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TOPICS OF THE WEEK.

THE BAWLA MURDER TRIAL IS AT LAST

The Bawla Murder—
and after? over. Rarely has any case in recent times excited greater public interest. But the murder and what followed it is but a small, though very sensational, episode in the whole story, and what has come to light so far must pale into insignificance when what is now hidden from public view comes to be revealed. That much remains yet to be unravelled is clear from the Judge's own summing-up. Only the instruments of the criminal conspiracy have been punished, but the prime mover in the conspiracy, one in whose personal interest and under whose inspiration the conspiracy took shape, is still at large. The police have so far done well, but it will be a poor performance, if the crime is not traced from these wretched instruments to its very source. Counsel for the accused entered an eleventh hour plea in the Court that the persons found guilty by the Jury were mere hirelings or were dragged into the conspiracy by certain other persons, who have chosen to remain behind, exercising powerful influences upon them. Whatever be the validity of this plea in obtaining a mitigation of the sentences, it certainly affords a clue to the police which ought to enable them to track down the primary cause of this vile conspiracy, from whom these evil influences emanated. It is neither wise nor just to add much more, but we may join with our other contemporaries in giving expression to an earnest hope that if a wealthy or a mighty person is found to be at the back of it all, nothing must be allowed to stand in the way of bringing the offence home to the

culprit, who is morally and legally a far worse felon than those who will shortly be sent to the gallows.

* * *

IN BRITISH GUIANA INDIAN CHILDREN

Indian Education in B. Guiana. between the ages 5 and 15 number 27,692. Of these only 9,239 are on the rolls of primary schools. Assuming that there are 2,500 (this is a possible maximum) who attend secondary schools or receive education privately, it follows that at the most some 11,000 children receive any education whatever (boys 8,500 and girls 2,500 roughly). The remaining 16,000 children of from 5 to 15 years (i. e. 60 per cent.) go without any schooling, of however rudimentary a character. This is not, however, the worst of it. Even those who go to school remain there for a very short period. The average length of an Indian child's education is 3 years and 9 months, while that of others is four years and 6 months. 23% of Indian pupils are never promoted out of the Preparatory Division, 32% out of the Lower Division, 34% out of the Middle Division and only 11% reach the Upper Division, the percentage of children of other races who reach the Upper Division being 22%. How very backward Indian education is when compared with Chinese education, for instance, in British Guiana will appear from this that whereas 83% of Chinese children attend school, the percentage of Indian children who are at school for any length of time is only 39. The Negroes and Coloured have 79% of their children at school, and even the Aboriginal Indians and Bovianders have 59%. There is nothing surprising in the high percentage of literacy in other races, for since 1876 education is compulsory in British Guiana, but the law of Compulsory Attendance is not put in force in the case of Indian children; that is to say, penalties are not enforced in their case, which accounts for the deplorably backward state of education of these children. It is satisfactory to note that it is proposed by the Government of British Guiana to cancel the "Swettenham Circular," in virtue of which the Compulsory Attendance Law has been in abeyance all these years as regards Indians, and to increase the rate of grant in aid.

* * *

Anglo-Indian Claims. WE hope Col. Gidney knows his mind, for we confess we do not. At a meeting held recently in Calcutta to approve of the idea of sending a deputation to England to put the Anglo-Indian case before the British public, he stated that the deputation would make a demand "for equal treatment, equal consideration, equal recognition and equal representation in all matters,

both civil and military, with the two other great communities, Hindus and Muslims." As one would naturally find it difficult to understand why a deputation should go all the way from here to England to make this simple demand he explained further that at present although Anglo-Indians were described as "Statutory Indians" they were being excluded from the civil services and the Railways in the name of "Indianisation." If the demand is for equal and not preferential treatment, certainly there can be no opposition from Indians to the claim of Anglo-Indians. They are welcome to compete on equal terms and enjoy equal remuneration with other Indians. But in the next breath he spoke of admission into the British units of the Indian Army and of getting Anglo-Indian education put under the Central Government, &c., that is to say, he wanted for his community the privileges of the European community. Surely, he cannot have it both ways. The Anglo-Indians are welcome to class themselves as either Indians and ask for no special privileges, or as Europeans—with what amount of justification we shall not pause to consider here—and take the consequences of Indianisation. It is for them to decide, but we have no doubt as to where their proper place is.

* * *

LAST week we pointed out how Sir P. C. Roy had drawn wrong and alarmist inferences from the census figures relating to the Hindu and Muhammadan population of Bengal. We see now that Lala Lajpat Rai has endorsed fully those views of Sir P. C. Roy, in one of a series of articles recently contributed to the papers under the caption "From Ravi to Brahmaputra." Our surprise at a politician of the eminence of Lala Lajpat Rai having made the mistake is much greater than at Sir P. C. Roy's. In that series of articles Lala Lajpat Rai surveys the present political situation in North India, points out the weakness of the Hindus as a community, analyses its causes and suggests a remedy. We agree with his diagnosis that the disease affecting the community is a psychological one, resulting in a lack of faith in themselves. Therefore though the Hindus are in a vast majority in the country they are not an "effective majority" and are unduly swayed by fear. The disease is not inherent in the race and can be cured: it has been cured in large numbers when a change in the outlook on life has taken place by conversion to Muhammadanism or Sikhism or by coming under the sway of new ideas as in the case of the Arya Samajists. We do not, however, approve of the remedy suggested by Lala Lajpat Rai, which is the development of the communal spirit by recourse to the Hindu Sanghatan movement. It is like attempting to maintain peace by developing armaments, and the object cannot really be achieved by this means. The present Hindu mentality certainly needs to be changed, but we should like it to be changed by a development of the sense of citizenship—of the love of the State rather than of the community—and we do not believe it impossible. By the way, Lala Lajpat Rai observes in these articles that in his recent tour in Bihar, Bengal, Assam and Orrissa he found no effort made to promote two of the three items of the "constructive programme" of the Congress—Hindu-Muslim unity and the removal of untouchability—while in respect of the remaining one, the spread of the *charkha*, he found some activity. It is a great pity that the more important items should have been so utterly neglected.

