, ambition, and sheer hard work of John Burns, an engineer who had become member of Parliament for Battersea.

Few stories are so full of interest and romance as that of John Burns. Beginning life as a factory boy at ten years of age, he educated himself at the night schools and by literature purchased out of hard-earned savings, until he managed to get apprenticed to an engineer. After serving for many years upon the London County Council and as a member of Parliament, he was rewarded in 1905 by being made a Cabinet minister, and thus gained the distinction of being the first working-man to rise to such a position.

27. THE PARTY SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT.

T seems at first very strange, and almost wicked, for the ablest statesmen of our country to be constantly thwarting the bills and suggested reforms proposed by the opposite party. It also seems hard, when a man is elected to represent a city or a county, that he should be expected to give a blind obedience to the leader of his party. Yet if we did not have this "party" government, we should have a number of

smaller parties or factions, who would be constantly disputing, and who would perhaps give the King a good opportunity for interfering in the government of the country, and of placing his own creatures or "party" in power.

The "party" government, as we see it to-day, has another important meaning. When a General Election takes place, the two great political parties appeal to the people for votes upon certain principles, as well as upon particular measures of reform. Now while people may and do split themselves up into numerous "creeds" and "parties," most of them are found to have certain fixed principles, which are usually those held by one or other of the greater parties. But the two principal parties in the state always have to reckon with at least a third body of people, who have no fixed opinions, who think that time and circumstances change all things, and who vote for one party to-day, and another to-morrow. Upon these people either party usually has to depend for its majority.

The party which obtains the majority of seats is called the Government, and the other the Opposition. The Opposition opposes the Government bills in the interests of the minority, often securing some 'amendment, and so rendering the measure less extreme. If they succeed in defeating the Government on any important bill, or carry a vote of "No Confidence" in the Government, the Government resigns, and the King calls upon the leader of the Opposition to form a new Government.

The success of a Government bill being so important to the holders of office, "Whips" are employed to use every effort to bring all the members of the party to the House when the voting takes place, or is expected to take place. The Opposition also employ "Whips" to bring up all the votes they can against the Government. These "Whips" are selected members of Parliament, who are skilled in organization, men of particular energy, tact, and popularity. If any two members of opposite parties wish to absent themselves for business or private reasons, they can consult their "Whips," who will arrange a "pair," which means that their votes are neutralized, but that they are given the credit of the votes they would have registered had they been there.

The "Whips" have great influence in the party. A number of honours and decorations, such as knighthoods, baronetcies, peerages, privy councillorships, Orders of the Bath and of St. Michael and St. George, are bestowed upon the occasions of the King's birthday, the New Year, or the retirement of the Government; and lists of proposed candidates for these honours are prepared by the "Whips."

We have just spoken of "divisions," but have not explained the term. A "division" means the counting of members on either side of the Houses of Parliament in favour of, or against a certain bill. We shall notice, presently, how this "division" is taken.

When once a party is elected to the Government, it may hold office for seven years, unless it be defeated on

some important bill in the way we have just mentioned, or unless it think fit to "appeal to the country," or, in other words, to have another General Election. This latter course is taken if some important question arises, about which the people were not consulted at the previous General Election, such as the Home Rule Bill under the Liberal Government of 1886, or the South African War under the Conservative Government of 1899.

If the people approve of the new idea or new measure, the Government is re-elected for another seven years ; if not, the other party is elected, and the leader of that party submits to the King a list of names from which it is proposed to form the new Cabinet. The King may object to any name, but he usually approves of the list, for the leader of either party is careful, as a rule, to select only those who will be acceptable.

There are many people who think that seven years is too long a period for Parliament to sit ; some have suggested that a new Parliament should be elected every year ; many others think three or five years is a more reasonable time.

To understand the further details of our government, we must visit the two Houses of Parliament when they are working, and if possible we should select the day upon which the King opens Parliament. On ordinary days it is not difficult for anyone over twenty-one years of age to obtain a ticket for the House of Commons to hear the debates. All you have to do is to write to the member of Parliament who represents your district.

But upon the opening day it is very difficult to get such a ticket ; and it is next to impossible for the ordinary citizen to get a ticket of admission for the House of Lords upon that day. It is in the latter house that the King formally opens Parliament by delivering the “ King’s Speech.”

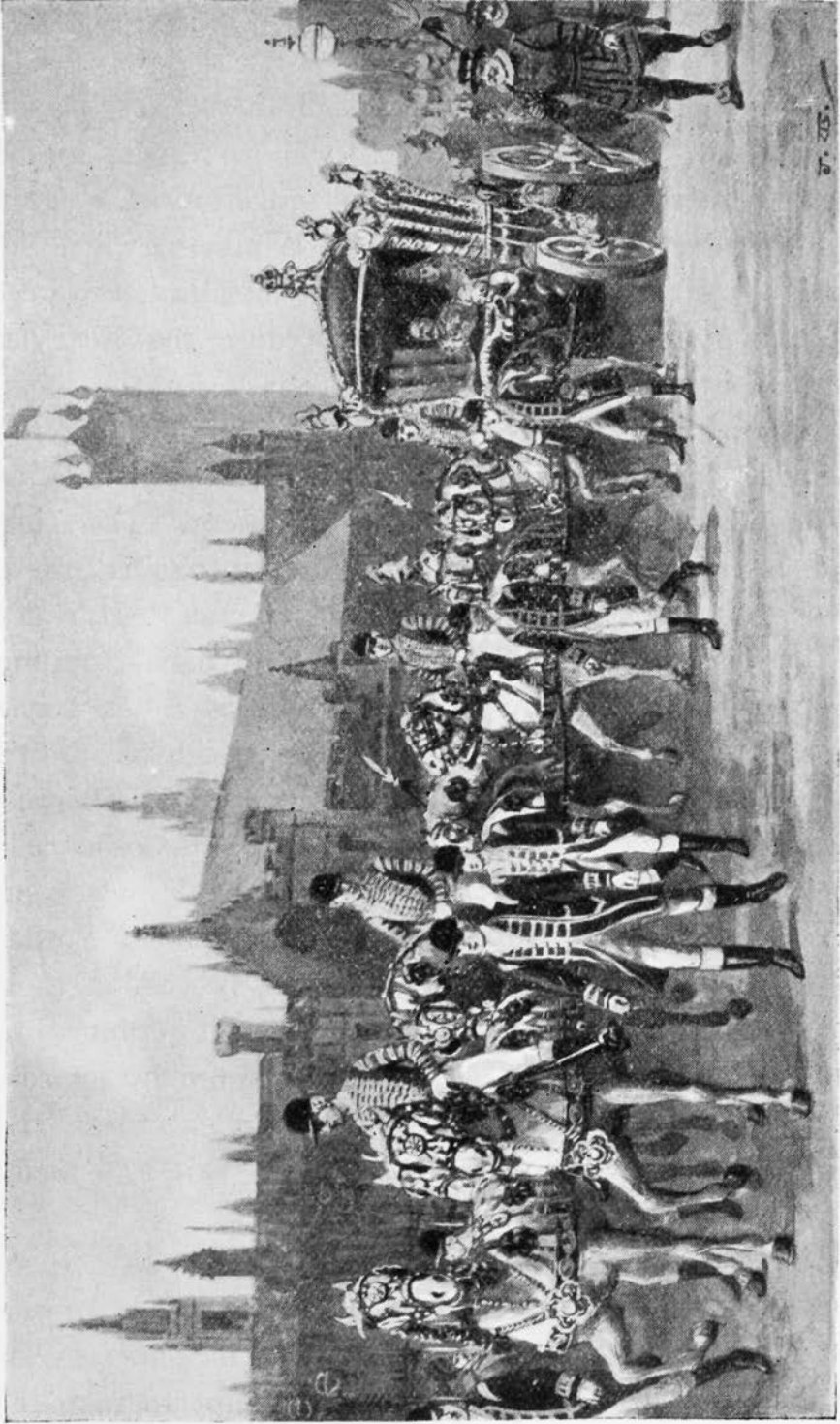
28. THE KING.

“ God save our gracious King !
 God save our noble King !
 God save the King !
 Send him victorious,
 Happy and glorious,
 Long to reign over us,
 God save our King.”



YOU all know that this is the first verse of what we call our National Anthem. Usually, it is played or sung at the end of any concert, drama, or other form of indoor or outdoor amusement, when any musical instrument is available. A foreigner once hearing this anthem played, said, “ Ah ! That is for the people to go ! ” He was right ; but he did not grasp the deeper part of its meaning. The strains of the National Anthem are intended to remind us, that we are able to enjoy all these amusements in peace through the good government of our country, of which the King is the head.

The National Anthem is also played at any time when a member of the Royal Family enters a public meeting,



THE KING'S PROCESSION AT THE OPENING OF PARLIAMENT

or place of entertainment ; and at such times, every person stands, and every hat is lifted to show respect to the representatives of the head of our government. Even if no member of the Royal Family is present when the National Anthem is played, it is right for all men to take off their hats, for two reasons : because the National Anthem is a prayer, and to show respect for the King, for whom the prayer is sung.

Hark ! the National Anthem is being played now, as we stand outside the Houses of Parliament. The King and his suite are approaching. Every hat is lifted. Every one is cheering. Hurrah ! Hurrah ! Hurrah !

The King is seated in his State coach, smiling and bowing repeatedly to the people, as he is borne through the cheering crowds. The coach is drawn by eight beautiful horses, and preceded by outriders in royal uniform. Before and behind the State coach are the mounted guards and officers of the Royal Household.

When any of the Royal Family or members of other distinguished families are present in the procession, their carriages precede His Majesty's coach as forerunners to announce his approach. They are escorted by guards, and in front of the guards the chief of police clears the way and makes sure that everything is safe and ready for the journey of the royal pageant.

All these preparations are necessary, because there are a few people in the world who from envy, or from a desire to become notorious, or perhaps from some peculiar idea, or half-insane feeling, might attempt to take the

life of the King, or one of the prominent people of his suite. Several kings, presidents, and prime ministers have been assassinated in this way, but very rarely in our country.

For the same reason, also, when the King or Queen travels by rail, a pilot engine always goes in front of the train to make sure that the line is clear of all obstructions and danger, and to notify to stationmasters and officials the approach of the royal train, so that all other traffic may be diverted.

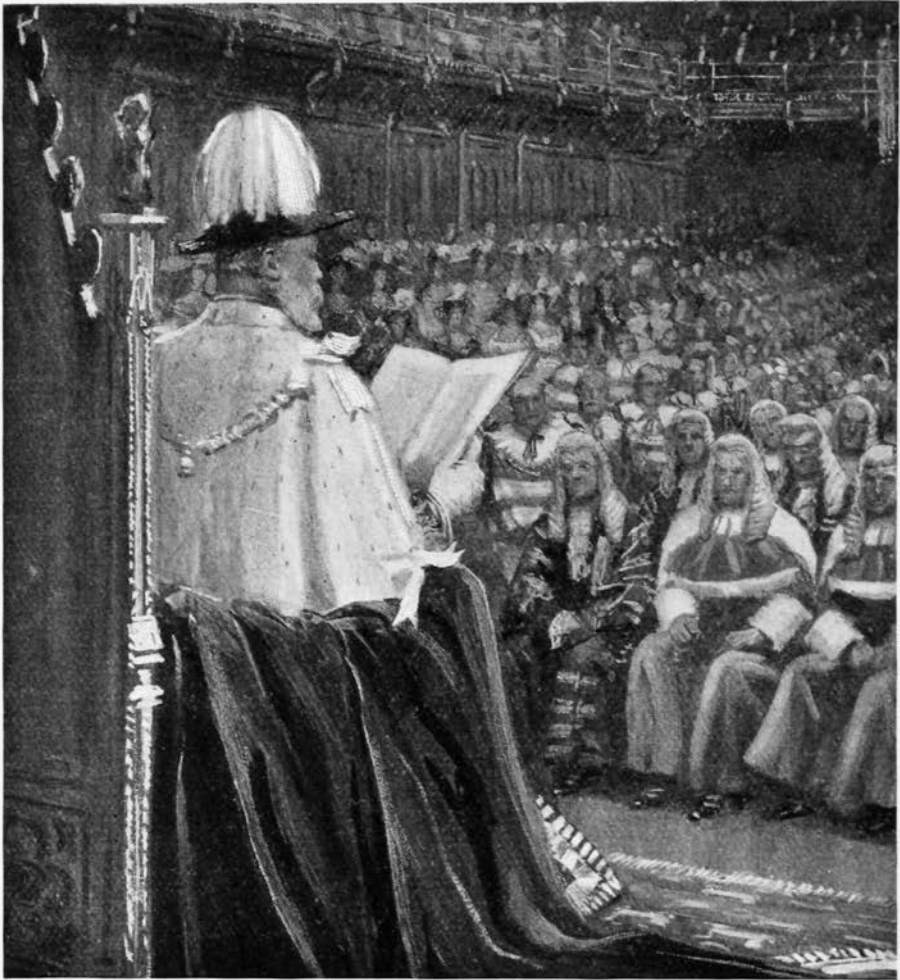
Perhaps some of you have seen the royal train and its pilot engine go through your station, and yet you have not known it was the royal train. You will be able to detect it next time, by looking at the coals in the tender attached to the train's engine. They are always white-washed.

29. THE KING'S SPEECH.



THE King having entered the House of Lords and ascended the throne, formally opens Parliament. The speech which the King delivers is not really his speech, but that which the Prime Minister has specially written for him. It consists of a general view of political affairs at home and abroad, and outlines the policy of the new Government, and the bills which they hope to introduce during the session.

It is usually divided into three parts. The first and the third deal with Home and Foreign Affairs, and begin with "My Lords and Gentlemen," because these



THE KING READING HIS SPEECH AT THE OPENING
OF PARLIAMENT

parts are addressed to both Houses. The second part begins with "Gentlemen of the House of Commons," because it deals with financial matters, with which the Lords have nothing to do. Sometimes the King alters it, as Queen Victoria did when Lord Palmerston composed

a somewhat tactless speech ; but such a necessity rarely happens.

When the contents of the speech are finally decided upon, the King signs it in the presence of the Privy Council, and, within a few days, the speech is either sent to the House of Lords for the Clerk of that House to read it, or else the King opens Parliament in person and reads it himself.


King Edward VII has a fine clear voice, and looks every inch a king, so that when he delivers the Speech from the Throne he makes of it a very impressive ceremonial. While he is reading the speech, then, let us briefly note the position and powers of our gracious and noble King.

30. THE KING'S PLACE IN THE CONSTITUTION.

The King can do no wrong.

The King never dies.

The King owns all the land in the Kingdom.

HESE three attributes are given to the sovereign by our laws. They only refer to the King or Queen when either one or the other is the actual reigning sovereign, not as individuals. The wife of a king is not a sovereign, although we call her "queen"; neither is the husband of a reigning queen a sovereign; he is not even called a "king"; he is only the "Prince Consort."

But, you will say, how can it be true that a sovereign

never dies, and that he can do no wrong? We know that every one has to die at some time or another, and that no man is so good that he can do no wrong. Quite true! What the law really means is that the sovereignty or the kingship is never vacant, for the moment one king dies his eldest son becomes king, because our monarchy is hereditary, that is, it passes from the parent to the eldest son, or, failing any sons, to the eldest daughter. It is not elective, although in earlier times the king was twice elected, first by the nobles and people, and afterwards by the Church.

Our monarchy is also limited, that is, the King rules only through his ministers in the House of Lords and the House of Commons, and therefore they alone are responsible for all the acts which are done in his name. It is in that sense only that the King can do no wrong.

With regard to the land, we know that most of the nobles, and many smaller freeholders own land in England. But the law recognizes the Sovereign as the ultimate owner. If you have no sons or daughters to inherit your land, and you have made no provision in your will for it, it passes into Chancery, or the Law Court which administers the Crown estates.

If any land be reclaimed from the sea, or if any treasure be found hidden anywhere, or be thrown up by the sea, it belongs to the Crown. The King may himself own private property, but the whole land of England itself is held in trust by the Sovereign for the nation.

A portion of the country used to be specially set aside

to provide an income for the reigning Sovereign, as distinct from what he might obtain from his own private property as an individual. These were called Crown lands. George III, however, gave these lands to Parliament in exchange for an annual grant of a fixed amount. The annual grant made to King Edward VII is £470,000, besides which he has his private income and the revenues of the Duchy of Lancaster.

31. WHAT THE KING MAY DO.



THE privileges of a king are called his prerogatives. Many of the prerogatives originate from greater powers which the kings once enjoyed. For instance, an English king was once the military chief of his tribe, leading his people to battle in person.

Even as late as the sixteenth century, Queen Elizabeth put herself at the head of her troops at Tilbury, to meet the threatened invasion of the Spaniards; and later still, William III and George II led their troops into action. Thus it is that the King retains his privileges as head of the army, and he still appoints its officers. Peace and war alike must be proclaimed by him, and he chooses or approves ambassadors, as well as the viceroys or governors of colonies.

The Norman kings of England established a Royal Court of Justice, so that people who were treated unjustly by their lords could appeal to the King's Court. Hence the King is styled "the Fountain of Justice," and he


retains the privileges of appointing the judges and pardoning offenders, while all warrants for arrest are made out in his name. The coinage also is issued by his sole authority, and stamped with his image.

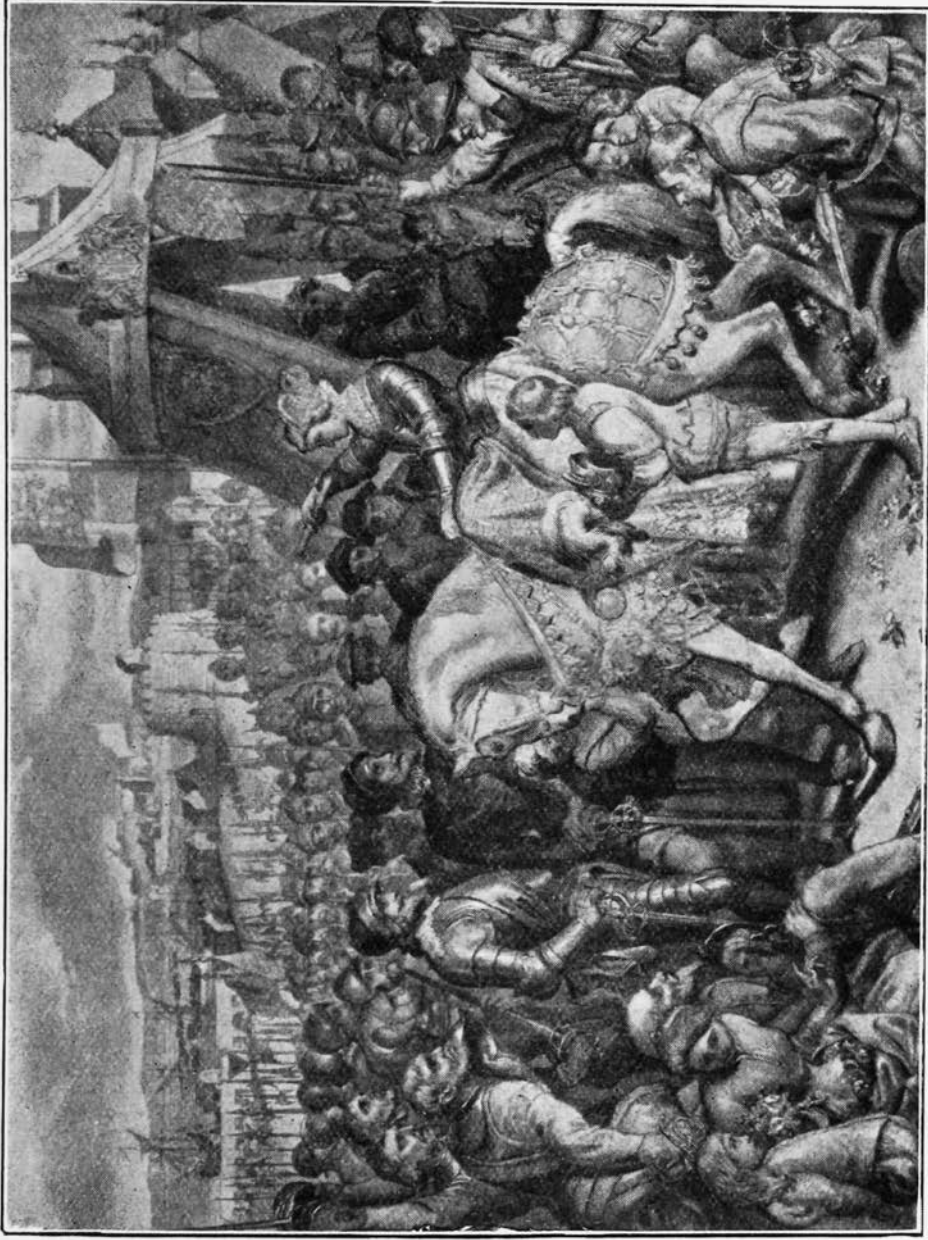
About 1500 the English people were much dissatisfied with the Pope, who was then the head of our Church. King Henry VIII encouraged the dissatisfaction, formed the independent "Church of England," and placed himself at its head. That is why the King appoints the archbishops, bishops, and chief dignitaries of the Church.

The King also has the right to insist that any business which he may bring before the Cabinet shall be discussed before all other matters, and he has the right to attend the House of Lords, although he must not take part in the debates.

Other prerogatives the King holds from Parliament. He summons, adjourns, or dissolves the Parliament. He has the right to assent to, or dissent from every Act of Parliament.

32. WHY OUR KINGS ARE HEREDITARY MONARCHS.

E have now seen what are the principal prerogatives or privileges which the law and the Parliament allow the Sovereign. Some of you, however, may ask, why do we want a king at all? Other countries have a republican form of government; why should not we have the same? Or, if we like to call the head of our state a king instead of a president,



QUEEN ELIZABETH AT TILBURY

(From the picture by Daniel MacIise, R.A. By permission of the Art Union of London, 112 Strand, publishers of the engraving.)

why should we not elect him, instead of allowing him to come to the throne simply because he happens to be the eldest son of his father ?

Let us try to answer these questions. And, first of all, let us remember that the words "monarchy" and "republic" only stand for forms of government, not for government itself. It matters little what forms of government we have if we have good government. As our poet Pope wisely remarked :—

"For forms of government let fools contest,
That which is best administered is best."

Now it is certain that the people are no better governed under great republics, such as that of the United States, or that of France, than under a great monarchy, such as that of the United Kingdom ; it is doubtful indeed whether they are so well governed.

Look at the position of the Government and the servants of the Government in the United States. There the President of the Republic has more power than our King, but as he only holds the office for a few years, his party requires that he shall make the most of his power and his opportunities for those who have elected him to the high office. All the principal offices of the Civil Service are filled with his friends or supporters. When he ceases to be President they cease to be officials, for the new President wants their places and salaries for his friends and supporters.

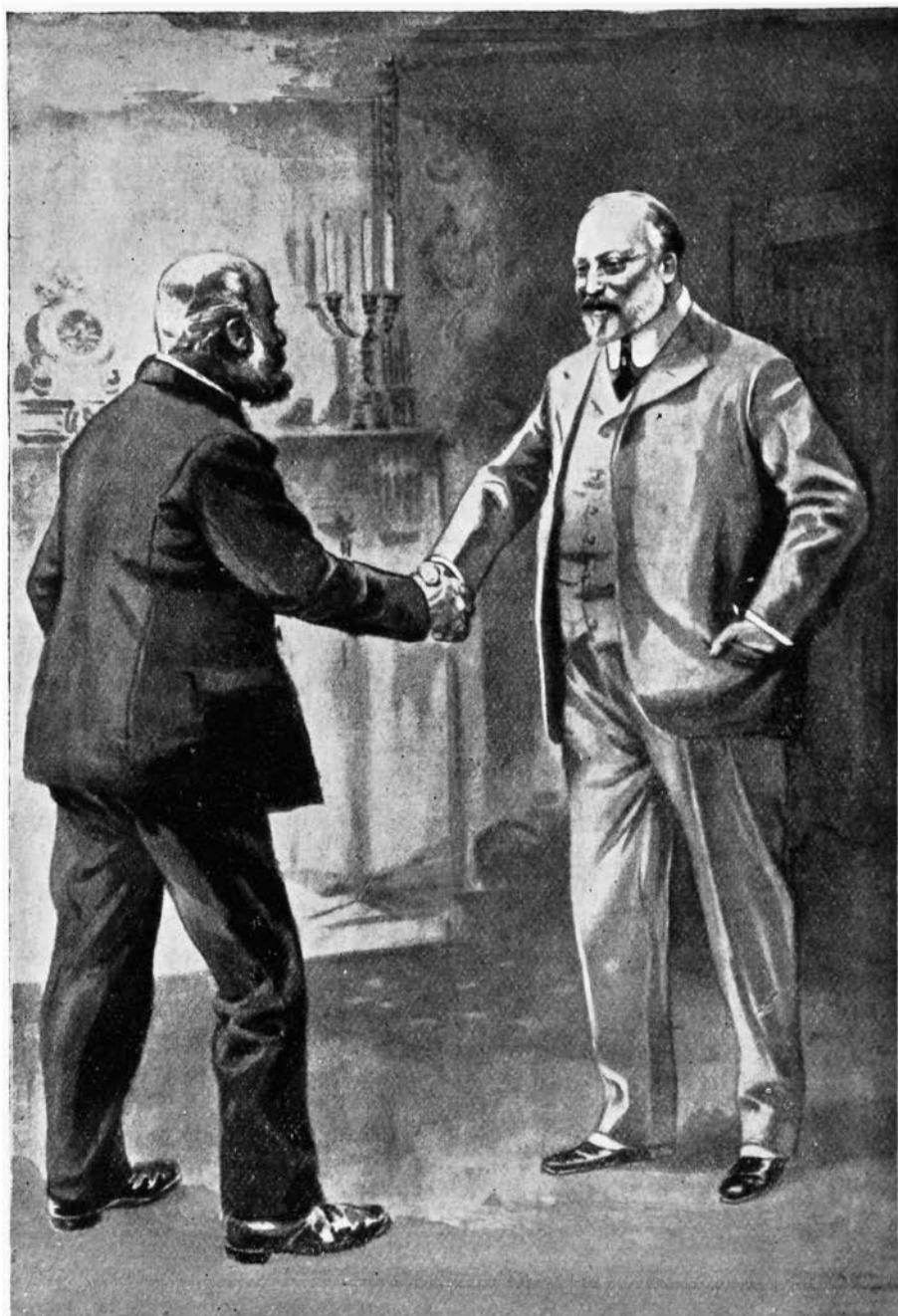
The cost of the republican government is greater than our own, and much corruption and disorder prevail while

the voting for the new President is taking place. We are, to a great extent, saved from this state of affairs by a limited monarchy.

But, why not an elective monarchy? Well, if we had an elective king, it is doubtful if he could be trusted to reign with as little power as an hereditary monarch possesses, because he would be more open to temptation from each of the large powerful parties. If he could split these into small parties he could interfere a great deal with the government of the country.

He would also lack that special training which an hereditary king enjoys, not only from early boyhood through special tutors, but also from being constantly in the presence of, and having always to consult with the most learned and capable Ministers of State of each party. Not being dependent upon the votes of either party himself, the hereditary king is enabled to see the strength or the weakness of each, at the same time benefiting from both. While, therefore, the King's power is strictly limited, the unique position which he enjoys makes it possible for him to exercise an extraordinary influence for good or evil, both upon the life and character of his own people, and upon the relations existing between them and foreign countries.

Queen Victoria, by her exemplary private life, and her refusal to encourage at her Court the presence of any noble or wealthy personage whose character was questionable, did much to keep English society pure and free from vulgarity. King Edward VII, by his personal charm,



THE KING AND THE LIFEBOAT HERO

James Haylett, the brave old Caister lifeboatman, was received by the King at Sandringham in January, 1902, and presented with the gold medal of the Lifeboat Institution, in recognition of fifty years' service, resulting in the saving of hundreds of lives.

warm sympathy, delicate tact, exceptional broad-mindedness, and genial good-humour, has won the hearts of foreigners directly he has trodden upon their soil, transforming old enemies into new friends, sweeping away old English insular prejudices, carrying the olive branch of peace and goodwill wherever he has gone. The result is that, while many monarchs of Europe go about in closed carriages and in mortal fear of their lives, King Edward VII travels in open carriages, or walks unattended at home and abroad. Nor is this the only result. Our *entente cordiale* with France, our alliance with Japan and our friendship with Spain, Italy and Norway have been brought about largely by his magnetic influence and shrewd diplomacy.

He has also set a pattern and an example of what "a true English gentleman" should be. He never blusters or boasts; he is never ostentatious in dress or speech; he never hurts by word or deed the feelings of anyone who comes in contact with him; he always acknowledges a salutation or a presentation made in good taste and with sincerity; and he always makes every one, however humble, feel comfortable in his presence.

In such ways kings or queens may exercise more power than any despotic monarch ever could. It is just the same in every walk of life. The man who knows his strength, and has the most power, is often the one who is least fond of displaying it, while the man who has but little power is often boastful, and shows off all he possesses in order to make you believe he has more.

33. THE PEERAGE AND THE HOUSE OF LORDS.



AN English aristocrat ranks high above the nobility of any other country. On the Continent he is treated with deferential respect ; in America, the richest heiresses are anxious to marry him ; yet, strange to say, the nobles of England have never been an exclusive caste. It has always been possible for anyone to become a noble either by marriage or by promotion.

In many continental countries, if a woman who did not belong to a noble family married a baron or a count, she would not rank as a “ noble,” and the baron or count would be considered to have lost “ caste.” In England, however, the woman would at once take the rank of her husband.

In those countries, also, the children of princes, counts, or barons, are also nobles in their own right, that is, they are all princes, counts, or barons, and so these titles become very common. In England the children of peers are all commoners ; they are called “ the Honourable ” This, or “ Lord ” That, merely by courtesy ; and they cannot sit in the House of Lords.

That House is not even open to every peer. Every one in the House of Lords is a nobleman, but all noblemen do not sit in the House of Lords. Irish peers elect only twenty-eight of their number to sit there for life. The Scotch peers elect sixteen of their number for the same

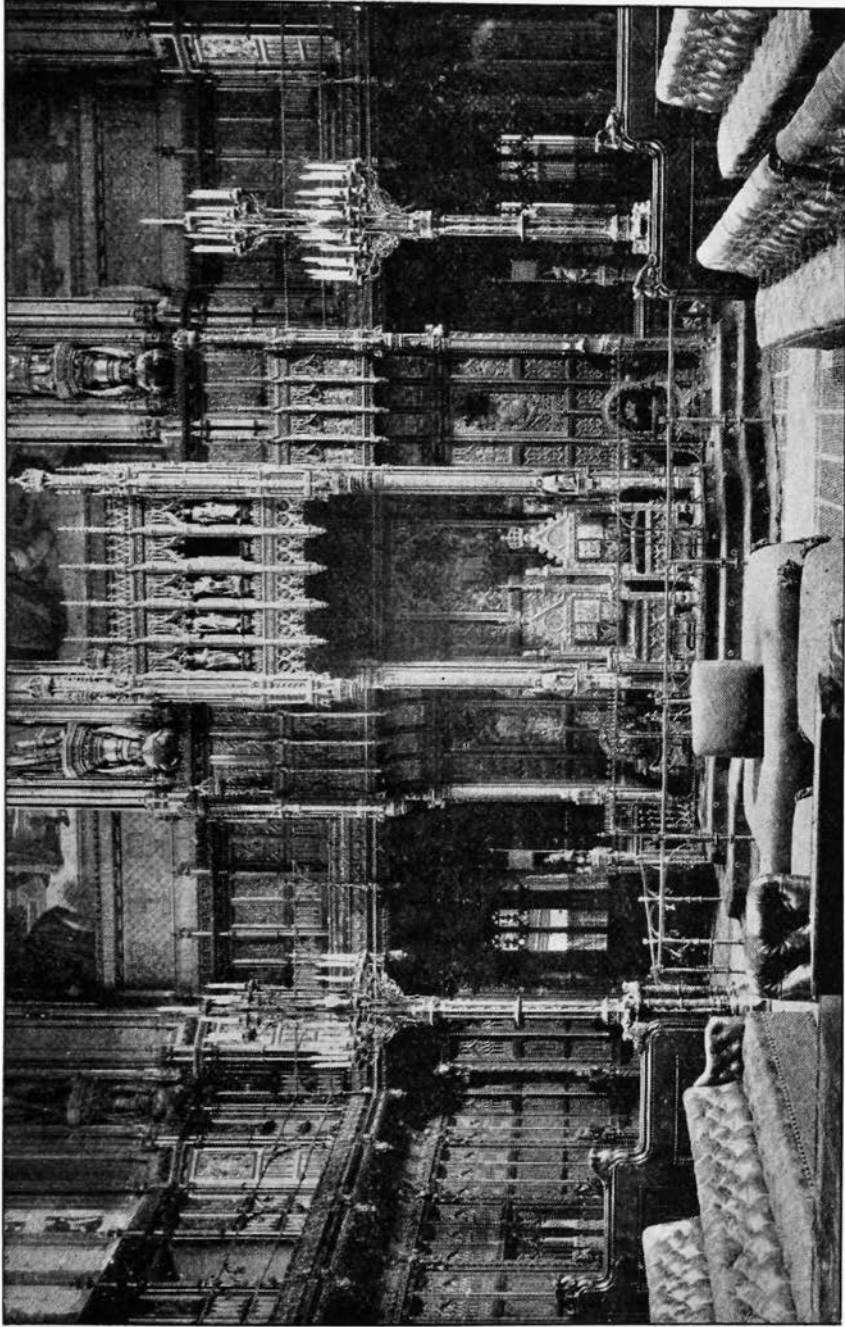


Photo by

Frith & Co.

INTERIOR OF HOUSE OF LORDS, SHOWING THE KING'S THRONE AND THE WOOLSACK
IN FRONT OF IT

purpose—but not for life—at the beginning of each Parliament. All the English peers have the right to sit in the House of Lords; so also have the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, and twenty-four other bishops.

The nobles of England have had a voice in the government of their country from the earliest Saxon times; but they were not united until Stephen Langton induced them to meet together to force King John to govern properly. Later on, they were called by Edward I to form a part of Parliament.

34. HOW THE LORDS WORK.



THE chairman of the House of Lords is called the Lord Chancellor, and he sits on a large square bag of wool, covered with green cloth. This is called the Woolsack, in memory of the great wool trade which once brought England most of her wealth.

When the Lord Chancellor enters the House of Lords, he is accompanied by the Pursebearer, who carries in his hands a satchel of the finest silk, richly embroidered with the Royal Arms in white and gold. This satchel is supposed to contain the Great Seal of the Kingdom, which is always in charge of the Lord Chancellor, and without the stamp of which no Royal Order or Proclamation can be made. The Great Seal is, however, too precious to be placed even in this satchel, except on special occasions. It is usually kept in a strong box at the Lord Chancellor's residence. The Great Seal of England may not leave

the Kingdom under any circumstances ; neither must the Lord Chancellor.

When a peer speaks, he addresses the House, not the chairman, as is customary when speaking in the House of Commons, or on a public platform. Archbishops are addressed as "Your Grace," or "My lord Archbishop ;" bishops as "my lord bishop ;" Dukes as "my lord Duke" or "Your Grace ;" marquesses as "my lord marquess" or "the most noble the marquess of— ;"



Photo by

Thankfull Sturdee

THE GREAT SEAL OF ENGLAND

while earls, viscounts, and barons are addressed as "my lord," or "the Right Honourable Lord——."

Bills sent up from the House of Commons may be altered by the House of Lords, unless they are bills relating to money ; and if no one proposes to read a bill a second time within twelve months, it is dropped. The Lords may also reject bills, if they like, but they

only do this, as a rule, when the House of Commons has passed any important bill with a very small majority.

Money bills are brought to the House of Lords by the Speaker of the House of Commons, not for debate, but for the King's assent, for this is always given in the House of Lords to every bill. Usually, the Clerk of the House, that is, the Secretary, gives the assent for the King, and, strange to say, this assent is always given in the Norman French language, dating from the time of William the Conqueror, who was a Norman.

When voting takes place on a bill, each peer must record his own vote ; no one else can do it for him. The Prince of Wales takes the first place among the peers. Then come the royal dukes, then the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, the Archbishop of York, the Lord President of the Council, and the Lord Privy Seal. Then follow the dukes, marquesses, earls, viscounts, bishops and barons.

When the House is sitting, the bishops and archbishops may be found on the benches on the immediate right of the throne ; the lords belonging to the side of the Government sit on the same side of the House, while the Opposition sit on the left of the throne.

The House of Lords is the final Court of Appeal, and any peer charged with treason or felony may be tried by his peers in the House. Freedom of speech and freedom from arrest is guaranteed to every member of the House of Lords, and they may introduce bills affecting the public interest or their own rights and privileges.

In case of conflict between the two Houses of Parliament, the Prime Minister can advise the King to create a number of new peers, sufficient to overcome the numerical opposition among the lords.

35. THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.



NOW, let us leave the Peers, and enter the House of Commons. If our visit be made during the evening of the opening of Parliament, we shall hear the debate on the King's Speech, and we shall probably see the House of Commons at its best, because most of the members will be in their seats. We shall certainly find it more entertaining than the House of Lords, for, while few of the lords are good speakers, most of those who speak in the House of Commons are practised debaters.

The House of Commons is now the most important and the most powerful portion of our Parliament. There is practically nothing which it cannot do, if it chooses. As we enter the Strangers' Gallery, we face the Speaker's chair, above which runs the Press Gallery, where the reporters are busy taking down shorthand notes of the speeches, and transcribing them for insertion in the newspapers for the next morning.

Behind the Press Gallery, and separated from the House by a huge screen, which obscures from view the faces behind it, is the Ladies' Gallery. The ladies are hidden from view ; and as they are usually the wives or relatives

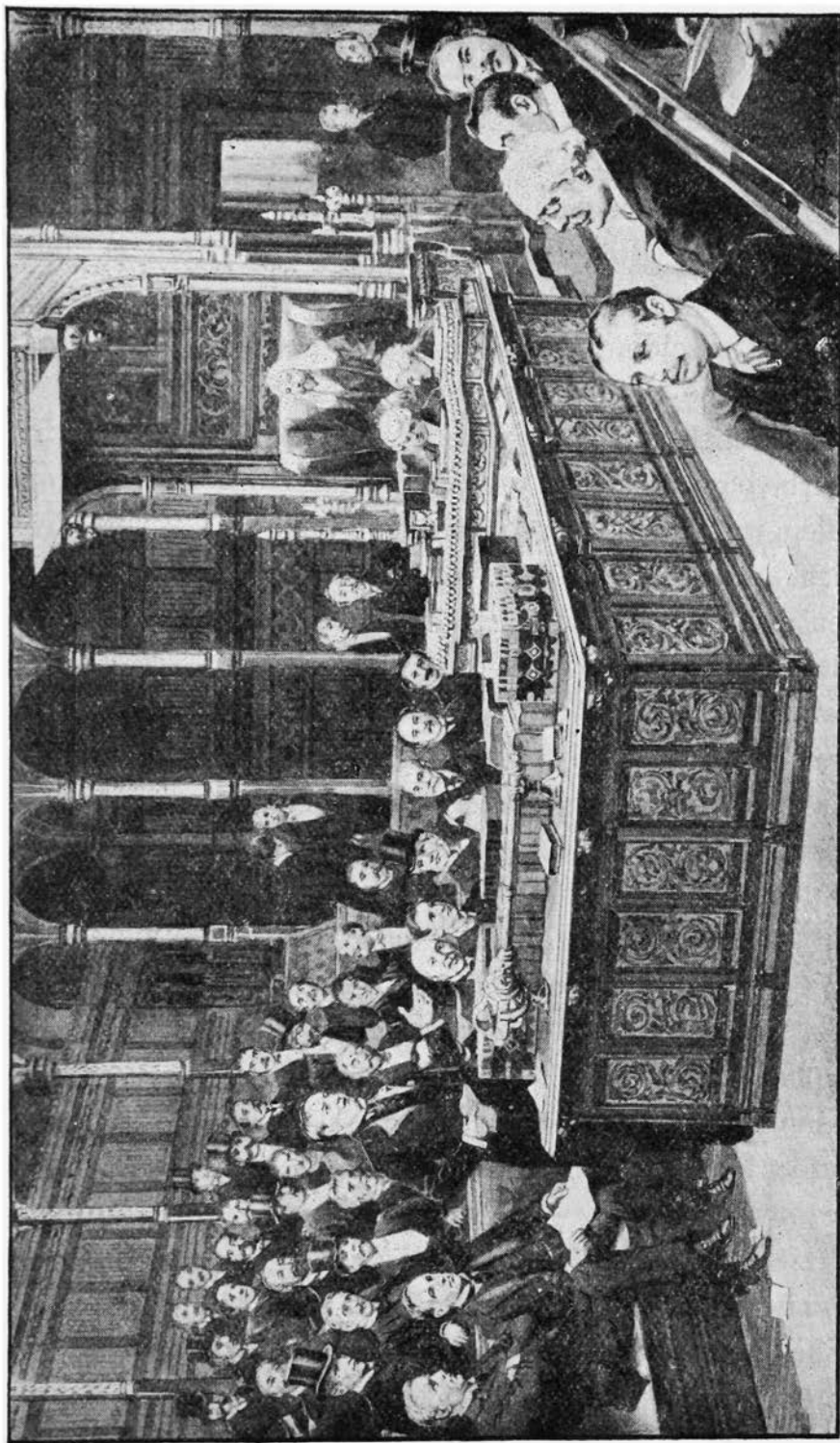
of the members, it is difficult for other ladies to obtain tickets of admission to this gallery. The accommodation is exceedingly limited, and the tickets have to be balloted for among the members. The galleries on the left and right are for members and distinguished strangers, and a portion is reserved for the peers, immediately in front of the Strangers' Gallery.

Down below, in front of the Speaker's chair is a table, on either side of which sit the Cabinet Ministers and the principal leaders of the Opposition. The party in power, the Government, sit upon the right-hand side of the Speaker, the Opposition on the left, while independent members sit below the gangway.

The House of Commons consists of 670 members. Inside the House all members are considered equal. They elect their own chairman, who is called the Speaker. He is treated with great respect wherever he goes, and he ranks as the "First Commoner" of the realm, that is, next to the peers.

In the House, the mace is placed on the table in front of him, as a symbol of authority ; and when he rises from his seat, every one has to take off his hat. He acts as the spokesman of the House, and conveys its messages and its money bills to the Lords ; and when he retires from his position, he is made a peer, and given a handsome pension.

Who are those persons in wigs, sitting under the Speaker ? They are the Clerk of the House and his two assistants. The Clerk of the House has to read the orders of the day and any petitions. He also has charge of the accounts,



THE HOUSE OF COMMONS, WITH THE SPEAKER IN THE CHAIR

(*Mr. Haldane is speaking on the Army question.*)

and is responsible for the preparation of the journals of the House.

Close by, in an elaborate uniform, is the Serjeant-at-Arms, who has to take charge of unruly members, and conduct them outside the House. Fortunately, his services are seldom required, for the House of Commons is one of the best behaved assemblies in the world.

The French and Hungarian Parliaments are frequently disturbed by members wanting to fight one another, or challenging each other to duels, but the only disorder which takes place in the English House of Commons is when a member uses some unparliamentary expression, and refuses to withdraw it, or when a member insists upon speaking when the "Speaker" has decided that he shall not speak. In such cases, the Speaker may either call upon a member to withdraw from the debate, the Serjeant-at-Arms conducting him out, or he may "name" the member, in which case the person named is suspended from attendance at the House for a week or longer.

We have just spoken of "unparliamentary expressions." Any expression or remark which is coarse, slang, blasphemous, or which is not in the dictionary, is "unparliamentary." It is also irregular to refer to another member by name. He must be spoken of as "the honourable member for ——." The "House of Lords" must be referred to as "another place;" and no reference must be made to the Sovereign in an ordinary debate.

The House of Commons is very careful of its dignity and honour. No convicted felon, or traitor, or bankrupt

may offer himself for membership. If a member becomes bankrupt, and remains so for more than six months, his seat is declared vacant. If a member becomes insane or mentally diseased, the same course is taken. Those persons also who undertake contracts or commissions for the public service are forbidden to become members of Parliament; and if, by any accident, they should allow themselves to be elected, they would be liable to a fine of £500 for every day they sat as members.

36. HOW TO BECOME A MEMBER OF PARLIAMENT.



AT one time no person could become a member of Parliament unless he had an estate of £300 a year. To-day, any ordinary British citizen, excepting English and Scotch peers, clergymen of the English or Roman Churches, judges, and those persons previously mentioned as ineligible, may rise to that honour; but he must first make himself acceptable to the people he wishes to represent.

Let us suppose that one of you is anxious to become a member of Parliament after you are twenty-one years of age. One of the first things to be done is to become well known. This may be accomplished through some special knowledge which you possess, some special generosity or act of benevolence on your part, some good work done for the local councils or for the local political association. Unless you can be well supported by the last named association, you will stand little chance of success, and

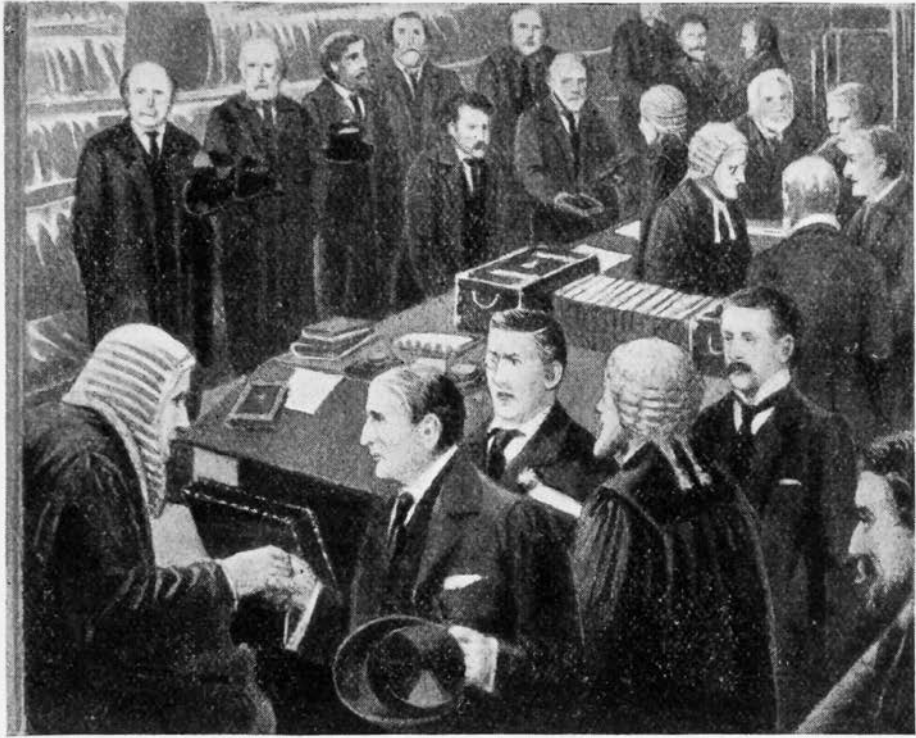
you may not, perhaps, even be nominated, or allowed to put yourself forward as a candidate.

We will suppose, however, that your name is selected by the local political association. A public meeting will then be arranged, in order that you may be introduced to the people. At this meeting, you will have to state your views on all the important subjects of the day, and you will probably have to stand a cross-examination by different people in the hall, who will ask you all sorts of questions, either to show their opposition to you, or else out of curiosity to see what kind of a man you are. The way in which you stand this cross-examination often affects your success, or failure, more than your speech or your "election address."

As everybody in the district cannot attend your meeting, you will have to print an election address, and send a copy to every person who is entitled to vote. This "address" will consist of a summary of your views, a statement of your qualifications, and a stirring appeal to the electors to support your candidature.

You will then be duly proposed and seconded at the appointed time; and if no one else is also nominated, you will be declared elected unopposed. Most probably, however, another political organization will put forward a candidate, and perhaps three or more persons will be proposed and seconded. In that case a poll will have to be taken.

Before the date fixed for the poll, each candidate will hold meetings to address the people, and to answer any



MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT TAKING THE OATH OF ALLEGIANCE

After taking the oath, each member shakes hands with the Speaker.

questions they may wish to put. You must be very careful not to treat anybody during this time, or you will be declared guilty of bribery or corrupt practices. At last the poll is taken as described in our opening chapter.

If you are elected, you will be introduced by two members of Parliament to the Speaker of the House of Commons, and you will take the oath of allegiance:—

“I (—) do swear that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to His Majesty King Edward VII, his heirs and successors, according to law. So help me God.”

Then you will sign the "Roll of Parliament," and take your seat on whichever side of the House your party happens to be.

Your principal duty then will be to act conscientiously in the matter of voting for what you believe to be the best interests of your country. This is not an easy matter. To do the right is never easy; there are so many temptations to do wrong, and so many people anxious to make you do wrong, either because they hope to benefit by it, or because they want to see you as weak as themselves.

A member of Parliament has great temptations. He is expected generally to vote as all of his party vote, and the "Whips" will be displeased if he acts otherwise; but the "party" does not always vote in the best interests of the country; and members often have to choose between what they believe to be right and the fear of offending their own party.

Again, the locality which a member represents sometimes wishes him to vote in a particular way, which shall serve the interests of the locality at the expense of the country at large; he then has to choose between his constituents and his patriotism.

Sometimes also railway, shipping, and other commercial companies offer him a directorship with a salary, so that his name may appear upon their prospectuses, and so that he may vote on their behalf on any private bills that are brought before Parliament; in which case he has to decide between the duty and dignity due to his

position, and his own personal interests and vanity. Sometimes also, if he be a poor man, enterprising newspapers tempt him to write articles or report debates, when he ought to be attending to those duties for which he was elected.

37. PRIVILEGES OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.



THE honour of serving in the House of Commons is valued very highly, because of the social privileges and distinctions which the members enjoy. There are also some special privileges attaching to members of Parliament as a body.

First of all, every member inside the House is equal. The labouring man who becomes a member of Parliament ranks with the son of a peer, or the wealthiest merchant in the realm, and may sit beside him.

The members cannot be arrested when coming to or going from the House, excepting for treason, felony, or other grave offence.

They cannot be prosecuted for libel for anything which they may say in the House.

They have the right as a body to visit the King.

They may summon to the House, and afterwards imprison, anyone who holds them up to contempt; and they can expel any one of their number from the House, if they choose.

There are a number of other but smaller privileges which members enjoy, such as being able to invite their wives and friends to have tea with them on the Terrace.

The members are also allowed to use the valuable library and the excellent Committee rooms of the House.

At one time members of Parliament enjoyed other privileges. Their servants were free from arrest, and they were allowed to send letters and parcels through the post free of charge, by merely signing their names on the letter or parcel. The latter privilege lasted from 1660 to 1839, and was taken away because it was being so abused. An old post-office record reveals the fact that hounds, and even maid-servants, were sent through the post free of charge, because they bore a member's signature.

38. HOW OUR LAWS ARE MADE.



SUPPOSING you have entered the House as a member, and wish to introduce a new law, you must draw it up in the form of a draft or Bill, and then ask permission to bring it before the notice of the House of Commons. Permission having been obtained, you and the seconder of your bill stand at the Bar of the House. The Speaker calls your name. You reply, "A Bill, Sir." The Speaker asks you to bring it up; and you take it to the Clerk of the House, who reads the title.

The Speaker then puts the question to the House, whether the bill shall be printed and read for the first time. Whenever members agree to a question, they shout "aye;" when they object to it they cry "no."

The first reading of a bill is scarcely ever objected to, as there is no debate or amendment allowed at this first stage; but a date is fixed for the second reading.

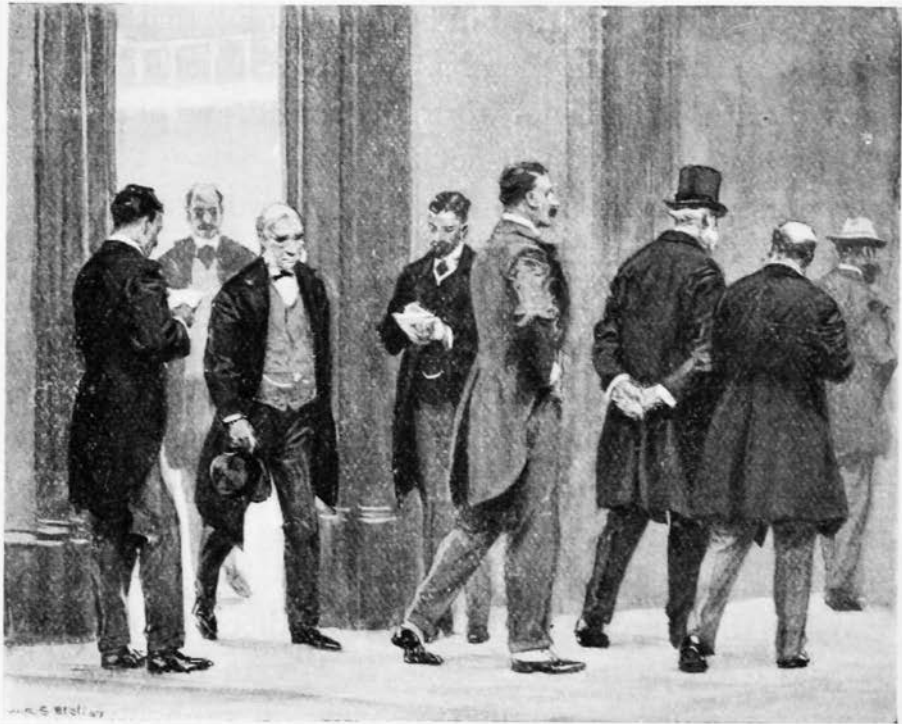
When this second reading takes place, you will make your speech, explaining the proposed new law, and your reasons for bringing it forward. The seconder of the bill may then speak in its support. Following him, perhaps, some one will oppose the bill by proposing "that the bill be read this day six months." This is a polite way of saying that the bill is not worth discussing, and of putting it aside for the session, if not for ever.

Perhaps, however, there will be a general desire among members to discuss the bill, in which case they will all try "to catch the Speaker's eye," or, in other words, to be called upon by him to speak. The Speaker usually calls first upon a member on the opposite side of the House to that upon which the mover of the bill belongs, and then upon members from alternate sides. All speeches are addressed to the chairman by beginning "Mr. Speaker, Sir."

When the question is put as to whether the bill shall be passed on to the next stage, that is, to be discussed clause by clause in Committee, you will probably hear shouts of "Aye" and "No" from both sides of the House! Perhaps the Speaker will say "The Ayes have it." This means that your bill has passed the Second Reading. Perhaps, however, some one will challenge this decision; and there will be cries of "Divide."