* * *

WE publish elsewhere an interesting letter on the age of consent by Mr. Otto Rothfeld, late of the I.C.S. He is right in

pointing out that in the case mentioned by us the existing law was violated without any attempt at its enforcement. We quite recognise the difficulty that exists in every country in enforcing any criminal law as between husband and wife. That difficulty, however, does not reduce the value of such legislation as relates to the age of consent. What we have to think of in that connection is not the small percentage of brutal husbands that will violate the law, perhaps under any circumstances, and still escape the consequences, but the very large percentage of normal people who will respect it, and more particularly of the parents who will be enabled by such legislation to resist importunities which would otherwise be irresistible. In a matter like this the preparedness of public opinion is not to be tested by the certainty with which legal remedy is likely to be sought, but by the welcome given and the absence of strong opposition to the proposed legislation. Applying this test, public opinion in India is certainly ripe for the raising of the age of consent in married life to fourteen, as was made clear by the vote of the Assembly. But more convincing than that is the testimony of the Women's Indian Association, whose Secretary, Mrs. Jinarajadasa, wrote recently in the papers as follows:

"Few men in that body (Legislative Assembly) have the remotest idea what the women think, or have discussed any question of social or political reform with them. The W.I.A., on the other hand, is in touch with thousands of ordinary, not specially progressive, women, and not once has heard any woman say that she would object to postponing the consummation of marriage until her child is fourteen. Many of the mothers remember their own pain and terror when they were little girl brides of 12, and would save their own little daughters, if only they could do so without social ostracism."

It is surprising that Mr. Rothfeld does not distinguish between consent in marriage and outside. In fixing the age of consent in married life we have to think only of the "physical disaster" but outside marriage there is in addition the social disaster which a girl of fourteen is too immature to guard herself against. Mr. Rothfeld has thought only of the physical, and ignored the social consequences.

* * *

DESPITE all the signs that Mr. Das sees "everywhere" of a change of heart in the Government, it is not yet given to any one of us to discern even the shade of a shadow of change in that respect. Mr. Das of course had put faith in Lord Birkenhead, and several of our Swarajist friends have since made it a regular practice to scan the newspapers every morning in the hope of reading therein India's new charter of freedom (albeit freedom within the Empire) signed by Lord Birkenhead and only waiting for the Desabandhu's signature to become law. However, they must have read instead in today's papers a speech of Lord Birkenhead in a somewhat different strain. He declared that even should an advance in the present constitution of India be contemplated, it could only be based upon the people of India proving their sincerity by their willingness to work the constitution as it existed at present. This is not very different after all from what the rankest Tory ever said in recent years and is certainly not more conciliatory than the warning given to Indian leaders by Lord Olivier and Mr. MacDonald towards whom the Swarajists assumed such an unaccountably truculent attitude. It remains to be seen what kind of response the Swarajist leader makes to the British Government's "New (sic) Negotiatory Policy."

EXCLUSION OR INEQUALITY ?

THOSE who are closely watching the progress of anti-Asiatic legislation in South Africa and the recent developments in Kenya must be wondering as to which after all is more tolerable: admission to such Colonies only to live there in a position of marked racial inferiority or exclusion from such Colonies altogether. South Africa and East Africa needed coolie labour to cultivate tropical regions unsuitable for white settlement, and India supplied a considerable part of it only to find that her population could but remain there, if at all, as helots. Australia and Canada, on the other hand, have almost from the commencement prohibited the entry of Asiatics and, by keeping their regions pure white, have also kept their commonwealms free from the taint of slave labour. It must remain a puzzle to many as to which of these policies is less odious. The objective of both policies is the same, viz. the establishment of white supremacy. South Africa pursues this ideal no less openly than Australia. The only difference that exists between them relates to the method of translating the objective into action. When one hears the arguments advanced by the protagonists of either school, one is almost tempted to exclaim that the White Australia policy is much better than that followed in South Africa, where at every turn Asiatics are subjected to disqualifications on the ground of colour. One feels at any rate that Australia's is the more logical and even humaner method.

The case for this school of thought is very ably put forward in the "History of the White Australia Policy" by Myra Willard. The history of Chinese immigration, the attempt to introduce Indian labour and the experiment of the Kanaka system are related in this treatise with a wealth of detail that leaves nothing to be desired. The book is fully documented throughout and is thoroughly reliable as to facts. The last chapter in which reasons for the White Australia policy are summarised is no doubt the most interesting of all and evokes in the reader reflexions on the comparative merits of the policies pursued in Australia and South Africa. Australia saw the advantage of drawing upon Asiatic labour to develop her northern territory where the employment of white labour was deemed to be out of the question by reason of climate alone. But she very soon came to the conclusion that Asiatic labour must be excluded even from such tropical regions. In the first place, Australians felt that coolie indentured labour was subject to such contract conditions as no civilized country should countenance. It was necessarily a form of "limited slavery," as remarked by a Premier of Queensland on one occasion. It involved the rivetting of the capitalistic system of production on Australia and the deliberate commercial exploitation of a backward by an advanced race. In the next place it would be impossible to restrict Asiatics, when once allowed to enter the country, to the hotter regions thereof. When their periods of indenture were over,

on the ground of humanity alone they could not be prohibited from engaging in other kinds of work which they showed themselves able and willing to do.

Once allowed to enter, coloured people must be allowed to spread to temperate regions as well, and when they once become resident members of the population, they must be admitted to full citizenship rights. It was a cardinal principle with Australians that the growth of democracy on sound lines required the grant of equality of social and political status to all sections of inhabitants. To withhold the vote and other rights of citizenship from the non-whites was to leave the whites in control of the destinies of a politically inferior people who entered into competition with them in various branches of industry. Apart from this being unjust to the coloured people, the institution of such a racial division would be fatal, they felt, to a free democratic society which they wished to see established in Australia. It was thus a general sentiment to which Sir Henry Parkes gave expression in 1888: "We should not encourage or admit amongst us any class of persons whatever whom we are not prepared to advance to all our franchises, to all our privileges as citizens and to all our social rights, including the right of marriage." That those who would not ultimately fuse racially with the whites must be sternly excluded, became thus the governing policy of the Australians. Asiatics would not generally amalgamate; they ever remained an alien element in the population. In this case their country would be cursed with all the evils and dangers of a racial division in her community. If, on the contrary, they mixed with the whites, the political and social institutions of the latter would undergo such radical changes that the preservation of a British-Australian nationality, which was the end and aim of their policy, would become an impossibility. Every nation had the inherent right to self-realisation, and to this end they must take all measures that might be necessary to maintain the British character and institutions in the Australian Colonies. Why then, it may be asked, is the policy directed exclusively against non-whites, why is it not equally directed against all non-British races? The answer to the question is that the only unsought immigration, except from Britain, that flowed with any strength was that of non-Europeans, and thus the White Australia policy seemed to draw the line on colour. Recently however Greeks are trying to come in, and only the other day we read that Australia had closed her door against them.

The best part in this exposition of the White Australia policy is the frank recognition that all resident peoples must be treated alike, not only in respect of political privileges but social privileges as well. If equality of status is to be denied to any people, then their entry itself into the country should be prohibited. Such prohibition would appear to be preferable to a policy of constant discrimination and consequent irritation that is followed in South Africa. It may of course be asked what moral right Australians have to keep out other people from land

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which they themselves are unable to use. Primitive peoples of other countries, the Australian aboriginals themselves, were deprived of their land on the ground that all unoccupied land was an asset of the whole world and whoever could put it to the best use must be given an opportunity to exploit it. How does the question present itself when viewed from this aspect? The answer is given by the author in the following words: "A people at present fewer in number than the population of London possess Australia, a continent almost of the size of Europe." The author at any rate has a lively recognition of duties which the right, claimed by Australia, of self-realisation as a member of the nations of the world, entails upon her. "The world needs the supplies that it would receive if the resources of Australia were fully developed. On Australia's willingness and ability to develop these resources within a reasonable time seems to depend her right to retain her identity by the exclusion of people who would be quite willing to enter her country and do this work." And since this condition, of course, she cannot possibly fulfil, it is clear that from the point of view of humanity as a whole the dilemma of either choosing to keep Australia purely British in culture, but undeveloped; or else risking a new and largely Asiatic culture to develop there, which however would ensure the Continent making its full contribution to the needs of the world: can only be solved by boldly and unflinchingly declaring for the latter alternative.

CONSTITUTIONAL REFORM IN INDIAN STATES.

WE congratulate the Dakshini Samsthan Hitavardhak Sabha on holding, with conspicuous success at Poona this week, the fifth session of the Deccan States Subjects' Conference. It is not a conventional act that we are doing in thus congratulating the Sabha. Political life is woefully dormant in Indian States and attempts at awakening it are attended with special difficulties. There is some political life, it is true, in some of the advanced States, but neither in quality nor in vigour is it to be compared with what obtains in British India. If political conferences which confine their attention to individual States are rare enough, inter-State conferences are rarer still and are decidedly of the nature of a pioneer movement. It is therefore no small achievement for the D. S. H. Sabha to have been successfully holding annual conferences of the States' subjects. Not that that is its only achievement. In the Deccan States with which it is primarily concerned it has become a recognised force. Within the last twelve months, it has been instrumental in getting abolished in the Bhor State a law prohibiting public meetings and in getting withdrawn in the Sangli State certain restrictions which, by a misunderstanding of the situation, the Chief Sahab had caused to be imposed on his subjects regarding their participation in the wider political life of the country. That these restrictions

were removed in response to the representations of the Sabha is creditable alike to the Chief and to the Sabha. Besides, it can justly claim to have awakened to an appreciable degree the people of the the Deccan States to a sense of their own rights and the Chiefs to a sense of what is due from them to their subjects. But what invests the Sabha and the Conference annually called by it with special importance is the ideal for which they stand—which is the attainment of responsible government by the people of the States, *pari passu*, as far as possible, with the people of British India. This is the right ideal and whatever obstacles there may exist at present in the way of this ideal being universally accepted, it is bound in course of time to become universally accepted.

Not a little of the success of this session of the Conference was due to the happy choice of Mr. B. S. Kamat as its president. In his persuasive manner Mr. Kamat has attempted to remove the doubts, fears and objections of critics inside and outside the States regarding the ideal of the Conference, and has shown that they are all misplaced. In the States the opposition comes, naturally, from the rulers and their partisans. Their real objection is to parting with power, but of course they camouflage it in various ways. It is alleged on their behalf that even if they were disposed to go ahead in constitutional matters, the Political Department would not allow radical modifications in the existing administrative structure of the States. Mr. Kamat rightly points out that there is no authoritative statement by the Government of India supporting this alleged attitude on their part and that no restrictions have been placed on rulers who have introduced representative institutions. He shows, on the other hand, from the Montagu-Chelmsford Report, that its authors expect the States to advance along with British India and that their attitude towards the States is that while the British Government should not force the pace of constitutional progress in them, it should "open the door to the natural development of the future." If any of the States were adopting constitutional reforms which were in advance of those obtaining in British India, one could imagine covert—not overt because it is a matter relating to internal administration in which the paramount power cannot justly interfere—opposition from the Political Department. But even the most advanced of Indian States has not yet come abreast of British India in the matter of constitutional reform, while what the D. S. H. Sabha and other reformers are asking for in the first instance is only a reasonable beginning in representative government. This alleged opposition from the Political Department therefore appears to be an invention intended for putting off credulous folk.

Another objection put forward is that the Treaties preclude all change of government in the States. Mr. Kamat again quotes the Montagu-Chelmsford Report to show that there is no such immutability attached to them and that in the opinion of its dis-

tinguished authors "the literal fulfilment of particular obligations which they impose has become impracticable. Practice has been based on the theory that the treaties must be read as a whole and that they must be interpreted in the light of the relations established between the parties, not only at the time when a treaty was made, but subsequently." Mr. Kamat might have added that treaties have been revised in several cases and that they have not stood in the way of those States that have adopted representative institutions. But he has gone to the root of the question, analysed treaty obligations and shown that their essence cannot be vitiated by the conferment of responsible government on the people of the States. The obligations imposed by the treaties are (1) loyalty to the paramount power, (2) protection against flagrant misrule over the subjects and (3) security of the status, dignity and personal privileges of the Rulers. Mr. Kamat shows that none of these can be affected adversely by the grant of responsible government. On the other hand, he points out that so far as the obligation relating to misrule is concerned there is a distinct advantage in "converting the present form of personal rule into a form of representative government, gradually culminating in a cabinet system, so that the Ruler himself is constitutionally safeguarded from any charge of misrule." At the same time all the privileges enjoyed by constitutional sovereigns in respect of the civil list, veto, &c., will be theirs; and court rituals, ceremonial dignities, &c., could be scrupulously observed and maintained in perpetuity, suggests Mr. Kamat, even by statute if necessary.