If the Speaker calls for a "Division," the members must

leave their seats, and pass into the lobbies through different doors, to signify which way they are voting. Two "tellers" on each side count the votes as the members pass through. There is quite a scene when a division takes place, especially if it happens that an important question has to be decided.



A DIVISION IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS

There may have been only a few members listening to the debate. Some may have been in the library, some in the dining-room, some interviewing constituents in the lobbies. But directly the division takes place, a bell is rung which is audible throughout the building ;

the “ Whips ” rush all over the place, fetching in the members from every nook and corner, and the members leave whatever work they are engaged upon to vote in the “ Division.”

The numbers having been taken, members return to their business or their seats, and the Speaker reads out the result of the voting. If the majority are in favour of your bill, it will pass into the “ Committee stage,” that is, it will be considered in every detail at an early date, and possibly be altered a great deal.

Then your bill will be read a third time and carried to the House of Lords, which may reject it, or further alter it. Finally, if the Lords agree to it, it will be placed before the King for signature, and then becomes a law of the land.


You must not think that those people whom you have heard criticising the bill, and making a great show in the debate, are necessarily the best law-makers or representatives. As you get older and learn more of life, you will find that the people who talk the most usually work the least, that people who are always finding fault are those who rarely make or do anything well themselves. So is it in the Houses of Parliament. Much of the best work there is done in the Committee rooms, preparing a bill to become law, and often this part of the work is performed by those who are silent in the debate.

All the estimates of expenditure in keeping up the government of this country are discussed by a “ Committee of Supply,” which is a Committee of the

whole House. When the House forms itself into a Committee like this, the chair is not taken by the Speaker, but by the "Chairman of Committees."

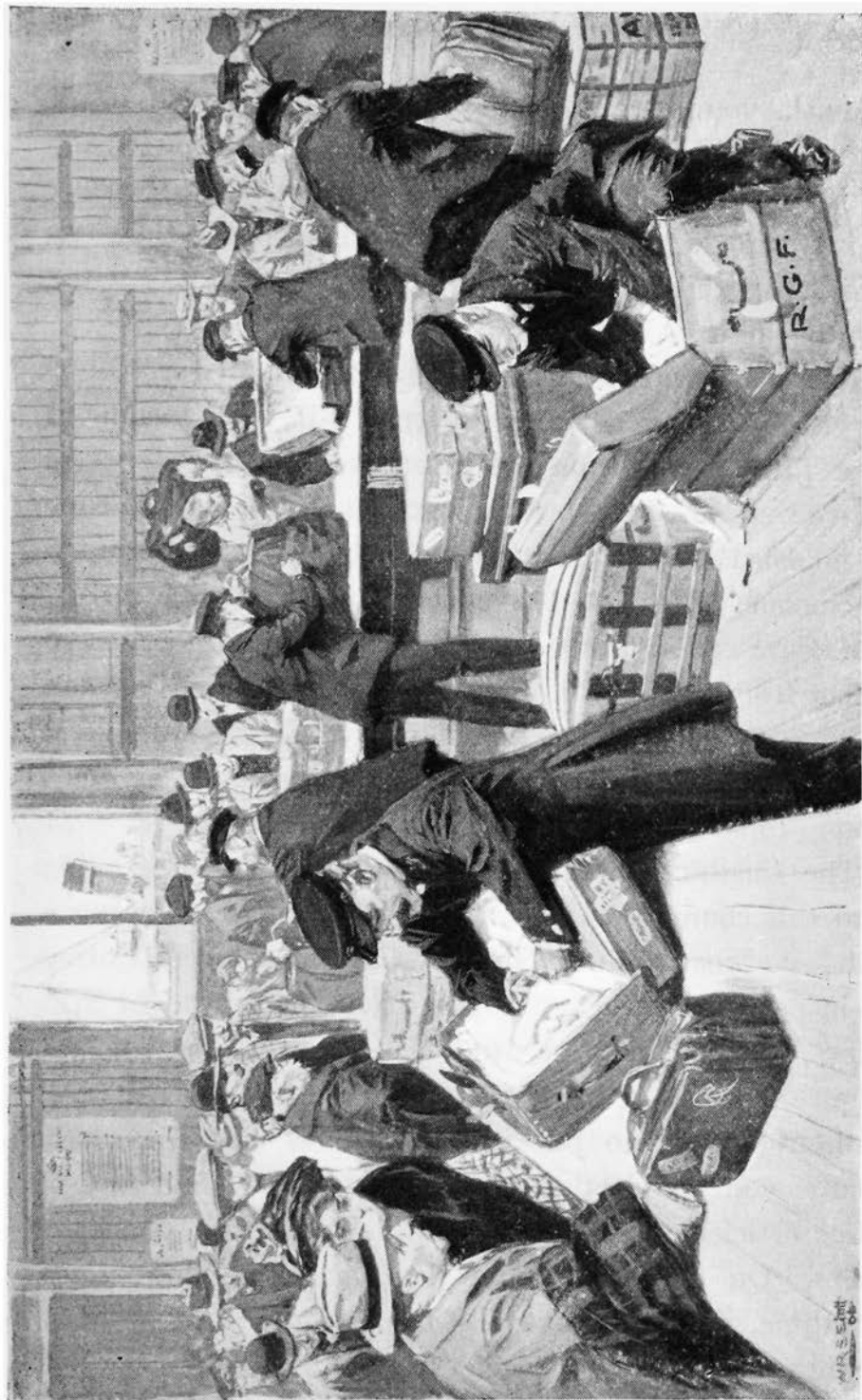
There is yet another feature of the work of the House of Commons of which we have not spoken, although it is most important and one in which we all have to share. We have mentioned the Estimates, that is the estimated cost every year of our Parliament, our Law Courts, our Army, our Navy, and our Civil Service. All these are gathered together in the "Budget," and every year the Chancellor of the Exchequer brings forward this Budget, and proposes to decrease or increase the taxes. Our national institutions are all maintained by taxes.

39. HOW AND WHY WE PAY TAXES.

VERY one of us is helping to keep up our citizen institutions. Whenever you drink a cup of tea, you are supporting the Government, for you or your parents have to buy the tea, and whoever pays for it pays a tax also. Many people do not know they are paying a tax, because they do not pay one sum of money for the tea, and another sum for the tax ; but all the same they are paying the tax.

Tea comes from India and China, and directly it arrives in this country, a tax of so much a pound is charged upon it. The tea merchant pays the tax, and then he charges so much more for the tea, so that the person who buys it to drink, really pays for the tea and pays the tax.

This is called indirect taxation, because no one comes



CUSTOMS OFFICERS EXAMINING PASSENGERS' LUGGAGE

ARTIST'S CONCEPTION
W. S. WOOD

and asks you for the tax, and you need not buy an article that is taxed, unless you like. Beer, wine, spirits and tobacco are among the articles which are taxed, because people can do without these altogether, and if they can afford to indulge in them, they can afford to pay a tax for the luxury of each.

If you keep a dog, a carriage, a motor-car, or motor-bicycle, you pay a tax every year. If your income is over £160 a year, you are also taxed for every pound above that amount ; but the tax, which varies from time to time, is less upon the income which you earn than upon the income which you derive from savings or investments. These are called direct taxes, because they are collected direct from you. You know exactly how much you are paying and when you will have to pay. There are several other direct taxes, such as the Death Duties, a payment upon property which is left by a dead person.

The Customs Officers collect taxes on goods coming into this country. Whenever you return from taking a holiday abroad, you will find the Customs Officers waiting to inspect your baggage, to see if you have brought over wines, cigars, scent, or other articles which are taxed. These officers have the right to turn out all your baggage, without having to put it back again, and they may charge you double the duty or tax, if they find any of these articles and you have not declared that you have them. On the other hand they may not charge you anything, if you are actually using the articles—that is, if the scent, or wine, or packet of cigars have been opened.

SECTION IV.

OUR NATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

(THE CIVIL SERVICE.)

40. THE SERVANTS OF THE STATE.



MOST of you have already heard of the Civil Service. You have been told, perhaps, that the clerks who are employed at all its offices are appointed by open competition, or public examination. Some of you are probably studying, or looking forward to studying, for one of these examinations. You will, therefore, be glad to know something about the various branches of the Civil Service, and the part they play as citizen institutions.

We have already noticed that every Cabinet minister is the head of a particular state department, for which he is held responsible ; but as these ministers are constantly changing, public affairs would suffer, and the departments would do very little good work, if all the routine work had to be carried out by these ministers. A permanent staff of officials is, therefore, appointed to carry on the administration, the method of dealing with the public work being much the same in every office.

All letters and other communications pass first through the hands of the lower-grade officials or clerks, who read them, make an abstract of their contents, and send them on to higher officials, who give directions as to how the letters shall be answered, or what shall be done. If the

matter be very important, it goes to the heads of the department. Documents are sent from one official to another in boxes, to which are attached papers of different colours ; white paper means that the matter is ordinary ; green paper indicates more important business ; pink paper demands immediate attention.

At one time all Civil Servants, as these officials are called, were appointed by the King, and, of course, they used their parliamentary votes according to his wishes. The Commons, therefore, deprived them for a time of their votes. For many years now, however, nearly all the officials have been appointed by competitive examinations, open to all British subjects between the ages of fourteen and about twenty-six ; and they may vote like ordinary citizens, but not take an active part in politics, or offer themselves for election as Members of Parliament or of the County Councils.

At one time, also, Civil Servants were compared with the fountains in Trafalgar Square, which “ play from ten till four,” but now they work as hard as anybody. Indeed, some of the highest and best work is not paid for. England is probably the only country in the world which can secure unpaid officials of this character.

41. THE HOME OFFICE.



THE first object of every good citizen is to secure peace and quiet at home. We have seen that this is assured to us by the police and the Law Courts. But suppose we should happen to feel that, on

some particular occasion, justice has not been done to us, or that the police have been using their authority unfairly, then we can appeal to the Home Office.

If there exists a secret conspiracy which the ordinary police cannot unravel, the Home Office through its special detectives at Scotland Yard will take up the matter ; and, if necessary, the Home Secretary, who is the Cabinet minister at the head of this department, may open any letters or stop any telegrams which are going through the post offices.

The Home Secretary may also prevent anybody from leaving, and any undesirable person from entering, this country. He may call out special constables, and, if necessary, the Reserve forces of the Army and Navy, in order to keep peace. He may give up foreign criminals to justice, unless they are political offenders only, in which case England will protect them, because England is the home of liberty.

The Home Secretary has, indeed, so many grave and delicate affairs to attend to, that he has a large staff of officials to assist him. Some of the duties, however, can be performed by none but himself. For instance, he is obliged to attend the King at all State ceremonies, and he is responsible for all the arrangements. He has to appoint the stipendiary magistrates. If you want to send a letter, or a petition, to the King, you must send it through his hands. If a man is condemned to death, the Home Secretary has the power to change the sentence to imprisonment for life, or for a certain number of years.

We must not leave this department of the Civil Service without a peep at "Scotland Yard," where the Metropolitan Police have their headquarters ; it is under the Home Office. Here are stationed some of the cleverest detectives in the world for the investigation of crime. Some of you, perhaps, have read the story of Sherlock Holmes, and how clever he was in detecting crime. Truth is often stranger than fiction, and Scotland Yard has many a Sherlock Holmes, who brings evil deeds to light months after they have occurred, and miles away from the places where the crimes were committed. Here, at these headquarters of the police, are kept photographs of every one who has served a term in prison, as well as photographs of suspected criminals and of questionable characters.

The study of crime has become such a science to this department, that people may now be detected by their footprints and even by their finger-prints. Some of you, perhaps, do not know that the finger-prints or finger-marks of no two persons are alike. Scotland Yard has a large collection of the finger-marks of different people, and by this means the authorities there have often detected criminals when they could not have done so by photographs, because faces are much more alike than finger-prints, and they can also be more cleverly disguised.

This is only one of the many modern developments of our citizen institutions, but it is one which has proved exceedingly beneficial to the community, and has largely helped to make people keep the peace and the laws.

42. THE FOREIGN OFFICE.



NEXT to keeping the peace at home, it is most necessary to be at peace abroad, and to do as much business as we can with foreign countries. The Foreign Office deals with all such matters.

The history of a country is very much influenced by its foreign neighbours, and it is a difficult and delicate matter to keep peace with foreign countries, which are always on the look-out to take advantage of any weakness we may show. The Secretary for Foreign Affairs is obliged, therefore, to be a man of great wisdom and tact, as well as one who has travelled and acquired a good knowledge of men and other countries.

At one time the monarch himself was his own foreign minister ; and, even to-day, the Secretary for Foreign Affairs is not so much under the control of Parliament as other Secretaries of State, because of the secrecy and prompt action required from him.

Ambassadors, consuls, and other officers who represent us abroad, are appointed by the Secretary for Foreign Affairs. The selection of these officials also requires great delicacy, because the men who represent our country abroad must be of the highest intelligence, cautious in speech and deed, patient, and very polite ; for a slip of their tongue, or a hasty action, might arouse bitterness between two countries, and perhaps cause war.

Britishers have always loved to travel. During recent years railway and steamboat travelling have become very cheap, especially in the summer months, and thousands

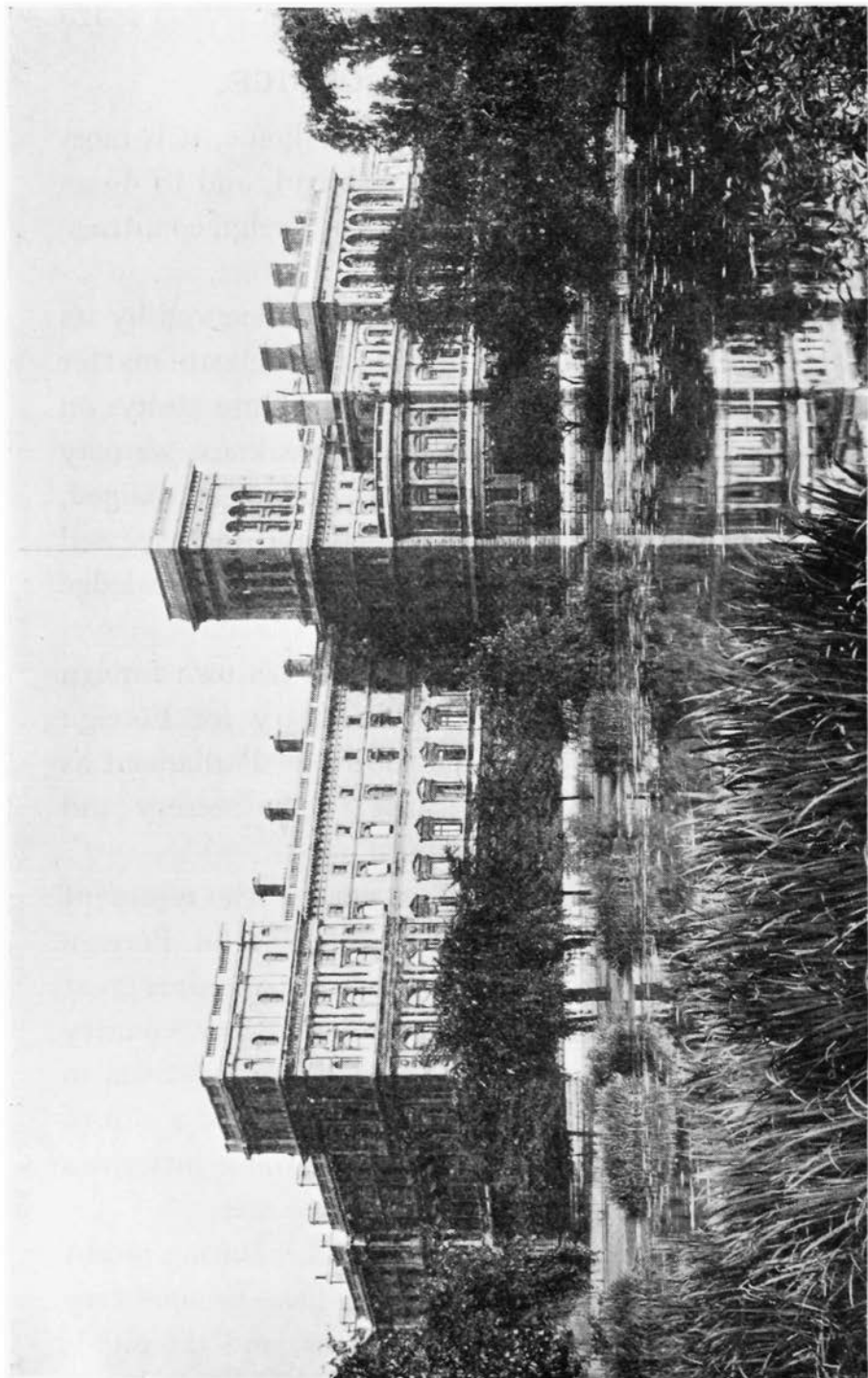


Photo by

THE FOREIGN AND INDIA OFFICES

The part of the building to the left of the central tower is the Foreign Office. On the right of the tower is the India Office.

Philip G. Hunt

of our people, therefore, spend a part of the year in foreign countries. The safety of these people has to be looked after, and, where necessary, as in Germany, Russia, Turkey, and Spain, passports are given to our travellers to show that they are British subjects. This also is the business of the Foreign Office.

If any British subject is robbed or injured abroad, the Foreign Office will insist upon the punishment of the offenders, and compensation for the sufferers. This is done through our consuls or ambassadors, who are resident in every country, and to whom the British subject, when abroad, should always apply, if necessary, for protection. In the most important countries, like Russia, Germany, Italy, France, Spain, Austria, and the United States, we are represented by ambassadors ; in countries like Greece, Denmark, and Portugal by "ministers" ; in smaller states by consuls only.

Whenever war breaks out between us and any other country, our ambassador or minister leaves that country, and the representative of the country with which we are at war similarly leaves our shores. The embassies in which these representatives reside are considered to be the property of that nation whom the ambassador or envoy represents. The different embassies in London, for instance, are regarded as being outside British territory. No person born in any one of them can claim to be a British citizen ; no magistrate can grant a search warrant for those premises ; no resident in them can be tried in a court of law. Similarly, our embassies or consulates

abroad are considered British territory, and enjoy the same privileges.

Whenever an ambassador or a consul arrives at the port of the country to which he is sent as representative, he is saluted by a discharge of guns from the forts and batteries at that port, or if he visits, embarks, or disembarks from one of His Majesty's ships within the same precincts, he is entitled to a similar salute according to his rank.

All consuls, however, do not enjoy diplomatic power, that is to say, they do not represent our political interests in the country in which they reside. Some are merely employed to look after the ordinary interests of our citizens, who may happen to be in that country, to arbitrate in their disputes, to record births, deaths, accidents or shipwrecks, and to collect commercial information, which they are expected to send to the Foreign Office, for the purposes of British trade.

43. THE COLONIAL OFFICE.



NATION which is fond of travel, and which loves independence, finds its own country too small for it. Many people accordingly leave their old homes, and find new ones in lands which are either uninhabited or only partly peopled by savages, who do not know what to do with waste and forest land, and have not the machinery for mining or manufacturing.

Those who make these new homes, do not as a rule forget the old country. Usually they plant their country's flag

on the new land, and form institutions like those they were accustomed to in their old homes. Such settlements are called Colonies, and if the government of the old country be wise, it will allow the Colonists to govern themselves in most things, and only act as judge or referee in very important matters.

A country like ours, which has many Colonies enjoying various forms of government, will constantly have to deal with such matters. This is the work of the Colonial Office. In order that the Colonies shall have the best attention and advice, each clerk at this Office has to deal with the business of some particular Colony only, so that he may make a thorough study of its people and its special needs and circumstances.

Parliament may make laws which every Colony must obey ; but the Colonies cannot pass any bill in their own parliaments which is opposed to a British Act of Parliament. Colonial bills which alter the constitution of a colony must be reserved for the assent of the King, who may veto them, on the advice of the Colonial Secretary. This official has, therefore, a very delicate task and a very responsible position.

Those Colonies which do not possess assemblies or parliaments are obliged to have all their money matters superintended by this office. A special department of the Colonial Office is responsible for the arrangements for the Imperial Conference, which is held every four years. At such Conferences the Colonial Secretary represents the Crown Colonies.

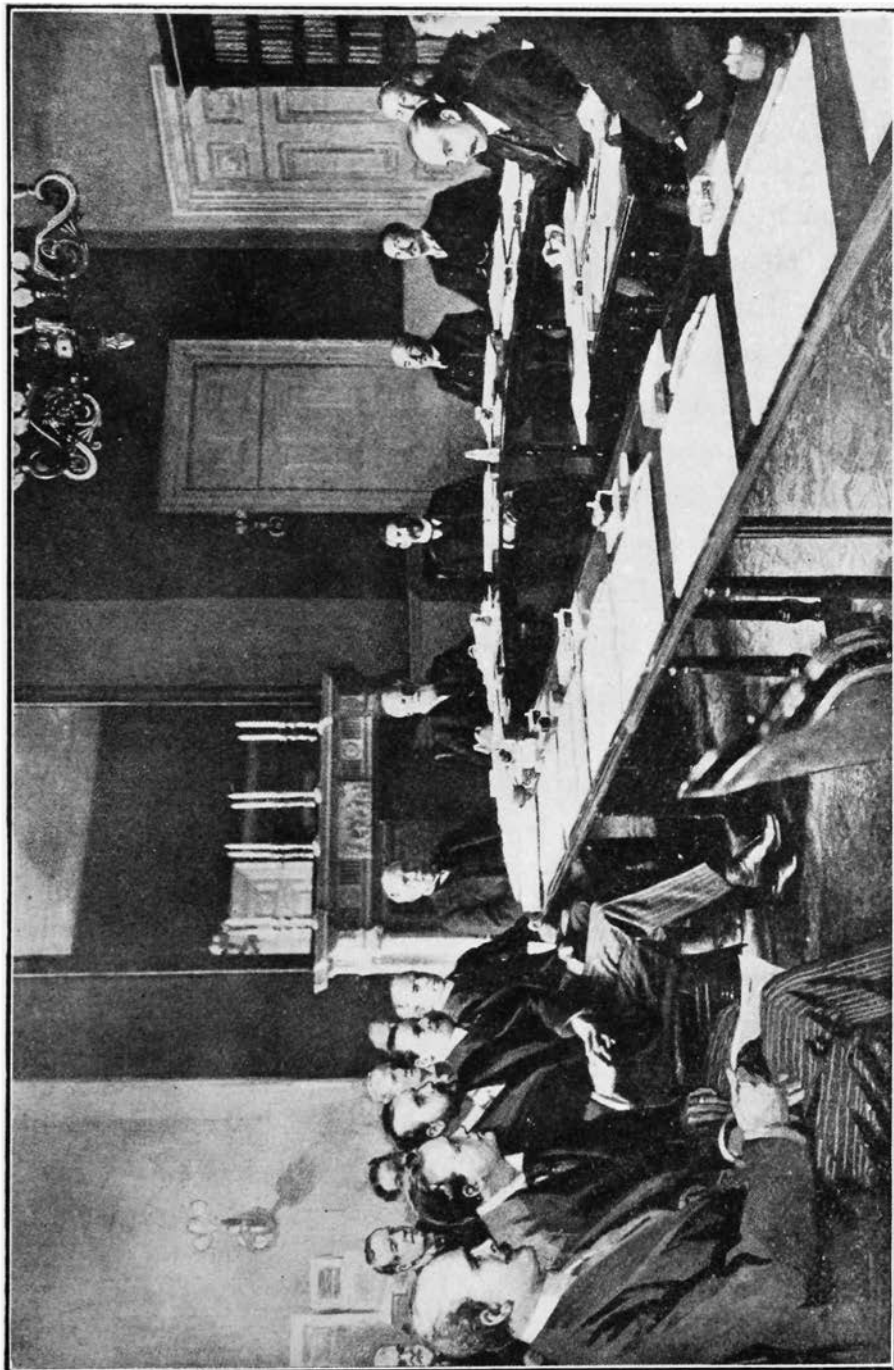
44. THE IMPERIAL CONFERENCE.



THE Imperial Conference originated from the Colonial Conferences, which were held irregularly. The first of the Colonial Conferences met in London during the celebration of Queen Victoria's Jubilee in 1887; the second took place at Ottawa when Lord Ripon was Colonial Secretary. The third and fourth were held at London, one to commemorate the Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria's reign, and the other in honour of the coronation of King Edward VII; both of these were presided over by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, who then held office as Colonial Secretary.

The Conference arranged by the Colonial Office in 1907 was the most important meeting of its kind, and may be said to have initiated a new development in the history of the British Empire. The arrival of the Colonial Premiers—or "Dominion" Premiers, as they are henceforth to be called—attracted the utmost interest and enthusiasm. Banquets were given daily in their honour; distinctions were showered upon them; crowds followed them with cheers wherever they went; and the reception accorded by the public and the press was altogether unparalleled.

The Conference itself was unique for three reasons. First, because the Prime Minister (Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman) attended in person, and delivered the opening speech. Secondly, because the Dominion Premiers who had held office for the longest and the shortest time—Sir Wilfrid Laurier and General Botha—were both representative



THE FIRST MEETING OF THE PREMIERS AT THE IMPERIAL CONFERENCE, 1907

of races who at one time were our bitterest enemies, but who now are loyal colonists. Thirdly, because the Conference was the nearest approach to a Cabinet Council of the Empire ; and, before it concluded its proceedings, it had established itself as a permanent institution, “ cementing the Empire,” as Sir Joseph Ward (Premier of New Zealand) remarked, “ not by sentimental ties only, but by practical ties.”

The Conference was presided over by Lord Elgin, Secretary of State for the Colonies, who, in formally opening its proceedings, read a message from the King welcoming the Premiers and wishing the Conference success. The business of the Conference was discussed under three heads ; the constitution of the Conference itself ; the question of Imperial defence ; and the question of linking the Empire together commercially. With regard to the first, it was decided that the Conference should be called “ Imperial,” and should thenceforth meet every four years. The Prime Minister who holds office at the time of the Conference is to be President, and a permanent secretarial staff has been established to obtain information, conduct correspondence, and attend to the resolutions of the Conference. If any questions of great importance arise within the prescribed period of four years, smaller or sectional Conferences are to be held. The self-governing colonies will henceforth be known officially as “ Dominions,” and a distinct division or department of the Colonial Office is to be set up for dealing specially with them.

With regard to Imperial defence, it was decided to develop, for the service of the Empire, a general staff selected from the forces of the Empire as a whole. This staff will study military science in all its branches, and collect and distribute military information and intelligence, besides undertaking the preparation of schemes of defence on a common principle, and acting as an advisory committee upon the training, education, and war organization of our Imperial forces. It was proposed also to organize an Imperial Reserve of officers ; and one or two of the Premiers suggested an interchange of men as well as officers. These developments will probably be effected in the near future.

The Government also announced its intention not to press the contract by which Australia contributes £200,000 every year to the cost of our Navy, in view of the ambition, which is cherished by the people of that dominion, to have a navy of their own.

With regard to linking together commercially the different parts of the Empire, there was some division of opinion, but ultimately it was proposed to connect Britain with Canada, and, through Canada, with Australia and New Zealand, by the best steamer accommodation possible, so that the journey from Britain to Canada should not take more than four days, the railway trip across Canada not more than another four days, and an ocean service from Vancouver onwards be ensured with a speed of not less than twenty knots.

Another means towards the development of Imperial

commerce to be adopted is the appointment of commercial attachés, or consuls, in these dominions to assist British trade, while an attempt is to be made to cheapen and improve the cable communication with our own country.

The Imperial Conference of 1907, therefore, was a great historical event. Before the Premiers returned to their own states, they were admitted to the Privy Council, Mr. Deakin, the Australian Premier, alone declining the honour. The Freedom of the City of London and of other cities was conferred upon them, and other honours were accorded them by different public bodies.

45. THE INDIA, THE SCOTCH, AND THE IRISH OFFICES.

BESIDES possessing numerous colonies, our country has conquered lands belonging to other people. The most important of these is India, which is governed by a Viceroy and other officials at Calcutta, and an Indian Council and Secretary of State in London. The reason for the existence of a special Indian Council in London is that, if anyone feels that he is suffering from injustice through the Viceroy's Government in India, he may appeal to this Council.

The work of the India Office and its Council is to attend to all such business, and any other matters which may affect the welfare of India. The Council is composed of fifteen eminent men appointed by the Secretary of State for India. Nine of them must have served or resided in

India for ten years, so that they may be thoroughly acquainted with the country and its people. Every order sent to India must be communicated to this Council, which is obliged to meet at least once a week.

The Scotch office is the department presided over by the Secretary for Scotland. When the union of the English and Scotch Parliaments took place, a Secretary of State was appointed to look after Scottish affairs, and he was given a seat in the Cabinet.

This office, however, lapsed in 1746, and, for a long time after, Scottish affairs were controlled by the English Home Secretary, the Privy Council, the Local Government Board, and the Lord Advocate. In 1885, in consequence of complaints of neglect, and petitions from the Scottish people, a Secretary for Scotland was again appointed, with an office in Whitehall, and with duties similar to those of our Home Secretary.

In the same year a separate education department for Scotland was also opened in Whitehall. This is almost entirely under the control of the Secretary for Scotland. In 1894, a separate Local Government Board for Scotland was established, with offices in Edinburgh; this also is presided over by the Secretary for Scotland.

The Irish office in London is in constant communication by private telegraph with Dublin Castle, the residence of the Viceroy of Ireland, and the office of the Chief Secretary for Ireland. Irish affairs are controlled by these two officials, one of whom is always in the Cabinet. They are assisted by a special Irish Privy Council.

46. THE BOARD OF TRADE.



WHEN you take the train to go to school, or to business, or on a holiday, you trust that the railway is safe, that all the bridges over which the train has to travel are strong enough to bear its weight, and that the engines and brakes attached to the train are in good condition. Again, when you make a journey by sea, or send goods to relations or friends across the ocean, you take for granted that the ship is seaworthy, and that the crew can manage her in bad weather and in difficult places.

In such cases you trust to the railway companies and the shipowners. But neither railway companies nor shipowners could be trusted so well, if the government did not exercise some supervision over them, and make inquiries into every accident that happened, so that if anyone be to blame for it, he may be punished. This is one of the duties of the Board of Trade.

Before the government interfered in this way, some shipowners used to insure their worthless and worn-out ships, and then send them on voyages knowing that they would be sunk. The crew would lose their lives in such a disaster, but the shipowners did not trouble about that; they knew that they could claim and get the insurance money, and that was all they wanted. Now they have to paint on their ships a line, which is called the Plimsoll line, because the idea came from Mr. Samuel Plimsoll, M.P.; and the Board of Trade insists upon an examination of all those who wish to be officers in charge of ships.



CHARLES II CREATING THE FIRST BOARD OF TRADE

This government department can also insist on reasonable fares, especially reduced fares for workmen, being charged by railway companies ; it provides the standards for weights and measures ; it inquires into the state of employment at home, and prepares the fullest information as to the increase or decrease of our commerce. You will thus understand what an important department is the Board of Trade, and how necessary it is that its officials should be well-educated, upright, and energetic.

47. THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD, THE OFFICE OF WORKS AND THE DUCHY OF LANCASTER.



WE have seen that every parish, town, and county has its own local government. Supposing that you have a grievance, or that you discover a nuisance to which your local authorities do not pay proper attention, you can appeal to the Local Government Board, which superintends all these local bodies.

If you know of any wilful waste of the ratepayers' money by the local council or Board of Guardians, you can advise the Local Government Board. The auditors of that department will look out for this item of expenditure when they check the accounts of these bodies, and if they find there has been waste, they will " surcharge " the responsible officials, or, in other words, those who sanctioned it will have to pay.

The Office of Works has to look after the royal palaces

and parks, and all the government buildings in London. It is presided over by the First Commissioner of Works, who is always a prominent member of the Government, and sometimes of Cabinet rank. Mr. Herbert Gladstone, while First Commissioner, had bathrooms placed in the Houses of Parliament ; and subsequent Commissioners have vied with each other in doing something to mark their term of office.

Another office, the head of which is sometimes a Cabinet Minister, is that of the Duchy of Lancaster. Lancashire was once a county palatine, and a royal duchy. When Henry IV, who was Duke of Lancaster, ascended the throne, the title became attached to the Sovereign, who is always Duke of Lancaster ; and the revenues and lands of the duchy have since then been kept distinct from other Crown property. The Chancellor of the Duchy acts as agent of the Crown in the management of these lands and revenues.

48. THE BOARDS OF EDUCATION AND AGRICULTURE.



WE have noticed that Elementary Education—and sometimes Higher Education—is largely under the control of the County Councils, and that it is paid for out of the rates ; but the State also makes large grants each year not only to those schools, but to Polytechnics, Colleges, Technical Institutes, and other centres of learning. The distribution of these grants in such a way that each educational establishment gets what

it deserves, is a part of the business of the Board of Education.

This Board also has to see that every part of the country is supplied with a sufficient number of schools, and, where they are lacking, to force the authorities to build some. A staff of His Majesty's Inspectors, who are officers of this Board, tour the country to make sure that the requirements of the Education Acts are being complied with. The Board also investigates methods of teaching, prepares statistics to show the development of education, and hears and decides appeals which teachers may make in cases of dispute with the local councils.

The Board of Education consists of the chief Secretaries of State and a few other members, with a President and a Parliamentary Secretary appointed by the Prime Minister. The Board is assisted by a Consultative Committee of eminent persons from the universities, or other educational centres. Each year it issues a "Code," or book of regulations, as to the education which is to be given in the schools, and the payments that are to be made. The Code is usually laid before Parliament for a month before becoming law, so that debates and divisions may be made upon it.

The main work of the Board is carried on through the Elementary and Secondary School Departments, and the Department of Technology, Science and Art. Through the generosity of the last-named department, scholarships, exhibitions, prizes, and certificates may be obtained, and special classes are arranged for teachers. Technical

education has been specially watched and provided for by this department. A new and separate department for Education in Wales has recently been established, the principal officials of which are Welsh.

The Board of Agriculture and Fisheries is one of our latest government offices, dating back only to 1889. It is invested with the powers of destroying pests hurtful to agricultural produce; muzzling or destroying dogs if found without an owner, or if considered a public danger; and preventing contagious diseases among animals. Swine fever is very common in agricultural districts, and a local policeman who merely suspects its existence may telegraph at once to the Board, so that inspection may be made, and the disease stamped out.

The Board has also an educational department to investigate the best methods of farming and for encouraging dairy produce. One of the problems of modern citizenship is how to keep country people in agricultural pursuits, instead of letting them drift to the towns and swell the ranks of the unemployed; this department is trying to solve the problem. The Board is also invested with several other powers with regard to the land, such as the provision of small holdings.

The Fisheries Department carries out the laws which regulate the fishing industries. There are seasons when many kinds of fish are not fit to eat. These laws prevent the sale of such fish; they even regulate the size of crabs sold for food. The Board can prohibit or restrict dredging for oysters, and prevent the pollution of rivers.

49. THE TREASURY AND THE INLAND REVENUE.



THE Treasury is the State department which prepares the estimates of public expenditure each year; and whenever certain sums of money are raised, it has to control the spending of such sums by the different departments of the State. It also has to prepare the Budget under the direction of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who introduces it each year in the House of Commons. This decides what taxes shall be raised or taken off.

The Inland Revenue department collects the taxes, customs and other sources of revenue for the State. We have already spoken about the work of the Excise and Customs officers in collecting the taxes and duties on certain articles coming in from abroad, or manufactured at home. Both the Excise and the Customs are branches of this department. Death duties, that is, a tax of so much per cent. on a dead man's property to be paid by those who are going to benefit by it, are collected by the Inland Revenue, which also issues licences for the sale of special articles and manufactures, and stamps at various prices from one halfpenny up to six pounds sterling that have to be placed on letters or documents in order to make them legal.

All these sources of revenue pass through this department, and are paid into the Consolidated Fund in charge of the Exchequer at the Bank of England. Nothing may be paid from this fund without the consent of Parliament.

50. THE BANK AND THE MINT.

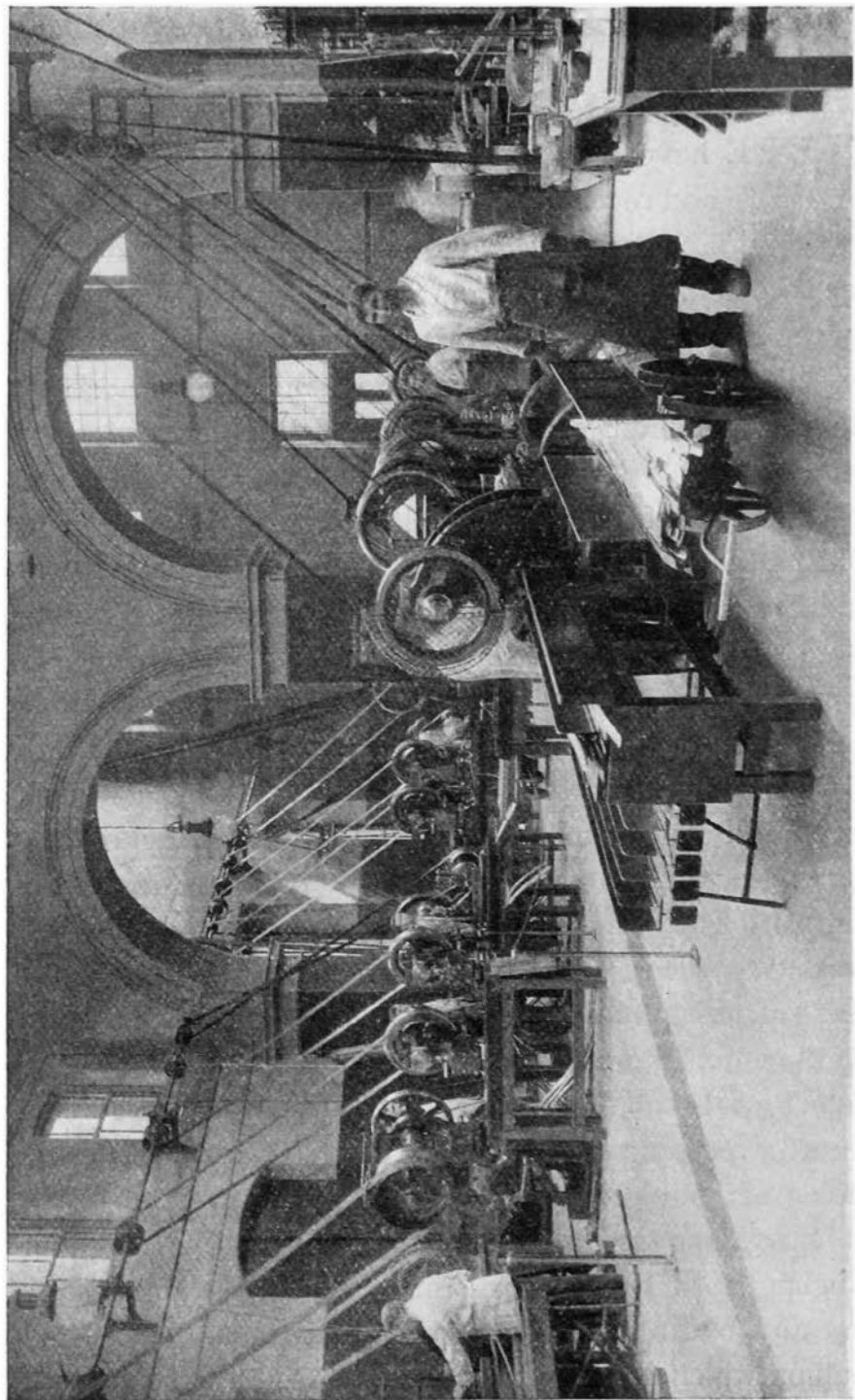


WE have been talking a great deal about money and revenue, but we have not yet said anything about the Mint, where most of the money we use is coined, and the Bank, in which the revenue collected by the state is deposited. If an enemy of ours managed to sail up the Thames at any time, and invade London, these two buildings would be the first objects of their attack.

The Bank of England is called by a nickname, “The Old Lady of Threadneedle street.” It is a massive place, and looks more like a prison than a business house. More than two hundred million pounds pass through it every year for the affairs of the nation, besides which it undertakes the ordinary transactions of a private bank.

One privilege it possesses above all other banks ; it may print and issue banknotes. Have you ever held up a banknote to the light ? If so, you will have noticed a number of beautiful and peculiar marks, which cannot be seen when the note is on a desk or in the open hand. By these marks and by the particular formation of the writing on the note, an official of the Bank of England can at once detect a false note. The machines which print the notes record every one that they turn out, so that none can be stolen without discovery.

It is of no use to take bad money to the Bank of England, for the testing machines used there at once throw out any bad coins that are placed in them. Coins and bullion which arrive at the bank are stored in solid brick



AN INTERIOR VIEW OF THE MINT

cellars to the amount of about fifty million pounds. This is called "the Reserve." The remainder is circulated in the ordinary way. Perhaps you will ask, what is bullion? Bullion is gold and silver in bars or ingots before it is transformed into coins. The Bank buys gold in this state and makes a profit of $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per ounce for coining it.

The coining of all money takes place at the Mint, and any citizen may obtain a free order from the Deputy Governor of the Mint, at Tower Hill, to see the different processes which the gold and silver pass through before being turned out as coins of the realm. Anyone also may take gold bars to the Mint and have them converted into coin, but silver coins must be obtained through the Bank of England.

The Mint turns out about 150,000,000 coins yearly and uses about 1,800 dies yearly for stamping the coins. The pressure required for stamping a five shilling piece is thirty tons, but only twenty tons is required for stamping a penny. All the coins are carefully weighed before they are circulated; and every man through whose hands any coins passed, while on duty at the Mint, used to be searched before he left, in order to prevent theft or fraud.

To place the employees beyond temptation, the doors of every room are now kept locked, and every one is watched as he passes in or out. Every night the rooms are carefully swept and the sweepings boiled up, and as the gold is weighed before it goes to any room and again before it comes out, any deficiency has to be made good from the men's wages.

Upon the engraver to the Mint falls the responsible task of making a new Great Seal. A fresh Great Seal is made upon the accession of every Sovereign to the Throne. The new Sovereign calls the Privy Council together to agree upon the design, and when the Seal is made, he hammers the old one so as to leave a mark, and gives it as a present to the Lord Chancellor. The Seal is about as large and as thick as a muffin, and consists of two heavy silver discs, hinged together to form a kind of mould, into which molten wax is poured and allowed to harden. Its cost varies from £400 to £500, and impressions from it are much valued by historians and antiquaries, because it always shows the dress of the reigning sovereign. If you go to the Grenville Library in the British Museum you can see well preserved seals of the past in green, red, chocolate, and yellow wax. All of them have on one side the Sovereign enthroned as the ruler of the realm, and on the other side the Sovereign on horseback as "Head of the Forces" ready for war.

51. THE POST OFFICE.

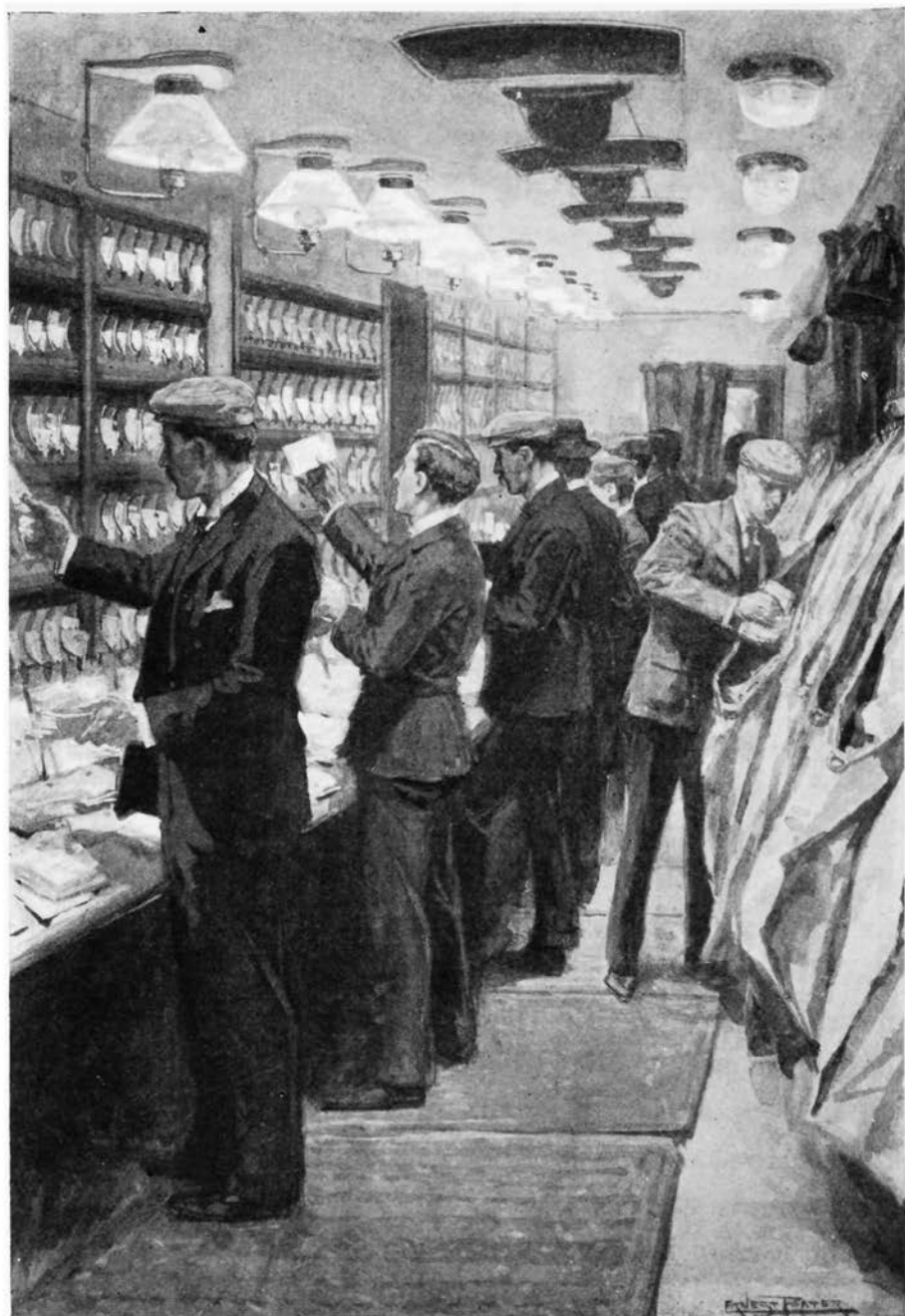


WHO does not know the postman and telegraph boy and their knock? In the early morning before most people have begun work, and late in the evening after every one has returned, in the rain or the snow, through mud or fog, the postmen and the telegraph boys deliver their letters and telegrams. They are the servants of the Post Office, the only department of the State which carries on a business for profit.

No one may deliver letters or telegrams, or carry on any business of a post office ; no one may even sell stamps without a licence, because such business is a government monopoly. All Governments claim control of the postal and telegraph services, because of the secret and confidential messages which pass through them. In times of peace and security the public can trust private messages to a State department with more confidence than they could to a private person or company ; and in times of war and insecurity it is only right that the State should have the sole control and the means of intercepting treasonable letters or despatches.

At one time you could not send a letter anywhere for less than sixpence. The cost from London to Edinburgh was 1s. 4½d. As these charges were too much for poor people, they used to send blank sheets of paper secured in unstamped envelopes, so that the charges would be collected at the places of delivery. On the envelopes signs or marks were often written, so that the receivers of the letters had only to look at the envelopes to know that their friends had arrived safely or to read some other message. They could then hand the letter back to the postman, saying that they could not pay the charge. Other people used to get Members of Parliament to sign their letters, which were then carried free of charge. This led to many abuses.

The idea of a penny post originated with Mr. Rowland Hill, who was afterwards knighted. He did not belong to the Post Office at the time he suggested the idea, and when



SORTING LETTERS IN A MAIL TRAIN AT NIGHT

he was given a place in the General Post Office, the officials there tried to thwart him in every possible way. But Sir Rowland Hill was a man of strong character, and he succeeded in his scheme. The result was that for one penny, anyone could send a letter weighing not more than one ounce to any place in the United Kingdom. Recently this privilege has been extended much further. With a penny stamp affixed, you can now send a letter weighing not more than four ounces to any place in the United Kingdom, and the same stamp will also convey a letter weighing not more than half-an-ounce to nearly every part of the British Empire.

The penny post has proved, not only a public boon, but a profitable enterprise for the government. In 1838, before the days of penny postage, about seventy-six million letters passed through the post, but the revenue was only two million pounds. The number of letters, post cards, and book-packets is now more than seven thousand millions every year, and the revenue something over seventeen millions of pounds.

At one time a telegram cost at least one shilling ; now we can send twelve words for sixpence. The number of telegrams sent every year is about ninety millions.

The Post Office sells money orders and postal orders, to enable you to send small sums of money by post without the trouble of enclosing coin ; and it also carries parcels at a fixed rate.

The parcels and letters are dispatched almost every hour from the General Post Office at St. Martin's-le-Grand.

Certain trains on every railway line in the Kingdom are called " mail " trains, because a travelling post office is attached to them, and the letters are sorted as the train rushes through the country, bags of letters being made up and thrown out of the window at the small stations, through which the express passes without stopping.

Quite recently the telephones have been taken over by this department. For twopence you can communicate with friends or with tradesmen who have a private telephone. Another branch of the post office is the Returned Letter Office, where letters and parcels insufficiently addressed find a refuge and are sometimes traced. Cheques for large amounts are often found, and even live snakes, frogs, and other reptiles.

52. THE POST OFFICE SAVINGS BANK.



THE Savings Bank is also a privilege of citizenship which is under the charge of the Post Office. It is intended for people who have small sums of money, which they require to place in safe keeping, and at the same time get interest for their savings.

If, when you have a penny to spare, you ask at any post office for a Savings Bank form, you will be given a sheet of paper with twelve squares printed upon it. You do not pay for the form, but with the penny you buy a stamp, and affix it upon one of the squares. Then you take the form home, and when you have another penny to spare, you buy another stamp, and place it next the other. When you have filled up the form you must take

it to the post office, and there will be given to you, in return for the form, a Savings Bank book in which will be entered to your account the sum of one shilling.

For every pound that you deposit with the Post Office for a year, you will receive sixpence interest, and yet you can withdraw your pound, as quickly as if it were in your money-box. You can also leave the interest in the Savings Bank, if you like, in which case the Savings Bank will, at the end of the next year, give you interest on your last year's interest as well as on the deposits.

When you have saved a few pounds, the Savings Bank will, if you like, invest it in "Consols." Consols consist of money lent to the Government at different times in days gone by, for purposes of war. This money has not been paid back, but the Government pays from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 per cent. for the loans.

There are more than five million depositors in the Post Office Savings Bank, and about one hundred and fifty million pounds are deposited during the year. The number of post offices at which these deposits can be made is about fourteen thousand. At these offices you can also insure your life, or purchase an annuity. You can read all the particulars about these opportunities on the cover of your Savings Bank book.

The work of the Post Office is therefore very important, very laborious, very complex ; and a great army of workers is needed, as well as a vast clerical staff. The workers alone number at least two hundred thousand, and there is employment for about thirty-eight thousand women.

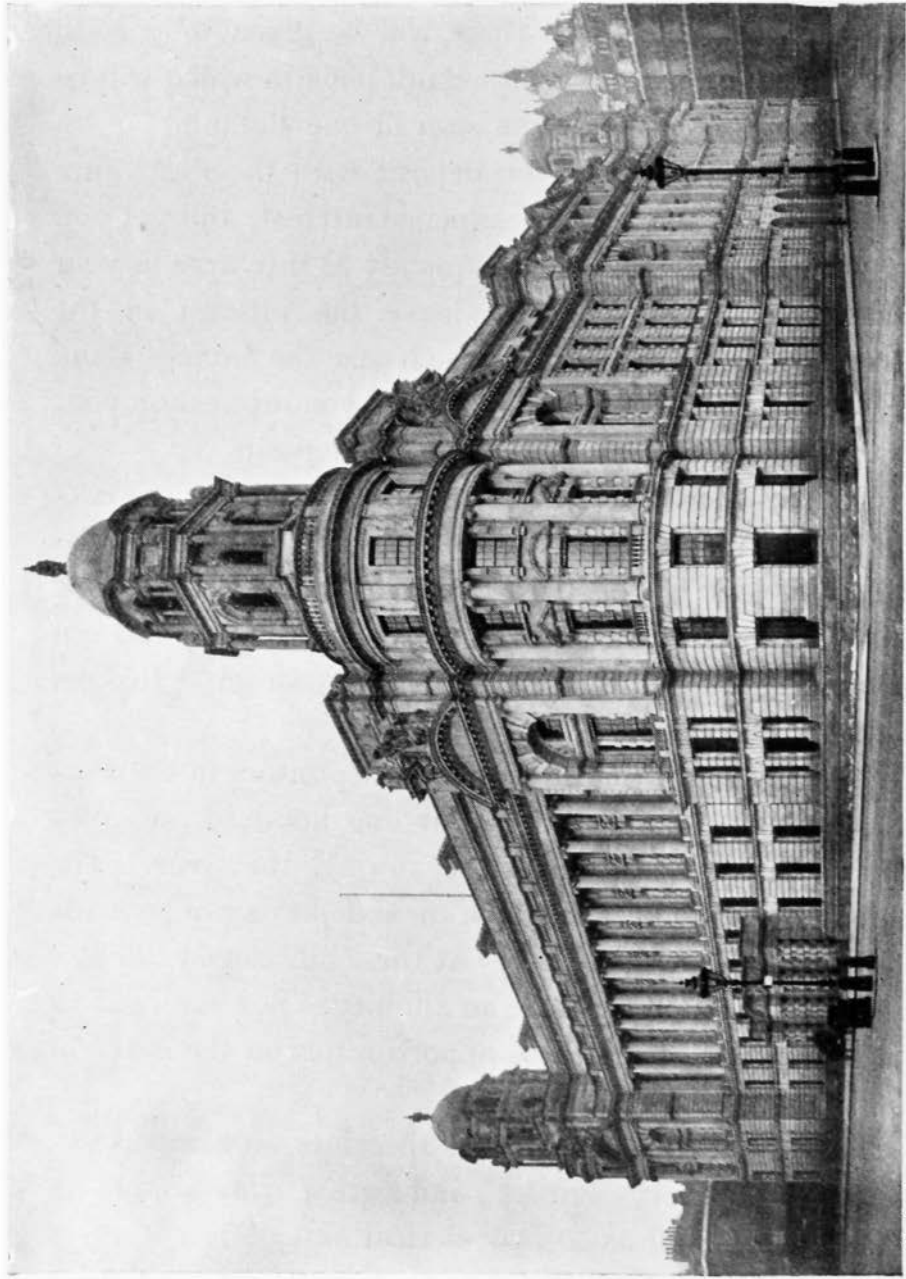


Photo by

THE NEW WAR OFFICE

Campbell-Gray

53. THE WAR OFFICE AND ADMIRALTY.



LESS than a hundred years ago the control of the army was divided among many branches of the Civil Service. The army at home was controlled by the Home Secretary, the army abroad by the Secretary for War. All the forts of the country were under a different management altogether, the Ordnance Board. The department which looked after the army food and supplies—called the Commissariat—was controlled by the Treasury. Lastly, discipline was maintained and promotions made by the Commander-in-Chief. To-day, every one of these matters is controlled by the War Office.