Mr. Kamat also refers to some prominent political leaders in British India who are averse to taking up the cause of the subjects of Indian States for fear that prominent Chiefs would be antagonised in the struggle for self-government in British India. He concedes that from the platform of the Indian National Congress or the Liberal Federation the cause of the States' subjects should not be advocated; but otherwise he thinks it the duty of British Indian politicians to help their brethren in the States, in the same manner as advanced communities are helping the backward ones in social and educational matters. We for our part do not subscribe to the opinion that matters relating to Indian States should be excluded from the Congress or the Federation. They are as much an integral part of India as British provinces are, and there can be no national democratic government in British India with autocracy enthroned in the States. As to antagonising the Chiefs, Mr. Kamat quotes a passage from the speech of the Maharaja of Alwar at the Imperial Conference in 1923, in which he strongly advocated the advance of British India towards self-government, and rightly observes:

"What is sauce for the goose must be sauce for the gander. If responsible government is good for the people of British India in the opinion of the Maharaja, and if he can plead on behalf of British Indian subjects, surely it must be good

enough, I contend, for his own subjects and there is nothing wrong if some men in British India come forward to return the compliment and plead on behalf of his subjects, for instance."

We may not expect from our Princes that high degree of patriotism that induced the Chiefs of Japan to abdicate their thrones and become private citizens, in order that Japan may have a united national government. But we may well expect them to desire for their subjects the same political status as is enjoyed by the people of British India.

INDIAN STORES DEPARTMENT.

THE Government mill is inexorably slow to grind. An Administration Report of a Government Department published in the month of May 1925 should ordinarily be expected to contain an account of the activities of that Department during the preceding financial year. This, however, does not happen to be the case with the Administration Report of the Indian Stores Department, which is just out; for it deals with the activities of that Department during the financial year ending the 31st of March 1924. With the very elaborate machinery at its command, should it not be possible for a Government Department to turn out a brochure of this description, covering not more than 30 pages of royal octavo size, soon after the close of the financial year to which it relates? Need the tax-payer have to wait for one whole year to know how his money has been spent, or, as it often happens, misspent?

The Indian public demand for the establishment of a central agency for the purchase of Government stores and for the encouragement of indigenous industries dates as far back as three decades ago. The wisdom of this step, however, dawned upon the Government of India during the Great War, and the Indian Stores Department was brought into being three years ago as a result of the recommendations of the Holland Commission and the Stores Purchase Committee. The Administration Report which we have before us relates to the second financial year of its existence. The total value of the stores purchased by the Department during the period under review exceeded one crore and 67 lakhs of rupees, of which one crore and 17 lakhs represents the purchase of textiles, and 50 lakhs represents engineering stores. It is encouraging to note that of the total value of the purchases effected, 89% represent the value of the goods manufactured in India. It cannot be denied that the Department has done a substantial amount of useful work with the limited means at its disposal and within the restricted scope of its activities. It is, however, a pity that the total value of the stores purchased by the Department represents only a fraction of the requirements of the Government of India. The latter does not appear yet to have made up its mind to make the fullest use of the machinery it has set up. This is borne out by the Administration Report itself; for the Chief Controller of Stores complains: "A disappointing feature was the reluctance manifested

by the Central Departments, with two notable exceptions, the Army Department and the Public Works Department at Delhi, to utilise the agency of the Indian Stores Department in connection with their purchases to a larger extent than hitherto."

We welcome this frank disclosure. The arch-offenders, however, in this case are the railways and the Railway Board. We find that orders for only 9½ lakhs of rupees were placed with the Indian Stores Department during the year under review, which represents not even 1% of the local purchases made by the railways and the Railway Board. The poohpoohing on the part of Sir Charles Innes in respect of the utilization of the Indian Stores Department for the purchase of Railway materials is by now too notorious to need any special mention. The Provincial Governments are out of the purview of the Revised Stores Rules, and are not under any obligation to place their demands with the Indian Stores Department. But one wonders why the Central Departments should non-co-operate with the Government of India's policy in the matter of the purchase of stores, and why again the Central Government should not make up its mind to root out this tendency towards non-co-operation. The result of this apathy has been that at the end of the year under review, the Treasury was faced with a net debit balance of 3½ lakhs on account of the Stores Department. The poor Indian tax-payer can ill afford to have this white elephant! If the Indian Stores Department is not functioning properly, why not abolish it? If it is working efficiently, why not encourage it and enable it to pay?

One word about Indianisation. The report says that the claims of Indians to appointments in the Department were given full and careful consideration, and that of the nine officers appointed to gazetted posts during the year, four were Indians. The only pertinent question is—Why only four? It may be noted in passing that while the maximum salary of the highest post in the Department is Rs. 3,500, no Indian has yet been appointed to a post carrying a maximum salary of more than Rs. 1,200.

The Legislative Assembly passed a resolution in February 1924, recommending the adoption of a system of purchase on the basis of rupee tender. Questions on the subject were repeatedly asked in subsequent sessions. The resolution of the Assembly, if acted upon by the Government of India, will, according to the Chief Controller, have a profound effect on the scope and character of the Indian Stores Department. The public have yet to know what action, if any, has been taken by the Government in this behalf?

Let us hope that the next Administration Report of the Indian Stores Department will not be an out-of-date publication and only of academic interest. It is also to be hoped that it will be less disappointing, and that the Government of India will make up their mind to give the tax-payer good value or his money.

AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS IN 1923-24

THE Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India annually issues a review of the work done by the Imperial and Provincial Departments of Agriculture. It is a short summary of the various annual reports and it puts before the reader the most important activities of the Agricultural Departments all over India. It deals with the improvements brought about in crops, research work done in connection with soils and manures, and the increased activities of the Co-operative and the Veterinary Departments. At the end of the Review statistical tables are attached which are useful to people engaged in agricultural investigation or in agricultural occupations.

The crops which received special attention during the year 1923-24 were cotton, wheat, rice, sugarcane, jute, &c. The improvements were brought about by first isolating the different varieties of each crop and then evolving types suitable for local soil and climatic conditions. In some cases entirely new types were evolved by cross-breeding. It has been estimated that during 1923-24 over five million acres were under improved varieties of crops. If Rs. 10 per acre (a very conservative figure, according to the Agricultural Adviser) be taken as the additional profit made from the adoption of the improved varieties, the annual value of the crops of the country has been enhanced by five crores of rupees.

The improvements in crops can at once be translated into money and the public are able to appreciate the value of such work. But when we come to the research line it is difficult to translate the work into money year after year. The men engaged in research cannot bring out results like a manufacturer. The men have to work patiently. They have to face failures and overcome difficulties. In spite of all these it must be said that the research work has shown tangible results. The research work carried on in connection with soils deals with such problems as the conservation of soil moisture, the movement of nitrates in soils and the reclamation of saline lands. With regard to manures the investigation work is concentrated on the storage of farmyard manure, the possibility of producing artificial farmyard manure, the comparative efficiency of the different methods of green manuring and the availability of phosphates. All these problems will take time to be solved, but once they are solved they will prove to be of immense value.