Every year the Secretary of State for War has to ask Parliament for money to pay the officers and men of our standing army, and to carry on its administration. Parliament is obliged, therefore, to meet every year, if only to vote this money for the army ; otherwise the army might have to be disbanded, and neither officers nor men would have any legal claim for their salaries.

The Admiralty is the department which looks after the administration of the navy, the marines, and the dock-yards. The First Lord of the Admiralty, who is always a Cabinet Minister, is held responsible for our battleships, their officers and men, and all appointments and rewards.

The army and navy are so essential to our national life that they deserve a separate section to themselves ; and as we have now glanced at the principal government offices, let us take a few steps away towards a well-known spot where we can see something of the army.

SECTION V.

OUR NATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

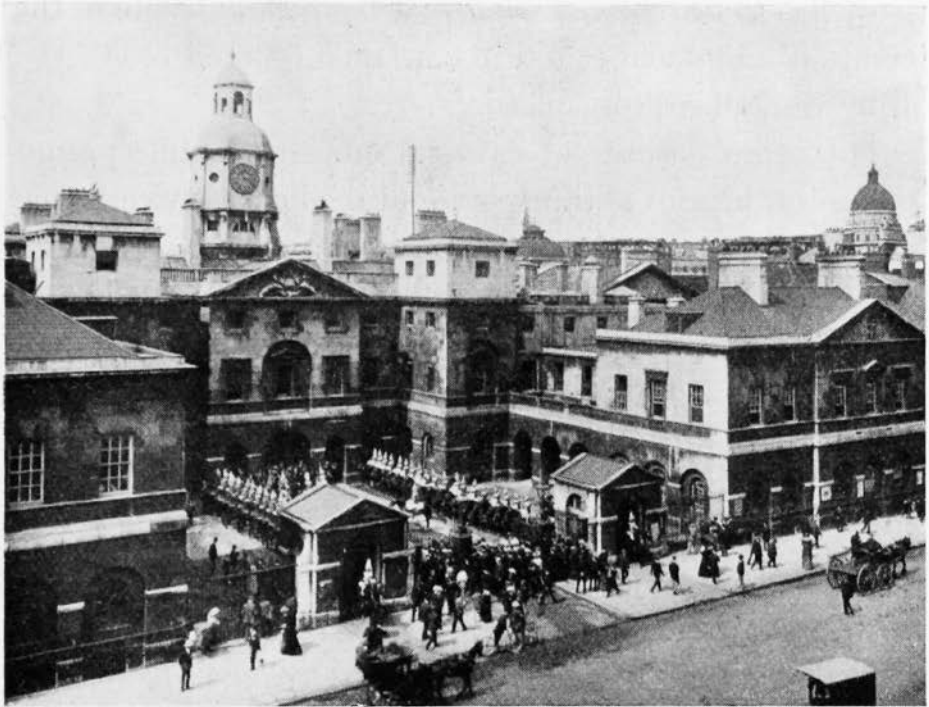
(THE ARMY AND NAVY.)

54. THE STORY OF THE BRITISH ARMY.

EVERYONE who has been to London will remember one place in Whitehall where two fine soldiers, wearing blue or red uniform, glittering helmets and breastplates, and mounted upon strong horses, guard the gateway which leads from Whitehall to St. James's Park. It is a place which at once attracts visitors, and at every hour you may see enthusiastic boys hovering around, admiring the men and the horses.

This place is called the Horse Guards' Parade, and the soldiers you see at the gates are either "Horse Guards" or "Life Guards." The Horse Guards wear blue tunics, and they have red plumes on their helmets. The Life Guards wear red tunics, and have white plumes. Whenever the King attends anywhere in State, he is escorted by some of these Guards, while Guards on foot, the Grenadiers, the Coldstreams, and the Scots Guards, line the route of procession.

These Guards were the first regiments of our present army, and date from the reign of Charles II. Before his time there was no standing army. In olden days every man was liable to serve as a soldier, when called upon

*Photo by**Philip G. Hunt***THE HORSE GUARDS, WHITEHALL**

by his lord or his King, but there was no standing army. Later on, the kings preferred to hire an army for their wars abroad, but this was dismissed as soon as peace was proclaimed.

Charles I wanted to keep a standing army, and this was one of the causes of the great revolt against him. His son, Charles II, was allowed to keep a Household guard of 5,000 men. This was the origin of these Guards. James II increased their number to thirty thousand. This was declared illegal, and when William III was invited to take the throne, he promised not to keep a standing army without the consent of Parliament. The existence of our

army has to be renewed each year by a special vote of the House of Commons ; and if Parliament failed to sit, the army would be disorganised.

The army consists of cavalry, infantry, artillery, and engineers, besides a transport and medical service. The greater part of it is scattered over our colonies and dependencies ; but there is a special additional force of about 200,000 men in India, composed chiefly of native troops, and maintained by Indian taxation only.

55. THE NEED FOR AN EFFICIENT ARMY.



OUR standing army is much smaller than that of any other great European Power, and service is not compulsory. The reason is that England is an island, and her navy secures her, to a large extent, from invasion. In case, however, the navy should be beaten, or a surprise landing be made at any time, it is wise to keep an armed force large enough to meet any such emergency.

War is a fearful thing. We, in England, do not realise all its horrors, for there has been no war in our own beloved country for over two hundred years, owing to the existence of our splendid navy, the brave deeds of our soldiers abroad, and the mighty ocean which surrounds us. Wherever war is being waged, many wives are left widows, and many children fatherless ; while hundreds of brave men die in ditches, or return home without a leg, or an arm, or an eye.

Nor is this all. No home is safe from being entered

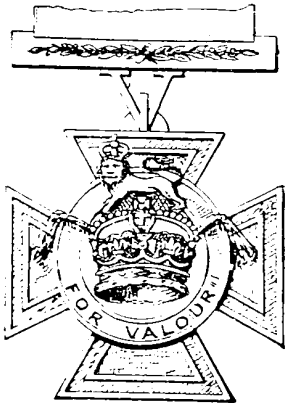


THE TRAIN BANDS LEAVING LONDON DURING THE CIVIL WAR IN 1643
(After the picture by C. W. Cope, R.A. By permission of the Council of the Art Union of London).

day or night by the enemy's soldiers, and no crops can be sown in the fields, because the different armies will march over and spoil them. How necessary, then, is it for us to have an efficient army at home in case of such a terrible emergency as invasion.

There are many people who think that the time has come for civilized nations to leave war alone, and to reduce their big armies. Everyone agrees with them in loving peace and being anxious to secure it, but everyone does not agree that the best way to obtain peace is to weaken our defences.

56. HOW THE ARMY IS MAINTAINED.



THE VICTORIA CROSS

THE British Army is maintained by voluntary enlistment, that is, no man is obliged to serve, though people are forced to do so in almost every other country. If a man wishes to enter the army, he looks out for a recruiting sergeant, or goes direct to the nearest barracks, and receives "the King's shilling," as a token that he is for a certain period the servant of the King.

That period is usually one of twelve years ; but, after six or eight years' service, he may return home to enter some private employment, on the express condition that he shall return to the army if required. A man who

has performed such a period of service is said to be on the Reserve, and receives a small salary.

Anyone wishing to become an officer is obliged to pass a very difficult literary examination, which admits one to a military college for special instruction and training. A second examination is necessary to secure a commission as lieutenant. A private, or ordinary soldier, may rise from the ranks to be an officer, if he is very clever and smart.

Medals and stripes are given for special services in the field ; but the most coveted of all distinctions is the Victoria Cross, made from the cannon taken at Sebastopol. The actual cost of this Cross is about fourpence halfpenny, yet it is only bestowed for exceptional deeds of valour. Officers and men prize it above all others, and are entitled to put the letters V.C. after their name. The V.C. takes precedence also of such high honours as those of the Bath, so that a colonel who has won both the order of the Bath, and the V.C., is always ranked as Colonel So-and-so, V.C., C.B.

Unfortunately, it cannot be said that we treat our soldiers as they deserve to be treated. Neither officers nor men receive large salaries ; few officers can live upon their pay alone ; and although the officer is always welcome in any society, the private was a short time ago treated like an outcast, when he was off duty. A change for the better is now passing over us, and we are beginning to recognize that soldiers, too, are our citizens, and have their rights as well as their duties.

57. OUR ISLAND HOME.

“Rule Britannia! Britannia rules the waves,
Britons never, never, never shall be slaves.”



EVERYONE knows this familiar refrain, and the enthusiasm with which it is always sung, but few people ever think of all the truth contained in the words, or why the ruling of the waves should have anything to do with slavery.

The ordinary man in the street thinks that Britain was the first country to abolish colonial slavery, and, therefore, that the song refers to that. But the truth is that Britain owes her free institutions, and therefore much of her greatness, to being an island, and having the borders of her kingdom lapped by the waves.

What effect can this have? Well, first of all, it makes invasion impossible except by ships. Ships cannot sail in all weather except at great risk; they cannot harbour everywhere; and they take some time in disembarking their crew or passengers. It is therefore far more difficult, more costly, and more dangerous to invade a country by sea than by land.

Again, if an island be already civilized, this security from invasion enables the people to develop wealth, science, and all that makes for progress, much quicker than other peoples.

Then, also, if a nation is protected by the sea, it does not require a large standing army to be ready at a moment's notice, and as the governors of a country are

less despotic when they have not a large army to carry out their orders, the people enjoy greater liberty.

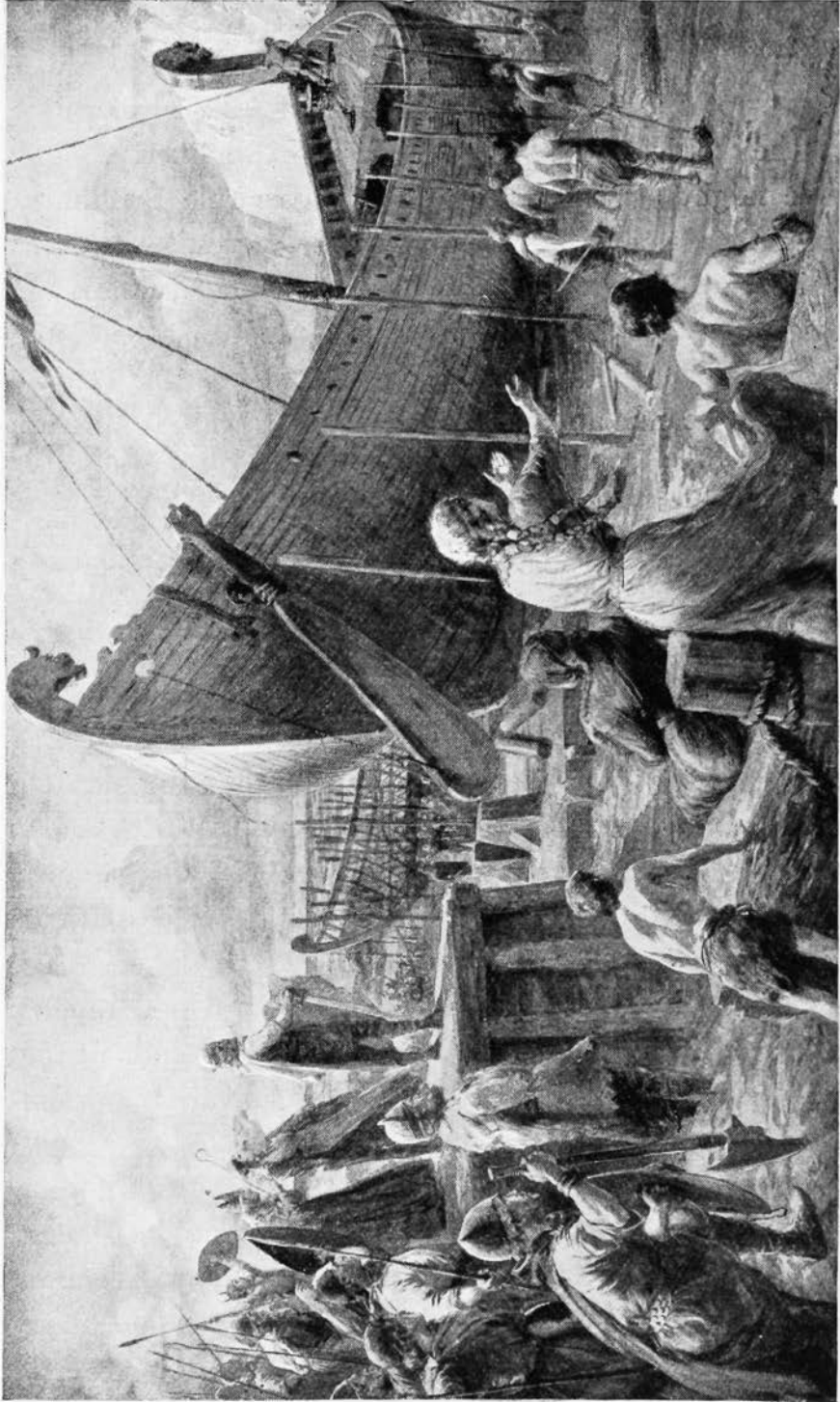
We might almost say that the waves rule Britannia, rather than that "Britannia rules the waves." But the sea itself could not secure us against invasion, unless we possessed a powerful navy. It is quite true, therefore, that we rule the waves in order that we may enjoy freedom at home and help other people to gain it abroad.

58. THE STORY OF OUR NAVY.



ALFRED the Great was the first King of England to recognize the need of a navy. The Danes were ravaging England at that time, and Alfred had been obliged to give them a portion of his kingdom. But he determined that no more should come over, and so he built ships more powerful than those which they possessed. This was the beginning of England's Navy. Alfred was able by these means to beat his enemies on the sea. His naval victories assisted him also to defeat those Danes who were already on the land. This important lesson in sea power, which Alfred first taught the English, has been repeated since by the results of the Armada, Trafalgar, and of the Japanese naval victories in the recent war with Russia.

Unfortunately, most of the successors of Alfred forgot the lesson he had taught them, so that first the Danes, and then the Normans, were able to conquer England. For many centuries afterwards our war boats were mere galleys worked by men with oars.



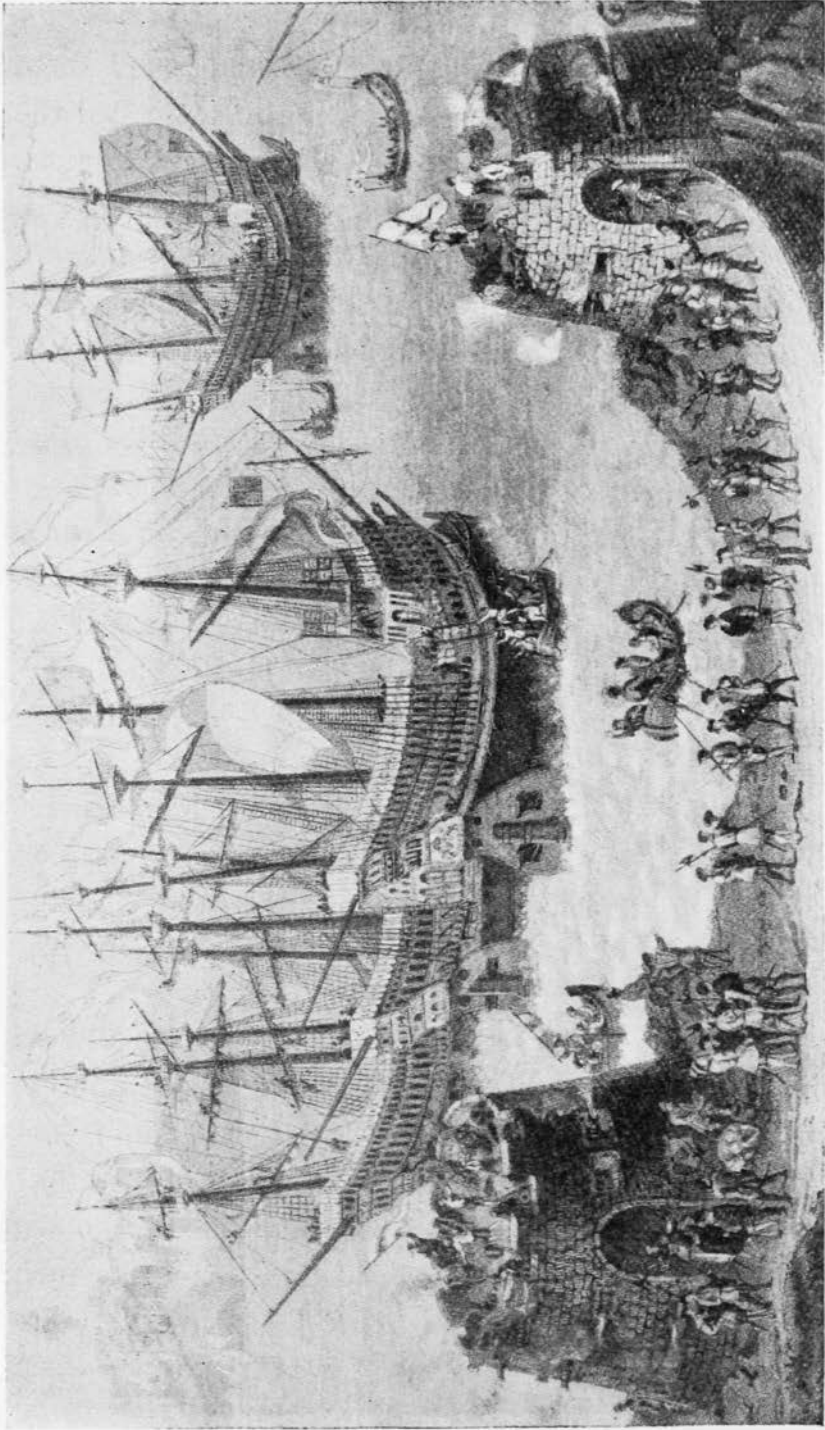
KING ALFRED AT THE LAUNCH OF A WARSHIP

Henry VIII built our first warships and fitted them with guns. One of these celebrated ships was called the Great Harry. It was of 1,000 tons and carried 23 guns. A great revolution in naval warfare took place at this time. The old practice had been to get on the windward side of the enemy's ships, and then sink or board them; but when these large new vessels were built, the most effective attack became "the broadside," delivered at a distance.

When Henry VIII died, our royal navy consisted of 53 vessels, carrying about 7,000 men and 2,000 guns. Each ship floated the flag of St. George, a red cross on a white ground. This flag is still displayed on every English ship when the admiral is on board.

Several centuries after Alfred the Great had died, another invader threatened our island. Philip II, King of Spain, was the most powerful ruler of his time, and desired to conquer England. He therefore prepared his great Armada (the Spanish word for navy), consisting of 130 ships manned by 8,000 seamen, and carrying 20,000 soldiers. These were to pick up another large army at Dunkirk.

The fate of England seemed certain. But Elizabeth was not frightened; she also had been preparing a navy, though it was much smaller than that of Philip; and she secured the best captains she could get, men like Raleigh, Frobisher and Drake, who were already known for their daring fights with the Spaniards. These men were sons of Britain, and a type of the Jack Tars that were to be. So confident were they of beating the Spanish,



THE EMBARKATION OF HENRY VIII FOR FRANCE

that when the news came to Plymouth that the Spanish fleet had started, they insisted on finishing a game of bowls which they were playing. "There's time enough to finish the game and beat the Spanish after," they said ; and they did both.

The Armada was defeated and England became a prominent naval power of Europe. Then the Dutch became the great rivals of Britain on the sea, but under Cromwell they too were heavily defeated by Admiral Blake. Last of all, France, under Napoleon, contested with Britain the supremacy of the seas. In this last struggle the victory was won for Britain by the genius and pluck of Horatio Nelson, England's greatest admiral.

Do you know why every British sailor wears a black silk handkerchief ? It is to remind him of that great but sad event, the death of Nelson. Those three rows of white braid on his collar also remind him of Nelson, for they commemorate his three great battles, the Nile, Copenhagen, and Trafalgar. At the first of these battles, Nelson won the victory by an act of daring, creeping with part of his fleet through a narrow channel between an island and one end of the French fleet, where it was thought impossible for a ship to pass ; and then opening fire on the enemy from both sides.

Copenhagen was won by the same intrepid spirit, which dared even to disobey his superior officer. Nelson was only second in command at this battle, and his commanding officer gave the signal from his flagship to cease firing. Nelson, who had lost the sight of one eye at a previous

battle, put the field-glass to his blind eye, and declared that he could not see the signal. He fought on, and turned a doubtful issue into a great victory; but if he had failed, he would have been court-martialled.

At Trafalgar, he only had twenty-seven ships against Napoleon's thirty-three. It was here that he hoisted his famous signal, "England expects that every man will do his duty." This was his last battle. A bullet struck him on the shoulder and lodged in the spine. He was carried below to die, and his last words were, "I have done my duty to my country."

A magnificent monument was erected to his memory in the finest square in London, and this square also was named after his great battle, "Trafalgar." Every year on Trafalgar Day (October 21) the monument is covered with wreaths and decorations; and a short time ago, when the hundredth anniversary of Trafalgar took place, no pains or expense were spared to commemorate the event, and remarkable scenes of enthusiasm were witnessed.

59. OUR NAVY TO-DAY.



THE sea is of more consequence to Britain to-day than ever. Just as the great Russian Empire needs a railway for communication between one end and the other, so we need the sea for similar communication between the homeland and our scattered colonies.

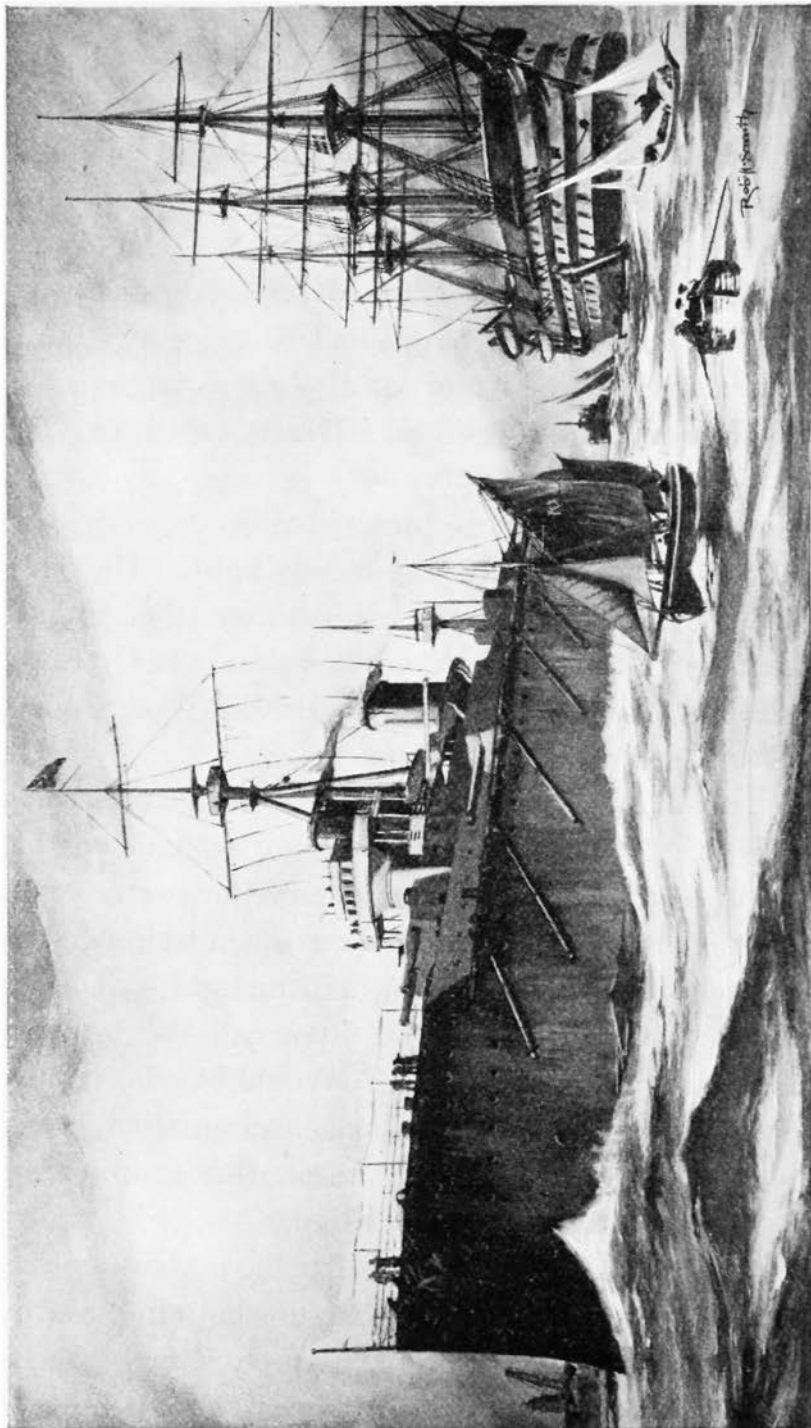
We want a powerful and patriotic navy also. If

England were beaten on the seas, our enemies might be able to starve us out, without landing any troops upon our islands, because we depend so much upon food from abroad, and upon our navy for the protection of this commerce. That is why most of our statesmen have always insisted that our navy shall be twice as large as any other navy in the world, or at least as large as any two other navies put together. This is called *The Two Power Standard*.

There are now about five hundred ships in service and about one hundred more are being built. The chief stations of our navy are the North Sea, the English Channel, the Mediterranean and Red Seas, the Cape, the East Indies, North America and the West Indies, Australia, the Pacific, and China.

At one time men used to be forced into the service by press-gangs. Now enlistment is purely voluntary ; but once you become a sailor, you must serve for twelve years. The first eighteen months are spent on a training ship, for instruction in all the duties of seamanship. Officers as well as "Jack tars," as we often call the ordinary sailor, are trained on these ships. Would-be officers have to pass a literary as well as a technical examination, before they can become midshipmen, and another examination before they become lieutenants.

Commanders and officers of ships have great powers over their men, and breaches of discipline both in the army and navy are punished very severely by "Courts-martial." The verdicts of Courts-martial may now be



THE DREADNOUGHT AND THE VICTORY

questioned in Parliament, so that few cases of injustice can occur, as they once did. Popular control, you will observe, extends to the army and navy, as to all other departments of the State.

The greatest wonder of the navy at the present time is the huge battleship, *Dreadnought*. Can you imagine St. Paul's Cathedral sailing on the water? If so, you have a fair idea of what the *Dreadnought* looked like when it steamed out into the open sea for the first time.

It is about the size of St. Paul's Cathedral; and upon it are eight guns, each of greater power than any others in our navy. These eight guns have to be all fired together, and the shock produced by the firing is nearly four hundred thousand tons, or something like the noise of five or six railway collisions happening together.

The shock indeed is more than twenty times the weight of the ship itself, and would kill quite an army of men, if they were exposed unsheltered. The men on board the ship have their ears filled with cotton wool, and are protected from the noise by thick steel walls. If they put their heads outside while the firing was taking place, they would be killed by the shock.

Three more vessels of the *Dreadnought* type are being prepared for addition to our navy; so you will realize how important it is that our men and officers should be highly trained, brave, and thorough. Let us hope they will always maintain the high standard of British manhood, and that Britain, through them, will always rule the seas in the interests of peace, justice, and humanity.

SECTION VI.

OUR IMPERIAL CITIZENSHIP.

60. THE EMPIRE AND EMPIRE DAY.



THE British Empire is one of the marvels of the world. Who would think that the inhabitants of this little island were the founders of a dominion upon which “the sun never sets,” a dominion composed of widely scattered parts, separated by oceans, seas, mountains, and deserts, by differences of religion, customs, traditions, race, and colour, and yet united under one King, one Flag, and one Empire. This vast domain, more than eleven millions of square miles in extent, has been built up by the pluck, enterprise, and tact of our forefathers, and it has been handed down to us as a heritage of which we are rightly proud.

We not only have free local institutions and our free national institutions, but we have also our free Imperial institutions. One day, perhaps, we may have an Imperial Federal Parliament, in which Imperial matters will be discussed and arranged, and at which the representatives of every portion of the British Empire may meet together to govern for the common good. That is an ideal for which we may all work ; but there are many difficulties to be overcome before it can be realised. To attempt such a task, and to understand and appreciate our Imperial citizenship, we should know something about our empire and the great men who have built it up.

Most of you have read stirring stories of how our brave seamen, under Drake, Frobisher, and other "sea-dogs," as they were called, sailed the Spanish Main, and performed prodigies of valour, by seeking Spanish galleons laden with treasure, and making the English name feared and respected on the high seas. One of these daring sailors was Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who in 1583 made a permanent settlement in Newfoundland, and thus has the credit of beginning our empire by colonization rather than conquest.

Other colonies were founded on the mainland, but through bad statesmanship and want of tact on the part of the Government at home, these were lost to us in 1783, and became the United States of America. The lesson, however, was not lost upon Britain; all her colonization has, since that time, been based upon self-government and practical independence, with the result that the British Empire is to-day composed chiefly of a number of independent nations united only by sentiments of loyalty, interest, and pride. These feelings have found expression in the institution of Empire Day. Upon this day, May 24th, most of the children in our colonies and at home specially devote themselves to the study of the Empire, and are given a half-holiday to celebrate the event.

Empire Day makes us remember that we are Imperial citizens; but you must not forget that the Imperialism of which we now speak is a very different thing from the Imperialism of Russia or even of Germany. In Russia,

Imperialism means the despotism of one man and his officials. In Germany it does not mean quite so much as that ; but the difference between German and British Imperialism is illustrated by the relations between the monarchs and their Parliaments. Our King goes in State to Westminster to open Parliament in its own House. In Germany, the Parliament goes in State to the Kaisers' palace to be opened.

The Imperialism of Britain is therefore unique in the history of the world, and can only be understood properly when we acquaint ourselves with its chief elements, as illustrated by the government and institutions of our various dominions, colonies and possessions.

61. THE AUSTRALIAN STATES.

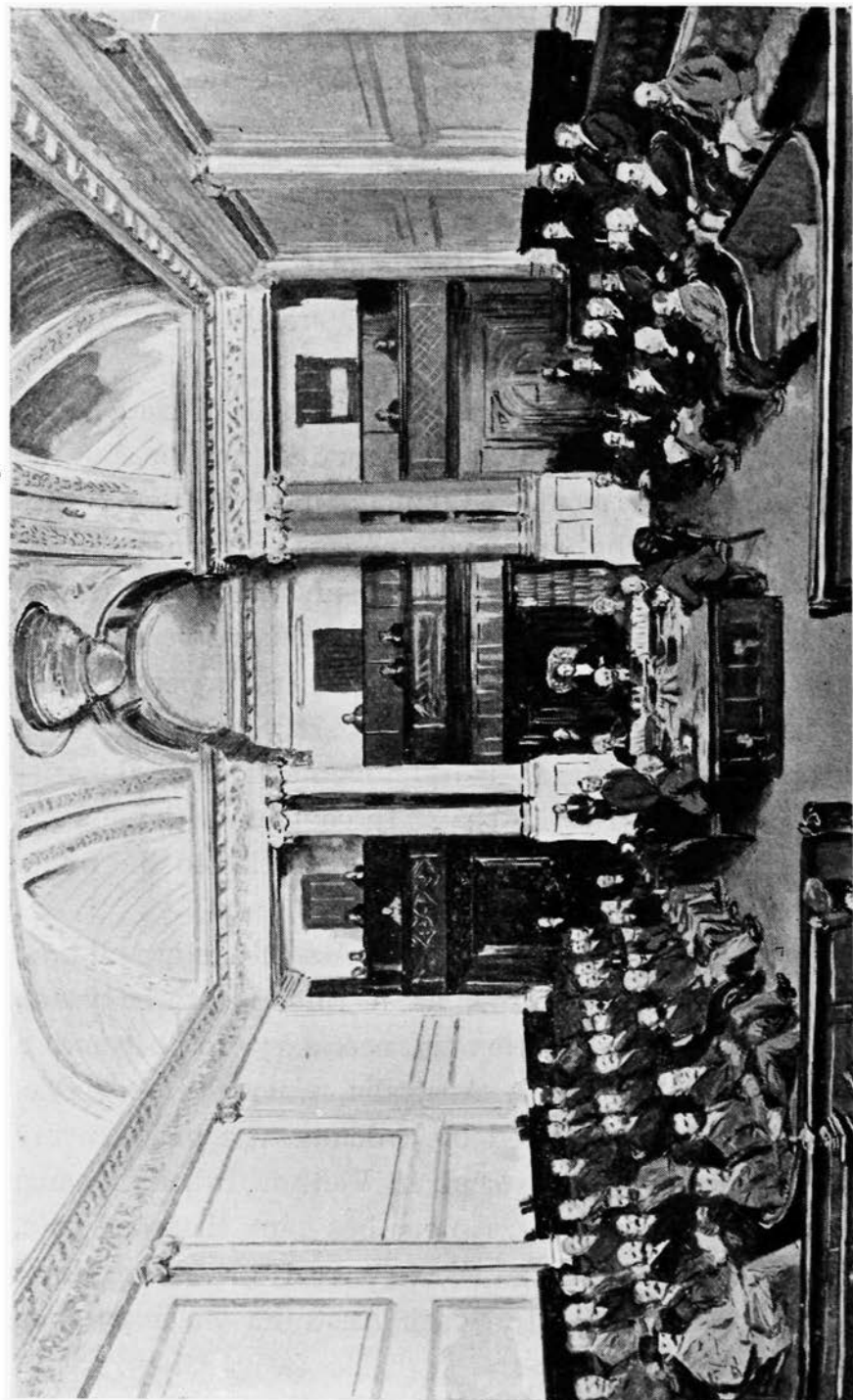


WE often speak of Australia as a country, but we get a better idea of its size and importance if we think of it as a continent, which it really is. This island-continent contains five states, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, and Western Australia, which between them embrace an area of three million square miles. Each of these communities is a separate state independent of all others, and has its own Governor, who is appointed by the Crown. The Governor constitutes the link between the colony and the mother country. Each state possesses a Parliament consisting of two Houses, the Legislative Council or Upper Chamber, and the Legislative Assembly, which corresponds to our House of Commons.

The Governor's duties are to report to the Colonial Office in London all matters of Imperial moment. Any bills which the Parliaments of the respective states wish to make law, must receive the King's assent through their Governors. An Executive Council, consisting of the Cabinet Ministers of the State, really directs the government.

The members of the Legislative Councils of New South Wales and Queensland are nominated for life by the Governor and Executive Council. In the other States they are elected by voters who possess either property or university education. Members must be over thirty years of age, and must have resided several years in the state. In Victoria they must also possess property. They are usually elected for a term of six years. In South Australia and Western Australia members of the Legislative Council are paid a salary. In common with members of the Executive Councils, they are entitled to the prefix "Honourable."

The members of the Legislative Assemblies are all paid a salary and are elected, as a rule, for three years. No property qualification is necessary to become a member, and, in South Australia, women are eligible. The members are elected by a democratic ballot, every adult having a vote, except in Victoria, where women have not the franchise. No one has more than one vote, except in Queensland and Western Australia, where plural voting is permitted. In South Australia one may even vote by letter.



THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY OF VICTORIA IN SESSION

The members of most of these Australian Parliaments enjoy more privileges than those at Westminster. They have free passes over the railways, and receive liberal allowances when sitting upon committees; all of them can enjoy the beautiful gardens which surround the Parliament House, and the billiard rooms and other luxuries which in some cases are provided in the interior. Victoria possesses a state motor-car for its ministers.

The Australian states own land and sell it; they work most of their own railways, and control the primary schools; they undertake public works, and in South Australia there is a State bank.

A hundred and twenty miles to the south of Australia lies another self-governing state which forms part of the Australian Commonwealth. The Parliament of Tasmania consists of two Houses, the Legislative Council, and the House of Assembly. Members of the former must have resided in the island five years, and are elected for six years by voters who own land of the value of £10, rent a house of £30 a year, or hold a university degree. Members of the House of Assembly are elected for three years by all men and women who have resided for a year in the island, and any male voter may become a member. Members of both Houses receive a small salary.

In all other respects the government of Tasmania is similar to that of the Australian states, except that it can pass a bill to change its constitution in the same way as ordinary bills, which is not permissible without special

conditions and special majorities in the Australian states. Having accepted a place in the Commonwealth Parliament, to whom it sends senators and representatives, its own Parliament, like that of each Australian state, ceases to legislate upon those matters undertaken by the Federal Parliament.

62. THE COMMONWEALTH PARLIAMENT.

IN 1900, all these Australian colonies united to form a Central Federal Government, called the Commonwealth of Australia. Each separate colony, according to its size, sends a number of representatives to the two Houses of this Central Government, which are called the Senate and the House of Representatives.

The members of the Senate, as well as the House of Representatives, are specially and directly elected by the people of each colony on the principle of one person one vote; they are all paid a salary of £400 a year, and receive free passes over all the railways. The Senate is composed of not less than six representatives from each state, and cannot be dissolved except in case of deadlock.

The House of Representatives numbers as nearly as possible twice the number of senators, and sits only for three years. Members must have resided in Australia for three years, and they may not sit in the Parliament of their own state as well as that of the Commonwealth; they are officially styled M.P.

The Governor-General, who acts in the name of the

King, calls this Parliament together, and dissolves it. He can also veto any measure which affects other colonies.

The Commonwealth Parliament controls the posts, telegraphs, telephones, customs, excise, naval and military defence, lighthouses, and all matters which are national in character. It also controls the affairs of several islands off its coasts, the most important of which are Norfolk Island and New Guinea; the British portion of New Guinea was transferred to Australia in 1901.

In case of emergency, the Commonwealth can put under orders 80,000 men and youths who can handle a rifle; in short, quite eight per cent. of its manhood are men-at-arms. The universities are subsidized by the Government, and there is no State Church.

We must not leave this Commonwealth Parliament without a few words about a citizen institution which has become a feature of Australian politics, and by means of which the federation or voluntary union of the Australian states was brought about—the Referendum. If two Houses of Parliament disagree very much upon some important question, or if some great event happens which calls for special legislation, and it is thought to be of national importance, the matter is put before the whole of the people of the country, in order that a special vote may be given upon it, apart from all party considerations or prejudices.

This expedient was not invented or originated by our Australian colonists; it is an ancient institution that still exists in Switzerland. But nowhere among our

colonists has it become so popular as in Australia. In South Australia it was introduced in 1896 to decide the question of religious education. Since then it has been used several times by different Australian states, and in the future it may probably play a large part in Australian politics, and possibly in our own country.

63. NEW ZEALAND.



THE government of New Zealand is the most democratic in the world. Every man and every woman who has lived for a year in this dominion, and become a British subject, has a vote. If anyone (*e.g.*, a seaman) is obliged to be absent from home at an election time, he may send his vote by letter ; every employer is bound to give facilities for his workpeople to vote ; and anyone who fails to record his or her vote is removed from the roll of the electorate after the election. A redistribution of seats is made after every census by a special Board of Commissioners.

An Act of Parliament provides old-age pensions for all New Zealanders of good character (Asiatics excepted) over sixty-five years of age, if they have resided for twenty-five years in the colony, and do not possess more than £270 in property or £50 a year income. Education is free, secular, and compulsory, and all religions are treated as equal.

The State owns not only the post office, telegraphs, and telephones, but most of the railways, the life assurance business, the legal conveyancing, the banks, several coal

mines, and nearly all the land. The land is let out for long leases, and the government makes loans to settlers at a small rate of interest. The State also acts as a servants' registry office, as attorney, and as executor of any person's wills ; it also assists to find employment for those out of work.

The New Zealand Parliament consists of two Houses. The members of the House of Representatives, corresponding to our House of Commons, are elected by the people, seventy-six members for the white population, and four for the Maoris, or native people. This House can sit for no longer than three years, and the members are paid £300 a year for their services.

The second House, the Legislative Council, consists of thirty-six whites and two Maoris, all of whom receive a salary of £200 a year, and are nominated by the Governor for seven years.

The Maoris, who are thus represented in both Houses, and are much respected, only number about forty thousand altogether. The Maori members have the right to speak in their own language, and very eloquent they are. An interpreter translates their speeches.

The New Zealanders are remarkably patriotic and Imperialistic. Many people in England are inclined to think that democratic people are less patriotic and less careful about national defence. The New Zealanders offer us a valuable lesson in this respect. Submarine mines and guns defend every important point, and an annual sum is contributed towards the British Navy.

64. THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

IF we enter Canada by way of Quebec, we shall be admitted at once into one of the secrets of our Empire's strength and greatness. Quebec is an ancient city in a New World. As we wander up and down the narrow, quaint, and crooked streets, or the public wooden stairways from the Upper to the Lower Town, we shall hear a foreign tongue, and see foreign habits and customs. Tourists or workers from every nation may be found here and there, but one language distinctly predominates. It is not English; it is French. Yet these French-speaking people are British subjects!

When the English conquered Quebec, they did not inflict indignity upon the vanquished people by imposing upon them another language and another religion. They not only left the French all the liberty which they had previously enjoyed, but gave them more. Thus the people of Quebec still use their own language and religion, manage their own affairs in their own Parliament, and send representatives to the Dominion Parliament which sits at Ottawa, to consider those matters which affect the whole of Canada. Even in this Dominion Parliament French is allowed to be spoken, and is recognized as an official language.

Many years after the conquest of Quebec, about twenty-five thousand loyalists from our oldest colonies which had become part of the United States, left their old homes and settled in Canada. Thus there grew up two provinces,

Upper Canada, peopled by British settlers, and Lower Canada, peopled by the French. In 1840, Lord Durham, who had been Governor-General since 1838, succeeded in inducing both peoples to unite their provinces under one responsible government.

In the meantime, new tracts of land in the far-west were opened up by British settlers, and in 1867, the Dominion of Canada was constituted of four federated provinces, of which two were the old English and French provinces, which now again became distinct under the names of Ontario and Quebec, the others being Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. Sir John Macdonald, who had been untiring in his



STATUE OF SIR JOHN MACDONALD
AT KINGSTON, CANADA

efforts to bring about the union of the provinces, was the first Prime Minister of the Dominion.

Since that date all the territory on the mainland settled by the British, except a portion of Labrador, has become part of the Dominion, which now includes nine provinces, the four already mentioned and Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, British Columbia, Alberta and Saskatchewan.

65. HOW CANADA IS GOVERNED.



ONE very important difference exists between the government of Australia and that of Canada. The Commonwealth of Australia consists of several independent states, the government of which is not interfered with by the Commonwealth Parliament. The different parts of the Dominion of Canada are not self-governing states, but provinces which enjoy responsible government while subordinate to the Dominion Government.

The Lieutenant-Governor of each province is appointed and can be dismissed by the Governor-General of Canada, with the approval of his Cabinet. Every Act of the Provincial Parliaments must also be sent to the Governor-General, who has the power to veto it, although this power is seldom exercised.

The provincial judges are also appointed and removed by the Governor-General in Council, and they are paid by the Dominion. All canals, lighthouses, harbours, steamboats, military roads, Customs-houses, post offices,

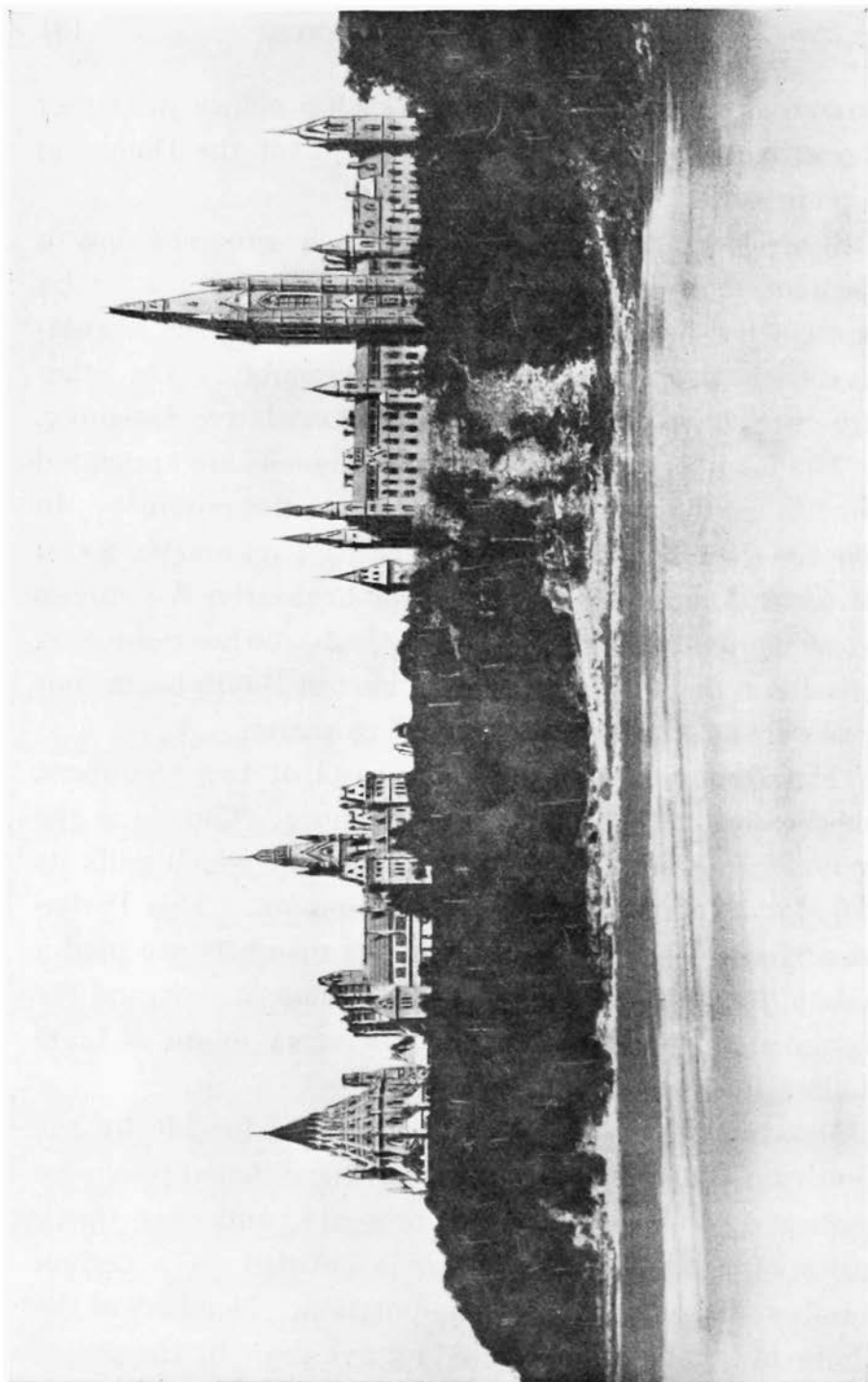
armouries, rivers, and railways in each province, are either the property of, or under the control of the Dominion Government.

Subject to these limitations, each province has a Parliament and manages its own affairs. Nova Scotia and Quebec have two Houses of Parliament, the Legislative Council, and the Legislative Assembly. The other provinces have only one House, the Legislative Assembly.

The members of the Legislative Councils are appointed for life by the Lieutenant-Governor of the province. In Quebec they must be over thirty years of age and possessed of 4,000 dollars in property. The Legislative Assemblies of each province are elected, every man who has resided six months in British Columbia, one year in Manitoba, or four years in Ontario and Quebec, having a vote.

The Dominion Parliament consists of two chambers, the Senate and the House of Commons. Canada is the only British dominion outside England which calls its popular assembly the House of Commons. This Parliament meets once a year, and all its members are paid a salary, the Senators receiving 1,500 dollars a year, and the Commoners ten dollars a day, or a maximum of 1,500 dollars for the session.

Members of the Senate are appointed for life by the Governor-General from residents of the different provinces possessed of 4,000 dollars in property, and over thirty years of age. Each province is entitled to a certain number, in proportion to its population. Members of the House of Commons are elected for five years by the people



THE DOMINION PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS AT OTTAWA

in each province, the numbers for each province being determined in proportion to the population at each census, which is taken every ten years.

The executive government of the Dominion resides in the Crown represented by the Governor-General. He has the power of pardoning criminals, summoning and dissolving the House of Commons, appointing or removing the Speaker of the Senate, the Lieutenant-Governors of the Provinces, and the Judges ; but he cannot dissolve the Senate, although he nominates its members. He is assisted by a special Council, called the King's Privy Council for Canada.

66. OUR OLDEST COLONY.



LOSE to Canada, but outside the Dominion, lies our first colony, Newfoundland, which, since 1855, has enjoyed responsible government. Not only has it persistently declined to join the Dominion of Canada, but it stands alone among our colonies for its refusal to pass a law to give effect to a treaty entered into by the Crown with a foreign Power. The latter act of independence was only modified when the British Parliament introduced a Bill in 1891 to enforce the treaty, after which the Newfoundland Government gave way.

Newfoundland is ruled by a Governor, a Legislative Council, and a House of Assembly. The Governor is appointed from Britain, and presides over an Executive Council, composed of the members of the Cabinet for the time being. The Legislative Council consists of fifteen

members, who are nominated for life by the Governor, and are paid a small salary.

The House of Assembly consists of thirty-six members elected by the people. Members must have a net income of £100 a year, in addition to the small salary which they receive when elected, or they must possess property of the net value of £500. Voting is by ballot, and every man has a vote.

The Legislature of Newfoundland has supreme power to legislate for the peace, order, and good government of the colony, besides enjoying the power of changing its constitution by an ordinary Act of its Parliament. In spite of the extreme independence of this colony, it is by no means lacking in patriotism, and it makes an annual contribution towards maintaining a branch of the Royal Naval Reserve, and a drill or training ship stationed off its shores.

67. BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA.



BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA is scarcely a hundred years old ; yet what marvels civilization has accomplished in that time ! Large cities with beautiful buildings now stand where once the savage had his hunting ground or war-camp ; farmers sleep peacefully where the wild beast had his lair. Invalids seek the Cape to restore their health ; enterprising men go there to become rich. It is a new world ; but wherever we go, we see the indelible marks of British citizenship in the institutions, the enterprise, and the prosperity of its people.

An area of nearly a million square miles is covered by the group of British colonies and protectorates in South Africa. Four of these colonies, Cape Colony, Natal, the Transvaal, and Orange River Colony, are self-governed, and at some date in the near future these may be federated into one Dominion or Commonwealth, as has been done in the case of Canada and Australia.

At present the only official bond of union between all these colonies is the High Commissioner for South Africa, who, in virtue of his office, is empowered to call together representatives of the various colonies to confer on matters of common interest. He is also Governor of the Transvaal and Basutoland, and exercises direct control over native affairs in several other South African colonies and protectorates.

Cape Colony is the oldest of our South African possessions, and was acquired by conquest from the Dutch during the wars with Napoleon, whose allies they were. The youngest of these colonies, the Transvaal and Orange River Colony, were only recently acquired as a result of the Boer War.

68. CAPE COLONY.



THE affairs of Cape Colony, including Bechuana-land, are managed by a Governor and two Houses of Parliament, called the Legislative Council, and the House of Assembly. The governor is appointed by the Crown, and is assisted by an Executive Council formed of the Parliamentary ministers of the

Colony. The members of both Houses of Parliament are elected, and are paid a salary of one guinea a day, with an extra allowance of fifteen shillings if they reside more than fifteen miles from Capetown.

The members of the Legislative Council are elected for seven years. They must be over thirty years of age, and possessed of £2,000 in land or £4,000 in other property. The Legislative Council in this colony have power to alter, as well as to reject Money Bills sent to them from the Assembly.

Members of the House of Assembly are elected for five years. Any registered voter may become a member. No one has a vote, however, in this colony unless possessed of £75 a year in property or £50 a year salary. Government servants are not allowed to join any political association or take any active part in politics.

Plural voting is allowed. Block voting is permitted in the election of the Legislative Council, and, in Capetown, for the election of the Assembly also. This means that the electors have as many votes as there are members for their district, and that they can "plump" or give all their votes for one man. Thus, supposing Jones, Jenkins, and Smith are putting up for a district for which there are two members to be returned, and you particularly wish Smith to get in, you can give two votes for Smith, instead of distributing them between Jones and Smith, or Smith and Jenkins.

Parliament has to meet once a year, and is summoned and dissolved by the Governor. One peculiarity of the

South African Parliaments is that each Minister may sit and speak in both Houses of Parliament, but can vote only in the House of which he is a member. Dutch may be spoken, as well as English, in the Cape Parliament. This colony owns only a few lines of its railways, and possesses no state schools.