Animal nutrition is a recently introduced item in agricultural research in India. In foreign countries—especially in Germany and America—much useful work has been done on animal nutrition and the work done in India during the last two or three years shows the necessity of more work along that line. The digestive powers of Indian animals seem to be greater than those of foreign animals.—Fodders considered indigestible in foreign countries are digested by our animals. We have therefore to find out the nutritive values of our cattle foodstuffs by

experimenting on our own animals and it is only then that we would be able to work out the most economic diets on the basis of the prices at which they are available.

It is now an acknowledged fact that plants are quite as susceptible to diseases as human beings and animals are. The crops sometimes suffer from fungus or insect attacks. At other time they suffer on account of the development of unfavourable bacteria or protozoa in the soil. When disease attacks the crop all the money and the energy of the agriculturist are lost. It is therefore essential that the various crop diseases must be carefully studied and remedies found out to stop their ravages. The progress along this line must naturally be slow and it is gratifying therefore to note that some of the diseases have been successfully dealt with.

It is a well-known fact that Indian cattle are free from tuberculosis. An important investigation has been started in this connection to ascertain whether the rare incidence of bovine tuberculosis in this country is due to the relatively high resistance of the indigenous breeds of cattle or to the conditions under which cattle are reared in this country. Buffaloes have been found to be much more resistant than cows, while the latter exhibit nearly as high a degree of susceptibility as British cows. It is therefore necessary to see that bovine tuberculosis, which is rare in India, is not introduced from outside. Crossing with foreign breeds is dangerous and yet we find from the Review that it is being carried on to an increasing extent. The best way of improving our cattle appears to be to breed from carefully selected local animals.

Agricultural education must form the basis of all the agricultural work and research and yet it is found that no institution giving agricultural education in India is able to attract students except the Poona Agricultural College. The old diploma courses are being changed into degree courses and that will enhance the value of some secondary colleges which are in existence. The Review is right when it says that the increasing difficulty felt by agricultural graduates in getting Government employment has played an important part in reducing the number. It is a pity that Government service is still the chief aim of those who seek agricultural education.

S.

REVIEWS.

THE NEW AFRICA.

RACE PROBLEMS IN THE NEW AFRICA. By the Rev. W. C. WILLOUGHBY, F. R. A. I., F. R. G. S. (Clarendon Press, Oxford.) 9 x 6. pp. 296. 15s.

THIS is a book of rare merit. Quite a big library of books is extant on the subject of Africa; but they are mostly books of travel dealing with the strange scenery or the wild game of the black continent and give an impressionist view of native life or at best a glowing account of missionary achievements in

those far-off lands. Very few books there are in which an attempt is made to discuss impartially the problems which arise from the contact of the Black and White races in African countries. The main purpose of the present work is to consider such problems in their relation to Bantu life and to inquire how Britain may best secure "the just treatment of the native inhabitants of those Bantu territories over which she has set herself to rule. For a right understanding of the problems, however, created by the intrusion of the Europeans into Africa, it is necessary to have at least a working knowledge of the inner life of the native tribes apart from European influences: their ancestor-worship, their belief in magic and medicine-men, the organization of their social system, &c. All such beliefs and practices and institutions of the Bantu have received adequate treatment at the hands of our author in the first half of the book. By his long residence, assiduous research and above all, by his gift of sympathetic imagination, he is thoroughly well-equipped for this task and has succeeded in interpreting native life and thought as few others have done.

The most arresting part of the book, however, so far as the general reader is concerned is the latter half, wherein the problems presented by the Europeanization of Bantu Africa are discussed. Most Britishers believe with Sir Charles Eliot that the invasion of Africa by the nations of Europe is "the greatest philanthropic achievement of the later 19th century." What a withering contempt Mr. Willoughby pours upon this fantastic claim in his chapter "The White Man's Burden—and how he got it"! The way the White Man got his Burden was generally this: first a white trader arrives in the territory of an African chief and obtains from him a treaty. The chief of course never understands the significance of this piece of paper, but in reality it transfers the sovereignty of the land from the chief to the European State to whom the trader belongs. Then come European troops to take possession of the land; then follow European civilians who impose an administration upon natives, first depriving the latter of their best land and giving it away to a handful of European capitalists. Land is however of no use to the white financiers till they are provided with cheap native labour, and the next business of the civil government always is to procure it either by directly compelling natives to work on European farms or by taxing them into labour. Mr. Willoughby has no illusions as to the "philanthropy" of European permeation of Africa. The moral justification advanced for such an invasion of course is that the native of Africa is unable to turn to account the enormous stretches of which he is master. To our author however this does not seem convincing, for he merely asks the question (and leaves it unanswered): "But is it right for a strong or intelligent man to take from a weak or ignorant owner, by force or by guile, what he thinks he can put to better use?"

The most potent instrument for civilising the primitive tribes of Africa is of course the diffusion

of a sound education, and in fact the measure of the funds devoted by a Government to the education of its natives may well be made the measure of its concern for their welfare. Applying this test, the author gives the highest place among British Governments in Africa to that of the Cape Province, where the whole cost of native education is defrayed out of State revenues, and the lowest place is assigned to the Kenya Government, whose annual expenditure on native education is less than a penny per annum per head of its native population!! The author's scheme of native education is that there should be universal elementary education up to standard IV. This should be followed by vocational training, which will fit them for the duties that await them in their after life: agriculture, stock-raising, crafts, &c. Skilled trades follow next, like masonry, carpentry, smithy, &c., but he insists that a liberal education of the highest quality must be made accessible to all natives who have enough intellectual endowment to avail themselves of it. In fact, he lays more stress on perfecting the education of a few talented persons than on producing a number of artisans and skilled labourers for the use mostly of European capitalists, for he is convinced that "though gifted men in any community are always a very small minority, they mean more for the progress of a people than all the rest." In fact, he believes with Loram, the author of *The Education of the South African Native*, that the ability of a hundred of its most gifted representatives often counts more for a nation's or a race's welfare than the ability of a million of its mediocrities." What Africa wants above everything else is that some of her sons should rise to great heights of eminence and supply the much needed leadership to their less favoured brethren. Mr. Willoughby has therefore no manner of sympathy with the interested cry of some people that intellectual education has gone too far among the African natives and that training in skilled labour or craftsmanship has lagged far behind. On the other hand he desires for the African natives nothing less than an equality of educational opportunity with the Europeans so that they will be able to furnish themselves with competent leaders of their own race.

The problem of direct vs. indirect control of tropical countries has been treated by the author at great length. He declares himself to be in favour of maintaining intact all that is not opposed to humanity in native polity, on the ground that the ultimate aim of government must be not to make African natives into good Englishmen, but to train them to govern themselves in a manner that is best suited to their national genius. In arguing thus against the direct system of administration, one fears that Mr. Willoughby has lost sight of the fact that what the critics of indirect rule object to, as Lord Raglan, e. g., did the other day in the House of Lords, is not that the native's political institutions are preserved to the extent that they satisfy modern canons of political philosophy, but that the British Government gives an artificial support to Chiefs

and Elders, who do not command and certainly do not deserve the respect of the people. The only result of creating and maintaining these puppet rulers in Africa is that the tribalism of that continent is perpetuated, though many natives have individually passed that stage.

Mr. Willoughby's chapter on the Colour Bar is very interesting and generally sound, but arguing with great skill and ability against the colour bar, he closes the chapter by supporting segregation of races under certain conditions and by pronouncing against inter-racial marriages. On segregation he writes: "No segregationists that I ever met want to segregate themselves from the blacks. They all use black labour whenever they can get it. What they want to segregate is the lands of the blacks from the lands of the whites; and *providing that there is no unfairness in the division*, there is much to be said for the proposal" (the italics are in the original). It is a proviso that has not yet been fulfilled anywhere. He is opposed to inter-marriage for the reason that "there cannot be that real harmony of spirit between Bantu and British which can alone make true marriage possible. Their general outlook upon life is a hemisphere removed from ours." This is a most disappointing conclusion to such a book, which, except for this, is so good and reliable.

S. G. VAZE.

POLITICAL CRIME.

POLITICAL CRIME. By WILFRED GEORGE CARLTON-HALL (George Allen & Unwin, London.)
7½ x 5. pp. 95. 4s. 6d.

THIS little book is the result of notes made during the stay of the author in Ireland as a member of the Territorial Force, where he served for seven months in 1919, during which period he held a special appointment which brought him into personal contact with political crime on a large scale. This experience left an impression on his mind that in this direction either the law itself or its practical administration must be very defective, and the impression was strengthened by the observation of subsequent events. This led to an investigation of the whole question by the author and the result is the present volume.

Within the short space of ninety-five pages the author has attempted with success an analytical summary of the several types of political crimes, primarily and secondarily so understood, in territories directly administered under the machinery of the British Government. The book opens with the definition of the expression "political crime" and its analysis and extension in practical affairs, with the result that "as a matter of practice the question whether in a particular case the alleged offence should be treated as directly or indirectly to be political is generally left to the discretion of those who frame the charge of indictment."

Chapter II deals with Treason and supplies good material to the student of comparative jurisprudence

regarding the evolution of that term through succeeding centuries. It is interesting to know that in 1351, in the reign of Edward III, the word "Treason" was understood to be comprehensive enough to include all acts " (1) compassing or imagining the death of the king and the queen or the eldest son and the heir, (2) violating the king's wife or the king's eldest daughter or the wife of the king's eldest son and heir, (3) levying war against the king, etc., as also (4) slaying the chancellor, treasurer or the king's judges during their duties as such." The remaining portion of the chapter is devoted to giving in short the provisions of the law of Procedure, namely, (1) what persons may be indicted for treason, (2) before which court and when the trial may take place, and (3) the punishment in the case of a man or a woman. It may be noticed that formerly a woman "was drawn to the place of execution and there burnt alive: now she may be sentenced to be hanged by the neck until dead."

In the last chapter the author has very rightly drawn the conclusion that "prosecution for treason felony and offences enumerated above do very little good, and a good deal of actual harm"; that the popular opinion would be strongly against frequent trials and executions for such offences, and that it would be difficult to secure convictions in England, and more so in Ireland. The author makes the following suggestions as a compromise:

(1) That all statutes dealing with directly political offences be drastically revised and the bulk of them repealed; (2) that the punishment for treason felony be altered to flogging; (3) that the sovereign be empowered by statute to make flogging a condition of pardon for treason. That concurrently with these legislative changes, it might be laid down as a settled administrative policy, (1) that an alleged political motive for a crime not directly political should not be regarded as a reason for the exercise of the Royal clemency, but rather the reverse; (2) that persons believed guilty of directly political crimes should be prosecuted with as little hesitation as non-political criminals; and (3) that where an outbreak of political crime is on such a scale that it is impracticable to institute proceedings in all cases, those persons should be selected for prosecution, preferably on the capital charge, who planned and instigated the rising while themselves remaining safely in the background rather than those of their dupes, often mere boys whom chance happens to bring into such a position that they can be proved to have fired a fatal shot."

We commend the book to our readers as supplying materials for a comparative study and as containing substantial elements of a driving force for reflection by every political thinker and worker.

J. R. G.

IMPERIAL FRANCE.

L'EMPIRE COLONIALE DE LA FRANCE: FORMATION, REGULATIONS DESTINEES Par VICTOR BEAUREGARD. Societe d'Editions Geographiques, Maritimes et Coloniales. Paris. 1924. pp. 47, with 20 maps. Frs. 8.

THE book is published under the patronage of the French Ministry of War and describes the expansion of the French colonial empire and its importance to France. Bismarck is said to have once remarked

that 'England has colonies and colonists, Germany has colonists but no colonies, France has colonies but no colonists.' No French imperialist will agree to that, nor does M. Beauregard. He starts with the axiom that 'France, more than any other nation, possesses the genius for colonisation' and is convinced that 'the future of France is in her colonies.' This conviction is very largely explained by the enormous increase in the military requirements of post-war France.

French colonial history divides itself into two distinct periods, the periods preceding and following the Napoleonic war. During the first period colonies were regarded as pawns on the chess-board of European warfare and politics. Between 1760 and 1815 France successively lost her hold over Canada, Louisiana, San Domingo and India. With the conquest of Algeria begins the second period of French colonial history. In 1827 the Dey of Algeria insulted the French consul by striking him in his face with a fly-whisk. France brooded over the insult for three years and in 1830 landed her army in Sidde Ferruch. She avowed no intention of conquering the country, declaring to England in order to soothe her uneasiness that she would leave the country as soon as reparations were paid. France, however, meant no more to do so than did England in promising to leave Egypt. Then for safeguarding her interests in Algeria predominance in Tunis became a 'vital necessity' and part of Morocco was annexed for equally 'vital' reasons. The French empire in Africa extends today over ten and half square kilometres with a population of 33 millions. The assassination of Bishop Diaz (1857) ultimately led to the conquest of Indo-China. In 1890 France extended her protectorate over Madagascar, a claim which England recognised in return for France waiving her opposition to the British protectorate over Zanzibar.