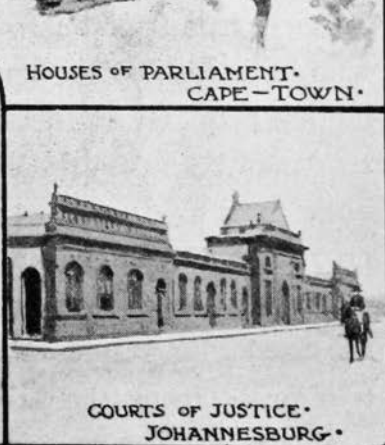
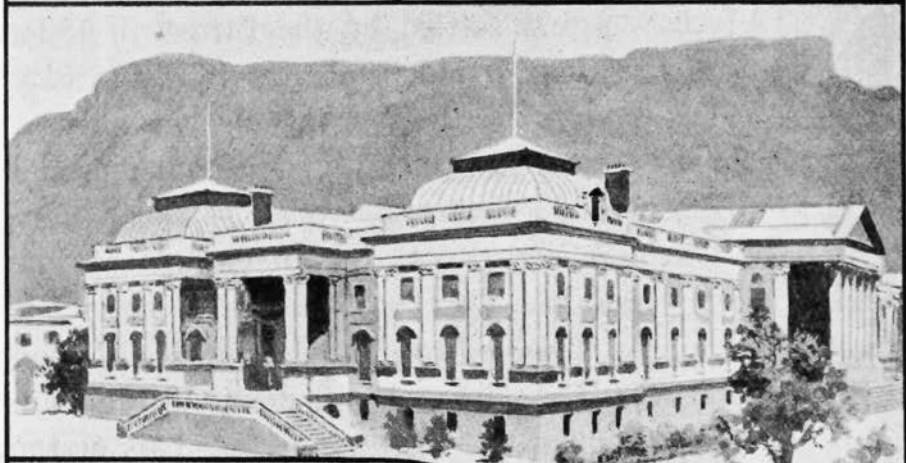
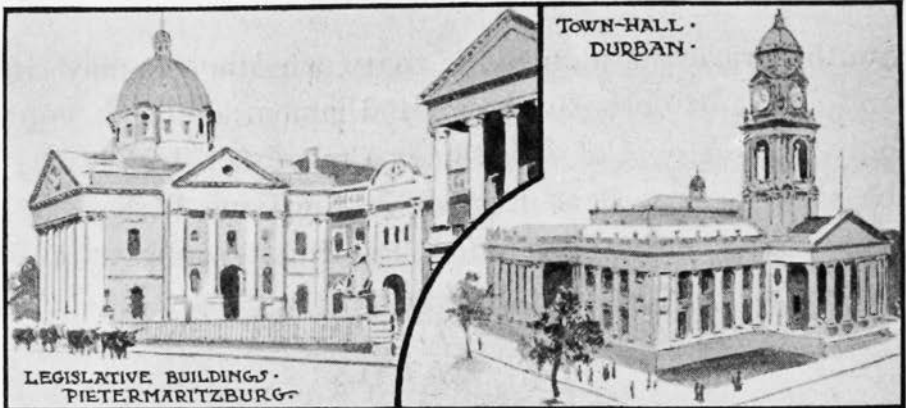
69. NATAL.



NATAL was first settled by the British in 1824, and became an independent colony in 1856. It is said to be the one instance in which a British colony has struggled into being without financial gifts from the mother country.

It has a Governor and two Houses of Parliament, like Cape Colony, but the Governor of Natal may not dissolve the Upper House or Legislative Council, although it consists entirely of members who are nominated by him. The Governor is obliged to choose the members of the Council from persons who are over thirty years of age, who have resided for ten years in the Colony, and possess landed property of the net value of £500. Not more than two members may be summoned from any one county ; none may hold appointment longer than ten years ; and no member receives a salary for his office.

The Legislative Assembly sits for four years. Members are paid £1 a day for expenses if they reside more than two miles from the House. They are elected by male residents who possess property worth £50, a rental from property of £10 a year or an income of £8 a month.



SOME SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC BUILDINGS

No natives, or descendants of natives, who did not possess a vote in a British colony before they came to Natal, can ever claim a vote. The colonists of Natal are very severe with the natives, who give them much trouble. Although the population is over one million, the white residents, who are almost entirely British, only number about one hundred thousand. The Natal Government owns most of the railways and many schools, but there is no compulsory education.

70. THE TRANSVAAL.



RESPONSIBLE government was granted to this new colony in December, 1906. Its Parliament consists of two Houses. The Upper Chamber, or Legislative Council, has fifteen members, who in the first instance were appointed by the Crown on the nomination of the Governor. They must be persons over thirty years of age, who have resided in the colony for at least three years.

The Lower House, or Legislative Assembly, consists of sixty-nine members elected by all the white male population over twenty-one years of age who have resided in the colony for six months. Both Houses may sit for five years, and the English and Dutch languages may be spoken. Members are paid a salary and an allowance for each day's attendance, which must not exceed £300 in any one year; and a new registration of votes and distribution of seats takes place every two years.

As an instance both of the happy fusion of the Boers

and English after the war, and the generosity and tolerance of the British, it ought to be mentioned that in the first general elections for the Legislative Assembly the "Het Volk" party, that is, the party representing the old Dutch settlers, and the one most anxious to secure responsible government, were successful at the poll, and General Louis Botha, the most capable leader and for some time the Commander-in-Chief of the Boers in the recent war, became the first Prime Minister of the colony.

71. THE ORANGE RIVER COLONY.



THE Orange River Colony is our youngest self-governing dominion, its free constitution, which is similar in nearly all respects to that of the Transvaal, having been granted in June, 1907.

The Legislative Council numbers eleven members appointed in the first instance by the Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony, who represents the King. Three of their number hold office for three years only; four retire after five years; the remaining four at the end of seven years. After 1911, it will be possible for the Orange River Parliament to give the people the power to elect the members of this Council.

The Legislative Assembly consists of thirty-eight members, elected by the whole of the white male population who are over twenty-one years of age, and who have resided in the colony for six months. Members of both Houses (except Ministers, the President of the Legislative Council, and the Speaker of the Assembly) receive £150

for the session, with an allowance of £2 for each day's attendance, provided that no more than £300 in all is received by each member in any one year.

A new registration of voters and a redistribution of seats takes place every two years. Debates in both Houses may be carried on in the English or Dutch languages. If the two Houses disagree upon any bill, the governor may command the members of both Houses to sit and vote together for the passing or rejecting of the particular measure.

72. HOW THE COLONIES ARE REPRESENTED IN LONDON.



THE self-governing colonies are represented in London by High Commissioners or Agents-General, all of whom have held high office in their respective colonies. South Australia has sent in succession two of its Prime Ministers, the Hon. Sir John A. Cockburn and the Hon. J. Greely Jenkins, to be its representative in this country. The former had rendered important service as one of the framers of the Commonwealth Constitution before he became Agent-General for his Colony, an office he relinquished in 1901. Lord Strathcona is the most eminent man who has held the office of High Commissioner for Canada.

The Agents-General are consulted by the Home Government on all important matters affecting their colony. To some extent, they stand in a similar relation to the Colonial Secretary as the ambassadors and ministers

of other countries do to the Foreign Secretary. They also collect and supply trustworthy information relating to the trade and commerce of the colony they represent. Most of these Colonial Representatives have their offices in Victoria Street, Westminster.

Some of you may one day wish to emigrate to one of the colonies. If so, you should go to the Agents-General or High Commissioners; for besides looking after all the interests of their respective colonies, and those colonists who happen to be travelling in England, they assist emigrants by advice and information; they also, in some cases, give them special tickets to the colonies at reduced fares. At many of the offices the actual land for sale or for settlement can be seen on a chart, so that you may not only purchase it in London, but can have an advance of money made to you at a small rate of interest; such are the inducements to become your own landlord before you sail.

73. THE CROWN COLONIES.

1. Colonies with Elective or Partly Elective Legislatures.



WE have now learnt something of the greater British Dominions, or "sister nations," as they are sometimes called, beyond the seas. Our other colonies may be divided into four groups, according to the rights and privileges of citizenship which are granted to them. First among these groups come those colonies which possess a House of Assembly or House of Commons

elected by the people, although, unlike the great self-governing colonies or dominions, they do not possess responsible government.

Barbados is the most typical of this kind of colony. For more than two hundred years it has elected its own House of Assembly, and thus has some measure of representative government. The Crown appoints the Legislative Council, and the Governor exercises a veto on all legislation, and controls and nominates public officers. The Bahamas and the Bermudas enjoy similar institutions.

The Colonial Office describes a Crown Colony as one "in which the Crown has the entire control of legislation, while the administration is carried on by public officers under the control of the Home Government." This, however, is only partly true of the colonies of which we have just spoken.

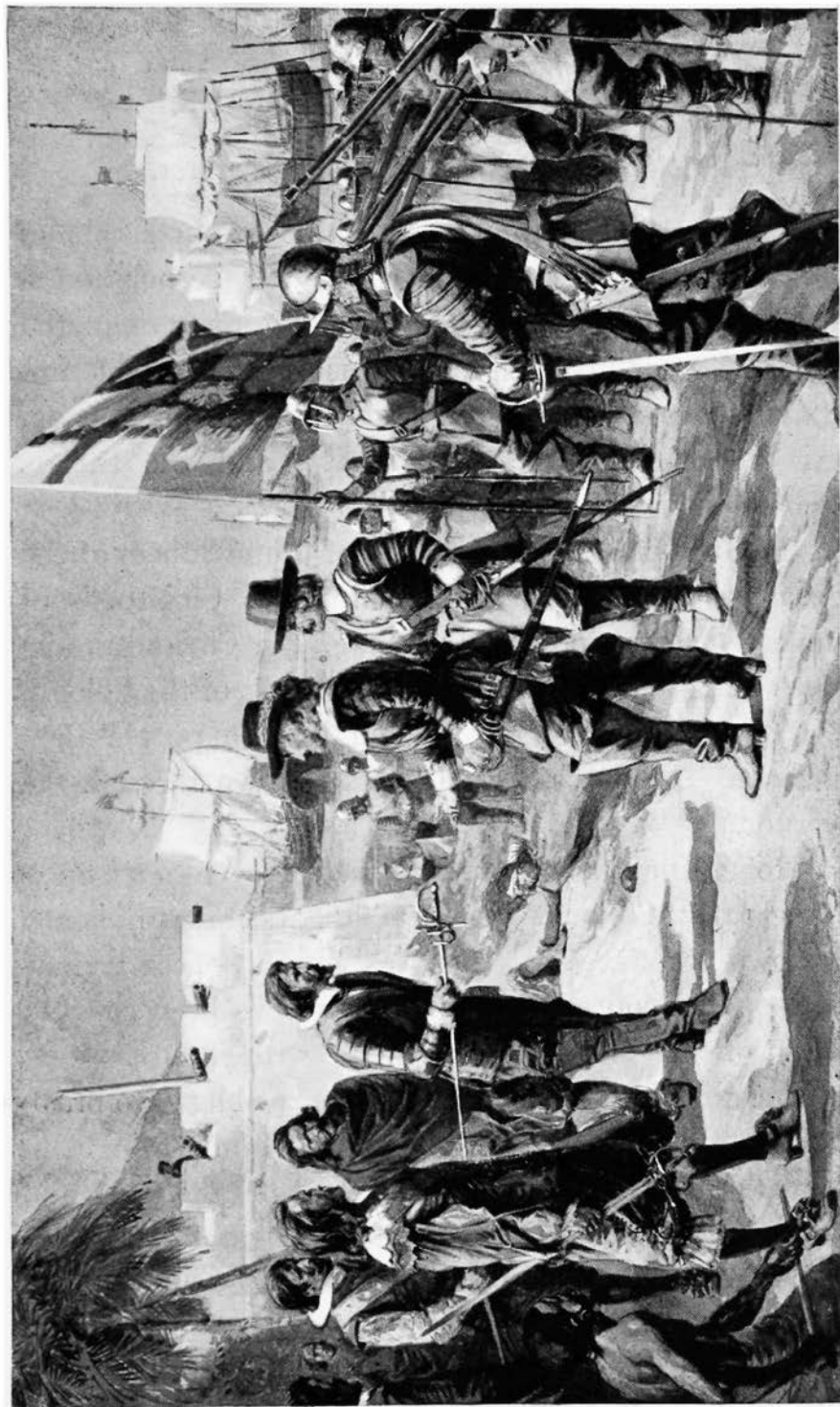
There is another type of colony, in which the elective principle is in partial operation only; of this Jamaica is a good example. Here the people elect three-fifths of the Legislative Council, the remaining two-fifths being nominated by the Governor, who also has a Privy Council of about eight members to assist him. This is the nearest approach to a popular Assembly that can be granted to the island; we must not forget, however, that Jamaica once enjoyed representative institutions like Barbados, and they were only taken away after several rebellions had been quelled. The Leeward Islands are somewhat similarly governed.

Two other large islands in a different part of the world

come under this group of colonies ; Mauritius, where French is the prevailing language, and Malta, where Italian is the popular tongue. The first of these possesses a Governor, an Executive Council, and a Legislative Council of twenty-seven members, of whom about ten are elected by the people. The nearest approach to popular government in Malta is a " Council of Government " consisting of twenty members. The people elect fourteen members, and the remainder are nominated by the Governor.

One of the most peculiar features of Maltese citizenship is that there is no right of public meeting. You will remember that we noticed at the beginning of this book what a great privilege is this right. In Malta, if you wish to hold a public meeting, you must give notice to the police ; and a great deal of fuss is often made before permission is given. Even then, no procession will be allowed to take place to or from the meeting. The chief reason for this is that the people of Malta are very excitable, and religious feeling is very fervent ; hence any differences of opinion expressed very warmly might lead to serious disturbances of the peace.

British Guiana is another colony possessing a single legislative chamber which is only partly elective. The Government of this prosperous colony is conducted by the Governor and a Court of Policy. Half the members of this Court are appointed by the Crown ; the other half are selected from persons proposed by the college of Kiezers, or electors, which is a body elected by the people principally for this purpose.



THE SURRENDER OF JAMAICA TO ADMIRAL WILLIAM PENN

On May 9th, 1655, the Island of Jamaica was surrendered to Admiral Penn, who in the "Swifsure" commanded an expedition fitted by Oliver Cromwell

74. THE CROWN COLONIES.

2. Colonies without Elective Legislatures.



THIRD group of Crown Colonies consists of those which are ruled by a Governor and a Council of the principal inhabitants, nominated by the Crown through the Governor. The most important colonies of this group are Ceylon, Hong Kong, Sierra Leone, Fiji, the Gold Coast, and the Straits Settlements.

In the Straits Settlements a few of the members of the Legislative Council are elected by the Chambers of Commerce at Singapore and Penang. In Ceylon all the native races are represented in the Councils of the Colony, but the members are not elected by the people they represent. They are selected by the Crown through the Governor.

In Hong Kong at least two Chinese members sit upon the Legislative Council. Here the Oriental takes the oath in his own peculiar way. Perhaps you have seen it done in some police-court when a Chinaman has been charged with an offence or is standing in the witness-box.

A saucer is placed in his hand and he is obliged to break it. Then the oath is administered to him through an interpreter in these words : " You shall tell the truth and the whole truth. The saucer is cracked, and if you do not tell the truth, your soul will be cracked like the saucer." Sometimes, instead of the saucer, a lighted candle is placed in the Chinaman's hand. He then blows it out,

believing that if he does not tell the truth, his soul will go out with the light.

Not the least interesting colonies of this class are those which lie scattered in the vast Pacific Ocean. Of these, Fiji is perhaps the most important and characteristic. Fiji consists of two large islands and about 225 smaller ones. Each of the two large islands is under an English Commissioner; the others are grouped into fourteen provinces ruled by native chiefs. Over them all is a Council representing each of these divisions, and presided over by the Governor, who is styled "His Majesty's High Commissioner and Consul-General" for the Western Pacific.

The fourth group of Crown Colonies are ruled entirely by a Governor, assisted by a Secretary, a Judge, and other English officials. The Governor of such colonies, like Gibraltar, Labuan, and St. Helena, is practically an absolute monarch, and makes laws himself, subject to the control of the Colonial Office.

75. SELF-GOVERNING PARTS OF THE BRITISH ISLES.



VERY close to the English shores, a few miles from the south and west coasts, are two groups of islands, which are not colonies, but enjoy self-government in different forms. British Acts of Parliament do not apply to these Islands, unless they are specially mentioned.

The first of these possessions is called the "Channel

Islands," and consists of four islands, Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark. The last two islands are under the control of Guernsey. In Jersey and Guernsey there is a Governor, who is appointed by the Crown ; but each state has its own legislature and executive. The legislature is called " The States," some of the members of which are elected by the people, while others are nominated by the Crown. Each island has a Bailiff nominated by the Crown and twelve Jurats elected for life by the electors.

The States of Jersey can make laws without the Royal Assent, but the Governor must agree to them, and they can only last three years.

The other of these possessions is the Isle of Man. This island enjoys what is called Home Rule. It has been bought and sold century after century. At one period of its history it was owned by the Danes, who sold it to the King of Scotland. Then it was purchased by several English nobles, one after the other, until at last the Duke of Athol sold it to the British Government, which allowed it to retain its ancient form of government.

It is ruled by the court of Tynwald, which consists of two chambers, the Council and the House of Keys. The first is composed of the Governor, the Bishop, the Deemsters or Judges, and other officers nominated by the Crown, except the Vicar-General, who is nominated by the Bishop. The House of Keys is elected by the people ; anybody (including unmarried women and widows), who owns or rents property of the value of £4 may vote.

76. HOW WE GOVERN INDIA.



THE lowest unit of Indian life is the village community, which still retains its old customs much as it did thousands of years ago. For the purposes of government all the villages in British India are grouped together into districts, of which there are two hundred and fifty-nine. At the head of each district is the Collector, or, as he is called in the smaller provinces, the Deputy Commissioner. He is responsible for good government in his district, and he has to see that all the taxes are paid, that all the laws and regulations are obeyed, and that the sentences of the judges are carried out. He also acts as a magistrate, and has many officials under him.

Except in Bengal and Burma, a district is divided for convenience into sub-districts or *taluks*, in charge of a *tahsildar*, who is always a native, and usually one who has obtained a degree at a university. In this way, educated natives are given a chance to exercise authority, and the people are given confidence in the government, and opportunities as well as aspirations to gradually govern themselves.

All the districts in the larger provinces, except Madras, are grouped into divisions, each of which is in charge of a Commissioner, through whose hands pass all the letters and reports of district officers to the central government. There are fifty-three divisions in British India, and under these there are no less than a thousand local boards or committees to look after primary education

roads, and dispensaries. The number of members on these boards is about sixteen thousand, of whom over five thousand are elected.

In the large towns great powers are given to local elected bodies. The water supply, the drainage, the lighting of the streets, and the levying of local rates or taxes are in the hands of the municipalities, of which there are eight hundred, and upon which no less than nine thousand natives hold office. The municipal affairs of Calcutta are governed by fifty commissioners, of whom seven-tenths are elected by the ratepayers and public bodies. Bombay and Madras are similarly governed, but the proportion of elected commissioners is not quite so large. Rangoon, the capital of Burma, manages her city affairs by a board of twenty-five members, only three of whom are officials. Even the smaller cities possess similar municipal institutions.

Over all these local bodies and divisions is the administration of the provinces, which number fourteen. Two of them, Madras and Bombay, are called presidencies, and are ruled by Governors appointed in England. The Governors are assisted by Legislative Councils, consisting of not less than eight or more than twenty members; these are nominated by the Governors from lists which are open to the public, so that all suitable persons who are deemed worthy of the honour may be placed upon the lists. This brings the legislatures into closer relations with the best representatives of public opinion, and affords opportunities for interchange of views.

Five provinces, Bengal, the United Provinces, Eastern Bengal and Assam, the Punjab, and Burma, are under Lieutenant-Governors appointed by the Viceroy, but they also have Legislative Councils. The remaining seven provinces are under Chief Commissioners.

Besides these provinces of British India, there are several independent states which are really Protectorates, but they are mentioned here because they come under the influence and sway of the Indian Government.

These states and their people remain under native rulers, but their princes have no power to make war or peace or to send ambassadors to other countries or states. At the court of each of these native chiefs is an English official or adviser, who is generally called the "Resident." He looks after all English affairs, particularly those connected with commerce, posts, telegraphs, railways, and education. He also sees that the native chief governs well.

77. THE VICEROY AND HIS COUNCIL.



OVER all of these provincial and native governments is the Viceroy, who acts as the representative of our King, and is appointed by the British Government for a period of about five years. This office is the most responsible, trustworthy, and important, that can fall to the lot of any British citizen. It requires the greatest tact, skill in finance, and understanding of different races of men and their peculiarities, as well as that dignity and power of command so necessary to secure respect and obedience among Oriental peoples.

The Viceroy usually resides at Calcutta, and is assisted in the work of government by a special council consisting of the heads of the various Indian departments, who hold seats in the Council for five years, and the Commander-in-Chief of the Indian Army, who is called an "extraordinary" member.

He is also assisted by a Legislative Council like our Parliament, in which laws are discussed and passed by the heads of the state departments and a number of native representatives. The meetings of this Legislative Council are public, so that the Indian peoples can always know what is being discussed, and what views their representatives and the officials take of every proposal.

You will have noticed that India is governed in a very special way. This is the nearest approach to popular government which can at present be given to the inhabitants of this country. The peoples of India worship different gods, and, as they hate each other's religions, they frequently indulge in fighting. At present, if the firm and wise controlling hand of England were withdrawn there would be continual strife between the Mohammedans and Brahmins. Even to-day, during the times of their great religious festivals, they cannot always be restrained from attacking each other.

The British Government has constructed railways, opened schools, and encouraged the growth and development of the Press ; and in these ways has tried to bring together the different peoples of India, to prepare them for a more representative government some day.

78. CHARTERED COMPANIES.

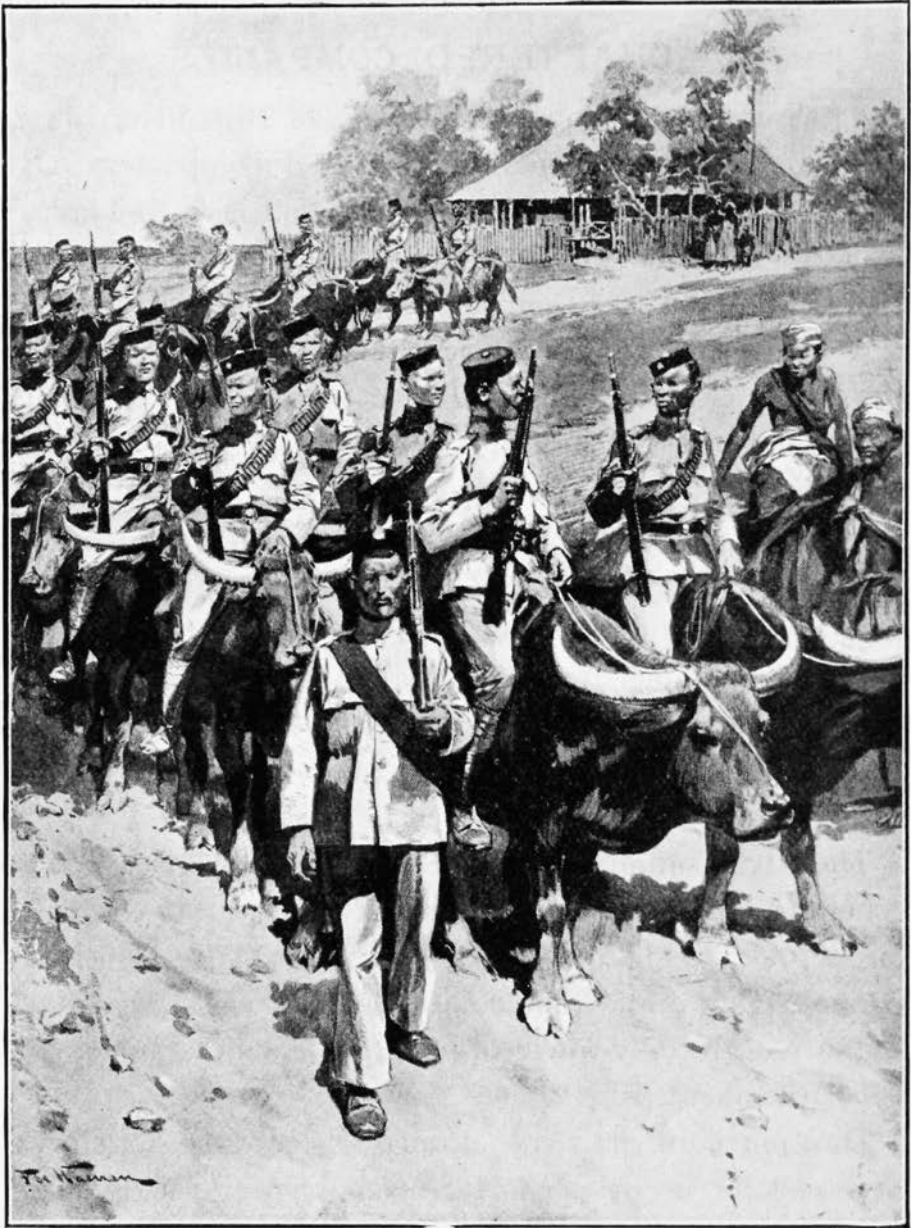


HERE are some large tracts of British territory under the rule of chartered companies. Of these the most important is Southern Rhodesia, which is administered under a Charter granted to the British South Africa Company.

The government of Southern Rhodesia is in the hands of the Administrator, assisted by an Executive Council of four members nominated by the Company; and a Legislative Council of fourteen members, half of whom are elected by registered voters and half nominated by the Company. The approval of the Crown is required in the case of all members nominated to the Executive and Legislative Councils, and also for all judicial appointments. There is an appeal from the magistrates to the judges, and from the judges to the Supreme Court at Cape Town, and thence to the Privy Council in London.

The High Commissioner for South Africa, who exercises general control over all legislation, and over the armed forces of the territory, is represented by a Resident Commissioner and Commandant-General. Salisbury and Bulawayo, the only towns of importance, enjoy municipal self-government.

The northern part of Borneo is another territory governed for us by a chartered company. The British North Borneo Company appoints a Civil Service and a Governor, the latter being subject to the approval of the Crown. There is a native military force of 600 men under European officers.



THE BUFFALO BRIGADE

Owing to the soft nature of the tracks in many parts of British North Borneo, the police are mounted on buffaloes, which have been found far more suitable than ponies for this purpose. This is the first colony where local troops have been mounted in this way in the British Empire.

79. PROTECTORATES.



PROTECTORATES are countries or states, which, while not under the direct rule of Britain, are more or less under its influence, and their foreign relations are conducted or controlled by the British Government. Such a state is Sarawak, on the north-west coast of Borneo, which is ruled by an Englishman, Sir Charles Brooke.

His uncle, James Brooke, landed on these shores in 1842, when the country was harassed by pirates and oppressed by its native ruler, and placing himself at the head of the people, he led them to victory against both their ruler and the pirates. The grateful natives have ever since been content to live under the wise rule of their English Rajahs, the Brookes. Their government is really an absolute monarchy, and so is that of the native Sultan of Brunei or Borneo Proper, which has also been a British protectorate since 1888.

Forms of government differ widely in the various countries under British protection. Bida, in Northern Nigeria, is particularly interesting, because it possesses a constitution based upon representative principles, although somewhat different from our own. It has an Emir or King, a Council of Princes or House of Lords, and a Council of Commoners, or House of Commons.

The Council of Princes consists of a selected number of members of the royal family. The Emir himself has to reach his position by serving in the different ranks of this Council until, at a good age, he reaches the position of

heir-apparent, from which he succeeds to the Emirate. Then he appoints his heir from among those members of the Council of Princes whose fathers have been Emirs before him ; but there is little chance of his own son being selected, because, as the father has only just reached the top, the son will naturally be a long way down the ladder.

The Council of Commons consists of the *Waziri* (or Prime Minister), the chief warrior, the chief medicine-man, and the highest officers of the Emir's household, who are appointed in a similar manner. The strangest thing about this remarkable state is that the Prime Minister ranks as the second man in the state, and before the heir-apparent.

The British Empire always recognizes good government when it finds it, and, consequently, rather than send out many British magistrates, rules as much as possible through the native chiefs, who are encouraged to govern well.

80. THE GOVERNMENT OF EGYPT.



THE government of Egypt is the most anomalous in the world. Nominally a portion of the Turkish dominions, it is actually under British rule. The reigning prince is the Khedive, who pays an annual tribute to Turkey, but he rules only by the advice of the British Minister at his court. All laws which affect European residents, however, have to be approved by the principal European states, because Egypt is supposed to be "international."