The total area of the French colonial empire is twelve square kilometres with a population of 55 millions. France regards her colonies as 'France-beyond-the-seas.' The objective is not freedom or autonomy for the colonies, but their assimilation into a Greater France. The author reminds us that as glorious inheritor of the Revolution, possessing instinctively the ideas of human equality and fraternity (he omits liberty), France has not only annexed to herself territories belonging to other races but their hearts as well. On the same page, however, he descends to 'the cold realities of statistics which pitilessly show the abyss to which France is drifting.' Thus while Germany adds 600,000 to her population every year, the population of France has remained stationary. With 35 millions, how after 50 years will she face Germany with her 100 millions? The hope lies in her colonies. Conscription has been decreed for all natives in French West and Equatorial Africa and Madagascar, and since 1922 the negro army is to consist of 100,000 men.

The author finds great satisfaction in the fact that while there has been great unrest in Ireland, Egypt and India, the French colonial

empire has remained calm. To suggest this as a proof of superiority of French colonial government will be sheer hypocrisy. The objective and the methods of the American rule in the Philippines are the most advanced among all colonial governments. But this has not made the Filipinos 'calm.' They are carrying on the most intensive agitation for early independence both in the Philippines and in America. Besides it is not true to say that there has been no political disturbance. The West Africans are not excessively fond of the French military recruiting methods, which take away by force, disguised or open, young men to distant lands. During the War methods were applied for recruiting which by their cruelty led to extensive uprising. The following protest from M. Clozel, then acting Governor General of French West Africa, throws light on the French recruiting methods. He wrote in December 1916: 'The political condition of the colony is still a source of perpetual anxiety to us. The drafting of 50,000 men since the close of 1915 has been the pretext as well as the occasion for a rising which has assumed considerable dimensions. In the Niger region the rising has only been mastered after six months hard fighting by forces mainly sent up from the coast' (quoted in Morel's "Black Man's Burden", p. 22.) When the backward races populating the French empire today will develop their political consciousness they may not agree to merge themselves politically in the Grande Patrie; they may not think that part of freedom is greater and better than the whole of it.

J. B. SEN.

POLITICAL PHILOSOPHY.

INTRODUCTION TO MODERN POLITICAL THEORY. By C. R. M. JOAD. (Oxford University Press.) 1924. 7 x 4½. pp. 127. 2s. 6d.

THIS is one of "The World's Manuals"—a new series of "introductory volumes", as the publishers call them, designed both for the student and for the general public. The excellence of the volume before us seems indeed to be in directly inverse ratio to both its size and its price! Prof. Joad's accomplishments as a teacher and as a writer need no encomiums from us: but we think we may say that he has never written nor taught better than in his slender little volume. We only wish that everybody in India who presumes to public spirit would get this book and lay a much needed foundation to his political thinking. For the theories that our author discusses are truly modern (as may be gathered from the portraits that go with the book—Marx, J. S. Mill's, Kropotkin's and Lenin's): so modern in fact that we fear many, if not most of them, will be altogether new to the average Indian reader—additional reason, why he should learn about them!

The only *desideratum* that one would voice is, that in future editions a chapter be added on the Catholic (or if that does not sound sufficiently modern the "Neo-Scholastic") theory of the State. For after all the whole idea of building the political concept upon Justice is the old Catholic postulate and the

moderns who eagerly strive for a Society of Nation for the rights of conscientious objectors within the nation and for an economic system based on the "just price" (to name only three very "modern" ideas), have merely come back to our old axiom that politics and economics form but subsections of the art of applied Ethics. And since Neo-Scholastic philosophy is not lacking in writers to-day who make available the old truth and apply it to the elucidation and solution of even the newest of problems, no excuse is needed for including, in a summary of all modern political theories, the newest and yet oldest of them all, since it underlies all that is most fruitful in contemporary thought and endeavour and since even many of its one time antagonists have come to think—as President Masaryk said only quite recently—that to the philosophy of Catholicism belongs not only the past, but apparently even the future.

H. C. E. ZACHARIAS.

PRIMARY EDUCATION ACTS IN INDIA: A STUDY. By J. M. SEN, M. Ed. (Leeds), B. Sc. (Cal.) With an Introduction by E. F. OATEN, Director of Public Instruction, Bengal. (Y. M. C. A., Calcutta.) pp. x + 88. 8 as.

THE Education Committee of the Calcutta Y.M.C.A. propose "to issue from time to time pamphlets which deal with practical subjects of public interest." The one under review is the first of the series and will be welcomed by the public as helping to create well-informed public opinion in regard to a subject of such far-reaching importance. For "the capital of a country does not consist in cash or paper, but in the brains and bodies of the people who inhabit it." The author takes as the starting point Mr. Cotton's review of Indian educational problems undertaken in 1899 and takes the reader through the different stages through which it has progressed. During this rapid review of the Indian educational position the usual familiar land-marks, viz. the Government of India's resolution of 1904, Mr. Gokhale's famous resolution and Elementary Education Bill of 1910 and 1911 respectively, the King Emperor's hope-giving pronouncement of January 6, 1912, the Government of India's 1913 resolution, meet one's eye. The pamphlet is divided into three chapters, the first of which gives much useful and statistical information and brings the narrative up to 1917. The second chapter opens with Mr. Montagu's famous announcement of Indian policy made on August 20, 1917, and is principally devoted to a summary of the leading provisions of the several provincial Educational Acts. The summary of Mr. Biss's two exhaustive reports which follows in the next chapter might have been more suitably given in the second chapter. "The progress after the passing of the Acts" is recorded in the third and last chapter, where the author also indulges in some general remarks. The critical 'study' relates more to the Bengal Act than to that of any other province and the title of the book strikes one as somewhat inaccurate on that account. All the same, it may be usefully read by all students of the educational problem in India.

D V A

CORRESPONDENCE.

AGE OF CONSENT BILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE SERVANT OF INDIA.

SIR, —Your number of 2nd April has just reached me, and I have read in it your paragraph on the Age of Consent Bill with great interest, but with not quite complete agreement.

I hope that you will consider that the interest I always took in the subject while I had the privilege of serving in India justifies me in writing a few words in reference to your remarks.