81. PATRIOTISM AND THE EMPIRE.



WE have spoken of the greatness of our Empire and its citizen institutions. We are proud of our freedom, our wealth, and our greatness ; but all of these are the result of strenuous effort, and they cannot last one day longer than the character which creates them.

With the acquisition of wealth and greatness there is every temptation to luxury and laziness. The Babylonians, the Greeks, and the Romans at the height of their greatness allowed themselves to fall into these habits, and—where are they to-day ? So may it be with our own great Empire unless we learn the lesson of the past, and avoid the evils which resulted in the ruin of those ancient empires.

The avoidance of those evils is the main object of the Empire movement started by the Earl of Meath. To see the true meaning of good citizenship and patriotism, we must know the serious duties as well as the glorious rights which belong to us as British citizens. The watchword of the movement is “ Responsibility, Duty, Sympathy, Self-sacrifice ” ; its motto, “ One King, One Flag, One Fleet, One Empire ” ; and its emblem, the daisy or marguerite.

Patriotism is a noble and a right feeling. It is right and natural that we should love our parents, our brothers and sisters and our family. In the same way it is right and natural that we should love our country, which has done so much for freedom and peace all over the world ;

that we should love our government, without which we should not have a life or any property to call our own ; that we should love our institutions, which have been built up for us by the energies, the labour and the life-blood of our forefathers ; and that we should love our flag, the Union Jack, under which our soldiers and sailors have fought to secure peace and glory for us abroad, and which, wherever it has floated, has been the symbol of Freedom and Justice.

All this we can do without giving offence to the people of other countries, who also have their national flag and institutions, which are equally dear to them. There have been times when people spoke disrespectfully of foreigners, stared rudely at them in the streets, and belittled their language and government. There is no excuse for such habits nowadays, when there are so many opportunities of travel and coming into contact with foreigners and learning all about them.

There are people in every land who love freedom and justice, who have their citizen rights and perform their citizen duties, although such rights and duties may not be so many or quite the same as ours. We should always remember, then, to do justice to foreigners, as we should like them to do justice to us. King Edward VII has done no greater service to his people than by visiting foreign countries, inviting their monarchs and their great men to England, bestowing honours upon them, and forming alliances or leagues with them, to ensure the peace of the world and the brotherhood of Man.

GLOSSARY

[This Glossary has been compiled to explain not only difficult terms in the text, but also technical expressions and terms likely to be used in the Examinations in Citizenship for L.C.C. Clerkships and the Teacher's Certificate.]

Abbots (Hebrew *ab*, meaning father)—the principal officers or *superiors* of a monastery. They were summoned to Parliament as holding baronies under the Crown. Their monasteries were called abbeys. 26 abbots once sat in the House of Lords, but they ceased to be peers when the monasteries were dissolved by Henry VIII.

absolute monarchy.—(see **despotism**).

Act of Parliament (Latin *actum*, a thing done)—A Bill which has been sanctioned by Parliament and received the Royal assent.

administrative county (Latin *administrativus*, fit to wait upon or attend to)—a county or portion of a county which possesses a County Council and separate administration. Several portions of a county are "administrative," but not "geographical" counties, e.g., the "administrative" county of London, which is a small part of several counties. East Riding, West Riding, North Riding, are all separate administrative counties, but only part of one geographical county, Yorkshire. Lincolnshire has three administrative counties, the Parts of Holland, the Parts of Kesteven, and the Parts of Lindsey. Another administrative county is the Isle of Ely.

adoptive Acts (Latin *ad*, to, *opto*, to choose)—these acts confer on local authorities certain powers by merely being "adopted" by resolution. These acts are very numerous. The principal are the Public Improvement Act, 1860, the Lighting and Watching Act, 1833, the Baths and Washhouses Acts, 1846-1896, the Burial Acts, 1852-1900, and the Public Libraries Acts, 1892 and 1893. These must not be confused with "adapted acts" which are Acts adapted to the provisions of the Local Government Act of 1888, dealing with such matters as licensing, reformatory schools, etc.

advocate (Latin *ad*, to, and *voco*, to call)—A Scotch lawyer corresponding to the English barrister. Only advocates are permitted to "plead" in the supreme courts of justice. The Lord Advocate is the principal law officer of the Crown in Scotland, and, in cases where the Crown is concerned, especially criminal cases, he acts as Public Prosecutor.

affidavit (Latin *fido*, to trust)—an oath made in writing, or a declaration sworn before a person qualified to administer an oath.

affirmation (Latin *firmiter*, to strengthen)—those who object on conscientious grounds to take the oath or swear upon the Bible may solemnly "affirm upon their honour" either in a law court or the Houses of Parliament.

aldermen (Anglo-Saxon *ealdor*, elder)—aldermen of the City of London are elected for life, and they are not elected by the councillors as in other English towns, but by the freemen of the city (see Freedom of City). There are twenty-six city aldermen, including the Lord Mayor, and each is a Justice of the Peace. In Ireland, aldermen are elected by the distinguished citizens, or burgesses. In Scotland they are called *baillies*.

Aldermen, Court of—consists of aldermen of the City of London. It licenses brokers, and elects the Recorder (judge of the Mayor's Court and the Central Criminal Court). The Recorder must be approved of by the Crown.

alien (Latin *alienus*, belonging to another)—anyone who is born of foreign parents in a country outside the British Empire is an alien in the eyes of British law. Aliens have no right to vote. It is therefore important to know exactly what constitutes an alien, and how he can become "naturalized." If a woman marry a foreigner who has not been naturalized, she becomes an alien and has to qualify for "naturalization" in order to become "English" again. In the Revision Courts of 1905, several women were declared disfranchised or deprived of their right to vote at municipal elections, owing to such marriages. On the other hand, a

- child of foreign parents born on a British ship, is not an alien, because a British ship, like a British Embassy, is British territory wherever it may be. To become "naturalised" it is necessary to reside for five years in this country, or to serve for a similar period under the Crown; but even then, the certificate of "naturalisation" must be obtained from the Home Secretary, or the person is still, legally, an alien.
- allegiance** (Latin *alligo*, to bind to)—the duty of serving one's King and country, Upon entering Parliament or the service of the Crown, one takes the oath of allegiance or makes an affirmation.
- allotments** (Anglo-Saxon *hlot*, a lot or share)—small pieces of land allotted to, or set apart for working men for cultivation at a small rent.
- Appeal, Court of**—this consists of the Lord High Chancellor, the Lord Chief Justice, the Master of the Rolls, the President of the Probate and Admiralty Division, and five other Lord Justices.
- appeal, lords of**—these Lords are the Lord High Chancellor, four lords who are known as "Lords of Appeal in ordinary" (and are life peers only), and "such Peers of Parliament who are holding or have held high judicial office." All except criminal cases tried at the different Law Courts may be carried to this tribunal. If the voting of these lords be equal, the verdict of the last court stands.
- assassinate**—to murder a high personage for some special reason or for reward. The word is derived from the Arabic, the "Assassins" being a tribe which murdered anyone at the bidding of their chief.
- assessment** (Low Latin, *assesso*, to value for taxation)—there is a special Assessment Committee of the Board of Guardians which decides the value of the property in its district to be rated. Its proceedings have to be reported annually to the Local Government Board.
- attorneys**—(see **lawyers**).
- auditors**—the Local Government Board appoints district auditors to examine, twice a year, the accounts of the local governing bodies. Municipal corporations are exempt from this inspection, but their accounts have to be examined by "Elective Auditors," two elected by the ratepayers and one appointed by the Mayor for the purpose. The Local Government auditor has power to surcharge any item of expenditure, that is, to charge any portion of it to the private account of those individuals who were responsible for it; but the "elective" municipal auditors have not.
- ballot, voting by** (Italian *ballotta*, a little ball, which several of the Italian States used as a means of secret voting)—the name given to our present system of secret voting, which became law in 1872, so that no man should be intimidated from voting.
- bankrupt** (French *banque*, a bank, and Latin *ruptus*, broken)—a man who cannot pay his debts.
- baronetcy**—a hereditary title which ranks its owner next below the peers.
- barrister**—(see **lawyers**).
- bishop**—(see **diocese**).
- Black Rod, Gentleman Usher of the**—the official who summons the Commons to the House of Lords to hear the King's Speech.
- Bluewater School**—a party of politicians who believe that if our Navy were beaten, nothing could save us. They, therefore, believe in spending most of our money on the Navy rather than the Army.
- boarding-out children**—a system of dealing with children, who would otherwise have to live in the workhouse, by placing them under the charge of cottagers, who are paid a certain sum for looking after them. The system was first practised in Scotland, but it has been adopted in recent years by more than five hundred Boards of Guardians in England.
- Board of Green Cloth**—this consists of the Lord-Steward of His Majesty's Household and the principal officers under him. It appoints and manages the servants at the Royal Palaces. At one time it was a separate court of

- justice, and could punish all offenders not only within the bounds of the palace, but for two hundred yards beyond.
- Cabinet, The**—a committee of the chief members of the Government. The Cabinet always consists of the following :—The Prime Minister (who is usually the First Lord of the Treasury); the Lord High Chancellor, and Keeper of the Great Seal; The Lord President of the Privy Council; the Lord Privy Seal; the Chancellor of the Exchequer; five Secretaries of State (for Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Colonies, War, India); the first Lord of the Admiralty; The President of the Board of Trade; the President of the Local Government Board; and either the Lord Lieutenant or the Chief Secretary of Ireland. Sometimes the following Ministers have seats in the Cabinet :—The President of the Board of Education; the President of the Board of Agriculture; the Postmaster-General; the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster; the Lord Chancellor of Ireland; the First Commissioner of Works.
- census** (Latin *censeo*, to weigh)—a numbering of the people of any country, usually taken in England every ten years. (Last census was in 1901.)
- cesspools** (Gaelic *sos*, a mess)—a hole or well for the sewage from each house.
- Chamberlain, The Lord**—a high official of the King's household. He acts also as licenser of plays and theatres.
- Chamberlain of the City of London**—the City Treasurer, who is elected by the Court of Common Hall. He keeps the Freemen's Roll.
- charter**—(see **corporation**).
- Chiltern Hundreds**—an ancient royal manor in Berkshire, the stewardship of which is applied for, if a member of Parliament wishes to resign his seat. This stewardship is a Government office although no salary or duty is attached to it. As a Member of Parliament cannot hold a Government office without vacating his seat, such an application gives him the necessary opportunity; otherwise he is not supposed to resign.
- church rates**—at one time everyone had to contribute to the support of the Church of England, but since 1868 church rates have ceased to be enforced, except in a very few localities.
- churchwardens**—there are two churchwardens at every parish church; one is elected by the vicar, the other by the parishioners during the week after Easter. They see that the Church and churchyard are kept in repair.
- City Remembrancer**—the officer who arranges all ceremonial within the City, and acts as Parliamentary agent.
- Common Council, Court of**—the principal legislative body of the City of London. The Local Government Act of 1888 describes it as an "Urban District Council." It consists of the 26 aldermen and 206 Common Councilmen elected annually by the different wards or divisions of the city. No ward returns more than sixteen members or less than four. The Court of Common Council elects the Town Clerk, the City Remembrancer, the City Coroner, and the Under-sheriffs. In 1898 the Court of Common Council took over the powers and responsibilities of the Commission of Sewers which once paved, lighted, and kept in order the city streets. It also controls London Bridge, Tower Bridge, Southwark Bridge, Blackfriars Bridge, and the markets of the Corporation, besides acting as the sanitary authority of the Port of London from Teddington Lock to the Isle of Sheppey.
- common law**—(see **courts of law**).
- common poor fund** (see **Metropolitan Boards, etc.**).
- constable**—an officer appointed to preserve the peace. **Special constables** are sworn in to act on special occasions only; **high constables** are officers appointed in the ancient manors and hundreds; **Chief constables**—the head of the police force of a borough or county.
- conscription** (Latin *con*, with or together, and *scribo*, to write, or enroll)—a system which forces all healthy men to serve in the army for a period.

- constituency** or **constituents**—the body of voters who elect a representative. The term is usually applied to parliamentary voters only.
- constitution**—the form and practice of government in a state or public body. The term is sometimes used to indicate a charter, or a set of rules drawn up by a body of men for the government of any association, but a "constitution" need not be written. There is no written constitution of England.
- corporation** (Latin *corpus*, body)—a body of men authorized by law to act as a single person, e.g., a municipal corporation. If a large number of inhabitants of any town or portion of a town petition the King for a charter of incorporation, they may be constituted a borough or municipal corporation. They must first, however, advertise their petition in the *London Gazette*, and give notice of it to their County Council. It will then be referred to a Committee of the Privy Council. If any neighbouring local authority oppose it, the charter will have to be approved and confirmed by Act of Parliament; if no opposition be made, the Privy Council simply make an Order in Council.
- county**—(see **administrative county**).
- county palatine**—(see **palatinate**).
- court martial** (Latin *Mars*, god of war)—a court held for the trial of military or naval offenders. It is called together by the commanding officer, and is composed of officers who must be of superior rank to the offender. Garrison courts martial only try smaller offences against discipline; the more serious cases are dealt with by a general court martial.
- courts of law**—the laws upon which English justice is based come from three different sources:—*Common Law*, which is not written, but consists of customs and precedents; *Statute Law*, which is that made by Act of Parliament; *Equity*, which is special law for redress of grievances, and was once administered in a separate court called the Court of Chancery. This Court is now a division of the High Court of Justice, and "rules of equity" are binding by statute. Existing courts may be classified as
- Local or Inferior Courts*: Quarter Sessions (Criminal) and County Courts (Civil).
- High Court of Justice*: Consisting of the Chancery Division, King's Bench Division, and the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division. Appeal from these courts lies to the *Supreme Court of Appeal* and thence to the *House of Lords*.
- Ecclesiastical Courts*: Three courts in order of appeal—Bishop's Court; Archbishop's Court; and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.
- despotic government** (Greek *despotes*, a lord)—a Government in which one man rules without check from any elected body of the people. The Sultan of Turkey is a despotic monarch.
- diocese** (Greek *dia*, through, and *oikos*, a house)—the district over which a bishop exercises authority in ecclesiastical matters. Formerly there were only twenty-six dioceses, and each bishop had a seat in the House of Lords. There are now about thirty-five, but only twenty-six bishops, including the two archbishops, have seats in the House of Lords. All the church property in the dioceses is now vested in the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, who pay the salaries of the archbishops and bishops therefrom.
- empannel**—the roll of names of men fit to serve on a jury is called a *panel*. Administering the oath to a juryman is to empannel him.
- equity**—(see **courts of law**).
- feeding the children**—the local councils may now feed poor children at the expense of the rates, but they must prosecute parents who can afford to feed but neglect their children. The Council may also open school canteens, where cheap food can be obtained.
- felo de se**—(Latin, a felon concerning himself), a verdict of deliberate suicide.

- feudal system**—a system by which a person held land from a superior to whom he owed military or personal service.
- franchise** (French, *franc*, free)—the right of voting for a representative.
- freedom of the city**—although political freedom is not to be bought, the honour of the “Freedom of the City” can be purchased, providing a person possesses other necessary qualifications. Thus, the sons of “Freemen” of the City of London have the right to receive this “Freedom” when they reach the age of twenty-one years, subject to the payment of one guinea. Any city ratepayer also, or anyone on the Parliamentary Register for the city, may obtain this “Freedom” on personal application and payment of one guinea at the Chamberlain’s Court at the Guildhall. The benefits conferred by such a distinction now amount to little more than the right to have one’s children admitted to the principal public schools connected with the city, or to the Freemen’s Orphanage, where “thorough education as well as a good start in life is provided. The freemen of Oxford have the right to let their cattle graze on Port Meadow by the side of the Thames.
- freeholder**—the possessor of an estate of land—even if it be only the land upon which a house stands—which can be sold or given away by the owner during life and left by will to another after death. The freeholder exercises many rights over the purchaser—or, strictly speaking, the leaseholder—of any building which stands, or is built upon his land. He may require the building kept in thorough repair, and may stipulate the kind of building which may be erected and what it is to be used for; a tree cannot be legally cut down without his consent; and, upon the termination of the lease, all buildings or other erections become his property, together with any improvements which tenant or leaseholder may have made. The leaseholder pays an annual “ground rent” to the freeholder. In Scotland this rent is called “feu,” and is sometimes paid in produce, that is, fruit, vegetables, etc.
- free trade**—that system of trade which allows goods from abroad to come into a country without being taxed, except in the case of certain articles taxed for revenue purposes only. (See **protection** and **Preferential tariffs**.)
- gilds** or **guilds**—associations for mutual help. The most noted were the merchant gilds and craft gilds of the Middle Ages, which ruled over cities, and, upon the Continent, large states.
- Habeas Corpus Act** (Latin *have the body*)—passed 1679. Provides that no person may be kept in prison without trial; any one arrested may demand trial at once.
- hundred**—One of the old divisions of local government. Every shire or county was divided into “hundreds.”
- impeachment**—(French *empêcher*, to hinder)—the trial in the House of Lords of a person accused by the House of Commons of grave political offences.
- ineligible** (Latin *eligo*, to choose)—prevented from exercising some right by reason of some law.
- infectious**—capable of being transferred to another (such as a disease).
- inhabited house duty**—the tax which every occupier of a house rated at £20 a year or more has to pay.
- intrepid** (Latin *intrepidus*, not trembling)—brave, knowing no fear.
- javelin men**—yeomen who attend the sheriff. A javelin is a light spear which was used in ancient warfare for throwing at the enemy.
- joint occupiers**—persons sharing the same dwelling, land, or business premises to the value of £10 each may obtain votes as joint occupiers. Husband and wife cannot claim as joint occupiers, but by the Local Government Act, 1894, section 43, they may both be registered, although not for the same property; this registration entitles married women to vote in all the local elections except for town and county councils. (They may vote in the London County Council elections.)

- jury** (Latin *ius, juris*. law ; see pages 59 and 60)—clergymen, doctors, Post Office officials and a few other people are exempt from serving on a jury.
- jury in Scotland**—there is no grand jury and the ordinary jury numbers fifteen.
- King's Counsel**—this office is an honorary one, and is not difficult for any barrister to obtain. It entitles a person to place K.C. after his name, to wear a silk robe or gown, and to be heard in court before other lawyers. A K.C. may not take very small law cases, and whenever he pleads he must be assisted by a junior lawyer. (See also **lawyers**.)
- King's surname**—the King has really no surname. If any family name could be accorded His Majesty, it would be *Wettin*, as that was his father's family name. Similarly the late Queen's surname would have been *D'Este*, not *Guelph*, as sometimes incorrectly stated.
- knights of the shire**—the Members of Parliament who were elected by the county freeholders as distinguished from the burgesses who were elected by the people of the towns.
- lawyers**—those persons who, trained in the law, assist people to obtain justice. They are grouped into *Solicitors*, *Barristers*, and *Attorneys*. Formerly, a solicitor could only practise in a court of Equity, and attorneys practised in a common law court. By the Judicature Act of 1873, all law agents practising in the Supreme Courts in England are termed solicitors. Solicitors prepare all legal documents or evidence for or against an accused person, but they cannot *plead* in a superior court. The prepared evidence is, therefore, given as a *brief* to a *Barrister*, or one who has been admitted to the Bar. In the United States, solicitors may act as counsel. In Scotland, persons who are trained in the law become *advocates and writers to the signet*. In Scotland, the writers of the Signet are similar to our solicitors ; advocates correspond to our barristers.
- leaseholder**—(see **freeholder**).
- letters-patent**—a written document signed by the King, allowing a person to assume some name or title, or do some particular deed.
- maiden assize**—If there be no prisoners when the judge comes to the Assizes, it is called a maiden assize, and the sheriff presents the judge with a pair of gloves.
- mandamus**—a command in the King's name to a person, court, or corporation requiring them to do some specified act. Neglect to conform to this mandamus renders one liable to contempt of court and imprisonment.
- metropolitan boards and anomalies**—it has been pointed out in the text that in some few respects the metropolis is governed and administered in a different way from other parts of the country.
- (1) *The Metropolitan Asylums Board* (established in 1867), which finds accommodation for pauper imbeciles and a training ship for pauper boys ; provides for the treatment of defective children, an ambulance from fever and small-pox hospitals, and the isolation of infectious cases. It is governed by fifty-six representatives elected by the various Metropolitan Boards of Guardians, and by eighteen managers elected by the Local Government Board. They have no control over non-pauper lunatic asylums in the Metropolis ; these are under the Asylums Committee of the London County Council.
 - (2) *The Metropolitan Water Board* (established 1902), which controls the water supply. It consists of a Chairman, Vice-Chairman, and sixty-six other members appointed by the London County Council, the Corporation of the City of London, the Metropolitan Borough Councils, and other local authorities.
 - (3) *The Thames Conservancy* (constituted 1894)—regulates navigation and fishing, and prevents pollution of the River Thames. It consists of thirty-eight members, six of whom are appointed by

the Common Council of the City, six by the London County Council, and the remainder by shipowners and others interested in the river. A similar Board of thirteen members exists for the same purposes on the river Lee. The Common Council and the London County Council each appoint one member.

- (4) *The Metropolitan Common Poor Fund* was established in 1867, so that the richer unions and parishes should help the poorer. Each of the metropolitan unions contribute to the fund according to their rateable value, but each receives according to its needs.
- (5) *The Metropolitan Police* is entirely under the control of the Home Office. Its jurisdiction extends over all places, within a radius of 15 miles of Charing Cross (excepting the City of London which has its own separate police force), and over the River Thames to its mouth. Being a Government force, the Metropolitan Police are also employed at the Royal arsenals and dockyards (at Pembroke, Plymouth, etc.), so that its jurisdiction is not confined to the metropolitan area.

militia—until 1907, the militia consisted of foot-soldiers who did not belong to the regular Army, although they often passed into it. They enlisted voluntarily, and could not be sent out of the country against their will. In 1907 the militia became a part of the Regular Army, and the cost of maintaining it was placed on the Army vote. All new recruits to the militia are enlisted for foreign service in time of war.

monasteries—places where bodies of men called monks live together for the purpose of leading a religious life, cutting themselves off from the world, and neither marrying nor acquiring individual property.

naturalization—(see **alien**).

officers—commissioned officers of the Army rank in the following order:—Field marshals, generals, lieutenant-generals, major-generals, brigadier-generals, colonels, lieutenant colonels, majors, captains, lieutenants, second lieutenants and ensigns. Officers of the Navy rank as follows:—Admirals of the fleet, admirals, vice-admirals, rear-admirals, commodores, captains, commanders, lieutenants, sub-lieutenants, midshipmen.

orders—ribbons, decorations and crosses are bestowed by governments and monarchs for great services rendered to them or to the nation. In England the highest order, which carries a knighthood with it, is that of the Garter (K.G.). This is only given to members of the Royal Family, foreign monarchs, or very eminent nobles. But an order which carries no title of knighthood and yet is the most coveted among civilians, is the Order of Merit (O.M.). Others are those of St. Patrick (K.P.) (The Thistle (K.T.), St. Michael and St. George [G.C.M.G. (Grand Cross), K.C.M.G. (the Cross with knighthood) and C.M.G. without knighthood], the Bath [G.C.B., K.C.B., and C.B. (Companion)], the Cross and Grand Cross of the Star of India (G.C.S.I. and C.S.I.), the Victorian Order (several degrees K.C.V.O., etc.), and the Imperial Service Order (I.S.O.).

palatine counties or **palatinates**—so called because the lords of such counties had royal rights equally with the King in his palace (palatium). The earl of a county palatinate was supreme in his domain, like a king.

parliament (French *parler*, to speak, and the Italian *parlamento*, a talking place). Special names are given to the parliaments of several European countries. Among them are:—Austria-Hungary. *Reichsrath* in Austria, and *Reichstag* in Hungary (each consisting of two Houses); the *Sobranje* in Bulgaria; *Rigstad* or *Diet* in Denmark (consisting of two Houses, the *Landsting*, or Upper House, and the *Folkething*, or Lower House); *Diet* in Germany (consisting of the *Reichstag*, or Chamber of Deputies, and the *Bundesrath*, or Chamber of Delegates); the *Boulé* in Greece; *Storting* in Norway; *Cortes* in Portugal; *Skuptchina* in Servia; *Cortes* in Spain; *Diet* in Sweden; Federal Assembly in Switzerland (consisting of the

- Standerath*, or State Council, and the *Nationalrath*, or National Council) ; the *Duma* of Russia, an elective national assembly.
- passport** (French *passer*, to pass, and the Latin *porta*, a gate)—a licence or written letter guaranteeing protection to a traveller or his goods in countries where he or they might otherwise be interfered with. Passports are carried in time of war by neutral merchant vessels to certify their nationality and to protect them from attack.
- pension** (Latin *pensio*, a payment), a sum of money granted by Government and by some private employers to people who have worked for them and who, through ill-health or old age, have been obliged to cease work.
- perjury** (Latin *juro*, to swear)—the crime of swearing falsely.
- prorogation** (Latin *pro-rogo*, to put off), used to denote the interruption of a parliamentary session by several days or weeks' holiday.
- Prosecutor, The Public** (from Latin *pro*, forward, and *sequor*, to follow), an officer specially appointed to search out and conduct prosecution against evil in the public interest. In Scotland he is called the Procurator-Fiscal.
- protection**—a system of taxation not strictly devised for revenue purposes, but intended to shield or protect some industry from outside competition ; the opposite of Free Trade. Some politicians advocate a form of taxation under which goods from the colonies shall pay a smaller tax than those coming from foreign countries. This is called a Preferential Tariff.
- provisional orders**—orders issued by Government departments enabling local authorities to do in particular instances what Parliament has approved in principle. They have to be passed by the Parliament, and can be opposed by those objecting to them. All private legislation in Scotland proceeds by provisional order.
- Registrar, registry office, Registrar-General**—in every district, or borough, there is a Registrar, at whose office every birth, death, and marriage within his boundary must be recorded. People may be married at the Registry Office by the Registrar without any religious service ; but the registrar attends any chapel or other building where the ceremony may take place. He is appointed by the Guardians. The Registrar-General is a public officer appointed under the Great Seal, who superintends the whole system of registration throughout the Kingdom.
- revision courts**—courts held by a barrister each year in the autumn to revise or correct the lists of voters.
- salutes**—a number of guns are discharged by our ships or fort batteries to welcome Royal guests or their ambassadors in proportion to their rank.
- statutory committees**—those required by law for local councils, namely, committees for finance, education, asylums, diseases of animals, etc.
- stipendiary magistrate** (Latin *stipis*, a small coin, and *pendo*, to weigh out)—a magistrate who is paid a salary and who is appointed by the Home Secretary, in distinction from a Justice of the Peace who is not paid and who is appointed by the Lord Chancellor on the nomination of the Lord Lieutenant. Stipendiary magistrates must have been barristers for seven years or more.
- tithes**—the tenth part of the annual produce of one's industry or other wealth which was once given voluntarily and later on exacted by law for the support of the church. Later still tithes were commuted into a fixed rent-charge upon the land.
- writ of summons**—peers used to be created by a Writ of Summons ordering them to attend the King's Council. Now they are appointed by letters-patent. (See **letters-patent**.)
- writ of prohibition**—an order from the High Court to prevent inferior authorities from doing certain acts.
- yeomanry**—bodies of young men—principally farmers—who possess horses and who for a short period each year are trained as cavalrymen.