I am certainly not concerned to defend the attitude of the Government of India. We all know that the Government of India, or, in other words, those cautious gentlemen who spend most of their lives in doing sublimated clerical work in the Secretariats of Simla and Delhi, and in clinging like limpets to their positions, are invariably at least a generation behind the times, and have above all a horror of fresh air. We must realise also that as long as legislation of this kind is centralised in the Government of India, the advanced Provinces will always suffer for the sake of safeguarding the prejudices of more primitive regions.

At the same time I think that you have failed to grasp that passing a Law is not the same thing as enforcing it, and that you have directly misread the lesson contained in the case you cite in your last sentences.

You state that a child wife of thirteen was admitted into a hospital for her third confinement, and you seem to infer that if the age of consent for married girls had been raised as proposed from twelve to fourteen, such a crime would be impossible. This is where you are wrong. That child wife must have been raped by her husband at the age of ten, at latest, and under the existing Law this is a crime, and each act of intercourse until the age of twelve was, and under the Law as it is, continues to be, a crime. Yet crime though it was, the husband was apparently unpunished. No steps have been or will be taken under the Law. In other words, even the existing Law is ineffective. Raise the age another two years, and the Law will become even less efficacious. The simple fact is—and you must recognize it—that public opinion as a whole is not yet in favour of these restrictions. Public opinion as a whole disapproves of the intervention of Government and its Courts between husband and wife, even when the husband is a lascivious old brute and the wife a mere child.

I do not mean to say that the age of consent should not be raised to fourteen, but I do mean to say that it is your duty, and the duty of every thinking Indian, to prepare and educate public opinion till it becomes possible to enforce a Law instead of placing it merely on the Statute Book. It is also no use confusing the issue by proposing different ages of consent for unmarried girls. Offences against unmarried girls are rare compared with the vast number committed by husbands against the children who are unfortunate enough to be their wives, and I have yet to learn that a marriage ceremony confers any immunity against physical disaster. —Yours, etc.

OTTO ROTHELD.

London, April 24.

MISCELLANEA.

ANTI-OPIUM TREATMENT.

THE following interesting details of anti-opium treatment in an important hospital in Malaya were furnished to the *Malay Mail* by Mr. Tan Pow Tek, Chairman of the Klang branch of the Selangor Anti-Opium Society.

From January 26, when the Anti-Opium Ward at the District Hospital, Klang, was opened, up to March 31, the Klang branch of the Selangor Anti-Opium Society had issued 225 admission tickets, of which 219 were presented by applicants for admission into the ward. Of the 225 tickets issued, four were not presented; one was cancelled, and one was lost by the applicant. Five tickets out of the 219 were issued to female applicants, who received their anti-opium treatment in the female ward.

Out of the 219 persons admitted, eight were under 25 years old, 36 between 26 and 30 years, 93 between 31 and 40, 61 between 41 and 50, 18 between 51 and 60, and three above 60 years. The youngest was 23 years, and the oldest 66. None

of them showed any reluctance to give their age, but a good many hesitated to tell the duration of their addiction to opium smoking. They had usually had a break of the opium habit at intervals, when jobless and moneyless, and relapsed into the habit as soon as they were in funds again.

OCCUPATIONS OF SMOKERS.

Of the 219 applicants, 31 were rubber tappers and weeders, 22 vegetable and rubber planters, 21 rikisha pullers, 31 carpenters, 19 masons, 16 unskilled coolies, 16 petty shopkeepers, 19 hawkers, 9 fishermen and fishmongers, 8 boatmen, 6 painters, 4 car drivers, 4 bullock-cart drivers, 3 clerks, and 27 others, such as shoemaker, woodcutter, building contractor, coffee dealer, tomb-stone maker, goldsmith, tinsmith, blacksmith, key-repairer, cobbler, confectioner, head coolie; and a few were unemployed.

Of the 219 inmates who received treatment, 66 left the ward within ten days, 72 between 11 and 19 days, 41 between 20 and 21 days, 40 still remained in the ward on the evening of March 31. Of those who did not complete their 21 days' treatment, only six absconded, eight were discharged for bad conduct (that is, leaving the ward and going to town without permission), and two were discharged for treatment of other ailments in other wards. Though the majority of them left before the fixed period, they were in most cases cured of their habit and had no more craving for opium; for they had received sufficient atropine injection and other medicine and did not wish to remain longer. Many of these men had smoked daily 1 or 2 packets of chandu.

Nearly all the inmates complained that they felt hot and uncomfortable after the atropine injection, and bathed many times daily. For the first few days many of them could not take any food, as their throats were usually hot and dry, and they had no appetite for rice food—they were given milk and bread in place of rice. At night time they could hardly sleep, so some tried to pass the time playing chess and "ausek," while others sang and joked. This is one of the reasons why some patients absconded. After a week or ten days, when their craving was gone, all the men had a very strong appetite for food, and three to five cupfuls of rice at a time could be easily taken. At about this time of treatment they found three meals a day insufficient for them, and had to steal out to town at night time for some lunch of rice gruel before they could go to bed. This is another reason why some of them could not remain longer in the ward.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

- ARGUMENTS FOR IMMEDIATE PHILIPPINE INDEPENDENCE. By VICENTE G. BUNUAN. (Philippine Press Bureau, Washington.) 1924. 9 x 6. pp. 59.
- A WHITE WOMAN AMONG THE MASAI. By MARGURITE MALLETT. (Fisher Unwin, London.) 9 x 5½. pp. 128.
- THE WORKERS' STANDARD OF LIFE IN COUNTRIES WITH DEPRECIATED CURRENCY. (International Labour Office, Geneva.) 1925. 9½ x 6½. pp. 182. 3s. 6d.
- METHODS OF STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT. Report Prepared for the International Conference of Labour Statisticians. (International Labour Office, Geneva.) 1925. 9½ x 6½. pp. 66. 1s. 3d.
- METHODS OF COMPILING COST OF LIVING INDEX NUMBERS. Report prepared for the Second International Conference of Labour Statisticians. (International Labour Office, Geneva.) 1925. 9½ x 6½. pp. 64. 1s. 3d.
- ANNUAL REPORT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF DEFENCE for 1924. UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA. 1925. 9½ x 6. pp. 34.
- REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION for 1923. BRITISH GUIANA. 1924. 12 x 8. pp. 140.
- REPORT OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE PROVINCE OF BRITISH COLUMBIA, 1923-24. 10½ x 7½. pp. 181.
- REPORT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, BRITISH COLUMBIA, 1923-24. 10½ x 7½. pp. 135.
- REPORT OF THE MINISTER OF PUBLIC WORKS, BRITISH COLUMBIA, 1923-24. 10½ x 7½. pp. 195.

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